Advanced Placement

U.S. History

Reviewing for the Examination

Pre-Columbian America to War and Terrorism (2000s)

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Contents

Introduction

Advanced Placement U.S. History, Reviewing for the Examination is a college-level unit for high school advanced placement students. Lessons require students to process information in order to understand continuity and change in American history. Students use a wide variety of sources to develop reasoning and critical thinking skills. Students develop an understanding of the relationships among unit themes and concepts. They analyze documents, read historical interpretations, and write thesis sentences, short essays, and document-based responses. Students use historians' skills to understand how America has changed and adapted to meet needs that emerged during various periods in the country's development.

This book provides a series of review lessons in preparation for the Advanced Placement examination. Students review the role of the individual in effecting change and assess the impact of key individuals in American history. They examine the flow of the major themes of U.S. history and survey the sweep of those themes. Students analyze and assess both foreign and domestic policy, noting significant developments and changes over the course of American history. They hone their geography skills as they map American territorial acquisitions, as well as trace U.S. history through geography. Students review the struggles and triumphs of various groups, including African Americans, women, and Native Americans, in efforts to guarantee their rights and secure legislation to protect those rights. Students analyze and interpret art, literature, and popular entertainment in order to understand better the eras that produced them. Students review American history through examination of presidential mottos and memorable quotations, and they assess the effectiveness of recent administrations. They evaluate the impact of key books, pamphlets, and documents in the evolution of American society. Finally, students review the course of American history by examining major conflicts.

Assumptions and Goals

Basic assumptions define the core principles of social studies, while goals clarify how the basic assumptions may be supported.

1. History is evolutionary. To understand that process, students need to analyze how and why changes occur.
2. An understanding of history's recurring themes enlightens students' perspectives on specific events.
3. Developing critical thinking skills is fundamental to understanding history.
4. The discipline of history requires reading, writing, and thinking skills, including analysis and synthesis.

The following lessons provide practice leading toward mastery in each of these areas.

The historical process has evolved over time and is based on recurring concepts and themes, which are supported by the development of certain skills such as reading, writing, mapping, and critical thinking. This process has resulted in the preservation of the human experience for posterity and reflects the problems and successes people and nations have encountered. Concepts represent things, thoughts, or actions which have certain characteristics in common and usually reflect some form of mental or physical interaction. Themes demonstrate a relationship between and among concepts. Objectives identify what behavior the student is to demonstrate to indicate a standard of acceptable performance.

Objectives

1. To acquire a conceptual knowledge of history
2. To interpret and organize factual material independently as a basis for developing higher-level thinking skills
3. To study historical events and draw conclusions about them
4. To practice skills in clear communication of ideas
5. To improve essay writing skills
6. To understand personal values and their relationship to history
7. To understand the evolution of the United States

Using the Course Materials

Advanced Placement U.S. History, Reviewing for the Examination is an integral part of a four-book teaching program that presents U.S. history conceptually. Since the series is designed for advanced placement classes, lessons stress underlying causes and effects rather than mere accumulation of factual data. The authors assume that teachers will assign appropriate readings and that students have, in advance, at least a textbook understanding of the content.

This manual includes thirty-two lessons and a variety of student handouts. Student handouts are intended as both in-class work and homework. The lessons suggest ways of using the handouts as well as answers to questions posed. Students may need additional paper to complete some handouts. The lessons are flexible, allowing adjustment according to specific educational goals, students' needs, and availability of materials and equipment. Many lessons easily lend themselves to expansion over several days of class.

The cross-reference chart on page ix facilitates evaluation of the lessons and the book as a whole. It provides an analysis of the unit's incorporation of major themes and concepts. The chart also details the lessons' development of specific critical thinking skills.

Cross-Reference Section

Concepts*

1. Civil rights
2. Compromise
3. Conflict
4. Conservatism
5. Culture
6. Democracy
7. Depression
8. Domestic policy
9. Equality
10. Expansionism
11. Feminism
12. Foreign policy
13. Historical change
14. Historical continuity
15. Historical interpretation
16. Immigration
17. Imperialism
18. Industrialization
19. Internationalism
20. Isolationism
21. Judicial review
22. Leadership
23. Liberalism
24. Migration
25. Political party
26. Reform
27. Religious diversity
28. Science and technology
29. Strict vs. loose interpretation
30. Third party

Themes*

1. A democratic society encourages but does not ensure equality of opportunity and equality before the law.
2. Conflict may be resolved by compromise and change; otherwise, it may lead to violence.
3. Individuals and groups tend to interpret historical events in terms of their own experiences, values, and points of view.
4. The more complex society becomes, the greater the need for effective leadership, human interaction, and interdependence.
5. Power can be used to achieve both constructive and destructive ends.
6. Through government and other organizations, society modifies and regulates the market economy in an effort to achieve economic justice, stability, freedom, and growth.
7. A time lag exists between the occurrence of a problem and identification of it, as well as between recognition and a possible solution.
8. Arts and literature generally reflect society.

*See cross-reference chart, page ix.

Skills*

1. Interpret what is read by drawing inferences
2. Distinguish between fact and opinion
3. Identify and evaluate cause and effect relationships
4. Recognize author bias
5. Read for a variety of purposes: to evaluate, analyze, synthesize, answer questions, form an opinion, and skim for facts
6. Define relationships among categories of information
7. Identify relevant material
8. Interpret visual reflections of history
9. Evaluate diverse sources of information
10. Ask perceptive questions
11. Challenge generalizations about history in light of specific facts
12. View events from several perspectives
13. Form a simple organization of key ideas related to a topic
14. Restate major ideas of a complex topic in concise form
15. Compare and contrast historical events and trends
16. Relate specific events to recurring themes in American history
17. Recognize values implicit in a situation and issues that flow from them
18. Develop valid thesis statements
19. Arrange supportive data in chronological order and in order of importance
20. Communicate effectively both orally and in writing
21. Write a well-developed paragraph
22. Write a well-organized and well-developed essay
23. Recognize instances in which more than one interpretation of factual material is valid

*See cross-reference chart, page ix.

Cross-Reference Chart

Lesson	Concepts	Themes	Skills
1	5, 13, 14, 15	8	6, 13, 15, 18
2	16, 24, 27	1, 3	9, 10, 12, 15, 17, 20
3	5, 13, 22, 26	4, 7	3, 7, 13, 17, 20, 21
4	6, 15	1, 3	1, 13, 15
5	1, 6, 8, 9, 11, 13, 22, 26	1, 3, 7	5, 6, 7, 9, 13, 20, 22
6	1, 6, 10	1, 2, 8	1, 8, 9, 12, 20, 22
7	10, 12, 17	3	5, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 16, 20
8	12, 17	3, 5	8, 10, 12, 21
9	1, 3, 9	1, 3, 7	5, 6, 7, 10, 13, 17
10	1, 4, 11, 23, 26	1, 3, 7	5, 7, 15
11	2, 3, 10, 13	2, 7	12, 17, 20
12	1, 3, 5, 8, 10	1, 3, 5	5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 16, 17, 18, 20
13	23, 26	3, 8	3, 8, 9, 17, 22
14	8, 12, 13, 14, 16, 25, 26	1, 2, 5, 7	3, 7, 15, 16, 19
15	1, 9, 12, 22	4, 5, 7	1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 23
16	1, 3, 5, 6	1, 2, 3	1, 7, 10, 13, 16, 21
17	8, 12, 13, 14	5, 7	7, 13, 19
18	1, 5, 8, 9, 11, 22, 26	1, 3, 7	1, 9, 10, 17, 18, 20, 22
19	1, 3, 5, 11, 16, 18, 28	1, 4, 7	5, 6, 7, 13, 18, 21
20	8, 12	1, 2, 3	7, 16
21	8, 12	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	7, 16
22	8, 12	7	7, 16, 17, 19
23	3, 8, 12	2	7, 19
24	3, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20, 22	2, 3, 5	5, 7, 9, 13, 16, 20
25	8, 12, 22	4, 5	10, 19
26	7, 8, 13, 22	3, 6, 7	1, 9, 12, 20, 23
27	1, 3, 8, 9	1, 5	1, 7, 9, 17, 20
28	8, 18, 28	4	1, 8, 9, 18
29	8, 13, 25, 26, 30	3, 4	5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 20
30	2, 3, 12, 19, 22	2, 4, 5	7, 10, 13, 20
31	5, 13, 15	8	5, 7, 13, 15, 20, 21
32	15, 21, 22, 29	3, 7	5, 7, 10, 14, 20

AP* U.S. History Curriculum Correlations

The lessons are also correlated to the Historical Thinking Skills and Thematic Learning Objectives outlined in the College Board's framework for the AP U.S. History curriculum. You can use these correlations to target specific skills or themes you wish to emphasize to your students. The correlations are as follows:

Historical Thinking Skills

I. Chronological Reasoning
II. Comparison and Contextualization
III. Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence
IV. Historical Interpretation and Synthesis

Thematic Learning Objectives

- Identity (ID)
- Work, Exchange, and Technology (WXT)
- Peopling (PEO)
- Politics and Power (POL)
- America in the World (WOR)
- Environment and Geography—Physical and Human (ENV)
- Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture (CUL)

In addition to identifying the main skill types and themes covered in each lesson, the correlations also include specific skills and sub-themes.

Lesson 1

Literature in America: Colonial Era to the Present

Objectives

- To know the major writers and important themes of key periods in American literature
- To understand how literature reflects the social, economic, and cultural influences of the period in which it is written

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-3: Explain how cultural values and artistic expression changed in response to the Civil War and the postwar industrialization of the United States

CUL-6: Analyze the role of culture and the arts in 19th- and 20th-century movements for social and political change

Notes to the Teacher

Literature plays various roles in relation to history. A text may reflect current events, attitudes, and themes; it may overtly and self-consciously reject contemporary thinking and mores; it may even help to shape history, as Thomas Paine's and Thomas Jefferson's work did. Knowing major authors and works is important for students, not merely to prepare for the Advanced Placement exam, but to attain cultural literacy. Many of the works reviewed in this lesson are usually included in a course in American literature, as well as mentioned in Advanced Placement U.S. history texts, so students should find them familiar.

The selection of texts listed is not exhaustive. Authors have been selected for their connection to history. Some well-known authors, like Emily Dickinson and Edgar Allen Poe, are omitted because their works reflect more inner imagination than historical context. Contemporary writers from a wide range of ethnic groups, such as Amy Tan, Maxine Hong Kingston, N. Scott Momaday, Leslie Marmon Silko, Sandra Cisneros, Rudolfo Anaya, Toni Morrison, and Alice Walker, have been omitted because they are not yet covered by most history texts. You should feel free to add these or other authors if you like, as time permits.

This review lesson is in two parts. First, students review works up to the early twentieth century; then they look at more recent writers. Students become familiar with the main ideas behind the texts and look for connections to history. Finally, they formulate a generalization about each of the six groups of texts.

The initial research assignment on **Handout 1** should be distributed several days before the lesson. You can assign more or fewer texts per student depending on students' other assignments. First, the teacher works with the class as a whole to guide students' understanding of historical connections and to generate hypotheses. Then students use a jigsaw method to share research and generate their own hypotheses.

You will need to bring in copies of Frederick Lewis Allen's monograph on the 1920s, *Only Yesterday: An Informal History of the 1920s*, and F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*. The purpose of this introductory exercise is to have students understand that fiction can contribute to our understanding of a period.

Procedure

1. Several days before the lesson, distribute **Handout 1**, and assign students to research the works listed. You may wish to assign a limited number of works to each student, making sure that all the works are covered.
2. To start the lesson, show students copies of three books: their textbook; Frederick Lewis Allen's *Only Yesterday*; and F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*. Have students look at the chapter on the 1920s in their textbook. Then briefly describe the contents of the other two books, and ask students the following question: Which book would be the best to teach you about the 1920s? Give them a chance to commit themselves with a show of hands, and then ask them why they voted as they did. (Possible answers include the following: The textbook gives a general picture in the context of U.S. history overall; the Allen book fills in details missing from the textbook. The novel gives the reader the feel of the period; it teaches about important themes such as the effects of World War I, Prohibition, and the stock market frenzy on individuals.)
3. Point out to students that a work of literature can reflect its own time, endorsing it or rejecting it. Alternatively, a novel or other imaginative work about a past period of time may actually reflect more the time in which it was written. (A good example of this is the popular 1990s television series *Dr. Quinn, Medicine Woman*, which featured plots dominated by late-twentieth-century liberal values played out in an 1860s Colorado setting.) Tell students that occasionally literature, such as Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* or Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, may actually help shape the times.

4. Explain to students that this lesson will give them the opportunity to review the great books which have reflected, rejected, or shaped the times in which they were written. Distribute **Handout 2**. Tell students to begin notes on the handout and to continue on their own paper.
5. Conduct a group discussion about colonial and Revolutionary writers, identifying the authors who wrote during this period, the dates of their lives, and their major works. Have students brainstorm how each author reflects or illustrates the historical period. (See the Teacher Resource Page on pages 5–10 for suggested responses.)
6. Ask students to consider the list of authors and identify the main characteristics of colonial and Revolutionary literature (didactic nonfiction, concern with religion and government, description of new territories). Have them write this information in the form of a thesis statement.
7. Continue in the same fashion with romantic and realistic literature, having students identify the topics and list the authors, dates, key works, and main ideas/connections to history. (See the Teacher Resource Page for suggested responses.) As each section of the review is completed, have students identify main themes and genres and write the information in the form of thesis sentences (*Romantic*—cult of the individual, communion with nature, emphasis on strong emotion; *Realists*—sense that the individual is not able to cope with large corporate organizations of the late nineteenth century, passion for investigative journalism and muckraking, interest in regionalism and dialects).
8. Distribute **Handout 3**. Divide students into three groups, and assign each group a section of the handout to research. Distribute additional copies of **Handout 2**, or ask students to take notes on their own paper.
9. Arrange students in groups, making sure that each group has at least one person to represent each of the areas on **Handout 3**. Direct students to share information with each other about the authors, dates, key works, and main ideas/connections to history. (See the Teacher Resource Page for suggested responses.)
10. Have groups write a thesis statement for each group of authors, summing up the major themes they pursued. Highlight the following themes for each group:

    Harlem Renaissance
    - Rejection of segregation
    - Desire for freedom and equality
    - Explorations of African-American culture

Lost Generation and Depression

- Disillusionment about World War I and postwar pressure for conformity
- Sense of despair and crisis
- Determination to survive

Dissenting Voices

- Dislike for conformity, technological progress, and capitalist society
- Against war
- Against racism

11. Direct the class to take notes as student groups share their thesis statements.
12. To summarize the lesson, ask students to imagine that their English teacher has asked them to write an essay comparing ways U.S. history has affected American literature in two different periods. Give them five minutes to write a simple outline of such an essay.

Suggested Responses to Handout 2

Colonial and Revolutionary America

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History
Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca	1490?–1557?	*La Relación* (The Report)	First-person narrative of harsh conditions endured by Spanish expedition walking from Tampa Bay to Mexico; includes relationships with indigenous peoples
William Bradford	1590–1657	*Of Plymouth Plantation*	Handwritten journal by devout Puritan governor; details the first thirty years of the Plymouth colony in Massachusetts
Anne Bradstreet	1612–1672	Poems, including "Verses upon the Burning of Our House" and "Before the Birth of One of Her Children"	Poems show hardships of early American life, struggles of women to adapt to rigorous life; also reflect her strong Puritan faith
Jonathan Edwards	1703–1758	Sermon: "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God"	Fiery sermon about the hellfire awaiting sinners; a classic of the Great Awakening, a religious revival in New England in the 1730s and 1740s
William Byrd II	1674–1744	*The Secret Diary of William Byrd of Westover*	Private journal that details daily life of an educated and wealthy Virginia planter, including information on contemporary diet, medicine, slavery
Benjamin Franklin	1706–1790	*Poor Richard's Almanack*	Published annually for twenty-five years; contains advice and aphorisms urging frugality, industry, and self-improvement; secular version of Puritan ethic
Thomas Paine	1737–1809	*Common Sense*	Pamphlet attacking the British monarchy and the authority of Britain over the colonies; first work to call openly for American independence from Britain
Thomas Jefferson	1743–1826	Declaration of Independence	Statement of inalienable rights of all men, followed by summary of grievances against England and announcement of separation from England
Hector St. John de Crèvecœur	1735–1813	*Letters from an American Farmer*	Letters written by a French immigrant about his travels in New York and Pennsylvania; popularized ideal of American as a "new man"

The Romantic Era

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History
Washington Irving	1783–1859	*The Sketch Book,* including "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Headless Horseman"	Popular folk tales which established the American short story; Gothic tales reflecting the new romantic sensibility
James Fenimore Cooper	1789–1851	*The Last of the Mohicans*	Provided an idealized view of the noble savage and the frontiersman
Ralph Waldo Emerson	1803–1882	*Essays*	Part of the transcendentalist movement; emphasized self-reliance, individualism, communion with nature
Nathaniel Hawthorne	1804–1864	*The Scarlet Letter*	Uses colonial Puritan setting (Hawthorne's own ancestors) to explore themes of individual vs. society, sin and guilt, in story of a woman who committed adultery with a minister
Henry David Thoreau	1817–1862	*Walden*	A member of Emerson's transcendentalist group; describes two years of simple living in a cabin by a local pond; includes observations about nature, daily activities; rejects industrialism, modernization, "lives of quiet desperation"
Herman Melville	1819–1891	*Moby Dick*	Obsessive search for white whale destroys Captain Ahab; reflects on how the search for personal triumph can be self-destructive
Frederick Douglass	1818–1895	*Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, an American Slave*	Masterful autobiography detailing Douglass's life in slavery, his efforts to get an education, his escape to the North; probably most effective of all slave narratives
Harriet Beecher Stowe	1811–1896	*Uncle Tom's Cabin*	Sentimental novel combined with abolitionist themes became a best seller; reviled throughout South; increased sectional tensions; Abraham Lincoln on Stowe: "The little lady who started this great war"

The Realists

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History
Mark Twain	1835–1910	*The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*	Huck's escape from "sivilization" to freedom is paralleled by his companion Jim's escape from slavery; reflects desire for frontier; repudiates organized society of nineteenth century
Frank Norris	1870–1902	*The Octopus*	Novel critical of the impact of oppressive and corrupt railroads on wheat farmers in California; grim realism
Upton Sinclair	1878–1968	*The Jungle*	Novel that exposed gruesome realities and abuses in American meatpacking industry; led to regulation, although not to the socialism the author hoped for
Theodore Dreiser	1871–1945	*Maggie: A Girl of the Streets*	Naturalistic novel illustrating the effects of alcoholism, poverty, prostitution in urban life
Stephen Crane	1871–1900	*The Red Badge of Courage*	Realistic portrayal of several days of fighting in the battle of Chancellorsville; antidote to sentimentalism about the Civil War

African-American Writers and the Harlem Renaissance

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History
Paul Lawrence Dunbar	1872–1906	Poems, including "Sympathy"	African-American poet who wrote in dialect as well as in standard English; found the dialect poems easy to publish in segregated late nineteenth-century society, the others difficult; "Sympathy" portrays his frustration
Booker T. Washington	1856–1915	*Up from Slavery*	Autobiography by educator who urged freed slaves to concentrate on getting schooling in trades and agriculture, not rocking the boat politically
W. E. B. Du Bois	1868–1963	*The Souls of Black Folk*	Founder of NAACP; urged African Americans to aspire to full university educations, full voting rights, professional careers
Claude McKay	1889–1948	Poems, including sonnet "If We Must Die"	Leading poet of Harlem Renaissance who flirted with communism but rejected it; "If We Must Die" urges resistance to white assaults during 1919 race riots
Countee Cullen	1903–1946	Poems, including "Incident"	"Incident" is a deceptively simple poem about the impact of white racism on a black child in Baltimore; Cullen was Harvard-educated and highly popular
Langston Hughes	1902–1967	Poems, including "I, Too, Sing America"	Poet/novelist/playwright who emphasized beauty, hope, nobility of ordinary African Americans, in the face of segregation and discrimination
Zora Neale Hurston	1891–1960	*Their Eyes Were Watching God*	Novel written partly in dialect and without political stance by a folklorist trained in anthropology; criticized by more politically active black writers

The Lost Generation and the Depression

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History
Sinclair Lewis	1885–1951	*Main Street*	Lewis's novel of small-town America satirizes citizens for their homogeneity, disinterest in diversity, and materialism.
Ernest Hemingway	1899–1961	*A Farewell to Arms*	Portrayal of American officer in Europe during World War I; his desertion and flight to Switzerland show a generation's contempt for the war
F. Scott Fitzgerald	1896–1940	*The Great Gatsby*	Novel decries the American obsession with material success and excess; Fitzgerald is identified with the "Jazz Age"
William Faulkner	1897–1962	*The Sound and the Fury*	Reflects changing South by creating imaginary Yoknapatawpha County in early twentieth century; uses shifts in narrator and time, nonstandard punctuation and sentence structure
James T. Farrell	1904–1979	*Studs Lonigan*	Grim portrait of a young man growing up in Chicago and gradually being destroyed by poverty, lack of opportunity, and alcohol
John Steinbeck	1902–1968	*The Grapes of Wrath*	Captures horrors of the Depression as the Joad family flee the Dust Bowl for California; classic portrayal of economic desperation
Federal Writers Project	Began 1935	Oral histories, slave narratives, folktales, studies of Native American societies	Part of New Deal, this project employed more than six thousand writers, editors, and researchers in creating state guides, ethnic studies, nature studies, folklore collections, recordings of slave narratives, etc.

Dissenting Voices

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History
Richard Wright	1908–1960	*Native Son*	Protest novel portraying brutal main character as creation of white racism; Wright later targeted by FBI for ties to Communist Party
Ralph Ellison	1914–1994	*Invisible Man*	Vivid picture of isolated black man seeking his own identity while living in repressive urban society dominated by whites
Jack Kerouac	1922–1969	*On the Road*	Iconic Beat Generation novel about a group of rootless friends on a cross-country automobile trip; rejection of the American Dream as defined in postwar suburbia
Allen Ginsberg	1926–1997	"Howl"	Began the Beat poetry movement, urged complete and uncensored self-expression; decried suburbia, capitalism, modern life; description of drugs, sex in poems led to obscenity charges
J. D. Salinger	1919–2010	*The Catcher in the Rye*	Expelled prep-school student wanders New York, commenting cynically on "phonies" he has known; shows alienation from materialism of society
Joseph Heller	1923–1999	*Catch-22*	Antiwar novel set in World War II, filled with dark humor, bitterness about the absurdity of war
Kurt Vonnegut	1922–2007	*Slaughterhouse-Five*	Another darkly humorous antiwar novel, based on Vonnegut's real experiences as a prisoner of war during the fire bombing of Dresden

American Literature: Colonial Beginnings to the Early 20th Century

Directions: Use your U.S. history textbook, an American literature anthology, an encyclopedia, the Internet, or other resources to research the following works. List the dates of each author's life, briefly summarize the main idea of each work, and explain the relationship of each work to its historical context.

Group 1: Colonial and Revolutionary Writers

- Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca, *La Relación* on the Spanish explorations
- William Bradford, *Of Plymouth Plantation*
- Anne Bradstreet, Poems: "Verses upon the Burning of Our House" and "Before the Birth of One of Her Children"
- Jonathan Edwards, Sermon: "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God"
- William Byrd II, *The Secret Diary of William Byrd of Westover*
- Benjamin Franklin, *Poor Richard's Almanack*
- Thomas Paine, *Common Sense*
- Thomas Jefferson, Declaration of Independence
- Hector St. John de Crèvecœur, *Letters from an American Farmer*

Group 2: Early Nineteenth Century Romantics

- Washington Irving, *The Sketch Book*, including "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Headless Horseman"
- James Fenimore Cooper, *The Last of the Mohicans*
- Ralph Waldo Emerson, *Essays*
- Nathaniel Hawthorne, *The Scarlet Letter*
- Henry David Thoreau, *Walden*
- Herman Melville, *Moby Dick*
- Frederick Douglass, *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, an American Slave*
- Harriet Beecher Stowe, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*

Group 3: Late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Century Realists

- Mark Twain, *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*
- Frank Norris, *The Octopus*
- Upton Sinclair, *The Jungle*
- Theodore Dreiser, *Maggie: A Girl of the Streets*
- Stephen Crane, *The Red Badge of Courage*

Name:

American Literary Giants

Directions: Use the chart to record key information about great American writers.

Period:_____

Author	Dates	Key Text	Brief Summary/Significance/ Connection to History

American Literature: World War I to Mid-20th Century

Directions: Use your U.S. history textbook, an American literature anthology, an encyclopedia, the Internet, or other resources to research the following works. List the dates of each author's life, briefly summarize the main idea of each work, and explain the relationship of each work to its historical context.

Group 1: The Harlem Renaissance

- Paul Lawrence Dunbar, "Sympathy" and other poems
- Booker T. Washington, *Up from Slavery*
- W. E. B. Du Bois, *The Souls of Black Folk*
- Claude McKay, "If We Must Die" and other poems
- Countee Cullen, "Incident" and other poems
- Langston Hughes, "I, Too, Sing America" and other poems
- Zora Neale Hurston, *Their Eyes Were Watching God*

Group 2: The Lost Generation and the Depression

- Sinclair Lewis, *Main Street*
- Ernest Hemingway, *A Farewell to Arms*
- F. Scott Fitzgerald, *The Great Gatsby*
- William Faulkner, *The Sound and the Fury*
- James T. Farrell, *Studs Lonigan*
- John Steinbeck, *The Grapes of Wrath*
- Federal Writers Project

Group 3: Dissenting Voices

- Richard Wright, *Native Son*
- Ralph Ellison, *Invisible Man*
- Jack Kerouac, *On the Road*
- Allen Ginsberg, "Howl"
- J. D. Salinger, *The Catcher in the Rye*
- Joseph Heller, *Catch-22*
- Kurt Vonnegut, *Slaughterhouse-Five*

Lesson 2

Population Growth and Immigration: Change over Time

Objectives

- To review the reasons why various groups of immigrants came to the United States between 1825 and 1925
- To analyze the causes and effects of nativism and to examine the laws that resulted

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Peopling

PEO-5: Explain how free and forced migration to and within different parts of North America caused regional development, cultural diversity and blending, and political and social conflicts through the 19th century

PEO-6: Analyze the role of both internal and international migration on changes to urban life, cultural developments, labor issues, and reform movements from the mid-19th century through the mid-20th century

Notes to the Teacher

This lesson is designed to acquaint students with the impact of immigration on population growth. In the early years of the United States, when labor was scarce, immigration was welcomed. However, before the Civil War, when numbers of immigrants increased dramatically, some Americans resented immigrants because they were competition for employment and because many, especially the Irish and a lot of Germans, were Catholic. Toward the end of the nineteenth century, temperance advocates resisted immigration because wine and beer were a part of the culture of many immigrants; some evidence exists that racism and anti-Semitism were also factors in the opposition to Chinese, Jewish, and southern European immigrants.

As you copy the handouts for this lesson, you will need to make special preparations for **Handout 5**. Print enough copies of **Handout 5** for your class. Divide the copies into six sets, and label each set for a national group with the following nationalities and dates:

- Irish, 1846
- German, 1849

- Chinese, 1847
- Italian, 1889
- Greek, 1905
- Russian Jews, 1900

Also, create one large name card for each group. Print the name of the country on the name card, but leave room for an individual name as well.

The first part of the lesson uses census data to introduce students to patterns of immigration from six selected areas and to the importance of immigrants as a percent of the total population. Students then assume the identities of imaginary immigrants and research the reasons for their immigration; a panel discussion gives the opportunity to share information. Finally, students examine both positive and negative reactions to immigration, and they research the legislation that eventually restricted immigration.

Procedure

1. Ask students to name some of the restaurants in close proximity to their homes and school. They will probably include restaurants that serve Italian, Mexican, and Chinese food. Supplement with names of restaurants from your local telephone book, if necessary. Ask why these cuisines are so popular so far from their countries of origin. Emphasize that the United States has been a nation of immigrants from its beginnings.

2. Distribute **Handout 4**, and arrange students in pairs or groups of three. Ask them to review the tables and to answer the questions.

   ### Suggested Responses

   1. Immigration increased during the Gold Rush and dropped during the period of the Civil War. The legislation on immigration in the 1920s restricted immigration from Italy, Greece, and Russia, but not from China, Ireland, or Germany.
   2. Irish immigration jumped during the famine, and German immigration rose during the era of revolutions in Germany. Russian immigration fell during the period of the Russian Revolution. Immigration in general declined because of World War I. German immigration increased during Hitler's ascendancy.
   3. Nativism was strongest during all periods when immigration numbers were high. The years 1880 to 1890 and 1900 to 1910 showed the most rapid population growth overall.

3. Divide students into six groups, and give each group a name card. Then give each group a set of prepared identity sheets from **Handout 5**, making sure that each student in the group receives one. Explain

that students are to represent immigrants to the United States who are seeking citizenship.

4. Give students time to create immigrant personas, research the immigrants' nationalities, and study the time periods in which they arrived in the United States. Students should write narratives consistent with world and American history at the time.

Suggested Responses

Irish—The first large influx was because of the potato blight and resulting famine during which 1.5 million Irish emigrated and 1 million died. Resentment of the British and restrictions on religious belief also were factors. The Irish settled mainly in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore because they lacked money to buy land and had had negative experiences with farming. Many became domestic servants and laborers; some became police officers. Many became involved in Democratic politics, centered in saloons.

German—These were usually small farmers or artisans displaced by industrialization and commercial farming or political refugees from the abortive German revolutions of 1848. They settled in cities along the Mississippi like Dubuque and St. Louis and on farms in Ohio, Missouri, Texas, and Indiana. Prosperous, they often supported German schools, newspapers, theater, etc.

Chinese—Almost all male, they came for gold mining in California. When excluded by law from mining, they survived by providing food and laundry services to miners and by working as laborers. They became a major labor force for the transcontinental railroad. They suffered discrimination, legal action against them, and violence. They planned to make enough money to go back to China and buy land.

Italian—Italians left Italy looking for better economic opportunity. Eighty percent were peasants from southern Italy who had suffered from an agricultural depression; they took jobs primarily as laborers. Another group were skilled workers, including tailors and stonecutters. Ninety percent of Italian immigrants settled in "Little Italy" sections in cities and were isolated from mainstream life and politics.

Greek—These came because of suffering in Greece from Ottoman rule, war in the Balkans, and then World War I. Immigrants were overwhelmingly male; they came with the intention of returning home, but could not return after their birthplaces became part of Bulgaria and Turkey. They settled primarily in cities of the Northeast; they worked in retail, restaurants, and factories; they built railroads and became coal miners.

Russian Jews—In Russia, they were subject to laws that stated where they could live and restricted their work and educational opportunities. In 1881, the Russian government began to encourage *pogroms*, which were violent attacks on Jewish settlements. Jewish immigrants settled mainly in New York City and surrounding areas. They often worked in low-level jobs, particularly the garment industry, and were active in the labor movement. After 1917, they were often seen by authorities as radical or anarchist because of the Communist Revolution. Jewish immigrants quickly became assimilated to the mainstream.

5. After each student has had time to research the particular immigrant group and to create an imaginary persona, give each group a chance to meet together, to read each other's stories, to check the facts included, and to decide whether each character truly represents an immigrant from that period.

6. Ask each group to nominate the immigrant with the best narrative for a panel discussion. Assemble the speakers at the front of the room, and give each a name card. Have them write their immigrants' names on the cards. Meanwhile, have the rest of the students write three questions each that they would like to ask the immigrants. Sample questions include the following:
   - How long did it take you to get here?
   - How hard was the trip?
   - Where did you finally settle?
   - Did you have any trouble with immigration authorities?
   - Would you be willing to do it all over again?

   Allow students to take turns questioning the panel members about their experiences in immigrating to the United States.

7. Ask students to summarize the reasons why people immigrated to the United States and to evaluate whether or not it was a "Golden Land of Opportunity" for them.

8. Ask students what they know about recent debates in the United States about restricting immigration. (They may mention illegal immigration, border fencing, deaths connected with smuggling, and sanctuary churches.) Explain to them that immigrants have had supporters and detractors throughout history. Distribute **Handout 6**, and have students analyze attitudes toward immigrants.

Suggested Responses

Document 1—Emma Lazarus viewed immigrants as desperate refugees who would be welcomed in the United States.

Document 2—A. Philip Randolph feared that African Americans would never get jobs as long as immigrants were numerous and willing to work for low wages. He wanted total restriction of immigration.

Document 3—The Know-Nothings did not trust immigrants and so wanted to delay naturalization. They felt that even immigrants who became citizens could not be trusted to hold public office.

Document 4—Norton stated that early reactions to the Chinese immigrants in labor-starved California were positive. (Note that this attitude would shift into race hatred and violence and would end with the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882.)

Document 5—The artist implied that immigrant laborers would undercut American workers and steal their food. (Note the sentimental portrait of mother and child and the stream of faceless immigrants coming from Ellis Island.)

9. Distribute **Handout 7**, and have students complete the research.

Suggested Responses

1. *Act to Regulate Immigration (1882)*—forbade immigration of anyone likely to become a public charge
2. *Chinese Exclusion Act (1882)*—suspended entry of Chinese immigrants to the United States
3. *Alien Contract Labor Laws (1885, 1887, 1888, and 1891)*—forbade entry of workers coming in under contracts signed overseas
4. *Gentleman's Agreement (1907)*—stated that the Japanese government agreed not to issue passports to potential Japanese emigrants to the United States, and the United States in turn agreed not to pass laws preventing Japanese from coming
5. *Anarchist Act (1918)*—expanded provisions for excluding subversive aliens
6. *National Origins Quota Act (1924)*—allocated immigration quotas of 2 percent of foreign-born population from each country represented in the 1890 census, thus greatly favoring immigrants from Germany, Britain, and Ireland and severely limiting Eastern European and other immigrants

10. If time permits, have students research current immigration policies.

Immigration by the Numbers

Directions: Study the following tables, and generate hypotheses to answer the questions.

Table 1

Persons Obtaining Legal Permanent Resident Status by Region and Selected Country of Last Residence: 1820 to 1929

Decade	Germany[a, b]	Greece	Ireland[c]	Italy	Russia[d, e]	China
1820 to 1829	5,753	17	51,617	430	86	3
1830 to 1839	124,726	49	170,672	2,225	280	8
1840 to 1849	385,434	17	656,145	1,476	520	32
1850 to 1859	976,072	32	1,029,486	8,643	423	35,933
1860 to 1869	723,734	51	427,419	9,853	1,670	54,028
1870 to 1879	751,769	209	422,264	46,296	35,177	133,139
1880 to 1889	1,445,181	1,807	674,061	267,660	182,698	65,797
1890 to 1899	579,072	12,732	405,710	603,761	450,101	15,268
1900 to 1909	328,722	145,402	344,940	1,930,475	1,501,301	19,884
1910 to 1919	174,227	198,108	166,445	1,229,916	1,106,998	20,916
1920 to 1929	386,634	60,774	202,854	528,133	61,604	30,648

Table 2.1.

[a]From 1899 to 1919, data for Poland included in Austria-Hungary, Germany, and the Soviet Union.
[b]From 1938 to 1945, data for Austria included in Germany.
[c]Prior to 1926, data for Northern Ireland included in Ireland.
[d]From 1899 to 1919, data for Poland included in Austria-Hungary, Germany, and the Soviet Union.
[e]From 1820 to 1920, data refer to the Russian Empire. Between 1920 and 1990 data refer to the Soviet Union.
Table 2.1. U.S. Department of Homeland Security, *Yearbook of Immigration Statistics: 2007* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Homeland Security, Office of Immigration Statistics, 2008), 6, 8, 11.

Table 2

Nativity of the Population and Place of Birth of the Native Population: 1850 to 1930

Census Year	Total Foreign-Born Population	Total Population	Percent Foreign-Born
1850	2,244,602	23,191,876	9.7
1860	4,138,697	31,443,321	13.2
1870	5,567,229	38,558,371	14.4
1880	6,679,943	50,155,783	13.3
1890	9,249,547	62,622,250	14.8
1900	10,341,276	75,994,575	13.6
1910	13,515,886	91,972,266	14.7
1920	13,920,692	105,710,620	13.2
1930	14,204,149	122,775,046	11.6

Table 2.2.

1. How did events in the United States affect immigration?

2. How did events and conditions overseas affect immigration?

3. During what periods would you expect nativist sentiment to have been strongest?

Table 2.2. "Nativity of the Population and Place of Birth of the Native Population," *U.S. Census Bureau*, <http://www.census.gov/population/www/documentation/twps0029/tab01.html> (9 September 2010).

A Nation of Immigrants

Directions: Imagine that you are an immigrant applying for U.S. citizenship after your arrival on these shores. Complete the following exercise.

1. Choose your name, age, and other demographic information.

   Name of immigrant _____

   Age _____ Sex _____ Date of arrival _____

   Nationality _____

   Religious affiliation, if any _____

2. Write a narrative (in essay form) about yourself, adding details that are consistent with the history and culture of the time. Try to create a sense of authenticity. Consider such questions as these:
   - Why and when did you come to the United States?
   - How did you travel? Describe your journey.
   - Where did you settle?
   - What kind of work did you find upon your arrival?
   - What successes have you had?
   - What problems do you still face?
   - Do you plan to return to your country of origin? Why or why not?
   - How do you feel about your decision to emigrate?

Welcomes and Warnings: Americans React to New Immigrants

Directions: Read the following passages, and determine attitudes toward new immigrants.

Document 1

Emma Lazarus, from a poem celebrating the Statue of Liberty (1883)

"Keep ancient lands, your storied pomp!" cries she
With silent lips. "Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your teeming shore.
Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me,
I lift my lamp beside the golden door!"

Document 2

A. Philip Randolph, Black Civil Rights Activist and Labor Leader (1924)

Instead of reducing immigration to 2 percent of the 1890 quota, we favor reducing it to nothing. . . . We favor shutting out the Germans from Germany, the Italians from Italy . . . the Hindus from India, the Chinese from China, and even the Negroes from the West Indies. This country is suffering from immigrant indigestion. . . . It is time to call a halt on this grand rush for American gold which overfloods the labor market, resulting in lowering the standard of living, race-riots, and general social degradation. The excessive immigration is against the interests of the masses of all races and nationalities in the country—both foreign and native.

Document 3

"American Platform of Principles,"
The True American's Almanac and Politician's Manual for 1857,
Published by the Know-Nothings

Americans must rule America, and to this end native-born citizens should be selected for all State, Federal, and municipal offices of government employment, in preference to all others. . . .

The recognition of the right of native-born and naturalized citizens of the United States, permanently residing in any Territory thereof, to frame their constitution and laws, and to regulate their domestic and social affairs in their own mode, subject only to the provisions of the Federal Constitution, with the privilege of admission into the Union whenever they have the requisite population for one Representative in Congress: Provided, always, that none but those who are citizens of the United States, under the Constitution and laws thereof, and who have a fixed residence in any such territory, ought to participate in the formation of the Constitution, or in the enactment of laws for said Territory or State. . . .

A change in the laws of naturalization, making a continued residence of twenty-one years, of all not heretofore provided for, an indispensable requisite for citizenship hereafter, and excluding all paupers, and persons convicted of crime, from landing upon our shores; but no interference with the vested rights of foreigners. . . .

Document 4

Henry K. Norton, *The Story of California: From the Earliest Days to the Present* (1924)

If the social conditions prevailing in California in the days of '49 are recalled, it is not difficult to realize how welcome were the Chinese who first came to the country. Here were men who would do the drudgery of life at a reasonable wage when every other man had but one idea—to work at the mines for gold. . . .

The result was that the Chinaman was welcomed; he was considered quite indispensable. He was in demand as a laborer, as a carpenter, as a cook; the restaurants which he established were well patronized; his agricultural endeavors in draining and tilling the rich tule lands were praised. Governor McDougal referred to him as "one of the most worthy of our newly adopted citizens." In public functions he was given a place of honor, for the Californians of those days appreciated the touch of color which he gave to the life of the country.

Document 5

The Inevitable Result to the American Workingman of Indiscriminate Immigration (1892)

Fig. 2.1.

Fig. 2.1. Victor, *Judge,* December 24, 1892. Special Collections and Archives, Georgia State University Library.

 Name:

The Force of Law

Directions: Research each of the following measures to discover the immigrant group(s) at which it was aimed and its effect on the targeted group(s).

1. Act to Regulate Immigration (1882)

2. Chinese Exclusion Act (1882)

3. Alien Contract Labor Laws (1885, 1887, 1888, and 1891)

4. Gentleman's Agreement (1907)

5. Anarchist Act (1918)

6. National Origins Quota Act (1924)

Lesson 3

American Social Reform

Objectives

- To understand the issues of concern during two major periods of American social reform
- To identify the solutions reformers proposed and enacted

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-3: Explain how activist groups and reform movements, such as antebellum reformers, civil rights activists, and social conservatives, have caused changes to state institutions and U.S. society

Notes to the Teacher

Reform movements in the United States tend to be cyclical. The 1830s and 1840s constituted one such period of reform, touched off by the religious enthusiasm of the second Great Awakening. This age of revivalism, especially in the Northeast, was led by the preacher Charles Grandison Finney, who believed that everyone could have spiritual rebirth and reformation. This theological stance, coupled with rapid social change as towns grew into cities along the new Erie Canal, led to increased emphasis on improving conditions in a number of areas. Women were drawn into the reform movement and provided much of the leadership, in spite of their inability to vote.

The second great era of reform to be considered in this lesson is the Progressive movement. The urge of the Progressives to effect change was also religiously motivated as the practical application of the Social Gospel movement. During this period, when living conditions in run-down areas of many cities fostered crime and sickness, many ministers began speaking out about urban squalor. Protestant religious tracts like Charles Sheldon's *In His Steps* asked, "What would Jesus do?" Church members responded by founding organizations such as the Young Women's Christian Association to help the poor, elderly women, and unmarried mothers. The Young Women's Hebrew Association and the Young Men's Hebrew Association worked with Jewish immigrants to help them assimilate. Catholics were spurred on by Pope Leo XIII's letter to Catholics, the encyclical *On the Condition of Labor* (*Rerum Novarum*), which called for helping the poor and even explicitly endorsed labor unions.

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, settlement houses were built by Progressives who, unlike Social Darwinists, believed that crime, ignorance and poverty were the result of environment, not inborn traits. Appalled at immigrant living conditions documented by photographers like Jacob Riis, they built and staffed more than four hundred settlement houses; the most famous was Jane Addams' Hull House in Chicago. A middle-class movement, the settlement houses tried to teach middle-class values along with English language lessons, cooking classes, and vocational courses. As an outlet for college-educated women, the experience led to the new heavily female profession of social work and to the development of new social sciences to measure and evaluate social conditions.

Other groups of reformers preferred to settle in planned communities where they generally hoped to live communally, put their principles into action, and avoid the corruption and crime of the cities. This was the heyday of Shaker communities in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and elsewhere; Shakers believed in communal living, productive labor, celibacy, the equality of the sexes, and a ritual noted for its dancing and shaking. Members of the short-lived (1841–47) Brook Farm community in Massachusetts also believed in communal living and were supported by distinguished literary figures like Ralph Waldo Emerson, Charles A. Dana, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Margaret Fuller, and William Henry Channing. Settlers at Oneida, New York, followed John Humphrey Noyes and supported themselves by broom manufacturing, shoe manufacturing, flour processing, lumber milling, and trap manufacturing. The Perfectionists in Oneida held property in common, ate meals together, and had communal arrangements for the rearing and education of children. The Amana colonies, begun by Germans who left Europe in the1840s, succeeded in New York and then spread to Iowa, where they shared communal work, housing, and meals. They supported themselves by farming, the production of wool and calico, and crafts such as clockmaking and brewing.

Planned communities and examples of communal living continue today. Many planned communities have been created to bring people together harmoniously, with residences, businesses, stores, and schools located conveniently close together; Reston in Virginia and Columbia in Maryland are two well-established and successful planned towns. Communal living arrangements today are often based in a religion, from traditional Catholic and Buddhist monasteries and convents to the Mormon FLDS settlement in Texas which was broken up by Texas authorities in 2008. Settlement houses, including Hull House, also continue to exist and serve neighborhoods today. The national organization of settlement houses, United Neighborhood Centers of America, maintains a list of members on its Web site (http://www.unca.org). Some students might be interested in investigating services at a local settlement house.

In this lesson, students review the main issues that concerned reformers in both periods: temperance, health, education, prison reform, treatment of the mentally ill, and prostitution. They identify important reforms

achieved and well-known reformers. Students write about experiences on a typical day in a Utopian community or settlement house and discuss the survival of planned communities and settlement houses.

Procedure

1. Pose the following questions:
   - If you could bring about one real change in American cities today, what would it be?
   - How would you go about it?
   - Who would be likely to help you?
   - What would be the effects?

   Ask students to write on this topic for five minutes. Give them a few minutes to share their answers with the class as a whole.

2. Explain that there have been periods in American history when reformers joined together to address social problems, particularly urban problems, that seemed critical. Tell students that this lesson will help them review two of these periods.

3. Distribute **Handout 8**. Have students work individually or in small groups to research the information. Then conduct a discussion about their findings.

Suggested Responses

1. Temperance

   1830s–1840s—Reformers thought women were harmed by husbands drinking too much, and employers became concerned about too much missed time and even drunkenness at work. Critics of machine politics recognized that saloons were essential to the machine. The result was a major resurgence of the temperance movement and the formation of the Anti-Saloon League and similar organizations. Demands grew for laws to end saloons and eventually for laws to prohibit all manufacture and sale of liquor. Temperance leaders persuaded some states to go dry on their own.

   Progressive Era—Women's Christian Temperance Union, founded in 1873, was the largest women's organization in American history to date. It garnered some nativist support, since alcoholism was viewed as a problem of recent immigrant groups. Some violence resulted, as in Carrie Nation's attacks on saloons. Prohibition had increasing success at the state level; the Eighteenth Amendment (Prohibition) passed after World War I.

2. Health

1830s–1840s—Catastrophic cholera epidemics occurred in the 1830s and 1840s, especially in New Orleans and St. Louis. Since people didn't know about bacteria yet, they turned to other means to protect health such as a "water cure" (hydrotherapy) and Sylvester Graham's dietary restrictions, which eliminated coffee, tea, sugar, meat, and spice.

Progressive Era—Progressive reformers promoted public health reform in cities, including efforts to chlorinate water and better sanitary regulations; reformers created networks of neighborhood health clinics and dispensaries. Antismoking leagues achieved some restrictions on smoking. The 1906 passage of the Federal Food and Drugs Act gave the federal government regulatory functions. Companies could not add any ingredients that would disguise damaged food, present a potential health hazard, or be considered filthy or decomposed; foods and drugs had to be appropriately labeled. Margaret Sanger undertook the birth control movement. Temperance and antiprostitution movements also had health implications.

3. Education

1830s–1840s—Horace Mann, first secretary of Massachusetts Board of Education, reorganized the school system, lengthened the school year, paid teachers more, and began training teachers professionally in the first teachers' college. Other states expanded public education systems and added teachers' colleges. By the 1850s, all states had public elementary schools. Efforts were far more successful in the North. Western settlers were more dispersed, and in the South, only about a third of whites and no blacks went to school; after 1831, Southern states passed laws making it a crime to teach a slave to read. The Perkins School for the Blind was established in Boston.

Progressive Era—Teaching became a common profession for women. Schools were seen as agents of "Americanization" and assimilation. Public schools expanded and were bureaucratized. Children started attending school earlier and stayed later; the kindergarten movement grew. Many more high schools were built. Vocational education expanded, including grants from the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. The College Entrance Examination Board began. In

1903, E. L. Thorndike published *Educational Psychology*, opening a field of research and professional activity. John Dewey wrote *The School and Society* and *Democracy and Education*. He wanted to develop students' intelligence and put it to use in improving society.

4. Prisons

   1830s–1840s—Debtors and paupers were no longer imprisoned; new facilities were built: orphanages for children, homes for abandoned women, and workhouses for the poor. Criminals were put in better facilities, with hope of rehabilitation, although some conditions were still harsh. Solitary confinement was viewed as a tool. Overcrowding eventually led to warehousing without rehabilitation efforts.

   Progressive Era—Efforts toward rehabilitation continued. They were most successful in the area of juvenile detention, with the creation of modern reformatories and a separate juvenile court system. Parole and probation boards were professionalized. Some states started education programs for prisoners. More prisons were built to relieve overcrowding and separate classes of prisoners. Chain gangs (forced labor on roads and farms) continued in the South.

5. Treatment of the mentally ill

   1830s–1840s—Before 1820, criminals, senile persons, the mentally ill, and debtors were all locked up together; the situation of mental patients was horrible, with unheated rooms and unsanitary conditions. Dorothea Dix began new methods for working with the mentally ill. By her own count, she founded thirty-two mental hospitals, fifteen schools for the mentally ill, a school for the blind, and training facilities for nurses.

   Progressive Era—Clifford Beers started the mental hygiene movement to prevent mental illness, improve care and treatment in mental hospitals, and help people understand that mental illness can be cured. He collected data about mental illness and helped standardize psychiatric training; he also fought on a state-by-state basis for funding to humanize treatment. Modern mental hospitals, child psychiatry, and outpatient clinics to prevent mental illness or to catch it early began.

6. Prostitution

   1830s–1840s—Efforts to offer prostitutes religion, temporary shelter, and low-paying jobs in domestic service were not terribly successful. Lydia Finney founded the Female Moral Reform Society in New York City with 555 affiliates throughout country by 1840. She realized it was an economic as well as a moral issue and tried to organize charity for poor women and orphans; she published names of clients in local papers and agitated for laws against patrons as well as against prostitution.

   Progressive Era—From 1895 to 1920, there was intense activity against prostitution because of the growth of cities and the higher visibility of prostitution. Publishers used exposés of "white slave trafficking." Congress passed the Mann Act, forbidding transportation of women across state lines for "immoral purposes." Extensive investigations, surveys, and documentation of venereal disease led to local crackdowns by police.

4. Ask students what they would do if they believed in reform and it was not happening fast enough to suit them. Explain that some reformers changed their own lives to bring about reform.

5. Review the meaning of the term *Utopia* with students, and then briefly discuss the Utopian communities of the nineteenth century, including membership, means of support, and lifestyles.

6. Tell students that some reformers did not move away from the problems—they moved toward them. Review with students what settlement houses were and what kinds of activities they ran. Distribute **Handout 9**, and assign it for homework. See Notes to the Teacher for suggested responses. Note that the last question is a creative one; allow considerable leeway in evaluating answers.

7. Review the information that students have found about Utopian communities and settlement houses. Ask how many students have opted to live in each one, and then ask a few students to share their blogs or journals.

8. Ask students whether they know of any modern examples of experiments in communal living, planned communities, or settlement houses.

Suggested Responses

Communal Living

- religious orders, such as the Trappist monastery in Kentucky
- communes in the late 1960s and 1970s
- the Fundamentalist Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints (FLDS) in Texas

Planned Communities

- Reston, Virginia
- Columbia, Maryland

Settlement Houses

- Hull House in Chicago
- Community for Creative Non-Violence in Washington, D.C.

 Name:

Two Eras of Social Reform

Directions: The urge to reform American society seems to be cyclical. Two of the most important eras of reform occurred during the 1830s and 1840s and at the end of the nineteenth century. Using your textbook, the Internet, and other sources of information, research how each reform movement dealt with the following issues. List important names and organizations, and record what they tried to accomplish.

Issue of Concern	1830s–1840s	Progressive Era (1890s–1920s)
1. Temperance		
2. Health		
3. Education		

 Name:

Issue of Concern	1830s–1840s	Progressive Era (1890s–1920s)
4. Prisons		
5. Treatment of the mentally ill		
6. Prostitution		

 Name:

Home Is Where the Heart Is

Directions: Use your textbook, the Internet, or other sources to find information, and complete the writing activity.

1. Describe the following Utopian communities.
   a. Shaker settlements

   b. Brook Farm

   c. Oneida

   d. Amana

2. Instead of creating ideal communities away from the cities, some reformers chose to move into blighted neighborhoods to try to bring about change. What kinds of services were provided at Hull House, the settlement house founded by Jane Addams in Chicago?

3. Imagine that you are either a resident of one of the Utopian communities or a settlement house worker. Write a journal or blog about your experience on one particular day. Try to be as detailed as possible, and include your reactions to what you experience.

Lesson 4

Jefferson to Jackson: The Evolution of American Democracy

Objective

- To understand America's progress toward democracy between 1800 and 1840

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-6: Analyze how debates over political values (such as democracy, freedom, and citizenship) and the extension of American ideals abroad contributed to the ideological clashes and military conflicts of the 19th century and the early 20th century

Notes to the Teacher

Democracy is a process rather than a conclusion; therefore, its goals are never fully realized. This country made significant progress toward democracy in the years from Thomas Jefferson's election in 1800 until Andrew Jackson's handpicked successor, Martin Van Buren, left office after the election of 1840. By our own standards, Jacksonian Democracy had many defects.

In this lesson, students contrast Jeffersonian and Jacksonian Democracy to see the change over time. Small groups compare and contrast Jeffersonian and Jacksonian Democracy by completing a chart. In a large group, students interpret the chart and draw conclusions regarding Jeffersonian and Jacksonian Democracy.

Procedure

1. Ask students to define the term *democracy* (a government in which the people rule either directly or through elected representatives). Explain that the concept of democracy dates to the time of the ancient Greeks. Mention that the form of democracy a people practice may change over time. In addition, different eras of government have defined democracy differently.

2. Divide the class into small groups, distribute **Handout 10**, and have students complete part A.

Suggested Responses

Political

1. Suffrage
   Jefferson—Property requirement was a test of character that a man of initiative should be able to meet.
   Jackson—Property requirements for voting had been erased.
2. Office holding
   Jefferson—The educated elite should rule, but education for all could prepare poorer individuals for public office.
   Jackson—All men were qualified to hold office, and political positions should be rotated.
3. Nomination of president
   Jefferson—Caucuses of political leaders chose candidates.
   Jackson—Nominating conventions chose candidates.

Economic

4. Industrialization
   Jefferson—The consequences of industrialization were feared.
   Jackson—Industry was accepted as essential to the American economy.
5. *Charles River Bridge v. Warren Bridge* decision
   Jefferson—Corporate charters were granted to favorites of state legislators and often implied monopoly rights to a business.
   Jackson—Roger Taney, chief justice of the Supreme Court, ruled in the Charles River Bridge decision that corporate charters should be available to all who chose to risk starting a business.
6. Bank of United States
   Jefferson and Jackson—For different reasons, both disapproved of the Bank. Jefferson originally disagreed with a loose interpretation of the elastic clause, and Jackson saw the Bank as a monopoly of the rich.

Social

7. Slavery
   Jefferson—A slave owner, he saw slavery as an evil that time would eradicate.
   Jackson—A slave owner, he seemed to have little interest in abolition.
8. Women and Native Americans
   Jefferson and Jackson—Neither man saw women or Native Americans as equals; Jackson had a particularly negative attitude toward Native Americans.

9. Education
   Jefferson—An educated man, he believed education was necessary for holding office and for preparing citizens for participation in a democracy.
   Jackson—He had little education and believed it was relatively unimportant.
10. Social and Political Mobility
   Jefferson—He believed that education and ambition were keys to success; however, he was never able to build support for his proposed system of public education.
   Jackson—He ended the Bank and, with it, control over credit. The Charles River Bridge decision, handed down by Roger B. Taney, Jackson's appointee as chief justice of the Supreme Court, opened opportunities for individuals to get corporate charters and thus rise on both the economic and social ladders. Jackson, a self-made man, believed his economic progress accounted for his own upward social mobility; others could follow his example.

Religious

11. Separation of church and state
   Jefferson—Most state constitutions eliminated established churches after the Revolution.
   Jackson—Massachusetts, the last state to maintain an established church, ended the practice in 1834.

3. Reconvene as a large group, and have students complete part B.

Suggested Responses

1. By Jackson's time, all states had eliminated all property requirements for elections; uneducated males were eligible to hold office; nominating conventions were beginning to replace caucuses for the nomination of presidential candidates; corporate charters were easier to obtain; the control of rich, moneyed interests lessened; most states had eliminated established churches.
2. a. State constitutions eliminated property requirements for voting and ended the last established churches in the United States.
   b. *Charles River Bridge v. Warren Bridge* eased access to corporate charters.
   c. Political parties changed the nomination of presidential candidates from party caucuses to broader-based nominating conventions.
   d. Jackson ended the Bank of the United States and opened office holding to more individuals.
3. As the answer to question 2 shows, Jackson himself was responsible for fewer changes associated with that era than many assume.

4. Students might stress voting and access to office as the greater accomplishments; others may believe that opportunities for rising capitalists proved to have the greater impact.
5. Neither concerned himself with the inequality of women, African Americans, or Native Americans. Neither accomplished universal education, a mainstay of democratic society.
6. While one can argue that society during the Age of Jackson was more democratic than it was in Jefferson's time, practices that Americans today would consider intolerable continued with few voices in opposition. In our own time, we still struggle to achieve equality for minorities, handicapped persons, and older Americans. Equality in promotions and equal pay for equal work are other examples.

 Name:

A Democracy Undergoes Change: From Jefferson to Jackson

Part A.
Directions: Organize your research about the differences between Jeffersonian and Jacksonian Democracy by completing the following chart.

Questions	Jeffersonian Democracy	Jacksonian Democracy
Political		
1. To what extent was universal white male suffrage achieved?		
2. Which citizens were considered eligible to hold office?		
3. How should candidates be nominated?		
Economic		
4. How did each man view industrialization?		
5. How did the *Charles River Bridge v. Warren Bridge* decision affect the access to corporate charters prevalent in Jefferson's time?		
6. What was each man's attitude toward the Bank of the United States?		

 Name:

Questions	Jeffersonian Democracy	Jacksonian Democracy
Social		
7. What was each man's attitude toward slavery?		
8. What was each man's attitude toward equality for women and Native Americans?		
9. How did each man view education?		
10. How did each hope to remove obstacles to upward social mobility?		
Religious		
11. To what extent was separation of church and state accomplished in each period?		

Part B.
Directions: Use your completed chart for information as you answer the following interpretive questions.

1. In what respects was Jacksonian Democracy more democratic than Jeffersonian Democracy?

2. In what ways did each of the following contribute to the growth of democracy between 1800 and 1840?
   a. State constitutions

   b. *Charles River Bridge v. Warren Bridge* decision

   c. Changes in political party procedures

   d. Actions taken by Jackson himself

3. To what extent was Andrew Jackson responsible for changes in the period often called Jacksonian Democracy?

4. Did democratic changes in the Age of Jackson have greater political or economic impact? Explain your answer.

5. Both Thomas Jefferson and Andrew Jackson used the slogan "Equal rights for all, special privileges for none." In what respects did neither one achieve his goals?

6. How do the periods of Jeffersonian Democracy and Jacksonian Democracy illustrate the idea that democracy is a process rather than a conclusion?

Lesson 5

The Role of the Individual in Effecting Change

Objective

- To analyze the role various individuals have played in changing the world in which they lived

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-3: Explain how activist groups and reform movements, such as antebellum reformers, civil rights activists, and social conservatives, have caused changes to state institutions and U.S. society

Notes to the Teacher

A popular approach in history identifies movements that led to change across historical periods. This lesson focuses on agents of change in African Americans' rights, women's rights, and federal powers.

Nat Turner, John Brown, and W. E. B. Du Bois were instrumental in effecting change for African Americans during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Turner spoke in his *Confessions* about being inspired by God to lead a rebellion. The small and abortive attempt which resulted in his death and skinning was clearly a historical failure; however, its impact on history is significant. The Virginia legislature took up the question of the legality of slavery and only narrowly voted to retain it. Brown took inspiration from Turner's rebellion and led an equally abortive raid on the arsenal at Harpers Ferry. He, too, was quickly apprehended and executed. While many have attempted to portray him as mentally unsound, there is little real evidence to support that idea. In his own defense statement after having been condemned to die, he noted, "Now if it is deemed necessary that I should forfeit my life for the furtherance of the ends of justice, and mingle my blood further with the blood of my children and with the blood of millions in this slave country whose rights are disregarded by wicked, cruel, and unjust enactments, I submit; so let it be done."

Finally, Du Bois wrote extensively on the plight of African Americans, advocating for them and uncovering untruths about the real situation. In a brilliant article published in the 1901 *Atlantic Monthly* entitled "The Freedman's Bureau," he debated with other contemporary historians, most

notably William Dunning and Woodrow Wilson, about the real role of the African American in the Freedman's Bureau. All three of these men labored effectively for social change. Each saw the African American as a human being deserving of full equality and respect. Each struggled to overturn structures that denied such treatment. Each was, despite failure, a potent instrument of change. Nevertheless, most textbooks assign them comparatively small space. In this lesson, students investigate their roles.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Alice Paul were effective agents of change on behalf of women. Over the course of roughly the same period as the men mentioned earlier, they labored to change structures that denied equality to women. Stanton's "Declaration of Sentiments" is justly famous for its acuity in laying out the cause of women in the context of the American political independence movement. Anthony worked with Stanton to promote women's rights and, in a politically courageous move, actually voted in the 1872 presidential election. She was subsequently convicted and fined $100 for casting an illegal vote. She never paid the fine. Taking up the cause was Paul, an activist who was willing, quite literally, to put her body on the line to promote the cause of women's equality, particularly expressed in support of the Twentieth Amendment. Her famous protests outside the White House, which led to arrest and imprisonment, followed by a hunger strike and brutal force feeding, marked a turning point in the struggle for women's rights.

No less important than the struggle for African American and women's rights was a changing view of the role of government in people's lives. For most of the early history of the United States, with the exception of the U.S. Post Office, the role of the federal government in the lives of ordinary citizens was minimal. After the Civil War, things began to change; the change accelerated during the twentieth century. No doubt many individuals were instrumental in effecting change. With reference to politics and the role of government, three pairs of individuals stand out. In every case, a president was part of the change, and necessarily so, given the nature of the American political system. Theodore Roosevelt became an unlikely instrument for change. Born to a wealthy family and given a life of privilege, he nevertheless became a major force in promoting the development of federal power in the regulation of business. Ida Tarbell, a contemporary of Roosevelt, wrote a devastating critique of the Standard Oil Company, earning her the title "muckraker" from Roosevelt. Nevertheless, under Tarbell's prodding, Roosevelt established a Department of Commerce and Labor, expanding the role of the federal government in order to address the inadequacies of the Sherman Antitrust Act and, within that department, a Bureau of Corporations whose role was to oversee interstate commerce, particularly with reference to the oil industry. Roosevelt also initiated a series of lawsuits against major corporations, among them Standard Oil, which was forced to break apart. The role of the federal government in closely monitoring business activity was clearly established.

Roosevelt's cousin Franklin was even more instrumental in finding ways for the government to expand its oversight of the market and economy. Driven in particular by the exigencies of the Great Depression, he began a series of reform and recovery initiatives designed to improve the economy and the life of everyday Americans. Perhaps the most significant thinker of his day to provide intellectual support for his ideas was the economist John Maynard Keynes. He encouraged governments to engage in deficit spending in order to improve the poor economies of his day. His Open Letter to President Roosevelt in 1933 lays out significant arguments in support of Roosevelt's plans, which were being characterized by many as intrusive and beyond the proper scope of government. By the time Roosevelt was finished, even if the Depression was not cured by many or even most of his initiatives, the role of the federal government in the lives of ordinary citizens was changed forever.

Finally, and perhaps most controversially, Sargent Shriver and Lyndon B. Johnson made incredible changes in the way the role of the federal government grew and impacted the lives of ordinary citizens. An unlikely couple, these two men in many ways were not comfortable with each other. Shriver was a lifelong activist and idealist, active beyond the presidency of Johnson. For the purposes of this lesson, students will explore the role he played as a member of Johnson's administration in the creation of programs to support the War on Poverty. As a result of these programs, especially the Head Start Program, there was an unlikely but significant alliance between a southern conservative Democrat and a northern liberal Democrat aiming to promote educational opportunities for the poorest citizens in the country.

In this lesson, students are involved in basic research to uncover and connect the roles individuals played in a variety of important changes in American society. Students explore social change with reference to slavery and women's suffrage. These movements intertwined and evinced a synergy that would undergird political development for over a century. In addition, students explore political change with reference to the growth of the federal government, especially in the twentieth century. Further, they engage in analysis of sources and historiography. Note that students need access to their textbooks, the documents listed in procedure 5, and the Internet.

Procedure

1. Ask students to list the ten most important change agents in U.S. history. Allow students several minutes to work independently before listing the class's top five choices on the board. Discuss with students some of the reasons for the people they chose. (Frequently mentioned individuals include George Washington, as father of the country; Abraham Lincoln, as liberator of slaves and defender of the Union; Franklin Delano Roosevelt for the successful conclusion of World War II and the end of the Great Depression; and the wives of presidents, such as Martha Washington, Abigail Adams, and Eleanor Roosevelt.)

2. Direct students to do the exercise again, but without naming presidents. Continue the discussion, and attempt to elicit a sense of what it is that makes someone an effective agent of change. (Change agents are able to reform and/or reestablish structures of government; they make changes that endure over time; they are able to overcome significant resistance to change.)
3. Introduce the people who are the focus of this lesson by writing their names on the board:
   - Nat Turner, John Brown, W. E. B. Du Bois
   - Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, Alice Paul
   - Ida Tarbell, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, John Maynard Keynes, Sargent Shriver, Lyndon B. Johnson

   Tell students that they will examine these figures as individuals involved in bringing about significant change in history. Break students into groups, and assign each group a set of names. Direct students to use only their textbooks to find information.
4. After allowing students to share their information in small groups, lead a class discussion regarding their findings. (Depending on the textbook, each group will have experienced successes and failures. Most texts have little to no material about Paul, Keynes, and Shriver. While they might list Du Bois, he will not be integrated into the narrative as a historian who engaged in significant reevaluation of Reconstruction.)
5. Allow students access to alternative texts, as well as to the Internet. Students will find a great deal of material on the Internet. Remind students to be critical of all sources, especially those found online. Be sure that the groups examine the following documents:

   African Americans' Rights
   - *The Confessions of Nat Turner*
   - John Brown's Address to the Court
   - Henry David Thoreau's "A Plea for Captain John Brown"
   - W. E. B. Du Bois's "The Freedmen's Bureau"

   Women's Rights
   - Address by Elizabeth Cady Stanton on Woman's Rights
   - "The Declaration of Sentiments"
   - "The Trial of Susan B. Anthony"
   - "Conversations with Alice Paul—Woman Suffrage and the Equal Rights Amendment"

Federal Powers

- Theodore Roosevelt's 1906 State of the Union Address
- "The Man with the Muck-rake"
- "An Open Letter to President Roosevelt" by John Maynard Keynes
- Franklin Delano Roosevelt's Commonwealth Club Address
- Sargent Shriver's Conference on Women in the War on Poverty, May 8, 1967

Familiarize yourself with these documents to see how they cross-relate. They have been chosen carefully to speak not only to the immediate research topic of the small group, but also to the larger group.

6. When students have finished, have small groups share information. Results will depend on the sources used. Each group will have experienced successes and failures.

7. Ask students to note the differences they found between material in their textbooks and elsewhere. Invite them to speculate about the reasons for these differences.

8. Direct groups to organize their findings for a presentation to the class. Distribute **Handout 11** for students to record information.

Suggested Responses

African Americans' Rights

1. Nat Turner was a literate slave who exercised leadership in the Baptist slave community in which he lived. He rejected the status imposed on him and encouraged others to do so. He developed a set of religious beliefs rooted in a personal interpretation of Scripture that moved him to respond to what he perceived to be God's will in leading an uprising in Virginia that would become an inspiration to liberationists.

2. John Brown was a white abolitionist from Ohio. He, like Nat Turner, drew religious inspiration for his actions on behalf of slaves. He led a band of men, including his sons, some of whom engaged in an attack on proslavery men in Pottawatomie Creek, Kansas, in 1856. Afterward, he worked to secure financial support for his abolitionist work from wealthy New Englanders. He used the funds to launch a symbolic attack on the arsenal at Harpers Ferry in 1859. This attack drew positive responses from individuals such as Henry David Thoreau and negative reactions from most in the South. The ultimate result was the Emancipation Proclamation and the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

3. W. E. B. Du Bois was born a free black man after the Civil War. He studied at Fisk and was the first African American to receive a Ph.D. from Harvard University. He engaged in a significant struggle to portray the black person as an effective change agent and not merely a recipient of the beneficence of others. He wrote about this tellingly in the *Atlantic Monthly* in a major work on John Brown, in *The Souls of Black Folk*, and in a historiographical tour de force entitled *Black Reconstruction*. He encouraged the talented tenth of the black population to exercise leadership and change the structures in the black family and in society that militated against the full citizenship and development of the black person.

Women's Rights

4. Elizabeth Cady Stanton was an educated woman who from early in life was committed to women's rights, temperance, and freedom for slaves. She was involved with other women in these causes and strove to ensure that women received the right to vote, especially at the time of the passage of the Fifteenth Amendment. Her work ultimately bore fruit after her death with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment.
5. Susan B. Anthony worked for the same causes and engaged in civil disobedience to highlight the importance of her cause by casting a vote in the 1872 election. She worked on behalf of women in labor unions, fought for the children of freed slaves to have access to education, and labored to limit the sale of alcohol.
6. Alice Paul engaged in the same works as Anthony and Stanton, though focusing more particularly on the issue of women's suffrage. Like Anthony, she drew on Quaker roots that envisioned gender equality. She joined the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA) but eventually broke from it when she deemed its tactics too passive; she founded the National Women's Party. She engaged in marches and protests outside the White House and was jailed for doing so. In prison, she engaged in a hunger strike to draw attention to her cause. After the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, she devoted her life to the same causes, laboring in particular for the passage of the Equal Rights Amendment.

Federal Powers

7. Ida Tarbell and Theodore Roosevelt are an unlikely pair. Tarbell worked to expose the excesses of big business, trusts in particular. Her exposure of Standard Oil Company and other excessive big businesses in *McClure's Magazine* evidenced a

rigorous scholarship that moved public opinion significantly. For her hard work, she was labeled a muckraker by Roosevelt. Nevertheless, he worked to restrain business excesses and bust bad trusts. His greatest success in this arena came with the passage of the Hepburn Act, which empowered the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC) to regulate and limit railroad rates and rebates. Roosevelt and Tarbell worked to establish the principle that the federal government has a legitimate regulatory function regarding business, a principle that flowered during the Great Depression.

8. Franklin Delano Roosevelt and John Maynard Keynes did not actually work together, but Roosevelt used the economic principles enunciated by Keynes as the theoretical foundation for his responses to the Great Depression. He engaged in significant pump-priming to jump-start the faltering economy and provide work to countless unemployed individuals. Roosevelt significantly reshaped the role of the federal government in the lives of ordinary citizens. His programs, which are too many to enumerate, demonstrated significantly that the federal government saw itself as responsible for the lives of the citizens. This change in focus has become an enduring feature of political and economic life in this country, even down to the federal bailouts early in the twenty-first century.
9. Lyndon B. Johnson and Sargent Shriver were heirs to the notion that the government has the duty to intervene in the economics of the country in times of need. Shriver worked for Johnson in his War on Poverty. They worked together to develop programs such as Head Start, designed to improve the educational chances of underprivileged children; Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), which mobilized a small army of young American volunteers to work with the poor; and the Peace Corps, which still sends Americans to foreign lands to work in education, youth outreach, and community and environmental development. These programs and initiatives extended the commitment of the federal government to meet the needs of ordinary people, especially the poor.

9. Conclude the lesson by assigning the following essay:

   Analyze the degree to which an individual can be an effective agent for change. Use information about African Americans' rights, women's rights, and the evolving roles of the federal government to support your ideas.

 Name:

Key Individuals Who Effected Change

Directions: Use the following chart to document the roles of change agents in U.S. history.

Change Agent	Accomplishments	Outcomes
African American Rights		
1. Nat Turner		
2. John Brown		
3. W. E. B. Du Bois		

Name:

Change Agent	Accomplishments	Outcomes
Women's Rights		
4. Elizabeth Cady Stanton		
5. Susan B. Anthony		
6. Alice Paul		

 Name:

Change Agent	Accomplishments	Outcomes
Federal Powers		
7. Ida Tarbell and Theodore Roosevelt		
8. Franklin Delano Roosevelt and John Maynard Keynes		
9. Lyndon B. Johnson and Sargent Shriver		

Lesson 6

Nineteenth-Century American Art: Two Views of Democracy

Objectives

- To examine and analyze works of art and artistic expression in nineteenth-century American history
- To develop critical thinking and writing skills

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-2: Analyze how emerging conceptions of national identity and democratic ideals shaped value systems, gender roles, and cultural movements in the late 18th century and the 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

For the first time, in the election of 1828, America elected a president who had not spent most of his life in one of the original thirteen colonies. A frontiersman and a champion and supporter of the common man, Andrew Jackson was born in South Carolina; he spent most of his life and career in Tennessee. The notion of the common man did not begin with Jackson, though; he was a product of it. His election was symbolic of the common man's triumph—and the Federalists feared the rule of "King Mob."

In 1815, states were becoming more democratic and had begun to modify their original constitutions to provide more inclusive voting rights. Most eastern states were losing population to the western territories, which did not restrict voting qualifications. With the loss of population came the loss of political power, and questions of suffrage were debated all across the country as constitutional conventions reassessed voting requirements. There was tension between those who wanted to preserve the traditional voting requirements and others who advocated enlarging the franchise. This tension spread to all parts of America, including literature and works of art.

The works of art for this particular lesson can be found in art history textbooks or online. They include the following pieces:

- *The Peaceable Kingdom* by Edward Hicks
- *Canvassing for a Vote* by George Caleb Bingham

- *Leisure and Labor* by Frank Blackwell Mayer
- the series entitled *The Course of an Empire* by Thomas Cole

Digital images and art slides of these works can be purchased through online vendors such as Universal Art Images (http://www.universalartimages.com) and Davis Art Images (http://www.davisart.com).

In this lesson, students research, analyze, and discuss some of the great works of nineteenth-century American art within the context of the debate over universal male suffrage. Students read excerpts from the 1821 New York Constitutional Convention. They research and analyze various historical figures and works of art. To conclude, students respond to a document-based question. This essay can be completed in one class period, and it is useful as an assessment tool.

Procedure

1. Write the word *democracy* on the board, and ask students for a definition (a political system in which all citizens are allowed to participate in the voting process). Ask for examples of both the positive and the negative consequences of democracy. (Positive consequences are that all are treated as equals and that the will of the majority prevails; negative consequences are that everyone's vote counts the same and that the will of the majority is not always right.) Record responses.

2. Explain that students are going to explore some of the nineteenth-century American romantic artists and their works of art. Explain that the romantic movement began at the end of the eighteenth century and continued into the early part of the nineteenth century. Common characteristics of romantic art include loose brushstrokes, asymmetrical images, and paintings of common people or nature. Note that landscape painting really began with the romantic movement.

3. Show students the selected works of art (see Notes to the Teacher), and ask them to share any responses and previous knowledge they might have.

4. Distribute **Handout 12**, and assign it as either an individual or a small group project. Encourage students to use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources. Remind students that they are responsible for sharing their information.

Suggested Responses

> 1. Edward Hicks (1780–1849) was born in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, was raised in a Quaker household, and became a popular and prominent Quaker minister. He devoted much of his life to the Society of Friends and traveled widely from Canada to Virginia. While earning a considerable reputation as an artist, he specialized in decorative painting. His most

notable works include *The Peaceable Kingdom, Noah's Ark,* and *The Cornell Farm*.

The Peaceable Kingdom (1834) is based on the biblical passage *Isaiah 11:6*, a vision of harmony on earth, with the Garden of Eden restored.

The animals include species that are not indigenous to North America, so they could symbolize immigrants.

The political message is clear here: The animals get along, and so should we. The animals also symbolize the natural world as opposed to the civilized world, which is represented by the people in the corner.

The scene of the people reflects Benjamin West's famous *Penn's Treaty with the Indians*. The world of nature has priority over the civilized world. Peace, harmony, and Christian love dominate the images of this painting.

2. George Caleb Bingham (1811–1879) was born in August County, Virginia, but raised in Missouri. Apprenticed to a cabinetmaker, Bingham eventually studied art at the Pennsylvania Academy. At first, Bingham produced portraits and images of the Missouri River, illustrating the manners and social behavior of the people who lived on it. After he studied in Germany at the Düsseldorf Academy, his paintings began to lose their local flavor and their appeal to most Americans. After the Civil War, Bingham entered politics and later, toward the end of his life, was a professor of art at the University of Missouri-Columbia. His most notable works include *Fur Traders Descending the Missouri, Canvassing for a Vote, Daniel Boone Escorting Settlers through the Cumberland Gap, The Jolly Flatboatmen,* and *County Elections.*

   Canvassing for a Vote (1851) is set in a rural community. The man in the top hat is the outsider, carrying his bags with him. He is interested in getting his message out to the people. We are to assume he is a politician, based on the title of the painting. The others in the painting are passively listening to his message.

   After the Civil War, Bingham became involved in politics; his interest in the democratic process is evident in much of his artwork, and many of his paintings are of the political process. This painting symbolizes the triumph of the common man of Jacksonian Democracy.

3. Frank Blackwell Mayer (1827–1899) was born in Maryland. Mayer documented the history of Maryland through his art. His most notable paintings include *Leisure and Labor, Independence (Squire Jack Porter),* and *The Continentals*.

Leisure and Labor (1858) is somewhat puzzling at first glance; many interpretations of this painting come to mind.

The two main figures represent different classes of society; the one on the left is a laborer, and the one on the right is not. The man on the left is a black man; the one on the right is a white man. When this work was painted, slavery was on the forefront of most people's minds, so the painting could be a statement about slavery; however, this was probably not Mayer's intention.

This painting has a touch of realism and is probably the kind of scene one would have encountered on a daily basis, especially in Maryland, a slave state. The title helps us to interpret the painting more than the actual image. The notion of leisure and labor was strong in antebellum America.

4. Thomas Cole (1801–1848) was born in Lancashire, England, but his family came to America when he was a teenager. Trained as an engraver of woodblocks, Cole desperately wanted to become a landscape painter, and he studied art at the Pennsylvania Academy. When he began painting scenes of the Hudson River, he was recognized as America's leading landscape painter and was one of the founders of the Hudson River School of Art, the first uniquely American art movement. His most notable works include *The Voyage of Life, The Course of Empire*, and *The Oxbow*.

   The Course of an Empire is a series of paintings about the development of an imaginary empire, from its birth to its eventual downfall. It was commissioned by Luman Reed, a collector of American art, in 1833 and was completed in 1836.

   Cole combined landscape art with historical analogy and a message about humankind and the society into which America was evolving in the first half of the nineteenth century.

   The first painting, *The Savage State*, depicts the image of an untamed wilderness at the dawn of civilization.

   The second painting, *The Arcadian State*, depicts the transition from a hunter-gatherer society to a permanent civilization and represents humanity's mastery of nature. The painting contains buildings, boats, farmers with cultivated fields and cattle, and figures learning and dancing.

   The third painting, *The Consummation*, portrays civilization at the height of the evolutionary process and illustrates the wealth, power, and knowledge that helped establish it.

   The fourth painting, *The Destruction*, shows the empire being torn apart by a savage humanity and by nature. The bridge symbolizes the empire's fall from its apex.

   In the fifth and final painting, *The Desolation*, Cole depicts the full circle of evolution. The empire is no more; there are only

faint traces of its existence still left, and nature once again dominates the scene. Cole's meaning is quite complex. First, the painting shows the cyclical nature of human civilization. Second, the painting is a parable of what will happen if democracy consumes a society. "King Mob" will destroy society. Third, the painting could be about the nature of extravagance and luxury within society. Fourth, the painting could be a warning about the growth of industrialization and its damaging effects. Overall, the theme is clear; all societies are subject to the same laws of nature.

5. Distribute **Handout 13**, and have students read the excerpts in part A. Use the questions in part B as the basis for class discussion.

Suggested Responses

1. As the country grew, more people demanded more rights. People moved west and the resulting loss in population of the East had political ramifications, because loss in population meant a loss in political power. Western states and territories were more democratic, and immigrants played a role in the demands for an extension of democracy.
2. To support James Kent's argument, some students might emphasize the original intent of the Founding Fathers to restrict voting to the educated and property owning class. Even in a democracy like the United States today, a large number of the population chooses not to participate in the election process. A weakness of democracy is that the will of the majority is not always morally right, such as the belief in the ethical nature of slavery. To support Nathan Sanford's argument, some might emphasize the value and equality of all individuals as implied in the Declaration of Independence. Universal white, male suffrage was built into the language of the Founding Fathers, even if they lacked consistency. Democracy implies that all are equal and that the will of the majority should prevail in political decisions.
3. The two most popular images chosen will probably be Bingham's *Canvassing for a Vote* and Cole's *Course of an Empire: The Destruction*.
4. Landscape was a popular theme, even though technically none of the paintings observed in this unit are specifically landscape paintings. Cole's paintings present landscapes with morals. There was a focus on the "common man" image; the heroes of the neoclassical movement were gone; we see lots of natural scenes, with attention and focus on the character of America through natural images.

5. American artists trained in Europe and were influenced by European art movements. There were no patrons for American art, which was not independent of its European cousin. American art portrayed American images, but the majority of the images portrayed were the same as those being produced by European artists. While romanticism is not specific to America, the artists in America focused on American images and American scenes and were determined to set themselves apart from their European counterparts and separate themselves from the rest of the world.
6. The content of the much more polished neoclassical works tended to focus on important figures or events. The romantics, whose works varied as to style and techniques, tended to concentrate on natural beauty or the image of the common man. The differences were tied directly to the political and social environment of the times. During the neoclassical period, it was important to show patriotic images in hopes of garnering political support for the American Revolution; during the romantic period, the two main images in the public's mind were the spread of democracy and the westward expansion of the United States, and these two images were subjects of art as well.

6. Have students respond to the following document-based question.

   Using the works of art given, the reading selections, and your knowledge of the period, assess the validity of the following statement: As America expanded into the nineteenth century, the growth of democracy was a natural and evolutionary process.

American Romantics and Expressions of Democracy

Directions: Research the American art and artists listed below.

1. Edward Hicks
   - List at least three biographical facts about the artist.
   - Analyze the content and symbolism of *The Peaceable Kingdom,* and comment on its importance as an expression of the growth and spread of democracy in America.

2. George Caleb Bingham
   - List at least three biographical facts about the artist.
   - Analyze the content and symbolism of *Canvassing for the Vote,* and comment on its importance as an expression of the growth and spread of democracy in America.

3. Frank Blackwell Mayer
   - List at least three biographical facts about the artist.
   - Analyze the content and symbolism of *Leisure and Labor,* and comment on its importance as an expression of the growth and spread of democracy in America.

4. Thomas Cole
   - List at least three biographical facts about the artist.
   - Analyze the content and symbolism of the paintings in *The Course of an Empire,* and comment on their importance as expressions of the growth and spread of democracy in America.

Debates on Democracy at the 1821 New York State Constitutional Convention

Part A.

Directions: Read the excerpt from the Kent-Sanford Debates.

James Kent: By the report before us, we propose to annihilate, at one stroke, all those property distinctions and to bow before the idol of universal suffrage. That extreme democratic principle, when applied to the legislative and executive departments of government, has been regarded with terror by the wise men of every age because, in every European republic, ancient and modern, in which it has been tried, it has terminated disastrously and been productive of corruption, injustice, violence, and tyranny. And dare we flatter ourselves that we are a peculiar people who can run the career of history, exempted from the passions which have disturbed and corrupted the rest of mankind? If we are like other races of men, with similar follies and vices, then I greatly fear that our posterity will have reason to deplore, in sackcloth and ashes, the delusion of the day. . . .

The apprehended danger from the experiment of universal suffrage applied to the whole legislative department is no dream of the imagination. It is too mighty an excitement for the moral constitution of men to endure. The tendency of universal suffrage is to jeopardize the rights of property and the principles of liberty. There is a constant tendency in human society, and the history of every age proves it; there is a tendency in the poor to covet and to share the plunder of the rich; in the debtor to relax or avoid the obligation of contracts; in the majority to tyrannize over the minority and trample down their rights; in the indolent and the profligate to cast the whole burdens of society upon the industrious and the virtuous; and *there is a tendency in ambitious and wicked men to inflame these combustible materials*. It requires a vigilant government, and a firm administration of justice, to counteract that tendency. . . .

Liberty, rightly understood, is an inestimable blessing, but liberty without wisdom, and without justice, is no better than wild and savage licentiousness. The danger which we have hereafter to apprehend is not the want, but the abuse, of liberty. We have to apprehend the oppression of minorities and a disposition to encroach on private right—to disturb chartered privileges—and to weaken, degrade, and overawe the administration of justice; we have to apprehend the establishment of unequal and, consequently, unjust systems of taxation and all the mischiefs of a crude and mutable legislation.

Nathan Sanford: The question before us is the right of suffrage—who shall, or who shall not, have the right to vote. The committee have presented the scheme they thought best; to abolish all existing distinctions and make the right of voting uniform. Is this not right? Where did these distinctions arise? They arose from British precedents. In England they have their three estates, which must always have their separate interests represented. Here there is but one estate—the people. To me the only qualifications seem to be the virtue and morality of the people; and if they may be safely intrusted to vote for one class of our rulers, why not for all? In my opinion, these distinctions are fallacious. We have the experience of almost all the other states against them. The principle of the scheme now proposed is that those who bear the burdens of the state should choose those that rule it. There is no privilege given to property as such; but those who contribute to the public support we consider as entitled to a share in the election of rulers. . . .

Now, sir, this scheme will embrace almost the whole male population of the state. There is perhaps no subject so purely matter of opinion as the question how far the right of suffrage may be safely carried. We propose to carry it almost as far as the male population of the state. The Convention may perhaps think this too broad. On this subject we have much experience; yet there are respectable citizens who think this extension of suffrage unfavorable to the rights of property. Certainly this would be a fatal objection, if well founded; for any government, however constituted, which does not secure property to its rightful owners is a bad government. But how is the extension of the right of suffrage unfavorable to property? Will not our laws continue the same? Will not the administration of justice continue the same? And if so, how is private property to suffer? Unless these are changed, and upon them rest the rights and security of property, I am unable to perceive how property is to suffer by the extension of the right of suffrage. But we have abundant experience on this point in other states. Now, sir, in many of the states the right of suffrage has no restriction; every male inhabitant votes. Yet what harm has been done in those states? What evil has resulted to them from this cause? The course of things in this country is for the extension and not the restriction of popular rights. . . . In our town elections we have the highest proof of the virtue and intelligence of our people; they assemble in town meetings as a pure democracy and choose their officers and local legislatures, if I may so call them; and if there is any part of our public business well done, it is that done in town meetings. Is not this a strong practical lesson of the beneficial operation of this principle? This scheme has been proposed by a majority of the committee; they think it safe and beneficial, founded in just and rational principles, and in the experience of this and neighboring states. The committee have no attachment, however, to this particular scheme and are willing to see it amended or altered if it shall be judged for the interest of the people.

Part B.

Directions: Answer the following questions.

1. Why was the push for extension of the franchise so strong in the 1820s?

2. Do you think that James Kent or Nathan Sanford has the stronger argument? Why?

3. How strong are the images created by the artists you examined on **Handout 12**? Which conveys the strongest message for or against democracy? Why?

4. What were some of the common style and content characteristics of American art during the romantic period?

5. Why did the art world consider the Hudson River School to be the first truly American contribution to art?

6. In what ways did the romantic movement differ from the neoclassical movement? Why?

Lesson 7

American Territorial Acquisitions

Objective

- To review American territorial expansion and understand the consequences and repercussions of expansion

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-5: Analyze the motives behind, and results of, economic, military, and diplomatic initiatives aimed at expanding U.S. power and territory in the Western Hemisphere in the years between independence and the Civil War

WOR-6: Analyze the major aspects of domestic debates over U.S. expansionism in the 19th century and the early 20th century

Notes to the Teacher

American territorial acquisitions have often been prompted by factors such as wars, a belief in Manifest Destiny, the desire for new markets, the protection of citizens, and the desire to spread America's culture. Some of these additions have resulted in negative consequences. The acquisition of the Mexican Cession lands inflamed the debate over slavery, and the demand to extend slavery into those lands may have contributed indirectly to the Civil War. Many of the acquisitions can be explained by a belief in America as an exceptional nation, ordained for expansion. This belief was manifested in acts of aggressive expansionism as we acquired territory outside of continental America.

In this lesson, students research information and complete two maps showing the growth of the United States through territorial acquisition; they then review and analyze the implications of territorial expansion.

Procedure

1. Ask students why nations acquire, expand, or annex territory outside their borders (population needs, protection of citizens, creation of more defensible borders, power vacuum, prestige, strategic reasons, and to punish neighbors). Are there any valid circumstances for acquiring additional territory? (Answers may include making the country more defensible, regaining formerly owned territory, punishing your neighbor or demonstrating your new status. Opponents to any expansion of territory may believe that all wars are evil.)

2. Ask students to name the parts of the United States or its territory that they would not have acquired and why. (Students may object to taking away land from Native Americans or to taking about one-half of Mexican territory in the Mexican War.) Ask whether America would have been a better nation if it had not acquired territory at others' expense. What would we be like today without the Mexican Cession or if we had not spread beyond the original United States east of the Mississippi River? (A much larger Mexico would be a rival for dominance in North America. A larger and more powerful Canada, Russian territory extending down to California, a French-speaking nation in place of the Louisiana territory, and a separate Florida nation would have meant a greatly diminished United States with less power, less wealth, and perhaps more quarrelsome neighbors of which America would have to keep track.)
3. Distribute **Handout 14**, and have students use their textbooks and other sources to complete the exercise.

Suggested Responses

Part A.

Original American territory—1783; Treaty of Paris after successful War for Independence; made clear the original borders of the United States; weak central government under the Articles of Confederation did not have the power to settle land disputes with Spain and Great Britain; Britain kept its forts in the Northwest Territories; further boundary problems in the northeast with British Canada resolved with Webster-Ashburton Treaty in 1842

Louisiana Purchase—1803; Louisiana Purchase negotiated with Napoleon Bonaparte of France during Thomas Jefferson's presidency; purchase of land doubling the size of America not authorized by the Constitution; Jefferson recognized a good deal for $15 million and encouraged Senate ratification; Lewis and Clark expedition to explore this new territory would encourage western settlement; some thought that democracy would not work in such a large nation

West Florida—1810; claimed by President James Madison as part of the United States since American settlers had occupied the area earlier; originally claimed by Spain; American army seized the Mobile region of Spanish Florida during the War of 1812; Spain was an ally of Great Britain during the War of 1812

Red River Basin—1818; acquired by treaty with Great Britain in the Anglo-American Convention of 1818; the United States exchanged territory from the Louisiana Purchase north of the current line separating America from Canada; the northern

limits of the Louisiana territory were fixed at the 49th parallel from Minnesota's Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains; called for a ten-year joint occupation of the Oregon Country by the United States and Great Britain

East Florida—1819; under Adams-Onis Treaty, Spain ceded present-day Florida; General Andrew Jackson led raids into Florida against Seminole Indians and fugitive slaves, claiming that they were using the territory as a refuge; Secretary of State John Quincy Adams persuaded President James Monroe to issue an ultimatum to the Spanish to stop border raids or allow the United States to take over and provide stability; the United States gave up claims to Texas territory arising from the Louisiana Purchase, and Spain gave up any claims they had to the Oregon Country

Northern Maine—1842; Webster-Ashburton Treaty divided disputed land between the United States and Canada; clashes between American and Canadian lumberjacks over the disputed territory labeled the Aroostook War; Minnesota territory adjusted, with America receiving 6,500 square miles

Texas—1845; Texas annexed; President John Tyler proposed a joint resolution by Congress to annex Texas after the election of James K. Polk, aggressive proponent of expansion; Mexican President Antonio López de Santa Anna warned that such a move would be "equivalent to a declaration of war against Mexico"; Texas became a state despite opposition from those who opposed expansion of slavery

Oregon Country—1846; jointly controlled by the United States and Great Britain from 1818 until 1846 when the Oregon Treaty divided the territory at the 49th parallel; Polk made the Oregon territory a major part of his election platform, declaring "Fifty-four Forty or Fight"; Americans began to believe in Manifest Destiny; Polk anticipated war against Mexico over California, New Mexico, and Texas and preferred to settle differences with Great Britain rather than risk war

Mexican Cession—1848; under the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, Mexico ceded about one-half of its territory, including Texas westward to California; Polk provoked a war with Mexico by sending four thousand troops to disputed territory near the Rio Grande; Mexican troops responded by attacking and killing or wounding sixteen Americans; signaled the beginning of bitterness between the United States and Latin America; annexation of Mexican territory and subsequent expansion of slavery would lead indirectly to the Civil War

Gadsden Purchase—1853; purchased for $10 million in order to build a southern route for a transcontinental railroad; Santa Anna, needing money, agreed to the deal; Northerners criticized the deal as a huge sum for worthless desert; Senator Stephen A. Douglas proposed an alternative route for a transcontinental railroad going through Nebraska territory

Alaska—1867; purchased from Russia for $7.2 million; negotiated by Andrew Johnson's Secretary of State William Seward; purchase ridiculed as "Seward's Icebox" or "Seward's Folly"; territory rumored to have great mineral wealth

Hawaii—1898; annexed at the request of American businessmen who feared a new constitution written by Queen Liliuokalani; Pearl Harbor is the best naval port in the northern Pacific Ocean; important as a center for sugar production and resupply for American ships in the Pacific; concerns that Japan might be interested in acquiring Hawaii

Cuba, Puerto Rico, Philippines, Guam—1898; Spanish-American War, Treaty of Paris; led to recognition of the United States as an important military power; Puerto Rico and Guam are still American possessions; Cuba and the Philippines are both independent countries; after the Spanish-American War, the United States fought a war against insurrectionist Philippine nationalists that cost over ten thousand American lives, mostly due to disease; it was an unpopular war among intellectuals and reformers

American Samoa—1899; annexed; currently a territory of the United States; Germany and America nearly went to war over possession of these islands; America was increasingly demonstrating its aggressive expansionist side

Panama Canal Zone—1903; Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty; after Columbia rejected an offer of $10 million and annual payments for the right to build a canal in its Panama region, Theodore Roosevelt sent the navy to support revolution; created animosity with Latin American neighbors; completed in 1914 as World War I began

U.S. Virgin Islands—1917; purchased from Denmark during World War I for $25 million; in 1927, all inhabitants became American citizens

Marshall Islands, Mariana Islands, Palau Island, Caroline Islands—1947; United Nations trusteeship of former Japanese territory in the Pacific Ocean; Northern Mariana Islands remained an American territory and is a commonwealth; Micronesia and Marshall Islands voted for independence in 1986 and Palau in 1994

Part B.

Pro-expansion reasoning/positive consequences

Original American Territory—1783; independence from Great Britain; freedom to pursue an independent nation's destiny; freedom from the despotic King George, who did not recognize the colonies' rights

Louisiana Purchase—doubled the size of America; access to New Orleans as a major port; great bargain; more continental focus; less dependence on Atlantic trade for survival

West Florida—further defined borders with Spanish Florida

Red River Basin—clearly defined American border with British Canada; set precedent for continuation of border at 49th parallel

East Florida—able to control cross border raids by American Indians, fugitive slaves, border ruffians; part of Manifest Destiny to incorporate entire continent; Spain unable to defend Florida; Spain would give up claims to Oregon Country

Northern Maine—America received 6,000 square miles in Maine on Canadian border and avoided a war

Texas—part of Manifest Destiny to spread from coast to coast as promised by Polk

Oregon Country—further defined northern border with Canada at the 49th parallel; prevented further incursion by Russians

Mexican Cession—part of Manifest Destiny; Mexican attack on American soil resulting in American deaths; adding southern territory for slaveholders; kept Great Britain from claiming California

Gadsden Purchase—territory required for southern route for transcontinental railroad

Alaska—potential for fur trade and great mineral wealth; Russia anxious to trade it to America for some value before it was taken from them by the British in another war

Hawaii—outstanding naval port at Pearl Harbor; strategic location in mid-Pacific Ocean; would open up trade in Asia; sugar cane and pineapple interests; kept Japan from taking it

Cuba, Puerto Rico, Philippines, Guam—part of Manifest Destiny to expand and spread American cultural ideals to so-called inferior peoples; need for new markets for raw materials; America instantly recognized as a world power as well as an imperial power like the European nations it sought to emulate; gave America important strategic territories; Manila, Philippines would open up the rich China trade to America

American Samoa—could be used as a means to open up trade in the Far East; became a naval station

Panama Canal Zone—increased the mobility of U.S. navy and thereby increased its power; made it easier to defend recent territorial acquisitions (Philippines, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico)

U.S. Virgin Islands—acquired from Denmark

Marshall Islands, Mariana Islands, Palau Island, Caroline Islands—acquired from Japan after World War II; of the four territories only the Northern Mariana Islands chose to remain U.S. territory; the other three chose some type of independence

Anti-expansion reasoning/negative consequences

Original American Territory—1783; many were loyal to Great Britain, new nation would not have protection from powerful mother country against the uncertainties about the future, victory difficult to achieve against professional army and navy, successful revolution by a colony never before achieved

Louisiana Purchase—not authorized by Constitution; uncertainty of area; would put country in conflict with Spain; system of government, a republic, would not work in a large nation

West Florida—would antagonize Spain

Red River Basin—loss of territory north of 49th parallel (Mississippi River basin)

East Florida—America agreed to define the Texas border; forced Spain to accept U.S. terms; plan to deal with the Texas problem later

Northern Maine—agreement halted further expansion into Canada

Texas—territory became additional slave state, angered Mexico and led to war

Oregon Country—could lead to war with Great Britain; citing the earlier circumstance of demanding all of Texas territory to the Rio Grande River, some northerners claimed we settled for too little of Oregon and should have demanded all of it to the 54° 40′ line

Mexican Cession—first significant antiwar sentiment among reformers and intellectuals; war of aggression was undemocratic; "Where is the spot?" Abraham Lincoln asks; would expand slave territory and ultimately lead to civil war over slavery

Gadsden Purchase—should have taken all the territory offered by Santa Anna with an outlet to Sea of Cortez; opened up debate on northern transcontinental route and Kansas-Nebraska territory came into play for slavery via Senator Stephen A. Douglas as a result

Alaska—called Seward's Icebox or Seward's Folly; seen as a waste of money during period after Civil War when there were more pressing economic needs for the recovering nation

Hawaii—Queen Liliuokalani wrote new constitution for self-rule; annexation was seen as imperialistic and going against national character; undemocratic

Cuba, Puerto Rico, Philippines, Guam—argument by Anti-Imperialistic League that acquiring new colonies would be undemocratic and costly; uncertain status of citizenship of these new people (Were they American citizens or subject people?); fighting a war of insurrection in the Philippines against Filipino nationalists, after Spanish-American War, was undemocratic and against America's ideals

American Samoa—United States and Germany nearly fought over possession of the Samoan Islands in the South Pacific, eventually agreed to divide them

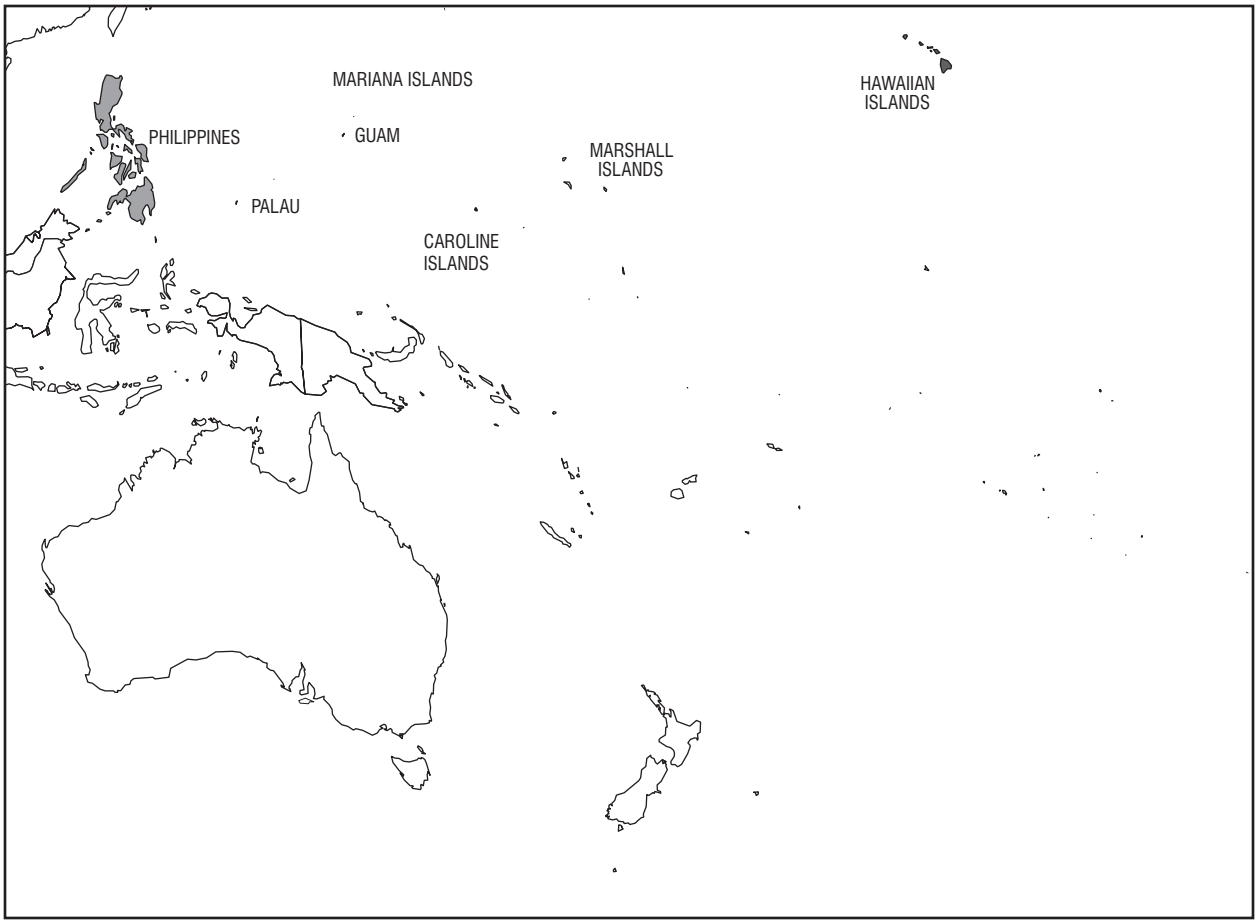
Panama Canal Zone—soured our relations with all of Latin America

U.S. Virgin Islands—many in Latin America saw the United States as turning the Caribbean Sea into an American lake

Marshall Islands, Mariana Islands, Palau Island, and Caroline Islands—many of the islanders complained that the United States neglected them

4. Distribute **Handout 15**, and have students complete the maps. See the Teacher Resource Page on pages 72–73 for suggested responses.

Suggested Responses, Handout 15



 Name:

American Territorial Expansion

Part A.
Directions: Use your textbook, the Internet, and other sources to complete the chart. Be prepared for class discussion.

Territory	Date	Circumstances of Acquisition	Related Issues
Original American Territory			
Louisiana Purchase			
West Florida			
Red River Basin			
East Florida			
Northern Maine			

 Name:

Territory	Date	Circumstances of Acquisition	Related Issues
Texas			
Oregon Country			
Mexican Cession			
Gadsden Purchase			
Alaska			
Hawaii			

 Name:

Territory	Date	Circumstances of Acquisition	Related Issues
Cuba, Puerto Rico, Philippines, Guam			
American Samoa			
Panama Canal Zone			
U.S. Virgin Islands			
Marshall Islands, Mariana Islands, Palau Island, and Caroline Islands			

Part B.
Directions: List the pro-expansion and anti-expansion reasons for each of the places in part A.

Name:

Maps of Territorial Expansion

Directions: Locate and label the territorial acquisitions listed on **Handout 14**. Include the dates of acquisition.

Name:

Lesson 8

A Foreign Policy for a New Age

Objective

- To understand how the role of the United States in world affairs changed in the early twentieth century

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-6: Analyze the major aspects of domestic debates over U.S. expansionism in the 19th century and the early 20th century

Notes to the Teacher

The end of the Spanish-American War marked the beginning of America's venture into imperialism. Under the terms of the Treaty of Paris, the United States acquired control of Puerto Rico in the Caribbean and Guam in the Pacific from Spain. In addition, the treaty freed Cuba from Spanish control, and the United States paid Spain $20 million for the Philippines. America's newly acquired colonial empire required new attention to foreign policy.

President Theodore Roosevelt, ever the activist, reveled in the opportunity to extend the intervention begun with the Open Door Notes. He once pointed out, "I have always been fond of the West African proverb: 'Speak softly and carry a big stick; you will go far.'" Protecting far-flung territories, it seemed to him, required either a two-fleet navy or a faster route between the Pacific and the Caribbean. Several nations had attempted to construct a waterway linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Roosevelt made a decision to pursue immediate construction of a canal across Panama. This action soon led to intervention in the Panamanian revolution and the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine. Roosevelt's successor, William Howard Taft, carried intervention even further with his Dollar Diplomacy. These early precedents for diplomatic and military initiatives would have important implications for America's future dealings with foreign countries.

In this lesson, students research the foreign policy of the United States after the Spanish-American War. They interpret several political cartoons on America's new foreign policies. To conclude, they write an interpretive paragraph demonstrating their understanding of the relationships among several policies.

Procedure

1. Explain that the Spanish-American War marked the beginning of a change in the attitude of the United States towards imperialism. Up until the end of the nineteenth century, the United States had no interest in acquiring a far-flung empire. Previous administrations concentrated on the development of the doctrine of Manifest Destiny. Rapid changes in technology after the Civil War expanded America's contact with the rest of the world. Ask for examples. (The telegraph and the widespread use of new printing technology led to an expansion of communication; industrialization enabled the manufacture of new and cheaper goods; the development of steam power and ironclad ships led to new markets for American goods.)
2. Write the following terms on the board:
   - Treaty of Paris (1899)
   - Open Door Policy, Notes 1 and 2
   - Panamanian Revolution
   - Roosevelt Corollary
   - Dollar Diplomacy
   - Treaty of Portsmouth

   Ask students to research and write identifications for the terms. Explain that identifications should answer the questions who, what, where, and why.

   Suggested Responses

   Treaty of Paris (1899)—Spain ceded Puerto Rico and Guam to the United States, Cuba was freed from Spain's control, and the United States paid $20 million for the Philippines. The treaty opened the door to American imperialism and marked America's rise as a world power.

   Open Door Policy, Notes 1 and 2—Acquisition of the Philippines encouraged the United States to examine trade possibilities with nearby China. European spheres of influence and threats of actual takeovers prompted Secretary of State John Hay to propose to extend equal opportunities to trade with China to all countries. The United States later extended this policy to include the preservation of the territorial integrity of China as well. These actions gained the United States the good will of China, but most European countries largely ignored the policy. Upholding the Open Door Policy may have led to American involvement in war against Japan in World War II, since the Open Door Policy conflicted with Japanese aims in the area.

Panamanian Revolution—Intent on immediate construction of a canal across Panama, Theodore Roosevelt expressed support for a Panamanian revolt against Colombia for independence when negotiations with that country to acquire rights to the Canal Zone stalled. Roosevelt also ordered a U.S. gunboat in Panama to block Colombian access. After the revolt, he immediately recognized the independence of Panama and negotiated highly favorable canal rights with that country. This led to considerable ill will between the United States and Latin American countries.

Roosevelt Corollary—Theodore Roosevelt justified further intervention in Latin American countries by saying that in cases of chronic wrongdoing by any nation in the Western Hemisphere, the United States might be required to act as an international police officer in order to protect its very substantial interests in the area of the canal. This policy enraged Latin American countries, who did not appreciate U.S. intervention in their internal affairs. Roosevelt termed this a corollary or extension of the Monroe Doctrine; others saw it as a perversion of that policy.

Dollar Diplomacy—William Howard Taft extended American businessmen and bankers the full military and diplomatic support of the United States to protect investments in Latin America. This expansion of the Roosevelt Corollary prompted him and other presidents to send marines to Latin America at various times to maintain order. These ventures inspired further distrust of the United States in those countries.

Treaty of Portsmouth—Theodore Roosevelt mediated an end to the Russo-Japanese War in 1905. Roosevelt did not reward the victorious Japanese with an indemnity or with what they believed to be adequate compensation in land. This treaty led to anti-American riots in Japan. Roosevelt recognized that Japan might further threaten the Philippines, the Open Door Policy, and U.S. interests in the Far East.

3. Divide the class into groups of three or four students. Distribute **Handout 16**, and have students complete the activity.

Suggested Responses

Cartoon 1

1. News of the Panamanian revolt for independence against Colombia reached Bogotá.
2. Eager to gain access to the Canal Zone and start construction on the canal, Theodore Roosevelt sent the USS *Nashville* to Colon to block Colombian military intervention in the Panamanian revolt for independence.

3. Roosevelt is covering Colombia's claims to Panama and their claims to compensation for the Canal Zone.
4. Using the power of the U.S. navy to support the Panamanian Revolution, Roosevelt buried Colombia's canal rights in support of more favorable terms proposed by the newly independent Panama.
5. He would likely see U.S. support for the revolution as an attempt to cheat Colombia out of compensation rightfully due it.

Cartoon 2

1. The Big Stick refers to Roosevelt's enthusiasm for intervention in the affairs of Caribbean countries in order to maintain stability in the area of the canal.
2. They all suggest the role of police officer.
3. The cartoon refers to the Roosevelt Corollary.
4. The Monroe Doctrine implied U.S. support for maintaining the independence of countries in the Western Hemisphere, not U.S. intervention to jeopardize that independence.
5. Theodore Roosevelt extended the meaning of the Monroe Doctrine by making the United States an international police officer in the Caribbean as it sought to protect its interests.
6. Dollar Diplomacy guaranteed government backing to Americans making investments in other countries such as those in Latin America.
7. Venezuelans would likely see this as just the sort of threat to the independence of their country that they thought the earlier Monroe Doctrine was intended to prevent.

Cartoon 3

1. This cartoon refers to the Open Door Policy.
2. From the American point of view, the Open Door committed the United States to restraining European powers from warlike designs on China by claiming that the United States' only interest was in commerce.
3. The Chinese viewed this outside help favorably because they were on the verge of being carved up by foreign powers.
4. The Japanese might well view this as a potential threat to their own intentions to become the dominant power in the Far East.

4. To conclude, have students write an interpretive paragraph that demonstrates an understanding of how the following terms are connected: Roosevelt Corollary, Treaty of Paris (1899), Open Door Policy, Panamanian Revolution, and Dollar Diplomacy. (Students should recognize that the territorial acquisitions in the Treaty of Paris brought the United States to a position of world prominence and required new and frequently controversial measures to protect its interests. Interest in

garnering a larger share of the China trade prompted the Open Door Policy and, contrary to State Department pronouncements, did not always get an enthusiastic reception from former allies. Building the Panama Canal was pivotal to promoting American commercial and diplomatic interests and seemed preferable to maintaining a two-fleet navy. Difficulty getting permission from Colombia to build the canal seemed to Roosevelt to require intervention in Panama's revolution for independence. Protecting the Canal Zone then seemed to require further intervention in the form of the Roosevelt Corollary and Dollar Diplomacy. The United States learned quickly the difficulties of maintaining cordial relations with even friendly nations in an era of imperialism.)

5. Have students share their paragraphs. Use the paragraphs to generate a discussion of the developing foreign policy.

Editorials in Pictures

Directions: Interpret these political cartoons by answering the questions below each cartoon.

Cartoon 1

The News Reaches Bogotá

Fig. 8.1.

1. What is the significance of the title of the cartoon?

2. What is the purpose of the gunboats?

3. Why is Theodore Roosevelt shoveling dirt?

4. Briefly summarize the main idea of the cartoon.

5. How might a Colombian cartoonist view the same event?

Fig. 8.1. Cartoon by W. A. Rogers, 1903. The Granger Collection, New York.

Cartoon 2

The Big Stick in the Caribbean Sea

Fig. 8.2.

1. What is the significance of the title of the cartoon?

2. What do the boats labeled debt collector, sheriff, and receiver have in common?

3. To what U.S. policy does this cartoon refer?

4. How did that policy differ from the earlier Monroe Doctrine?

5. Summarize the main idea of the cartoon.

6. How did William Howard Taft extend the Big Stick Policy by using Dollar Diplomacy?

7. How might a Venezuelan cartoonist view Big Stick diplomacy?

Fig. 8.2. Cartoon by W. A. Rogers, 1904. The Ganger Collection, New York.

Cartoon 3

A Fair Field and No Favor! Uncle Sam: "I'm Out for Commerce, Not Conquest!"

Fig. 8.3.

1. To what policy does this cartoon refer?

2. What is the main idea of the cartoon?

3. How might the Chinese interpret the situation?

4. How might the Japanese view the situation?

Fig. 8.3. W. A. Rogers, *Harper's Weekly,* November 18, 1899. The Ohio State University, Billy Ireland Cartoon Library and Museum.

Lesson 9

The Politics of Segregation

Objectives

- To describe the nature of life in a segregated society
- To examine the means by which segregation was enforced in Southern society

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 1: Historical Causation

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-7: Analyze how debates over civil rights and civil liberties have influenced political life from the early 20th century through the early 21st century

Notes to the Teacher

Reconstruction after the Civil War is generally considered to have ended in 1877, with the withdrawal of the last Union troops from the Southern states. After the "Redeemer" governments restored Democratic control, they enacted laws to recoup the power they had lost over African Americans in the former slave states. The possibilities open to the freedmen during Reconstruction, limited as they might have been, evaporated. In the late nineteenth century, although African Americans were nominally free, they were hamstrung by lack of land ownership, capital, and education. Caught in the sharecropping system, blacks (and many poor whites) had no way to better their fortunes. The right to vote, while guaranteed by the Fifteenth Amendment, was lost to so-called Jim Crow laws, among which were restrictions on voting rights. Other laws insisted on white supremacy and the complete separation of the races in any social situation. Those who protested these restrictions were punished, sometimes with death by lynching.

Booker T. Washington, who urged blacks not to protest conditions or seek to overturn laws by the use of the courts, was very publicly given the right to vote, but almost all other Southern blacks were disenfranchised. In the early twentieth century, W. E. B. Du Bois's book *The Souls of Black Folk* marked the beginning of the end of this era, which Rayford Logan, an eminent black historian, called "the nadir of black history"; however, it would not really be over until the civil rights landmarks of the1960s.

The most significant Supreme Court case during this period was *Plessy v. Ferguson*, decided in 1896. A group of activists deliberately tested

Louisiana's law separating the races on train cars by having Homer Plessy, a mixed-race Louisiana native, ride in a whites-only railroad car. The U.S. Supreme Court, in an 8-1 ruling, declared that segregation laws were constitutional for intrastate travel and that the Thirteenth Amendment only guaranteed political equality, not social equality.

Make clear to students that, while such discriminatory laws were primarily passed in the Southern states, thus creating *de jure* segregation (segregation by law), there was segregation in the Northern states as well. In the North, African Americans usually found themselves segregated by *de facto* segregation caused by economic status, residential patterns, restrictive covenants, and customs.

The Web site for the PBS series *The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow* (http://www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/) may help you with background material for this lesson. The Web site of the Martin Luther King Jr. National Historic Site (http://www.nps.gov/malu/) is another useful source. Consider sharing these resources with students who wish to learn more about this era.

Students will probably be familiar with the book and/or film *To Kill a Mockingbird*, which shows the unfairness of the segregated judicial system and the killing of a sympathetic if not well-developed black character. Another powerful novel is Ernest Gaines's *A Lesson Before Dying*, which explores the lives of an innocent young man convicted of murder by a segregated jury and of the teacher who tries to help him; this novel has been made into an equally affecting film that portrays the frustrations of life in a segregated society most effectively. Gaines's classic *The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pittman* (a novel, not a true autobiography) is another excellent resource for this period.

In this lesson, students use a six-level pattern of analysis to establish categories from the most abstract (intellectual) to the most concrete (military). They then look for data to describe segregation using these categories. Finally, they look at Jim Crows laws to see how thoroughly people's lives were affected.

Procedure

1. Tell students that one of the eminent black historians of the twentieth century was Rayford Logan. Explain to them that Logan called one particular period "the nadir of black history" and define *nadir* (lowest point). Ask them to guess which period he meant. Students will probably respond that this period was the era of slavery. Explain to them that the correct answer is the period from 1877 to 1903.

2. Ask students to define *segregation* (the separation of groups of people on the basis of race, religion, language, or other criteria). Then ask students what groups of people have been segregated in American history (Native Americans on reservations, Japanese-Americans in relocation camps during World War II, African Americans after 1865).

3. Ask students whether African Americans were segregated before the Civil War. (In most places, slaves, who represented the bulk of the African-American population, lived in close proximity to whites. Free blacks sometimes lived in separate areas such as Eaton, Florida, the home of the writer Zora Neale Hurston.)

4. Ask students in what areas the races were segregated. Before they answer, explain that when tackling a big topic like this, it helps to have a framework. On the board, list the following words: *intellectual, religious, social, political, economic,* and *military*. Explain what is meant by each one:

   Intellectual—related to the overall philosophy of the society, including value placed on education; availability of educational opportunities, nature of schools, and intellectual leadership

   Religious—related to the basic system of belief, including conception of the divine, types of churches, and level of ecclesiastical hierarchy

   Social—related to social classes, social mobility, and marriage and kinship systems

   Political—related to political leadership, form of government, and level of participation in government

   Economic—related to production and distribution of goods and services, including employment opportunities, tax structure, and role of central government in economy

   Military—related to how the society defends itself, including relationship between government and armed forces, outcomes of wars, and internal policing

   Explain that having such a framework will enable students to generate ideas and to organize answers to this and other broad questions.

5. Distribute **Handout 17**. Ask students to use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources as necessary to complete the chart.

Suggested Responses

Intellectual—Many schools for freedmen started during Reconstruction eventually failed. Schools were segregated by race. Those schools available to African Americans were poorly equipped and generally included just a few grades, often with relatively untrained teachers. Books, desks, and other supplies were scarce. Many children were needed to work in agriculture to help support the family and so were not able to continue their education. A few black colleges existed in the South. Many black colleges, including the well-known Tuskegee Institute, founded by Booker T. Washington, concentrated on preparing students for trades or domestic service.

Religious—Churches were segregated as well. In some areas, African Americans attended their own churches; in others, they attended white churches but had to sit in the balcony.

Social—Through the Freedmen's Bureau during Reconstruction, thousands of African Americans tried to restore their family life by seeking members sold away during slavery. After 1877, travel became more difficult for African Americans because of economic hardships and restrictions enforced by the Ku Klux Klan, the Knights of the White Camellia, and others. Segregation was the norm in theaters, hotels, restaurants, and public transportation. Intermarriage of blacks and whites was forbidden by state law.

Political—Although nominally protected by the Civil Rights Act of 1875 and the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, in practice African Americans enjoyed few rights. They effectively lost the right to vote and to serve on juries. Enforcement of civil rights reverted to the states, which did little to protect freedmen. In 1883, the Supreme Court declared that the Civil Rights Act of 1875 was unconstitutional. The White House did not provide any leadership in maintaining African-American civil rights. Southern states developed elaborate networks of Jim Crow laws.

Economic—Cotton, sugar, rice, and tobacco continued to be the main Southern exports. The vast majority of African Americans in the South were enmeshed in the sharecropping system, as were many whites. Under this system, the worker contracted with the landowner to work for a year on the owner's property. The owner usually provided shelter, food, seed, and occasionally draft animals; food and clothing for the laborer could be purchased on credit. At the end of the year, the crop would be divided. In practice, many sharecropping families finished the year with little profit and sometimes even in debt to the landowner. Extra-legal organizations like the Ku Klux Klan prevented workers from seeking better-paying jobs.

Military—The U.S. Army was segregated during the Civil War, and African-American units were allowed to serve only under white officers. This practice continued after the war, with two regiments of black cavalry and two of infantry serving under white officers in the West during the Indian Wars; armed black soldiers were considered too provocative in the South.

6. Ask students why they think Rayford Logan thought this period was even worse than slavery. (Under slavery, blacks were generally provided with sufficient food, clothing, and shelter to remain healthy enough to work; they were under their owner's protection. After Re-

construction, blacks, although free, were at the mercy of the whites around them and were unable to defend themselves through either law or force. This was an era when lynching and other forms of violence against blacks were common.)

7. Ask students why abolitionists, both black and white, allowed this to occur. (Most white abolitionists felt that their job was done when slavery ended. Charles Sumner, author of the Civil Rights Act, was the only white abolitionist who continued to battle for equal rights. Frederick Douglass and other black abolitionists were in a small minority once Reconstruction ended. Most Northern whites were more interested in national prosperity and healing the breach between North and South.)

8. Have students review the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson* in their textbooks.

9. Explain that the law upheld in the *Plessy* case was only one of many laws enacted by Southern state legislatures to formalize segregation practices. Distribute **Handout 18**. Read the title, and explain that Jim Crow was a stereotyped, derogatory African-American figure popular in nineteenth-century minstrel shows.

10. Divide the class into groups, and allow students time to read the handout and discuss the impact of the laws.

11. Bring the class back together to share ideas on the effects of such legislation on individuals, groups, and the nation. (Students may mention such things as unjustified feelings of inferiority or superiority, limitation of economic and educational opportunities, the waste of human resources, and a strong sense of resentment.)

12. Explain that states made it difficult for anyone who wanted to bring about change. Read the following Jim Crow law to the class:

    > Promotion of Equality: Any person . . . who shall be guilty of printing, publishing, or circulating printed, typewritten, or written matter urging or presenting for public acceptance or general information, arguments or suggestions in favor of social equality or of intermarriage between whites and negroes, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and subject to fine not exceeding five hundred (500.00) dollars or imprisonment not exceeding six (6) months or both. (Mississippi)

13. Ask students to decide whether this law is constitutional, based on their knowledge of the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

14. Ask students why African Americans did not just elect new leaders to change the laws. (There were significant barriers to political participation, including poll taxes, property qualifications, literacy tests, and violence, including lynching; poor whites were able to avoid disenfranchisement through grandfather clauses.)

15. Ask students the following question: "If you had been born in that time period, how would you have responded to segregation?" Allow time for discussion. (Students may mention leaving the South, which gives an opportunity to talk about the Great Migration during World War I; other answers might be getting an education, civil disobedience, legal action, or fighting back. Eventually all of these methods were tried, but it was not until the 1960s that *de jure* segregation ended in the South.)

16. Ask students whether segregation of any sort still occurs in our society. Then ask whether segregation is ever justified. Accept any answers for which students can provide valid examples.

Name:

Life in a Segregated Society

Directions: Using your textbook and other resources, describe life for African Americans in the segregated Southern states in the period from 1877 to 1917.

Cultural Level	Lives of Southern African Americans
Intellectual	
Religious	
Social	
Political	
Economic	
Military	

Jim Crow Laws

Directions: Read the following laws that were in effect from the 1880s to the 1960s. Then discuss with your group the effect such laws would have on African Americans in general, African-American children, whites in general, white children, interstate commerce, health care, and the economy.

Nurses—No person or corporation shall require any white female nurse to nurse in wards or rooms in hospitals, either public or private, in which negro men are placed. (Alabama)

Buses—All passenger stations in this state operated by any motor transportation company shall have separate waiting rooms or space and separate ticket windows for the white and colored races. (Alabama)

Railroads—The conductor of each passenger train is authorized and required to assign each passenger to the car or the division of the car, when it is divided by a partition, designated for the race to which such passenger belongs. (Alabama)

Restaurants—It shall be unlawful to conduct a restaurant or other place for the serving of food in the city, at which white and colored people are served in the same room, unless such white and colored persons are effectually separated by a solid partition extending from the floor upward to a distance of seven feet or higher, and unless a separate entrance from the street is provided for each compartment. (Alabama)

Toilet Facilities, Male—Every employer of white or negro males shall provide for such white or negro males reasonably accessible and separate toilet facilities. (Alabama)

Intermarriage—All marriages between a white person and a negro, or between a white person and a person of negro descent to the fourth generation inclusive, are hereby forever prohibited. (Florida)

Cohabitation—Any negro man and white woman, or any white man and negro woman, who are not married to each other, who shall habitually live in and occupy in the nighttime the same room shall each be punished by imprisonment not exceeding twelve (12) months, or by fine not exceeding five hundred ($500.00) dollars. (Florida)

Education—The schools for white children and the schools for negro children shall be conducted separately. (Florida)

Mental Hospitals—The Board of Control shall see that proper and distinct apartments are arranged for said patients, so that in no case shall Negroes and white persons be together. (Georgia)

Barbers—No colored barber shall serve as a barber [to] white women or girls. (Georgia)

Burial—The officer in charge shall not bury, or allow to be buried, any colored persons upon ground set apart or used for the burial of white persons. (Georgia)

Restaurants—All persons licensed to conduct a restaurant, shall serve either white people exclusively or colored people exclusively and shall not sell to the two races within the same room or serve the two races anywhere under the same license. (Georgia)

Amateur Baseball—It shall be unlawful for any amateur white baseball team to play baseball on any vacant lot or baseball diamond within two blocks of a playground devoted to the Negro race, and it shall be unlawful for any amateur colored baseball team to play baseball in any vacant lot or baseball diamond within two blocks of any playground devoted to the white race. (Georgia)

Housing—Any person . . . who shall rent any part of any such building to a negro person or a negro family when such building is already in whole or in part in occupancy by a white person or white family, or vice versa when the building is in occupancy by a negro person or negro family, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five ($25.00) nor more than one hundred ($100.00) dollars or be imprisoned not less than 10, or more than 60 days, or both such fine and imprisonment in the discretion of the court. (Louisiana)

Hospital Entrances—There shall be maintained by the governing authorities of every hospital maintained by the state for treatment of white and colored patients separate entrances for white and colored patients and visitors, and such entrances shall be used by the race only for which they are prepared. (Mississippi)

Textbooks—Books shall not be interchangeable between the white and colored schools, but shall continue to be used by the race first using them. (North Carolina)

Lunch Counters—No persons, firms, or corporations, who or which furnish meals to passengers at station restaurants or station eating houses, in times limited by common carriers of said passengers, shall furnish said meals to white and colored passengers in the same room, or at the same table, or at the same counter. (South Carolina)

Theaters—Every person . . . operating . . . any public hall, theatre, opera house, motion picture show or any place of public entertainment or public assemblage which is attended by both white and colored persons, shall separate the white race and the colored race and shall set apart and designate . . . certain seats therein to be occupied by white persons and a portion thereof, or certain seats therein, to be occupied by colored persons. (Virginia)[1]

[1]"Jim Crow Laws," *Martin Luther King Jr.: National Historic Site,* <http://www.nps.gov/malu/forteachers/jim_crow_laws.htm> (9 September 2010).

Lesson 10

Women's Rights: A Chronicle of Reform

Objective

- To view the fight for and against women's rights in a historical context

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-7: Analyze how debates over civil rights and civil liberties have influenced political life from the early 20th century through the early 21st century

Notes to the Teacher

While married women were valued and respected under English common law, they were not regarded as separate individuals. A single woman could vote, own property, and operate a business, while a married one could not. Near the end of the eighteenth century, British writer Mary Wollstonecraft published *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, which stressed that women should be well educated and equal to men. By 1821, Emma Willard had established the Troy Female Seminary, a high school for girls, and Oberlin College in Ohio became the first college to admit women. In 1837, Mount Holyoke became the first college founded specifically for women.

By the mid-nineteenth century, women worked as newspaper reporters, historians, and reformers. Dorothea Dix strove to reform asylums, hospitals, and the treatment of the mentally ill. Astronomer Maria Mitchell discovered a comet that was named after her. Elizabeth Blackwell became the first female physician in the United States in 1849.

Women often formed their own social reform groups, such as the Philadelphia Female Anti-Slavery Society (1834). Two of the founding members of this society, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott, organized the Seneca Falls Women's Rights Convention in 1848.

Women played vital roles during the Civil War. Dorothea Dix became the head of the Union Army's nursing service, Clara Barton founded the American Red Cross, and Harriet Tubman served as a spy and scout for the Union Army. Other women worked as laundresses, nurses, and cooks,

or entered government service. After the war, many Northern women migrated to the South to work as teachers and organizers for the Freedmen's Bureau. There was a blow to the struggle for women's rights when, for the first time, the word *male* was added to the Constitution with the passage of the Fourteenth Amendment. In 1872, Victoria Claflin Woodhull ran for president to test this amendment. During this same election, Susan B. Anthony registered and voted; she was arrested and convicted of voter fraud.

Middle-class women became active in the temperance movement, and in 1874, the Women's Christian Temperance Union was founded. Others joined reform movements to improve their communities, promote the education of youth, and encourage the assimilation of immigrants into the fabric of American life.

During the nineteenth century, two women's suffrage groups emerged. In 1869, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony founded the National Woman Suffrage Association, which welcomed women from all classes and economic and cultural groups. The association's goal was the passage of a constitutional amendment giving women the right to vote. That same year, Lucy Stone and Julia Ward Howe formed the American Woman Suffrage Association, which was limited to well-educated women. Stone and Howe feared that working women would harm the cause and were not interested in an amendment to the U.S. Constitution. They chose to work within individual states. Over time, the women's movement became fragmented and lacked effective leadership. In 1890, the two main groups merged to form the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA), and Carrie Chapman Catt proved to be an effective leader who reorganized and generated new interest in the movement. NAWSA members encouraged direct contact with members of Congress and, during World War I, made themselves indispensable to the war effort. Some members of NAWSA favored stronger methods, and Alice Paul founded the Congressional Union, which employed military tactics and held rallies and demonstrations. Members of the Union regularly picketed the White House.

After World War I, the role of women in American society slowly began to change; finally, the efforts of the suffragists began to show results. The House of Representatives and the Senate considered, for the first time, the passage of an amendment that would grant women equal voting rights. In January 1918, Woodrow Wilson endorsed the Nineteenth Amendment, the House of Representatives approved it the same month, and the Senate finally passed the amendment on June 4, 1919. Thirty-six states ratified the amendment, and on August 26, 1920, it became law.

As their lives had changed after World War I, women's roles changed forever because of their World War II experiences when five million additional women were brought into the work force. World War II was the first war in which women had regular military status, and 350,000 served in the armed forces. Although women received less pay than men received

and suffered various forms of discrimination, they gained a new sense of independence that did not disappear at the end of the war.

At the conclusion of World War II, both government and private employers encouraged women to return to their kitchens. The postwar baby boom, a comfortable life in the suburbs, and women's clubs did not give women the satisfaction of an income of their own. In the 1950s, older women began returning to work in regular numbers. A decade later, a women's rights movement emerged as an outgrowth of the civil rights movement. The effort to pass the Equal Rights Amendment and the controversy over the Supreme Court decision in *Roe v. Wade* highlighted the early years of the movement.

Students should be encouraged to probe the implications of positions for and against women's rights. Before this lesson, students should review the history of the women's rights movement in the United States and the efforts to secure passage of legislation that guaranteed these rights.

In this lesson, students examine the context of women's history and the women's rights movement.

Procedure

1. Ask for examples of rights that are guaranteed to citizens under the Constitution (right to vote, rights regarding trial by jury, freedom of speech, religion, etc). Explain that for centuries most of these rights were guaranteed only to men. Mention that women were considered legally to be part of their husbands and were denied most of these rights. Explain that it took many years for women to achieve even some equality with men.

2. Distribute **Handout 19**, and have students complete it. Review and summarize students' responses. Play devil's advocate to represent diverse attitudes.

Suggested Responses

1. a. *Colonial life*—hard physical labor, wives involved in their husbands' work, some political equality; Quaker leadership in reform movements

   b. *Revolutionary period*—support for military, some "free thinkers," e.g. Abigail Adams

   c. *Antebellum South*—strict separation of men's and women's roles among aristocracy, exploitation of female slaves by white masters

   d. *Seneca Falls Convention (1848)*—Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, and others; wrote Declaration of Sentiments, based on the Declaration of Independence, which created agenda for change

   e. *Nineteenth-century spheres of men and women*—men busy with the difficult and personally draining demands of business; ladies focused on welfare of husbands and

children; extreme limitation of spheres for both genders; consignment of women's interests to virtue, fashion, and home life; laws enforcing women's economic dependence; double standard of morality; need for someone to care for home and children; inability to share authority; belief that males are inherently higher than females; limitation of women's intellectual life; absolute dependence of wives and daughters; pluralism in thinking among both men and women; tendency for women to agree with their husbands' positions

f. *Abolition and feminism*—Mott and Anthony reflected the role of Quaker women in society and reform; they shared the conviction of citizenship that goes beyond white men, the importance of equal rights, and especially the right to vote; virtually all social institutions supported women's subservience

g. *1920–1945*—women's roles began to change as they assumed positions of authority, and many began to work outside the home, especially during the war effort; evidence that women do not vote as a lobbying block

h. *Post–1945*—women had greater responsibility for the financial support of families; traditional role of women in family changed with demands for equal pay and opportunities; Equal Rights Amendment; more women in public office; women became a formidable voting block

2. Need to consider African-American suffrage and women's suffrage as separate issues; similarities: reaction based on endemic racism and sexism; awareness of possibility of success in seeking reform; emphasis on importance of the right to vote; feminism, like abolitionism, is based on awareness of human rights; differences: fear of the effect women's freedom might have on family structure; may have speeded passage of Nineteenth Amendment, but meant suffrage did not bring equality

3. Opposition by powerful liquor lobby; growth of speaking and organizing abilities; support by others convinced of evil of drinking; destructive effect of drinking and drunkenness on the family and society

4. Women became emancipated and assumed roles that traditionally belonged to men; more day care became available, providing time to fit in work, family, and housework; more single-parent families; women demanded equal pay for equal work

5. Answers might include the following:

- Oveta Culp Hobby (1960)—served as Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare
- Jacqueline Cochran (1960)—flew faster than the speed of sound
- Takemoto Mink (1965)—Asian-American woman elected to serve in Congress
- Juanita Kreps (1972)—became director of New York Stock Exchange
- Sarah Caldwell (1976)—conducted the New York Philharmonic Orchestra
- Sandra Day O'Connor (1981)—named justice of U.S. Supreme Court
- Sally Ride (1983)—astronaut sent into space
- Geraldine Ferraro (1984)—ran for vice president of the United States
- Janet Reno (1993)—became Attorney General of the United States
- Madeleine Albright (1997)—named as Secretary of State
- Col. Eileen Collins (2006)—commanded space shuttle mission
- Effa Manley (2006)—elected to Baseball Hall of Fame
- Nancy Pelosi (2007)—served as Speaker of the House of Representatives
- Dr. Nancy Whitson (2007)—served as commander of the international space station

6. Students might mention passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Supreme Court decision of *Roe v. Wade* (1973), and congressional passage of the Equal Rights Amendment, although the amendment failed to secure ratification by the required thirty-eight states by the deadline in 1982.

7. Betty Friedan established the National Organization of Women in 1966 to pressure the government to enforce Title VII. Most members were middle-class women. The organization's goal was "to bring women into full participation in the mainstream of American society now." The organization worked for equal opportunity in employment and encouraged other protests on behalf on equality for women. One success of the organization was securing passage of a law to ban gender references in help wanted ads.

3. To conclude, have students prepare a list and explanation of five problems facing women in American society during the twenty-first century which were not significant concerns of women fifty years ago.

 Name:

The Long Road to Women's Rights

Directions: Use your textbook and other sources to complete each of the sections below.

1. From the colonial period to the ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment, many American women demonstrated creativity, intelligence, and courage. Despite the obvious achievements of many and the selfless efforts of some, women did not receive the full rights of citizenship until after World War I. Summarize your knowledge of women's roles in each of the following:
   a. Colonial life
   b. Revolutionary period
   c. Antebellum South
   d. Seneca Falls Convention (1848)
   e. Nineteenth-century spheres of men and women
   f. Abolition and feminism
   g. 1920–1945
   h. Post–1945
2. During the nineteenth century, the abolitionist movement and the movement toward female equality were deeply entwined. Many of the great feminist leaders were committed to emancipation of African Americans. What similarities do you see in the two causes? What differences are evident?
3. Eventually, many feminists became involved in various temperance movements working for Prohibition. What connection do you see between these two movements?
4. Give at least three examples of changing conditions in the workforce for women.
5. Prepare a list of ten groundbreaking accomplishments by women during the period between 1945 and the present, and write a brief rationale for each choice.
6. Write a description of at least three key legislative or Supreme Court decisions that affected the women's movement in the last half of the twentieth century.
7. Write a descriptive paragraph on the organization, goals, strategies, work, and successes of the National Organization of Women.

Lesson 11

Competition in the West: Miners, Ranchers, Homesteaders, and Native Americans

Objective

- To examine the competition and cooperation needed to settle the American West successfully

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Peopling

PEO-5: Explain how free and forced migration to and within different parts of North America caused regional development, cultural diversity and blending, and political and social conflicts through the 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

Between the nation's founding in the late eighteenth century and the end of the frontier at the close of the nineteenth century, the population of the United States moved westward across the continent. Territorial acquisitions provided new lands for a growing population eager for settlement. Special interest groups promoted specific agendas and conflict and competition often resulted. Often tangential businesses developed as industries spread westward. For example, meatpacking became big business in midwestern cities like Chicago and Omaha.

The introduction of mechanization changed the face of mining in the West. Mine owners employed large numbers of immigrants who came seeking jobs. Mining companies often used extreme methods such as hydraulic and strip mining to extract metal ore from mountainsides, resulting in poisoned streams and huge piles of toxic waste. The opening of hundreds of thousands of acres of the Great Plains to ranchers and homesteaders created conflicts over water rights, the use of barbed wire fencing, and the need for an extensive railroad system to transport animals to the processing plants of the Midwest and East. Railroad companies created cartels that bought up huge areas of land to use as right-of-way, often cutting off access to ranchers moving their cattle along established trails. The introduction

of sheep to western public grazing lands created additional areas of conflict between homesteaders and cattlemen.

Native Americans came into conflict with all of these groups. Cattlemen and homesteaders were viewed as invaders and trespassers on the traditional hunting grounds of the Plains tribes. Army units, dispatched to protect the areas of new settlement, built forts across the Plains and often came into bloody conflict with Native American tribes. This led to the establishment of a reservation system. Toward the end of the nineteenth century, the federal government began to set aside lands in the West for national parks and established some regulatory control over land usage.

In this lesson, student groups read one of three scenarios and make presentations on how specific conflicts which arose during the settlement of the West could be resolved.

Procedure

1. Ask for a definition of *frontier* (the edge of settlement). Explain that over a period of about a hundred years, the American frontier moved westward. By the end of the Civil War, Americans had begun to push beyond the Mississippi River in increasing numbers.

2. Continue by asking the following questions.
   - What are some examples of the groups that moved westward? (miners, cattlemen, farmers, railroadmen)
   - What might have caused these groups to conflict? (water and land rights, fencing of property, use of environmentally dangerous practices)
   - What other group would have been involved in conflicts as the West was settled? (Native Americans)

   Mention that Native Americans came into conflict with all of these groups.

3. Divide the class evenly into three groups, and distribute **Handout 20**. Assign a scenario to each group. Give each group about twenty minutes to discuss and prepare its presentation.

4. After all the groups have made their presentations, have students try to reach consensus on which proposed solutions to the conflicts could be successful. If students decide that none of the solutions will be effective, have students try to determine a solution for that scenario. Ask students how these scenarios might be resolved today. (Opponents would probably use the court system or lobby state and national legislatures to resolve the conflicts.)

Name:

Competition and Conflict on the Western Frontier

Directions: Read the scenario assigned to your group. Prepare a presentation of no more than five minutes in which your group describes the conflict and proposes a solution to the problem.

Scenario 1

Cattleman Sam Goody owns one hundred thousand acres of grazing land in south central Texas and has access to another fifty thousand acres of public lands. He has raised cattle for eastern markets since the end of the Civil War. Hundreds of new settlers have come to settle and establish farms on nearby homestead land. The railhead for cattle shipments is in Abilene, many miles to the northwest. Sam has traditionally driven his cattle overland to the feed lots of Abilene. New settlers have used barbed wire to keep Sam's cattle from wandering into their fields. This has closed off the route Sam has used for many years. Open conflict is close to breaking out between the two sides. How can this conflict be resolved?

Scenario 2

Peter Piper is a representative of the American Central Railway Company. The company has sent Peter to Nebraska to buy land for the right-of-way of a proposed rail line. In order for this line to be built, Peter must purchase many small farms along the right-of-way. Numerous farmers refuse to sell, and Peter's bosses are threatening to use force if necessary to get the land they want. The construction of this railroad would also disrupt the buffalo hunts of several nomadic Native American groups. How can this conflict be resolved?

Scenario 3

The Wasatch Mining Company wants to open a huge mining operation on federal land. This land has been sacred to the local Native Americans for hundreds of years. The mining operation would use hydraulic hoses to blast away the surface of the sacred mountain to get to the silver ore. The ore would be processed in a smelter, and toxic tailings would result. These tailings would be stored in large piles all around the area and would pollute neighboring streams and rivers used by farmers and ranchers. Several violent clashes have resulted. How can this conflict be resolved?

Lesson 12

Native American Policy

Objective

- To review Native American policy of the U.S. government from 1816 to 1974

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-6: Analyze how migration patterns to, and migration within, the United States have influenced the growth of racial and ethnic identities and conflicts over ethnic assimilation and distinctiveness

Notes to the Teacher

From the beginning of America's history, most white European settlers regarded Native Americans as uncivilized savages who lacked a written language, had no knowledge of property ownership, and underutilized the land they occupied. Most white Americans believed that only they could sufficiently develop the land as ordained by God; therefore, they had to force Native Americans to give up their lands and live on reservations. The Declaration of Independence cites their savagery, and not until 1887 did some Americans begin to reconsider their attitudes towards Native Americans. The U.S. Constitution in Article 1, Section 8 gave Congress the power to "regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes." Thomas Jefferson promoted the taking of western Indian lands for benefit of yeoman farmers. Between 1816 and 1830, treaty breaking forced Native Americans to leave their lands and move to reservations farther west. Moreover, many whites began to regard Native Americans as a nuisance. It was government policy to make treaties with good intentions, but when white settlers moved onto the land, the government policy was to force the Native Americans off the land or to pressure them to make more concessions.

By the 1850s and 1860s, the U.S. government had forced the Lakota off their land in Minnesota in exchange for reservations and promises for money and agricultural assistance that never came. When the Lakota reacted to failed promises by attacking white settlers, they were forced off their native lands. Native Americans reacted to mistreatment by leaving

their reservations and attacking white settlers. The government reacted by employing brutal tactics. They hunted the Indians down and forced them to return or killed them.

During the era of the Social Gospel, many well-intentioned reformers believed that the best way to deal with past injustices was to assimilate Indians into mainstream society. In 1877, Congress passed the Dawes Act, which divided tribal lands into family allotments. In reality, whites got the best land, and the Native Americans received land often unsuitable for cultivation. Indians were forced to attend government-run schools where they were taught the English language and their own cultures were suppressed. The policy was a complete failure. In the end, as the numbers of Native Americans sharply declined, the West was open for further settlement. Citizenship was granted to Native Americans in 1924, with the passage of the Indian Citizenship Act.

During the late 1920s and 1930s, another reform movement began to repair the harm done by the Dawes Act. John Collier, a commissioner of Indian Affairs under Franklin D. Roosevelt, sought to preserve traditional Indian life. As part of the New Deal, Indian youth were employed to construct schools and hospitals on reservations and to preserve important cultural sites. Collier pushed legislation that would create, among other things, tribal schools that would teach Native American culture. Some Indian leaders criticized him for trying to keep Indians apart from the real world.

Congressional policy changed at the close of World War II and began recommending "a final solution to the Indian problem." This idea looked to past policies. The goal would be to make the Indian a better American rather than a better Indian. Indians would no longer be wards of the government. The government would begin withdrawing services from tribes. There was a huge protest, and some thought that this would cause Indians to suffer the loss of more lands.

In the 1960s, Congress changed laws so that tribes were allowed to have businesses such as resorts, gambling casinos, and mining and logging concerns that opened up jobs on reservations.

In this lesson, students research Native American policy and work in small groups to come up with common themes related to that policy. They discuss these findings and conclude by answering three key questions.

Procedure

1. Ask students whether they associate these words with Native Americans: *teepee, scalp, headdress, buffalo*. Explain that there are many culturally different Native American groups in America. Only some lived in teepees or hunted the buffalo; scalping was introduced to Eastern Native Americans during the early days of the French and British colonies by army officers, who offered bounties for Indian allies of their enemies. Explain that during America's history many

Native American tribal groups have been regarded as sovereign nations. Clashes and conflicts have been the rule in the relationships between these tribal groups and white European Americans. There have been few exceptions. The Notes to the Teacher might be used to provide more detailed background material.

2. Divide the class into small groups of three or four. Distribute **Handout 21**, and have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to research the items in part A.

Suggested Responses

1. The Declaration of Independence states, "He [King George III] has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions. . . ."

2. In 1820, the Five Civilized Tribes of the South (Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws, and Seminoles) were forced to give up their lands by the Indian Removal Act. It gave the president the power to use force to move them west of the Mississippi River.

3. President Jackson ignored Marshall's rulings, which supported the claims of the Cherokee Nation to lands in what had been the British colonies of Georgia and North Carolina in *Cherokee Nation v. Georgia*. Later, in *Worcester v. Georgia*, Marshall ruled that the Cherokee were a distinct political community entitled to federal protection against claims by Georgia. Jackson and the state of Georgia forced the Cherokee Nation to cede its land and travel the Trail of Tears westward.

4. In 1868 when the government signed peace treaties with a number of the warring tribes, Native Americans were forced to settle in one of two huge reservations, one in present-day Oklahoma (Medicine Lodge Treaty) and the other in present-day Montana and South Dakota (Fort Laramie Treaty). The government did not keep its promise to help with farming and supplies. The land assigned was poor agricultural land.

5. When gold was discovered on part of the Lakota reservation in the Black Hills, the Lakota were required to vacate their lands. When they resisted, the U.S. government waged war against them. At the Battle of Little Bighorn, a combined force of Lakota and Cheyenne destroyed a cavalry force under the command of George Custer.

6. Congress formed the Board of Indian Commissioners in 1869 to reform the reservation system. One of the major problems was whites who criminally defrauded Native Americans and stole their reservation lands. Another was that ambiguous federal laws were poorly enforced. On reservations, the government forced Indians to live in complete dependence on government assistance.

7. A reformer, Helen Hunt Jackson wrote *A Century of Dishonor* in 1881 to call attention to injustices against Native Americans.

8. The Dawes Severalty Act ended collective tribal ownership of land and divided reservations into 160-acre farms that were assigned to Native American families.

9. The Bureau of Indian Affairs designed these schools to Americanize the Native Americans, as it was believed that the Indian culture prevented their assimilation into mainstream society and that it must be discarded. The motto of the Phoenix school was as follows: "Kill the Indian in him, and save the man." The male students learned vocational trades, and the females learned how to maintain a traditional white American home.

10. The Bureau of Indian Affairs was established to support the reservation system and promote both the assimilation of Native Americans and the use of the English language by Native Americans.

11. The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 recognized the interests of Native Americans and halted the sale of tribal lands. It restored tribes as legal entities that could apply for charters of incorporation and allowed them to pursue business ventures as tribes and to seek enforcement of earlier treaties. It ended the period of assimilation.

12. Under President Richard Nixon, tribes were given control of governmental programs and schools on their reservations. The schools were to have a built-in cultural relevance to their students.

13. The Indian Claims Commission restored lands and paid claims to Native Americans of Alaska, the Lakota, and Penobscot Indians of Maine, among others. Tribes began to pursue rights granted to them in earlier treaties.

3. Allow students time to complete part B of **Handout 21**. Have the class reach consensus on ten common themes.

Suggested Responses

> From a white settler's viewpoint, Indians were uncivilized brutal savages, did not have a written language, and did not properly use the land they occupied; they were a nuisance, did not follow laws, and broke treaties. White America forced the destruction of Native American culture and settled Native Americans on reservations. After 1887, the common themes focused more on the harm done to Native Americans, including loss of culture, harmful reforms, forced assimilation, dishonest land agents, and forced dependency. After the 1920s and 1930s, the common themes were preservation of Indian traditions and recognition of Native American interests.

4. Reconvene students in their original groups, and distribute **Handout 22**. Have students complete the handout as directed.

Suggested Responses

> 1. Students might mention the Declaration of Independence, Andrew Jackson's Indian Removal Act, the Trail of Tears, and Supreme Court rulings, as well as tribal reservation policy, the decline in the buffalo population, the Fort Laramie and Medicine Lodge treaties, Black Hills, Board of Indian Commissioners, and George Custer and Little Big Horn; all aimed at protecting the white interests at the expense of Indians.
> 2. Students might mention the unintended consequences and harm these reforms inflicted on the Native Americans because of forced assimilation, as well as the corrupt practices of Indian agents, the loss of Indian land, and the loss of culture.
> 3. Students might discuss policies that attempted to allow self-determination among Indian tribes, to reduce interference by the government, to allow tribes to incorporate and seek profit from business ventures, to restore land, and to pursue reparation claims.

What You Should Know about Native American Policy

Part A.

Directions: Discuss how each item is associated with U.S. Native American policy.

1. Declaration of Independence

2. Five Civilized Tribes

3. Chief Justice John Marshall, *Cherokee Nation v. Georgia*, *Worchester v. Georgia*, President Andrew Jackson, and the Trail of Tears

4. Reservations, Medicine Lodge Treaty, and Fort Laramie Treaty

5. Black Hills Gold and the Battle of the Little Big Horn

6. Board of Indian Commissioners

7. Helen Hunt Jackson, *A Century of Dishonor*

8. Dawes Severalty Act

9. Carlisle Indian School and Phoenix Indian School

10. Bureau of Indian Affairs

11. Indian Reorganization Act of 1934

12. Indian Self-Determination Act of 1974

13. Indian Claims Commission

Part B.

Directions: Use information from part A to identify ten general themes in the relationship between white America and Native Americans. Be prepared for class discussion.

 Name:

Changing Policy toward Native Americans

Directions: Read each statement or question below, and use information from **Handout 21** on the changing policy of the U.S. government toward Native Americans to develop a thesis statement. Then formulate a short essay by writing at least five supporting sentences and a conclusion for each of the prompts.

1. Native American policy up to 1887 was aimed largely at protecting the rights of white settlers at the expense of Native Americans. Assess the validity of this statement.

2. The Dawes Severalty Act of 1887 was an attempt to reform Native American policy and address the harm done to indigenous people of the United States. How successful was it? Were other reforms of the era more successful?

3. The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 ended the period of assimilation and attempted to recognize the interests of Native Americans. Was this act successful? How successful were subsequent reforms?

Lesson 13

Social History and Contemporary Art

Objectives

- To view postwar American art as a reflection of contemporary social history
- To become acquainted with abstract expressionism, pop art, and op art

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-6: Analyze the role of culture and the arts in 19th- and 20th-century movements for social and political change

Notes to the Teacher

Art, like literature, reflects contemporary social history. American artists, active since colonial times, had long worked in the traditions of the great European movements. After World War II, U.S. artists for the first time assumed an individual leadership role in world art development. Abstract expressionism—represented by Jackson Pollock, Franz Kline, and others—is characterized by very large canvases, improvisation, and sometimes chaotic energy. The pop art movement in the 1950s, on the other hand, takes a strongly representational approach to elements of mass culture, often leading the viewer to skeptical detachment. Op art uses optical illusions to create a sense of continual motion.

This lesson leads to an understanding of contemporary art as a barometer to social and cultural history. Students begin by finding at least four examples each of abstract expressionism, pop art, and op art. They share their findings in small groups and try to relate the works of art to values of contemporary society. They conclude by writing an essay illustrating how contemporary art reflects American social and cultural history. You will need prints or slides representing all three art movements.

Procedure

1. Point out that art, like literature, reflects history in interesting ways. Add that after World War II, American artists assumed a strong leadership role in world art development.

2. Write *abstract expressionism* on the board, and ask the following questions.
   - What does *abstract* mean? (You may want to prompt students' thoughts by asking for antonyms as well as synonyms.)
   - What does it mean to express something?
   - How does expression differ from suggestion?
   - What do you expect in art representative of abstract expressionism?
3. Show students prints or slides of abstract expressionist art.
4. Point out that abstract expressionism led to a reaction called *pop art*. Then show representative slides or prints. Students will recognize the contrast in styles immediately.
5. Tell students that op art is sometimes called "art of the roving eye." Again, show them representative slides or prints.
6. Point out that although there is much diversity in contemporary art, there are also characteristics that make it relatively easy to distinguish it from other periods.
7. Distribute **Handout 23**, and have students complete it. (Note: Students will need ample research time for this activity.)
8. On the day of discussion of the art, divide the class into small groups to share their collections of photocopied art works.
9. Distribute **Handout 24**. Ask students to write their own definitions of the three terms and to rank the values expressed by the art by marking the continuums on the handout.
10. Have students share conclusions. (Students will probably observe contemporary art's energy, tension, freedom, improvisation, alienation, subjectivity, physicality, power, inventiveness, and disruption.)
11. To conclude, have students write the short essay indicated in part B of **Handout 24**. Students may gain greater insights by working in pairs for this activity than by writing individually.

Twentieth-Century Art Movements

Directions: Find at least four examples of each of the following styles of contemporary art. Mount each example, and below it write a brief statement of your reaction to the painting.

1. Abstract expressionism

   Abstract expressionism avoids all attempt at representation and relies on color, texture, and shape to express emotions. American abstract expressionists became the first artists from this country to lead rather than follow a movement. Artists painting in this style include Jackson Pollack, Franz Kline, Willem de Kooning, Arshile Gorky, Mark Rothko, and Robert Motherwell.

2. Pop art

   Pop art, sometimes called "the art of the commonplace," is highly realistic and often ridicules products of mass culture. Artists painting in this style include Robert Rauschenberg, Roy Lichtenstein, Andy Warhol, and Robert Indiana.

3. Op art

   Op (or optical) art includes optical illusions, striking juxtapositions of color, and moiré patterns. In your search for this style, look for works of artists such as Frank Stella, Keith Noland, Josef Albers, and Julian Stanczak.

 Name: _____

Social History and Contemporary Art

Part A.
Directions: Use your completed collection of modern art as a resource for the following activities.

1. Write your own definition of each of the following terms:
   a. Abstract expressionism

   b. Pop art

   c. Op art

2. Express your general ideas about contemporary art by indicating where you believe it falls on each continuum.

Energy	_____	**Inertia**
Tension	_____	**Serenity**
Structure	_____	**Freedom**
Improvisation	_____	**Planning**
Alienation	_____	**Social commitment**
Objectivity	_____	**Subjectivity**
Intellectuality	_____	**Physicality**
Power	_____	**Fragility**
Tradition	_____	**Invention**
Disruption	_____	**Complacency**

Part B.
Directions: Write a short essay showing how contemporary art reflects a response to nuclear capability, social protest, prosperity, disillusionment with institutions, or some other aspect of American history after World War II.

Lesson 14

Continuity and Change in American History

Objective

- To review American history by tracing key themes

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Thematic Learning Objective:

Several, including Identity; Work, Exchange, and Technology; Peopling; Politics and Power; and America in the World

Notes to the Teacher

In preparation for the Advanced Placement examination in U.S. history, it is critical that students organize the major themes of American history lest the major threads become lost in an avalanche of data. Since many courses are taught in a chronological sequence, students need to trace continuity and change from various vantage points. Tracing continuity and change as part of a review of key themes in our nation's history provides a useful way to begin a comprehensive review.

In this lesson, small groups research and become experts in three major areas of American history. They complete thematic time lines, note trends, detect cause-and-effect relationships, and try to find connections between events on related time lines (for example, business and labor or wars and threats to civil liberties). At this point, they should feel confident to teach their time lines to students who have been working in other areas. Such cooperative learning activities help to lighten the burden of the review; in addition, students learn the material more effectively since they have to teach it to their classmates. You may want to supply students with newsprint and markers.

Procedure

1. Divide the class into three groups, and distribute **Handout 25**.
2. Have each group complete the required handout activities for one of the three time line groupings. Tell students that they will later have to teach their section to their classmates, so they should be prepared to field questions from the class.

3. Allow class time for presentations. Require students to take notes while groups present their work.

4. After each group presentation, take time to clarify misunderstandings, answer questions, and encourage further insights on patterns, trends, generalizations, relationships, and continuity and change over time.

   This time line activity should be extended as much as time permits, since a careful analysis of completed time lines may lead to insights students never had in their first encounter with the material earlier in the course. Tracing continuity and change in other areas of American life should help students to recognize the broad outlines of American development, a useful step in reviewing for the Advanced Placement examination.

Suggested Responses, Time Lines

Colonial history
1607—Jamestown
1619—Virginia House of Burgesses and first African Americans in Virginia
1620—Mayflower Compact
1636—Harvard
1639—Fundamental Orders of Connecticut
1647—Massachusetts Education Law
1649—Maryland Act of Toleration
1676—Bacon's Rebellion
1735—Zenger Trial
1754—beginning of French and Indian War
1763—Treaty of Paris

American Revolution
1763—Treaty of Paris
1765—Stamp Act
1767—Townshend duties
1770—Boston Massacre
1773—Boston Tea Party
1775—Lexington and Concord
1776—Declaration of Independence
1777—Battle of Saratoga
1778—alliance with France
1781—surrender at Yorktown
1783—Treaty of Paris

Confederation to Constitution
1781—Articles of Confederation into effect
1783—Treaty of Paris
1786—Shays' Rebellion
1787—Northwest Ordinance and Constitutional Convention

1789—Constitution into effect
1790—Rhode Island, the last of the original thirteen states, ratified the Constitution
1791—Bill of Rights ratified

National period
1789—Constitution into effect
1793—Proclamation of Neutrality
1797—Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions
1803—Louisiana Purchase and *Marbury v. Madison*
1807—embargo
1812—War of 1812
1814—Treaty of Ghent
1820—Missouri Compromise
1823—Monroe Doctrine
1828—Tariff of Abominations
1832—Bank War and election of Andrew Jackson

Sectionalism, Civil War, and Reconstruction
1820—Missouri Compromise
1832—Tariff of 1832 and resulting controversy
1833—Tariff Compromise of 1833
1846—Wilmot Proviso
1849—California's application for statehood
1850—Compromise of 1850
1852—*Uncle Tom's Cabin*
1854—Ostend Manifesto and Kansas-Nebraska Act
1857—Dred Scott decision
1858—Lincoln-Douglas debates
1859—John Brown's raid
1860—election of Abraham Lincoln
1861—secession and Fort Sumter
1863—Emancipation Proclamation
1865—surrender at Appomattox Court House and assassination of Lincoln
1867—impeachment of Andrew Johnson
1877—withdrawal of last troops from the South

Intolerance and threats to civil liberties
1798—Alien and Sedition Acts
1853—Know-Nothing Party
Civil War—suspension of habeas corpus
Reconstruction—black codes and Ku Klux Klan
end of nineteenth century—literacy tests, poll taxes, residence requirements, and Jim Crow laws
1919—Red Scare

1920s—Ku Klux Klan, Sacco and Vanzetti trial, and Immigration Act of 1924
World War II—internment of Japanese-Americans
1950s—McCarthyism

Wars in American history
1754—Beginning of the French and Indian War
1763—Treaty of Paris
1775—Lexington and Concord began American Revolution
1783—Treaty of Paris
1812—War of 1812
1814—Treaty of Ghent
1846—outbreak of Mexican War
1848—Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo
1861—beginning of Civil War
1865—surrender at Appomattox Court House to end Civil War
1898—Spanish-American War and Treaty of Paris
1917—United States' entry into World War I
1918—armistice to end World War I
1941—Pearl Harbor
1945—end of World War II
1950—beginning of Korean Conflict
1953—armistice to end Korean War
1954—beginning of U.S. involvement in Vietnam
1973—Paris Peace Accord

Development of political parties
approx. 1792—first split into political parties, the Federalist and Democratic-Republican parties
1816—beginning of Era of Good Feeling
1824—controversial election, which led to split into Whig and Democratic parties
1860—first electoral victory of modern Republican party
1936—Democrats became the majority as a result of the new Democratic coalition forged by Franklin Roosevelt after a long Republican rule

Immigration
1882—Chinese Exclusion Act
1907—Gentlemen's Agreement with Japan
1917—literacy test
1924—Immigration Act of 1924 established the first national origins quota
1929—Immigration Act of 1929 made the quota permanent and drastically curtailed the quota
1952—McCarran-Walter Act

1965—Immigration Act substituted national needs and family priorities for the more discriminatory quota based on national origins

Business enterprise in America
1791—First Bank of the United States
1816—Clay's American System, which included the first protective tariff
1828—Tariff of Abominations
1832—controversy over reestablishment of the Bank of the United States
Civil War—Lincoln's pro-business platform enacted by Congress
1877—*Munn v. Illinois*
1886—*Wabash v. Illinois*
1887—Interstate Commerce Act
1890—Sherman Anti-Trust Act
1902—Roosevelt's intervention in the anthracite coal strike
1903—Elkins Act
1906—Hepburn Act, Pure Food and Drug Act, and Meat Inspection Act
1913—Federal Reserve Act and Underwood-Simmons tariff
1914—Clayton Anti-Trust Act and Federal Trade Commission
1930—Hawley-Smoot Tariff
1939—Fair Labor Standards Act

Agriculture in American history
1619—First black indentured servants arrived in Jamestown
1793—cotton gin
1834—McCormack reaper
1862—Homestead Act, Morrill Act, and Bureau of Agriculture
1867—Grange
1877—*Munn v. Illinois*
1878—Bland-Allison Act
1886—*Wabash v. Illinois*
1887—Interstate Commerce Act
1890—Sherman Silver Purchase Act
1892—Populists organized
World War I—high point of prosperity for American farmers
1920s—falling sales after World War I, with resulting early depression for farmers
1933—Agriculture Adjustment Act
1961—omnibus farm bill

Labor in American history
1869—Knights of Labor organized
1886—Haymarket Riot

1892—Homestead Strike
1894—Pullman Strike
1902—anthracite coal strike
1914—Clayton Anti-Trust Act
1935—Wagner Act and Social Security
1938—Fair Labor Standards Act
1947—Taft-Hartley Act

As an example of the trends or change over time on the colonial time line, students might recognize that over time the colonists' experiences gave them some of the institutions and skills necessary for success as an independent country. In relating colonial experiences to later ones, students might recognize that this background in self-government prepared the colonists both to feel ready for independence and to handle it successfully when it came; however, their strong reliance on and preference for local government led to the short-lived attempt to create a confederate form of government. Experience with the Articles of Confederation proved quickly the wisdom of having a national government with real authority. Earlier experiences, as well as a broad knowledge of political philosophy, led the Founding Fathers to the truly inspired federal form of government under the Constitution.

Continuity and Change in American History

Directions: Read the following information, and complete the assignment.

To this point, much of your study of American history has probably been chronological. Many Advanced Placement questions require you to make generalizations, note trends, and trace continuity and change over time. For this reason, creating time lines is a useful review strategy. The key, of course, is not merely identifying events to match dates, but recognizing and articulating events' significance and their relationship to themes and to what came before and what followed.

To make effective use of the time lines, do several tasks. First, create a time line for each topic with the dates indicated. Second, identify key events and their significance for the dates on the time lines. Third, state at least one generalization or one trend over time. Finally, state connections between events on one time line and those on the time line below it. This is important to help you start drawing connections between areas of American life. Here, the more, the better applies. Work cooperatively! It eases the burden and makes greater insights possible.

Group 1

Colonial history

1607	1639	1735
1619	1647	1754
1620	1649	1763
1636	1676	

American Revolution

1763	1773	1778
1765	1775	1781
1767	1776	1783
1770	1777	

Confederation to Constitution

1781	1787	1790
1783	1789	1791
1786		

National period

1789	1807	1823
1793	1812	1828
1797	1814	1832
1803	1820	

Group 2

Sectionalism, Civil War, and Reconstruction

1820	1852	1861
1832	1854	1863
1833	1857	1865
1846	1858	1867
1849	1859	1877
1850	1860	

Intolerance and threats to civil liberties

1798	1919
1853	1920s
Civil War	World War II
Reconstruction	1950s
end of nineteenth century	

Wars in American history

1754	1848	1945
1763	1861	1950
1775	1865	1953
1783	1898	1954
1812	1917	1973
1814	1918	
1846	1941	

Development of political parties

approx. 1792	1860
1816	1936
1824	

Group 3

Immigration

1882	1924	1965
1907	1929	
1917	1952	

Business enterprise in America

1791	1886	1913
1816	1887	1914
1828	1890	1930
1832	1902	1939
Civil War	1903	
1877	1906	

Agriculture in American history

1619	1878	1920s
1793	1886	1933
1834	1887	1961
1862	1890	
1867	1892	
1877	World War I	

Labor in American history

1869	1894	1935
1886	1902	1938
1892	1914	1947

Lesson 15

Presidential Performance

Objectives

- To analyze criteria for evaluating presidential performance
- To evaluate recent administrations in light of those criteria

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-2: Explain how and why major party systems and political alignments arose and have changed from the early Republic through the end of the 20th century

POL-6: Analyze how debates over political values (such as democracy, freedom, and citizenship) and the extension of American ideals abroad contributed to the ideological clashes and military conflicts of the 19th century and the early 20th century

Notes to the Teacher

Journalists and historians have evaluated presidential administrations since the beginning of our country's existence.

Even Advanced Placement students sometimes bring much naivete to their study of historical figures, leading to a tendency to apply Savior or Satan generalizations. The lesson should lead to realistic awareness of the very difficult job of the U.S. president.

In this lesson, students establish criteria for an effective president and apply those criteria to an informal evaluation of recent presidents. This lesson takes more than one day to complete.

Procedure

1. Ask students for examples of great presidents. (Answers might include George Washington, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Abraham Lincoln.) Ask for examples of weak presidents (Millard Fillmore, James Buchanan, Warren G. Harding). Ask students for examples of how polls can be used to evaluate presidents (stand on specific issues, likeability, experience, education, past political activity or positions). Explain that in 1948, Arthur M. Schlesinger Sr., a professor at Harvard University, polled fifty-five experts on the issue of presidential greatness. For the next fifty years, Schlesinger continued to conduct polls evaluating the presidents. Participants used standard academic polling techniques.

2. Distribute **Handout 26**. Have students express their intuitive evaluations of the presidents by ranking them from weak to great. Ask them to explain their evaluations. Then ask students to evaluate the current president within the parameters of future historical significance.

3. Point out that the evaluations of professional historians and journalists often include a list of specific responsibilities. Divide the class into small groups, and have students brainstorm lists of specific presidential responsibilities. Have each small group read aloud the results of the brainstorming. Encourage groups to add new ideas to their own lists.

4. Using the list of responsibilities developed in procedure 3, have the class compose a presidential evaluation checklist that incorporates the results of the brainstorming in a clear, concise, useful evaluation tool. Display the list in a prominent place. The list might include some or all of the following criteria:

   - Establishment of a cooperative relationship with Congress
   - Selection of a cooperative, competent, effective administrative staff
   - Projection of an attractive, responsible American image
   - Just interaction with leaders of other nations for the best interests of the United States
   - Recognition of domestic and international problems as they arise
   - Avoidance of unnecessary engagement in military combat
   - Knowledge and understanding of history

   Students should avoid redundancy and try to incorporate all general aspects of presidential responsibility. Have students record their list of criteria for an effective president.

5. Point out that a number of factors can tend to bias an evaluation. Ask students to identify some (political party, sensitivity to specific issues, socioeconomic group). Emphasize that the class's evaluation is, at best, provisional; still, responsible citizenship entails an alert and educated awareness of presidential activity.

6. To conclude, divide students into small groups; the total number of groups should equal the number of presidents since Richard Nixon. Assign each group a name from the list of presidents since Nixon, and ask students to find similar informal evaluations of their assigned president. Tell students to be prepared to share their findings, explain major events in the administration that account for the evaluations, and relate opinions to their own evaluation, using the criteria the class established. Students could also use the consensus evaluation criteria established by the class to survey other students or adult groups as to their ranking of the most recent presidents and then share this information with the class.

Name:

Evaluating Presidential Greatness

Directions: Evaluate the following presidents by ranking them from weak to great. Be prepared to explain your evaluations.

President	Weak	Good	Excellent	Great
1. Woodrow Wilson				
2. Warren G. Harding				
3. Calvin Coolidge				
4. Herbert Hoover				
5. Franklin D. Roosevelt				
6. Harry Truman				
7. Dwight D. Eisenhower				
8. John F. Kennedy				
9. Lyndon B. Johnson				
10. Richard M. Nixon				
11. Gerald R. Ford				
12. Jimmy Carter				
13. Ronald Reagan				
14. George H. W. Bush				
15. William J. Clinton				
16. George W. Bush				

Lesson 16

Cultural Movements and Popular Entertainment

Objective

- To understand how the changing values of postwar America resulted in the great cultural disruptions of the 1960s

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-7: Explain how and why "modern" cultural values and popular culture have grown since the early 20th century and how they have affected American politics and society

Notes to the Teacher

A greatly enlarged middle class and a consumer culture marked the 1950s postwar era. By 1960, with a television in nearly every American home, mass-market advertising began to influence American culture heavily. The Beat Generation of the 1950s influenced the Beatniks, who would later influence the counterculture and hippies of the 1960s. They reacted to the materialism and conformity of the era by celebrating spontaneous creativity and questioning mainstream values. American counterculture movements were characterized by disillusionment with racism, imperialism, sexism, and authority.

During this period, the development of satellites—a means of mass communication—allowed for the rapid spread of ideas across the country. The availability of paperback books also allowed the authors of the counterculture movement to spread their ideas.

In this lesson, students research cultural movements that developed during the 1960s. They read three selections about the influence of the Beat Generation on the cultural movements of the 1960s and, during a class discussion, make connections between the Beat Generation and the cultural movements of the 1960s. To conclude, they write a short paragraph explaining connections between the Beat Generation and the cultural movements of the 1960s.

Procedure

1. Ask for examples of how the fabric of American life changed dramatically after World War II. (Students may note changes in mass communication, suburban growth, more educated population due to GI Bill, mass-market advertising and changed patterns in American buying power, and the changing role of women.) Explain that the writings of the Beat Generation influenced a whole generation of Americans. Ask students what the Beat Generation opposed (racism, sexism, American imperialism, and authority in general). Mention that many of the leading figures of the counterculture movements of the 1960s were the children of the World War I generation, born during the turbulent 1920s and survivors of the Great Depression. Ask for examples of factors that might change a culture (inequities in society, cultural stagnation, new technologies causing obsolescence, economic recession, racial intolerance, change in sexual mores, changing lifestyles among young).

2. Distribute **Handout 27**, and have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to research the 1960s cultural movements.

Suggested Responses

1. *Beat Generation*—1950s, postwar America; reaction to the mainstream desire to return to order and conform to middle-class values; youth had more leisure time; pervasive mass media; mainstream promoted shallow materialistic values; alienated youth revolted against the conformity of the middle class; birth of rock and roll, condemned by many adults
2. *Hispanic Movement*—fastest growing minority; second-class citizenship in America, economically and educationally; used effective militant strategies of the civil rights movement; organized to create better working conditions for farm workers and began a national boycott of grapes; stimulated ethnic pride and activists; used the word *Chicano* as a means of identification and for solidarity; made demands for bilingual education, Spanish-speaking teachers, and Chicano studies programs at colleges; created a political party in Texas called La Raza Unida with the goal of electing Latinos and encouraging ethnic pride
3. *Youth Movement*—war in Vietnam; disillusioned with authority, imperialism, and sexism; lost direction from the traditional authority of family and church; America began dividing itself between Left and Right, educated versus less educated, and secular versus religious; inspired by President John F. Kennedy and the activism and idealism of the

civil rights movement; radical groups drawn largely from the upper middle class seeking fundamental societal change; antiwar marches and teach-ins at college campuses across the United States; demand for more minority students and end to military-related research

4. *Antiwar Movement*—response to escalation of the war in Vietnam; helped to focus public opposition and thereby led to an earlier withdrawal; organized protests and marches and encouraged draft resistance; significant influence on events; changed the moral climate and attitude toward authority in America
5. *Counterculture Movement*—extension of the youth movement; focused on personal or cultural change; rejected assumptions and values of the middle class, including materialism and sexual hang-ups; experimented with drugs; called hippies; psychedelic music suggestive of an LSD experience; Woodstock; dawning of the "Age of Aquarius"
6. *Sexual Revolution*—change in sexual behavior; availability of oral contraceptives; ease of obtaining abortions; Supreme Court decisions removing restrictions on pornography
7. *Gay Liberation Movement*—refusal to continue to play the role of victims and demand for an end to discrimination; promotion of same-sex marriages and civil unions that would allow partners to have the same legal rights and privileges as married couples
8. *Environmental Movement*—period of environmental awareness; against exploitation of our planet; used techniques of earlier protest groups; desire to preserve oceans and old growth forests; fight against nuclear testing and global warming

3. Explain that two of the most well-known writers of the Beat Generation were Jack Kerouac and John Clellon Holmes. Distribute **Handout 28**, and have students read the first two selections. Ask students for examples of how Kerouac characterizes the writings and philosophy of the Beat Generation (intense conviction, special spirituality, drugs and derangement of the senses, new style of American culture, universality of television, strange language, against silent conformity, and short-lived and small in number). Ask how Holmes characterizes the Beat Generation (weariness, nakedness of the mind and soul, reduced to bedrock of consciousness, distrust of collectivity, lust for freedom and living life on the edge, bebop, narcotics, and sexual promiscuity).

4. Have students read the third selection on the handout. Ask them how Norman Podhoretz characterizes the Beats (barbarians who hated civilization and intelligence and would bring down civilization, link between Beats and juvenile delinquents). Ask whether Podhoretz's views have any validity. Would he be likely to be critical of the cultural movements that came later?

5. Have students write a short paragraph explaining connections between the Beat Generation and the cultural movements of the 1960s. (Main points should include rejection of authority, new consciousness, antimaterialism, nonconformity, spiritual influences, drugs, sex, individuality, and taking control of one's future.)

6. To conclude, conduct a class discussion using the following questions:
   - Did these cultural movements all have the same thing in common?
   - Was their goal the destruction of civilization and replacement of it with their inferior vision?
   - Did these cultural movements threaten society or change it for the better?

 Name:

Cultural Movements of the 1950s and 1960s

Directions: List at least four characteristics of each of the following cultural movements that had their beginnings in the 1950s and 1960s.

Cultural Movement	Characteristics
1. Beat Generation	
2. Hispanic Movement	
3. Youth Movement	
4. Antiwar Movement	

Name:

Cultural Movement	Characteristics
5. Counterculture Movement	
6. Sexual Revolution	
7. Gay Liberation Movement	
8. Environmental Movement	

The Beat Generation

Directions: Read the following selections by Jack Kerourac, John Clellon Holmes, and Norman Podhoretz. Look for the ways each writer characterizes the Beat Generation.

Document 1

From "Aftermath: The Philosophy of the Beat Generation"

The Beat Generation, that was a vision that we had, John Clellon Holmes and I, and Allen Ginsberg in an even wilder way, in the late Forties, of a generation of crazy illuminated hipsters suddenly rising and roaming America, serious, curious, bumming and hitchhiking everywhere, ragged, beatific, beautiful in an ugly graceful new way . . . of postwar America—beat, meaning down and out but full of intense conviction. . . . It never meant juvenile delinquents, it meant characters of a special spirituality who didn't gang up but were solitary Bartlebies staring out the dead wall window of our civilization—the subterraneans heroes who'd finally turned from the "freedom" machine of the West and were taking drugs, digging bop, having flashes of insight, experiencing the "derangement of the senses," talking strange, being poor and glad, prophesying a new style for American culture. . . . In actuality there was only a handful of real hip swinging cats and what there was vanished mighty swiftly during the Korean War when (and after) a sinister new king of efficiency appeared in America, maybe it was the result of the universalization of Television and nothing else (the Polite Total Police Control of Dragnet's "peace" officers) but the beat characters after 1950 vanished into jails and madhouses, or were shamed into silent conformity, the generation itself was shortlived and small in number.[1]

Document 2

From "This Is the Beat Generation"

. . . The origins of the word "beat" are obscure, but the meaning is only too clear to most Americans. More than mere weariness, it implies the feeling of having been used, of being raw. It involves a sort of nakedness of mind, and, ultimately, of soul; a feeling of being reduced to the bedrock of consciousness. In short, it means being undramatically pushed up against the wall of oneself. A man is beat whenever he goes for broke and wagers the sum of his resources on a single number; and the young generation has done that continually from early youth.

. . . Brought up during the collective bad circumstances of a dreary depression, weaned during the collective uprooting of a global war, they distrust collectivity. But they have never been able to keep the world out of their dreams. . . . Their own lust for freedom, and the ability to live at a pace that kills (to which the war had adjusted them), led to black markets, bebop, narcotics, sexual promiscuity, hucksterism, and Jean-Paul Sartre. The beatness set in later.[2]

[1]Jack Kerouac, "Aftermath: The Philosophy of the Beat Generation," *Esquire* (March 1958).
[2]John Clellon Holmes, "This Is the Beat Generation," *The New York Times Magazine* (November 16, 1952).

Document 3

From "The Know-Nothing Bohemians"

I happen to believe that there is a direct connection between the flabbiness of American middle-class life and the spread of juvenile crime in the 1950s, but I also believe that juvenile crime can be explained partly in terms of the same resentment against normal feeling and the attempt to cope with the world through intelligence that lies behind Kerouac and Ginsberg. . . . [T]here is a suppressed cry in those books [of Kerouac]: kill the intellectuals who can talk coherently, kill the people who can sit still for five minutes at a time, kill those incomprehensible characters who are capable of getting seriously involved with a woman, a job, a cause.[3]

[3]Norman Podhoretz, "The Know-Nothing Bohemians," in *The Norman Podhoretz Reader*, ed. Thomas L. Jeffers (New York: The Free Press, 2004), 39.

Lesson 17

Turning Points in American History

Objective

- To analyze American history through critical events

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective:

Several, including Identity, Politics and Power, and America in the World

Notes to the Teacher

An Advanced Placement U.S. history student should have a sense of the broad sweep of events and personalities that dot the landscape of our nation's history. Within the context of that sweep, students should be able to identify contemporaneous movements, trends, and personalities across a wide range of human endeavors. This skill is essential to success on the Advanced Placement U.S. history examination and is an obvious tool of individuals who are conversant with the discipline. The assumption is that several encounters with the same material in different contexts will cement this information in students' memories. Students are likely to become more adept at recall during the course of several reviews. One purpose of this exercise is to help students understand the process of initial brainstorming necessary to have a broad grasp of the breadth and depth of each period. Later reviews progress to a higher and more specific level of brainstorming.

In this lesson, students review significant data commonly required for the successful completion of the Advanced Placement examination. Students begin with the dates of major turning points. They identify each implied event and its long-range significance. They also identify important contemporaneous movements, trends, and events, including literature, science, art, and economics.

Procedure

1. Ask students to give examples of important events in American history (the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the American Civil War, the Great Depression, Pearl Harbor, the dropping of the atomic bombs on Japan, the assassination of John F. Kennedy, the first American in space, the attack on the World Trade Center). Ex-

plain that within the context of historical events, students should be able to identify contemporaneous movements, trends, and personalities across a wide variety of human endeavors. Stress that this skill is essential to success on the Advanced Placement U.S. history examination and is an obvious tool of individuals who are conversant with the discipline of history. Explain that the contemporaneous events and trends students cite should be wide-ranging and reflect major themes in U.S. history.

2. Distribute **Handout 29**, and have students complete it individually.

Suggested Responses

1763—The Treaty of Paris gave the British control of all land east of the Mississippi River. This left the American colonists with foreign enemies on their immediate borders. The British, who needed money to pay for past wars and the cost of administering new lands, imposed new taxes on the colonies, who refused to pay for protections they believed were not needed. This led to the American Revolution.

1776—The Declaration of Independence marked the first time in history that a colony boldly asserted and justified its independence from a mother country. It asserted that "all men are created equal" and that King George III and Parliament had violated the colonists' natural rights. This document has served as a standard by which we judge how far we have to go to achieve real equality in America.

1789—Ratification of the Constitution gave the United States a "more perfect union" than had been possible under the state-dominated Articles of Confederation; principles of federalism, separation of powers, representation, and flexibility created a firm foundation for the growth and development of the United States.

1800—In the "Revolution of 1800," the Democratic-Republicans won the presidency and control of Congress and instituted a peaceful change of power from the business-oriented Federalists to the agrarian-dominated Democratic-Republicans.

1803—The Louisiana Purchase and the Supreme Court decision in *Marbury v. Madison* had major importance for the future. The acquisition of Louisiana gave the United States control of the Mississippi River and doubled the size of the country. It assured the downfall of the Federalists, suggested that the country would eventually stretch from sea to sea, and required Jefferson, who previously opposed the use of the elastic

clause, to move toward a loose interpretation of the Constitution. *Marbury v. Madison* reinforced the precedent of judicial review on a national level and strengthened the principle of separation of powers by raising the judicial branch to an equal level with the executive and legislative branches.

1814—The Treaty of Ghent, while it did not represent a victory for the United States, did have important consequences in the future. It ended the War of 1812, resulted in an increase in nationalism, encouraged westward expansion relatively unhampered by Native American resistance, encouraged the development of American manufacturing, resulted in the disappearance of the Federalist Party, and strengthened the isolation that kept the country out of major foreign wars for a century.

1848—The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo ended the Mexican War, gave the United States control of the Mexican Cession lands, revived the slavery issue, and created lasting resentment among Latin American countries toward a more powerful United States. It would also play an important role in the Civil War.

1861—The outbreak of the Civil War ended any chance for a peaceful settlement of the slavery issue, divided the Union, and threatened to destroy the credibility of the government under the Constitution.

1865—The end of the Civil War and the death of Abraham Lincoln had major consequences. Lincoln had promised a lenient peace when the war ended, but the Radical Republicans knew that the return of the Southern states to the Union would threaten their control of Congress. They hoped to secure their own programs and African-American political support before agreeing to readmit the Southern states, as a result increasing tension between the North and South.

1877—Rutherford B. Hayes was the victor in the disputed election of 1876 and agreed to withdraw the last remaining Union troops from the former Confederacy, officially ending Reconstruction and leaving newly enfranchised former slaves at the mercy of vengeful Southerners.

1914—The outbreak of World War I brought an end to almost a century of peace in Europe. Steps toward progressive reform in the United States came to a halt as President Woodrow Wilson focused on foreign affairs, how to best influence the course of the war, and eventual peace.

1919—The Treaty of Versailles, based in part on Wilson's Fourteen Points, included plans for a League of Nations, which proved to be the point that prevented the Senate from ratifying the treaty. The United States never joined the League, which reduced its potential impact and influence, and returned to relative isolation.

1929—The Stock Market Crash ended a long period of American business prosperity and resulted in the worst depression in American history. In dealing with the Depression, Franklin D. Roosevelt introduced a welfare state resulting in the government taking increasing responsibility for the interests of less fortunate groups in American society.

1941—The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor brought the United States into what was the first truly world war.

1945—The end of World War II ushered in the atomic age, the creation of the United Nations, the Cold War, and the beginning of the end of colonialism.

1954—The year marked the first year of American involvement in the Vietnam War. In *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*, the Supreme Court overturned the "separate but equal" decision of *Plessy v. Ferguson*(1896); this began to change America's treatment of African Americans.

1960—The first sit-ins, in Greensboro, North Carolina, marked the beginning of a new activism among African Americans in protest against segregation. John F. Kennedy became president after a close election in which African Americans made a difference. This led to rising expectations among African Americans and new support for civil rights legislation within the federal executive branch.

1964—Passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed segregation in public accommodations and public facilities and banned discriminatory practices in hiring, voting, and education.

1968—The assassinations of Martin Luther King Jr. and Robert F. Kennedy effectively brought the civil rights movement of the 1960s to an end.

1973—The Paris Peace Agreement marked the end of the Vietnam War and forced Americans to realize that they were not invincible and could not solve all of the problems of the world. Congress passed the War Powers Resolution to limit presidential military options and try to avoid being drawn into another undeclared war.

1989—The dismantling of the Berlin Wall, the election of strong anticommunist candidates in Poland, and the fall of Eastern European economies in Hungary, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, and Romania signaled the impending collapse of the former Soviet Union and began a new era in U.S. diplomatic relations.

1993—The signing of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) created a free trade zone covering all of North America. Supported by industry and manufacturers who were looking for new markets and cheap labor, the agreement was condemned by most workers and labor unions because of the potential loss of jobs for American workers.

1994—The Republican landslide in the November elections gave the party its first control of both houses of Congress in many years; it brought into question the public's satisfaction with long-standing welfare legislation, and it suggested a return of significant authority to state governments.

1998—President William Jefferson Clinton was impeached by the House of Representatives after a scandal involving a White House intern. Clinton was forced to devote so much time to the scandal and impeachment proceedings that he struggled to implement some of his late-term foreign policy and domestic initiatives.

2001—The radical Islamic terrorist organization al-Qaeda struck the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington, D.C., killing thousands of individuals and beginning the War on Terror. In the months that followed, Congress passed the Patriot Act, which permitted the monitoring of citizens' telephones, e-mail, and Web and library usage, raising the question of whether the loss of civil liberties was the price Americans had to pay for security against terrorists.

2002—The Republican Congress supported President George W. Bush's request for educational reform and passed the No Child Left Behind Act, under which states began to establish tests that measured students' achievements against national standards.

2003—The United States and a coalition force invaded Iraq, failed to find weapons of mass destruction, deposed Saddam Hussein, and became an occupying force.

3. Ask students for examples of other turning points that they believe should have been included on the list. Have them explain the significance and importance of the events they selected.

 Name:

Critical Events in American History

Directions: The following chart lists dates for major turning points in American history. In each case, identify the implied event, comment on its significance, and then list at least three contemporaneous movements, trends, or activities in literature, science, art, or economics. This brainstorming activity encourages the development of skills needed to be successful in free-response essays about history. For the purpose of this activity, define *contemporaneous* as within five years of the event.

Year	Event	Significance	Related Events
1763			
1776			
1789			
1800			

 Name:

Year	Event	Significance	Related Events
1803			
1814			
1848			
1861			
1865			
1877			

 Name:

Year	Event	Significance	Related Events
1914			
1919			
1929			
1941			
1945			
1954			

 Name:

Year	Event	Significance	Related Events
1960			
1964			
1968			
1973			
1989			
1993			

 Name:

Year	Event	Significance	Related Events
1994			
1998			
2001			
2002			
2003			

Lesson 18

Women's Changing Roles: Family, Workplace, Education, Politics, and Reform

Objective

- To analyze the ways women's roles evolved in the intellectual, social, economic, and political spheres

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-7: Analyze how changes in class identity and gender roles have related to economic, social, and cultural transformations since the late 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

At the time of the foundation of the early republic, women's roles in society were severely prescribed. The most popular term to describe the early period is the cult of domesticity. In brief, women were expected to be responsible for the home, the rearing of children, and all things domestic, while men were to be engaged in the world in politics and business. Some argued that women were given equal dignity to men through the concept of separate spheres, allowing them full control of their areas of responsibility, but in practice this was not the case. The myth about women was that they were uniquely virtuous and pious, thus best able to organize the rearing of children. This notion is sometimes referred to as Republican Motherhood. Under this rubric, women were to raise young men and women to be servants of the nation in the carefully prescribed roles laid out for them. While women were idealized in terms of their virtue and capacity to raise children, they were also confined to a life of drudgery and repetition in the toils of managing households. Though deemed particularly pious, women were also considered to be mentally and emotionally inferior to men. *Godey's Lady's Book*, widely available online, is an excellent primary source that students might reference to obtain a better sense of nineteenth-

century attitudes regarding women's roles. Later in the century, the term *separate spheres* was used to impose a similar set of expectations and restrictions on women, even if it did refrain from some of the earlier pieties.

Despite the restrictions placed on women, there were always individuals who refused to be constrained by narrow understandings of their role in the world. We find in them a mixture of an acceptance of things as they are with a determination to reform and reframe the role of women in ways that responded to the needs of the times in which they lived, and which reflected their own personal talents. Abigail Adams is justly famous for her voluminous letters to her husband. In the correspondence is found a desire to meet some of the expectations of the day combined with a vibrant personality and mind that clearly soared above the limited intellect others would have expected from her. Adams opines about everything from the appointment of generals during the Revolution to the composition of the Constitution. In a letter dated May 7, 1776, she argues that the role of women should not be limited as it has been, accusing her husband of insisting "upon retaining an absolute power over wives." Still, shortly thereafter she willingly accepts her domestic role with their children, asking only that John be more engaged in their lives.

Ann Lee, a rough contemporary of Abigail Adams, emigrated to this country to escape the shackles placed on her by people in England. She likewise rejected the notion that women's roles were to be carefully prescribed. Upon her arrival, she established a Shaker community in upstate New York. Shakers, like the Quakers from which they split, had a radically egalitarian vision of the roles of men and women. In Lee's Shaker community, women were relieved of the strictures placed on them with reference to sex because they practiced strict celibacy. Lee also defied conventional expectations by exercising leadership within the community and by proclaiming herself a manifestation of Christ. Living simple lives, the Shaker community absorbed many recruits and eventually expanded to well over a dozen communities. They worked farms and built simple, sturdy furniture as signs of their dedication to God. Many other religious reform movements existed at the time of the Second Great Awakening, but none were as committed to full gender equality as the Shakers. (Students may wish to read the foreword to *Mother Ann Lee: Morning Star of the Shakers*, by June Sprigg, in which the author writes about the parallels between Ann Lee and Abigail Adams. Both women worked to redefine the meaning of family and women's place in it.)

Elizabeth Cady Stanton is rightfully a legendary figure in the struggle to redefine women's roles. She worked with a host of other women to reform the structures that militated against full equality for women. In perhaps her most famous work, the Declaration of Sentiments, she wrote a dramatic appeal, modeled on the Declaration of Independence, for women's rights in the workplace, in the home, in politics, and before the law. She labored in the temperance movement and in the antislavery movement. Her hopes

were enormously frustrated when, after the Civil War, women were not given the franchise at the same time African Americans were. Nevertheless, her pioneering attitude and determination lived on. She championed education for women in addition to political equality, and her heirs in the women's movement stood on her shoulders as they made progress in the twentieth century.

Jane Addams is one person who benefited directly from Stanton's work. She was able to attend college and worked to redefine the role of women in the family, primarily by assisting poor immigrants in her much lauded settlement houses. Like so many women who worked to redefine gender roles, Addams was a Quaker. Her work in settlement houses promoted the dignity of women and attempted to foster a spirit of independence and pride in those who lived there. The egalitarian settlement house communities mixed different cultures, races, and classes in an attempt to Americanize the immigrants in ways different than those encountered elsewhere. Addams also was an ardent suffragist and a vocal opponent of U.S. participation in World War I. In recognition of her successes, she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. Addams was the first American woman to receive that award. She was indeed a reformer of the family, education, and politics.

Contemporaneously with Addams fought Alice Paul, yet another Quaker who refused to be defined by her gender. Paul was an ardent suffragist who worked first in England and then in the United States for women's rights. She led the radical wing of the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA), working with a host of other women, until she broke away from that group in favor of more radical efforts to secure women the right to vote. Once women received the right to vote, Paul worked for the rest of her long life attempting to secure passage of the Equal Rights Amendment. Even though that never passed, her work on behalf of women's rights and dignity defied the conventional expectations of her day and paved the way for later successes.

Eleanor Roosevelt is an unlikely member of a group of women credited with redefining the role of women in society. Born into a life of privilege, she eventually married a distant cousin, Franklin, destined to be president of the United States. Although Eleanor was accomplished prior to being First Lady, it was especially in that role that she was able to achieve much for the role of women. She refused to be defined as merely wife and actively advocated causes she held to be critical, thus redefining the role of First Lady. Despite, or perhaps because of, tragedies in her life, she used the position of First Lady to advocate for women. She promoted the appointment of Frances Perkins, the first female member of the Cabinet, and involved herself in racial and women's issues related to New Deal relief programs. Among Roosevelt's most significant accomplishments after leaving the White House was her work to promulgate the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In contrast to so many other documents, this supports gender equality in ways not yet fully recognized in the United States. Elea-

nor continued to work for human rights until her death, ironically enough opposing Alice Paul and the ERA because of her belief that women would actually be harmed by it.

In the 1960s, as Roosevelt's career was winding down, Gloria Steinem emerged as a powerful voice for women's liberty in the workplace, in the home, and in the political arena. She became an advocate for women's issues in the late sixties as rights consciousness was dominating national politics. She cofounded *Ms.*, a magazine dedicated to consciousness-raising among women. The title itself, a controversial symbol rejecting women's identity on the basis of marriage, was emblematic of Steinem's vision of the role of women in society. She was an early supporter of Shirley Chisholm, a woman from New York who became the first African-American woman elected to Congress. Together and with others, including the author Betty Friedan, they worked to secure passage of the Equal Rights Amendment.

Perhaps the most emblematic figure advocating women's rights in the twenty-first century is Hillary Rodham Clinton. A successful attorney in her own right, she continued in the vein of Eleanor Roosevelt with her advocacy of a wide variety of issues while her husband was president. Before serving as secretary of state, she was elected from New York twice to serve as senator. She also launched a credible bid to be the Democratic Party's candidate for president in the 2008 election. She was a legitimate contender until the final weeks of the process and spoke of her achievement as putting cracks in the glass ceiling that prevents women from achieving full equality in American politics.

The eight women discussed here were all passionate advocates of changing the way women are considered by society. Some worked in politics, while others worked more exclusively in social and religious settings. They all share a belief that women's roles were fundamentally limited and needed to be recast.

In this lesson, students analyze nineteenth-century primary sources that define women in terms of biology and a pseudoscientific social role. Next, they examine a series of texts that generally contradict the initial sources. Students conclude by completing a graphic organizer and writing an analytical essay about the changes in women's roles over time.

Procedure

1. Write "Women's Roles" and "Men's Roles" on the board, and ask students to list as many possible roles for women and men as they can. There are no correct answers, but responses may well engender debate. Encourage students to provide reasons to support their positions.

2. Share with students a summary of the material in Notes to the Teacher about how women's roles in society have developed from the colonial period to the present.

3. Distribute **Handout 30**. Allow time for students to read the handout and answer the questions.

Suggested Responses

Document 1—Women are given their highest due by being placed in charge of the home. Women's true freedom is defined as being limited to the home and making everyone in the home happy.

Document 2—In contrast to all other roles and rights, women are defined in terms of being mothers. Women are defined in terms acceptable to the concept of Republican Motherhood. Their task is to instruct and rear children.

Document 3—Women are not viewed as having intellects capable of producing great literature or leadership. Women are further defined in terms of emotions rather than reason; their place is in the home.

4. Discuss with students their responses to ways that men have defined women over the last two centuries. Summarize students' responses on the board.

5. Review with students the information from Notes to the Teacher about ideas that prevailed in the early republic about the roles of women in society. Specifically discuss Republican Motherhood and separate spheres. Explain how attitudes changed and developed, focusing especially on the role of suffrage in the consciousness of women.

6. Read the following quotation from Hillary Clinton's speech at the 2008 Democratic National Convention:

   > I ran for president to renew the promise of America. . . . To fight for an America defined by deep and meaningful equality—from civil rights to labor rights, from women's rights to gay rights, from ending discrimination to promoting unionization to providing help for the most important job there is: caring for our families. To help every child live up to his or her God-given potential.

   Ask students what they believe Clinton meant by suggesting that her candidacy for president could be understood in terms of meaningful equality. Discuss with students what they believe meaningful equality might look like for women in society. Accept all reasonable responses.

7. Distribute **Handout 31**. When students have completed the exercise, summarize their responses on the board.

Suggested Responses

Document 1—In these resolutions to the Declaration of Sentiments, women defined themselves as fully equal to men. They refused to accept secondhand designation as intellectual inferiors and argued for the right to vote on the basis of full equality.

Document 2—Addams argued that since women have the responsibility of caring for children, they must therefore become educated on the issues their children would face in the world and engage in voting to deal with those issues.

Document 3—Paul proposed that gender as a distinguishing characteristic before the law be eliminated.

Documents 4 and 5—The Universal Declaration of Human Rights supports full equality of men and women in the intellectual and social spheres. Roosevelt insisted on equal rights for women.

Document 6—Clinton framed her candidacy for president in terms of the work women have done over the years, including the women discussed in this lesson.

8. Distribute **Handout 32**. Ask students to complete the graphic organizer. Move students into small groups to share their responses. Summarize all responses in a large group discussion.

9. Assign the essay that concludes and synthesizes the material in this lesson.

Men Define Women's Rights

Directions: Read the following passages from nineteenth-century texts, and reflect on what they say about the position of women in society. Determine to what extent each document defines women in terms of separate spheres. Then consider how the authors attempt to justify their understanding of the role of women by situating them biologically and socially within the context of the family and the home.

Document 1

"The Sphere of Woman," *Godey's Lady's Book* (March 1850)

Women often complain that men are unjust towards their sex, in withholding from them higher mental culture, and in not allowing them full access to the sciences, thus Keeping them down to mere household duties, and to the government of the domestic circle. . . . For has he not placed his wife in the highest and holiest position she can occupy when he places her at the head of his domestic relations, and intrusts [sic] to her the government of his household? . . . [T]he prudent woman reigns in her family circle, making happiness and every virtue possible, and spreading harmony and peace throughout her domain. . . . Where do we find our ever-returning and indispensable wants satisfied, but in the beloved spot where we rise up and lie down? . . . She is dependent on nothing, save the love and attachment of her husband, for whom she procures true independence—that which is internal and domestic.[1]

[1]"The Sphere of Woman," *Godey's Lady's Book Online* <http://www.history.rochester.edu/godeys/03-50/tsow.htm> (9 September 2010).

Document 2

"Woman's Rights," *Godey's Lady's Book* (April 1850)

The last and best of woman's rights—a mother's love. To "shadow forth in your example what you wish your child to be," is, indeed, a right—often abused, it is true, and seldom clearly understood, but still a right, and a noble one. The little being who reposes so confidingly on your bosom will become whatever you choose to make him. If you mold his mind to high and lofty aspirations after truth, if you teach him to know his duty and to perform it, great, exceeding great will be your reward; but if you teach him to submit to passion's away, to sneer at everything that is right and good, to check every noble impulse, the sin be upon your own head.[2]

Document 3

Dr. Charles Meigs, Lecture to an All-Male Gynecology Class (1847)

The great administrative faculties are not hers. She plans no sublime campaign, leads no armies to battle, nor fleets to victory. The Forum is no theatre for her silver voice. . . . She discerns not the courses of the planets. . . . She composes no Iliad, no Aeneid. The strength of Milton's poetic vision was far beyond her fine and delicate perceptions. . . . Do you think that a Woman . . . could have developed, in the tender soil of her intellect, the strong idea of a Hamlet, or a Macbeth?

Such is not woman's province, nature, power, or mission. She reigns in the heart; her seat and throne are by the hearthstone. The household altar is her place of worship and service. . . .

She has a head almost too small for intellect and just big enough for love.[3]

[2]Haddie Lane, "Woman's Rights," *Godey's Lady's Book Online* <http://www.history.rochester.edu/godeys/04-50/wr.htm> (9 September 2010).

[3]Dr. Charles Meigs, *Females and Their Diseases: A Series of Letters to His Class*, quoted in *Lying-In: A History of Childbirth in America*, Richard W. and Dorothy C. Wertz (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1989), 58.

Women Define Themselves

Directions: Read each of the following passages about the position of women in society. Determine to what extent each document defines women in terms that oppose the idea of separate spheres. Then consider how the authors attempt to justify their understanding of women's roles by situating them beyond biological and social constraints that would limit them to the context of the family and the home.

Document 1

Elizabeth Cady Stanton, "Resolutions to the Declaration of Sentiments" (1848)

Resolved, That all laws which prevent woman from occupying such a station in society as her conscience shall dictate, or which place her in a position inferior to that of man, are contrary to the great precept of nature, and therefore of no force or authority.

Resolved, That woman is man's equal—was intended to be so by the Creator, and the highest good of the race demands that she should be recognized as such. . . .

Resolved, That inasmuch as man, while claiming for himself intellectual superiority, does accord to woman moral superiority, it is pre-eminently his duty to encourage her to speak, and teach, as she has an opportunity, in all religious assemblies. . . .

Resolved, That it is the duty of the women of this country to secure to themselves their sacred right to the elective franchise.

Document 2

Jane Addams, "Why Women Should Vote" (1915)

. . . I recapitulate that if woman would fulfill her traditional responsibility to her own children; if she would educate and protect from danger factory children who must find their recreation on the street; if she would bring the cultural forces to bear upon our materialistic civilization; and if she would do it all with the dignity and directness fitting one who carries on her immemorial duties, then she must bring herself to the use of the ballot—that latest implement for self government.

Document 3

Alice Paul, Equal Rights Amendment (1923)

Section 1.
Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex.

Document 4

United Nations, "The Universal Declaration of Human Rights" (December 10, 1948)

Article 1.
All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Document 5

Eleanor Roosevelt, "My Day" (June 7, 1951)

The National Women's Party also asks that the United Nations Covenant on Human Rights include "an explicit recognition of equality of rights for men and women in all fields." I do not think there is any difference made between men and women in any of the rights included in the Human Rights Covenant.

Document 6

Hillary Clinton, Speech at the Democratic National Convention (August 26, 2008)

America is still around after 232 years because we have risen to the challenge of every new time, changing to be faithful to our values of equal opportunity for all and the common good.

And I know what that can mean for every man, woman, and child in America. I'm a United States Senator because in 1848 a group of courageous women and a few brave men gathered in Seneca Falls, New York, many traveling for days and nights, to participate in the first convention on women's rights in our history.

And so dawned a struggle for the right to vote that would last 72 years, handed down by mother to daughter to granddaughter—and a few sons and grandsons along the way.

These women and men looked into their daughters' eyes, imagined a fairer and freer world, and found the strength to fight. To rally and picket. To endure ridicule and harassment. To brave violence and jail.

And after so many decades—88 years ago on this very day—the Nineteenth Amendment guaranteeing women the right to vote would be forever enshrined in our Constitution.

My mother was born before women could vote. But in this election my daughter got to vote for her mother for president.

This is the story of America. Of women and men who defy the odds and never give up.

 Name:

The Rest of the Story

Part A.

Directions: Views of the roles of women have varied across time and gender perspectives. Complete the organizer in preparation for writing an analytical essay about how women's roles in the United States have changed over time. Use your textbook, the material developed in class, and any other resources available.

Century	Men's Attitudes	Women's Attitudes
Eighteenth		
Nineteenth		

Century	Men's Attitudes	Women's Attitudes
Twentieth		
Twenty-First		

Part B.
Directions: Write a response to the following essay prompt.

> Between the Revolutionary period and the present, women engaged in a variety of activities that challenged normative attitudes about their roles in society. To what extent were they effective in the intellectual, social, economic, and political spheres?

Lesson 19

American Society and the Economy after World War I

Objectives

- To examine the source of the economic boom during the 1920s
- To understand how a conflict resulted from the growth of social tensions between a changing urban society and mainstream conservative Americans

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I
Skill 1: Historical Causation

Skill Type III
Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Work, Exchange, and Technology
WXT-3: Explain how changes in transportation, technology, and the integration of the U.S. economy into world markets have influenced U.S. society since the Gilded Age

Notes to the Teacher

In the 1920s, businesses were transforming American society. Mass production and new technologies led to increased production and higher wages, which in turn increased demand for consumer goods. In the forefront was the automobile industry, which changed how people lived, worked, and played. Since this industry required new roadways, gas stations, and motels, the American landscape began changing. People lived farther from work, and suburbs grew in all directions; women and teenagers became more independent when they learned to drive and spent less time at home. Electricity spread beyond the urban areas to the suburbs as Americans began using many new electrical appliances, including vacuum cleaners and washing machines, which made housework easier and led to more leisure time for families. As more consumer goods appeared on the market, businesses began using appeals to youth, sex, and beauty in advertisements for their products. Businesses also began to use credit and installments to push their goods. People were better able to afford making payments over time for big-ticket items.

America's standard of living was going up, and it affected nearly everyone; however, it was also a time of great change. Following the war, there

was more racial violence as African Americans began migrating to the North. In the South and West, the Ku Klux Klan underwent a revival as it began promising to stand up to those who would challenge racial purity. Other changes included the spread of radical ideas when Russia fell to bolshevism in 1920 and fears of the spread of communism caused a backlash in America. Changing women's roles, conflicts between fundamentalist and mainstream Christianity, and a split between rural and urban views on the use of alcohol also increased social tension.

In this lesson, students discuss factors that led to an economic boom in the 1920s and summarize information about technological and social changes that occurred during the time period. They draw political cartoons that contrast the conservative perspective of rural America with the more modern perspective of urban areas.

Procedure

1. Read the following selection to students:

   > Coolidge Prosperity was huge, real, widespread though not ubiquitous, and unprecedented. It was not permanent—what prosperity ever is? But it is foolish and unhistorical to judge it insubstantial because of what we now know followed later. At the time it was as solid as houses built, meals eaten, automobiles driven, cash spent, and property acquired. Prosperity was more widely distributed in the America of the 1920s than had been possible in any community of this size before, and it involved the acquisition, by tens of millions of ordinary families, of the elements of economic security which had hitherto been denied them throughout history.[1]

2. Ask what factors led to an economic boom during the 1920s. (Prosperity caused by technological advances resulted in a 40 percent increase in productivity; new consumer goods were produced; age of electricity improved communication and brought thousands into contact with new inventions; improvements were made in automobiles; longest housing boom on record occurred; organized labor declined; tariff rates increased twice in Harding and Coolidge presidencies.) Ask whether everyone experienced prosperity equally. (Not all industries or workers benefited from this economy. Agricultural markets declined sharply after the war, and farmers suffered in the 1920s. Mexican Americans, women, African Americans, and immigrants had the lowest-paying, most menial jobs.)

3. Explain that new technology and ideas developed in urban areas and resulted in a changing society. Tensions arose when the changes came into conflict with the conservative values of America's rural population. Ask for examples of areas in which these conflicts might appear

[1]Paul Johnson, *A History of the American People* (New York: Harper Collins, 1997), 718.

(economic prosperity, race relations, anti-immigration movements; anti-communism/socialism; changing role of women; rise of religious fundamentalism; Prohibition).

4. Distribute **Handout 33**. Have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to complete the handout.

Suggested Responses

Part A.

1. a. Technological ingenuity would produce lasting changes in America; it was a critical factor in the growth of mass society and the economy. Henry Ford's new Model T and his assembly line were examples of this innovation. New inventions transformed American society. Shorter workweeks provided more leisure time to listen to the radio, resulting in the creation of a mass culture.

   b. New electrical appliances such as washing machines, vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, and toasters became available to middle-class housewives, making them America's greatest consumers.

   c. Cheap electricity was needed to power industries and to run the consumer goods produced by the new technologies. Hydroelectric and coal-fired power plants were built, providing electricity to most Americans.

   d. Twenty-three million cars were on the highway in the 1920s. Roads needed to be paved for these vehicles; motels were added to the roads for people who traveled; gas stations were built to service the cars. Many new industries grew up, including oil and gas, steel production, rubber for tires, and glass for windows. The automobile was a major factor in the urbanization of American society.

   e. The innovation and growth of supermarkets was made possible by the growth of the automobile industry; the two were closely related. The growth of the supermarket caused the decline of the corner grocery store and made the automobile more of a necessity. The automobile caused urban decentralization and growth of suburbs and increased the distance to almost every destination.

   f. Henry Ford refined the concept of mass production and set the standard in his automobile factories, incorporating interchangeable parts and the assembly line. It quickly became the dominant form of manufacturing used to produce consumer goods.

g. For the first time in American history, more than 50 percent of Americans lived in towns or cities. As cities were able to spread further from the downtown area because of the automobile, more factories, apartments, supermarkets, and offices were built. The automobile caused decentralization in cities.

2. Students will generally mention the following topics: mass production, new technologies, increased production, higher wages, and demand for consumer goods.

Part B.

1. a. For the first time in the nation's history, the United States was an urban nation. A new culture developed in urban areas and spread across the country. From the cities came new consumer goods, such as radios, appliances, automobiles, and supermarkets. All of these items stimulated and helped change America's economy and society. More than 60 percent of American homes had electricity, and Americans were increasingly buying and using the new electrical appliances; as a result, the economy boomed. The automobile would also come of age in the 1920s, and America became a more mobile society. By the end of the 1920s, 60 percent of all families owned automobiles, and increased sales stimulated businesses associated with them. The automobile brought families together for vacations, but it also led to a breakdown in families, as young people used the car for separate social activities. Assembly lines in manufacturing plants dramatically increased the output of each individual worker.

   b. The years after World War I were filled with more racial violence and anti-radical fears. As more African Americans migrated north, racial intolerance led to mob violence in northern cities. The Ku Klux Klan underwent a revival. It appealed to those who supported nativist movements and promised to restore national purity. Focusing their attacks on African Americans, Jews, Catholics, immoral women, and immigrants, the Klan claimed a membership of five million and achieved political power in some states, including the governorship in Oregon. Some Klansmen resorted to violence like beatings and lynching. Marcus Garvey led a "Back to Africa" campaign, the first African-American mass movement, and urged his followers to embrace their ethnicity and return to Africa, the motherland.

c. When Russia fell to bolshevism toward the end of World War I, fears of its spread increased in postwar America. Violent labor strikes blamed on radicals occurred with regularity, and Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer began a campaign against radical organizations after a bomb damaged his home. As the hysteria grew, the U.S. government began deporting suspected communists and radicals back to Russia. Perhaps one of the most famous criminal trials of the era was that of Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti. Police charged the two Italian immigrants with the robbery and murder of two people at a shoe factory in Massachusetts. The prosecution focused on their radicalism as anarchists; in the prejudiced 1920s, few mainstream Americans were sympathetic. Found guilty after a trial and appeals process, they were electrocuted. Nativism, a movement that sought to limit immigration to white people from western and northern Europe and to exclude all others, underwent a revival. Congress passed the National Origins Act, which restricted the annual percentage of immigrants to 2 percent of the total numbers already in the United States, using 1920 as the base year. The intent of this act was to limit immigration from Eastern and Southern European countries; this reflected the bias and intolerance of the times. Other immigration laws denied entry to Japanese and Chinese people.

d. In America's growing urban society, young women rejected traditional female roles. Women were more open in discussing sexual themes. Fashions changed, dresses and hair were shorter, and wearing makeup gained acceptability. Women drank liquor and smoked cigarettes openly.

e. A revival of religious fundamentalism came into conflict with liberal Protestantism and pure science. One area of conflict involved the interpretation of the Bible. Fundamentalists argued that the Bible was the literal truth and that teachers were not to discuss the theory of evolution in their classrooms. When a high school biology teacher, John Scopes from Tennessee, challenged his state's laws, the American Civil Liberties Union and famous criminal lawyer Clarence Darrow defended him. William Jennings Bryan argued for the prosecution. The jury found Scopes guilty, but the press ridiculed both Bryan and fundamentalism and referred to the trial as the "monkey trial."

f. Societal problems that resulted from the use of alcohol caused a split between the traditional, rural, native-born Protestants who wanted to maintain cultural control and supported Prohibition and the newly arrived, predominantly Catholic immigrant city dwellers, intellectuals, and liberals, who regarded alcohol consumption as part of their culture. When the Eighteenth Amendment passed, public drunkenness at first declined. Gradually, public support eroded as the laws were not enforced. Organized crime gangs such as Al Capone's in Chicago used violence to gain control of the profitable liquor business.

2. Students will generally state that as American society changed rapidly during the 1920s, signs of a cultural divide increasingly became apparent. Sources of the conflict included race relations, fears of radical ideas, immigrants from some areas, nativist backlash, fundamentalism vs. liberal Protestantism and pure science, growth of the Ku Klux Klan and nativism, and Prohibition.

5. Have students use the thesis sentences they developed in parts A and B of **Handout 33** to write short essays. Have students share their essays with the class.

6. Have students create political cartoons illustrating the social/cultural divide in America during the 1920s. Cartoons should compare and contrast the conservative and traditional perspective of rural America with the newer modern vision arising in the cities.

Cultural Change in Post–World War I American Society

Part A.
Directions: Use your textbook, the Internet, and other resources to summarize information about massive technological and social changes during the 1920s.

1. How did each of the following lead to an economic boom in the 1920s and to the growth of mass society?
   a. Technological innovation

   b. Development of consumer goods

   c. Electricity

   d. Automobiles

   e. Supermarkets

   f. Mass production

   g. Urbanization

2. Using the prompt in item 1, write a thesis sentence, at least five supporting sentences, and a conclusion.

Part B.
Directions: The 1920s were also a time of increasing conflict. Research the following information.

1. Some historians refer to America in the 1920s in terms of a growing social and cultural division. How does each of the following support that assertion?
   a. Economy
      - New consumer goods
      - Spread of electricity
      - Automobiles
      - Assembly line/productivity
   b. Race relations
      - Revival of Ku Klux Klan
      - Marcus Garvey and the "Back to Africa" campaign
   c. Anticommunism/Anti-immigration
      - Palmer raids and "Red Scare"
      - Sacco and Vanzetti
      - Revival of nativism
      - National Origins Act and immigration restriction
   d. Changing Role of Women
   e. Revival of religious fundamentalism
      - Scopes trial
   f. Prohibition
2. Using the prompt in item 1, write a thesis sentence, at least five supporting sentences, and a conclusion.

Lesson 20

Presidential Promises and Quotable Quotations

Objective

- To review U.S. history through presidential mottos and memorable quotations

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-4: Analyze how and why the New Deal, the Great Society, and the modern conservative movement all sought to change the federal government's role in U.S. political, social, and economic life

POL-6: Analyze how debates over political values (such as democracy, freedom, and citizenship) and the extension of American ideals abroad contributed to the ideological clashes and military conflicts of the 19th century and the early 20th century

Notes to the Teacher

Frequently, two-word designations of presidential administrations or recognizable quotations from speeches, documents, court decisions, and writings act as a shorthand for complex themes. For the student of American history, the real importance is not in identifying the source but in explaining the motto or quotation's significance among the larger themes of American history.

During the course of the year, Advanced Placement students cover a multitude of ideas in relatively rapid fashion. Review, preferably in a variety of contexts different from the original presentation, is essential. In this lesson, students review the course of American history through presidential administrations and significant quotations. For each, they identify the presidential administration or source of the quotation and explain its larger importance as an expression of a key theme in American history.

Procedure

1. Distribute **Handout 34**, and have students attempt to complete the handout individually.

2. Go over responses in class, and answer questions. Require students to explain major accomplishments of each presidential administration as well as the larger importance of the idea presented in each quotation.

Suggested Responses

Part A.

1. Theodore Roosevelt's domestic program tried to give equal opportunity to business executives, farmers, laborers, and consumers. It included attempts to break bad trusts, the Meat Inspection Act, the Pure Food and Drug Act, forced arbitration of the anthracite coal strike, and conservation measures.
2. William Howard Taft endorsed the Roosevelt Corollary and expanded America's role as police officer by substituting dollars for bullets in promoting loans to business executives in Latin America and the Far East.
3. Although Dwight Eisenhower did not extend the welfare state begun by Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry Truman, he did not tamper with programs already in place.
4. Woodrow Wilson's progressive reform agenda sought to strengthen democracy through programs such as the Underwood Tariff, Clayton Act, Federal Reserve Act, and Federal Trade Commission.
5. Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal included a variety of relief, recovery, and reform acts designed to get the country out of the Great Depression and to avoid a similar catastrophe in the future. During Roosevelt's administration, the country first adopted the concept that the government has a responsibility to "promote the general welfare."
6. James K. Polk promised to complete the country's expansion to the Pacific Ocean through acquisition of the Oregon Country, Texas, and what became the Mexican Cession.
7. Herbert Hoover believed that the country's prosperity and greatness to date stemmed from rugged individualism rather than government action and that this philosophy would work again in the Great Depression.
8. Lyndon B. Johnson believed the country could eliminate poverty and racial injustice, improve education for all, and revitalize city slums to create a truly great society. Programs included the Civil Rights Act, "war on poverty," Voting Rights Act, Medicare, Immigration Act, and Elementary and Secondary Education Act.
9. Harry Truman's Fair Deal aimed to preserve and extend the New Deal but met considerable congressional opposition.

10. John F. Kennedy's New Frontier sought to find opportunity in space, medicine, technology, and social relations. Many of his proposals for civil rights, poverty programs, Medicare, and education became law after his assassination.

Part B.

1. Abraham Lincoln set the tone for the Lincoln-Douglas debates by expressing concern that a nation divided by slavery could not exist half slave and half free, but would become one or the other. His aim was to preserve the Union.
2. In *McCulloch v. Maryland*, the Supreme Court ruled that a state could not take measures that would destroy the Union, so Maryland's tax on the Baltimore branch of the Bank of the United States was unconstitutional. This established the principle that the national government is dominant.
3. Booker T. Washington's Tuskegee Institute operated on the principle that African Americans would be well-advised to seek training in the trades rather than strive immediately for social equality and the "opportunity to spend a dollar in the opera house."
4. Earl Warren ruled "separate but equal," established in 1896 by *Plessy v. Ferguson,* unconstitutional in the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision.
5. This goal established in the Declaration of Independence has remained an American standard for judging progress toward equality since 1776.
6. Wilson's unrealized goal in the "Great War" was to end war for all time.
7. At the time of the Civil War, the Confederate States of America sought the right to leave the Union and fought for that right.
8. In Franklin Roosevelt's War Message to Congress, he made this memorable reference to the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.
9. Martin Luther King Jr.'s dramatic speech at the Lincoln Memorial during the 1963 March on Washington was a major factor in the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
10. John Marshall's statement in *Marbury v. Madison* (1803) established a precedent for judicial review.
11. This provision in Article 1 of the Constitution gave Congress the authority to use implied powers.
12. The Mayflower Compact (1620) became the first document of self-government in the English colonies.

13. James K. Polk's campaign theme suggested that the country might demand all the Oregon territory to the southern border of Alaska, but this left him room for negotiating and compromising with the British later.
14. These were key issues in the American decision to go to war in 1812.
15. William Jennings Bryan made a passionate attack on the gold standard at the Democratic nominating convention in 1896 with his "Cross of Gold" speech.
16. Franklin D. Roosevelt sought, for economic reasons if no others, to end the Roosevelt Corollary and establish friendlier relations with Latin America.
17. John F. Kennedy's inspirational message in his 1961 inaugural address set the theme for a new commitment to America.
18. Franklin D. Roosevelt used this rationale in calling for the Lend-Lease Act prior to our involvement in the military aspects of World War II.
19. In his second inaugural address, Abraham Lincoln called for a lenient peace and a quick return to the union of the states.
20. George Washington set a long-standing policy of U.S. foreign affairs in his farewell address.
21. Andrew Jackson made the retort in response to John Marshall's decision in support of the Cherokee Nation in *Worcester v. Georgia* in 1832.
22. At the time of South Carolina's threat to nullify the Tariff of Abominations, Daniel Webster, the Massachusetts senator, suggested this should be the motto of the United States.
23. This became the Federalist rallying cry after the French made demands for a bribe, a loan, and an apology from President John Adams in 1797 in the XYZ Affair.
24. Lincoln's primary objective in the Civil War was the preservation of the Union.
25. Woodrow Wilson's idealistic plan for a negotiated settlement of the war before either side achieved a victory was unacceptable to Germany in January 1917, and Germany instead resumed unrestricted submarine warfare, a step that led to U.S. entry into the war.
26. This became the rallying cry of those favoring war against Spain in 1898.
27. This became the rallying cry of Texans in their war for independence from Mexico in 1836.

28. As president, Theodore Roosevelt pursued a vigorous foreign policy based on this old African saying. Taking the Canal Zone and pursuing the Roosevelt Corollary in Latin America are two examples.
29. The Truman Doctrine, offering peacetime aid to Greece and Turkey in 1947, marked a significant break with George Washington's advice in his farewell address.
30. In his inaugural speech in 1933, Franklin D. Roosevelt tried to inspire confidence in his ability to lead.
31. The Declaration of the Sentiments of Women issued at the 1848 Seneca Falls Convention based the claims of women on the Declaration of Independence.
32. James Monroe's 1823 State of the Union address issued this warning, now a cornerstone of American foreign policy, against European expansion in this hemisphere.
33. Lincoln's 1863 Emancipation Proclamation committed the United States to freeing the slaves and, at the same time, helped gain British support for the Union in the Civil War.
34. The Preamble of the U.S. Constitution, written in 1787, promised an effort to create a more effective government than the state-dominated Articles of Confederation had provided.
35. Eleanor Roosevelt, ever the human rights activist, wrote this reassuring and inspiring statement in a newspaper column.
36. Andrew Carnegie's "Gospel of Wealth," written in 1889, celebrated the benefits that great amounts of accumulated wealth could accomplish for the public. Not all were convinced that his treatment of workers was justified by this philosophy of philanthropy.
37. Frederick Jackson Turner, in his famous 1890 essay, *The Significance of the Frontier in American History,* helped Americans to understand this neglected factor in American development.
38. This first telegraph message sent in 1837 introduced a revolution in communication.
39. Ronald Reagan's philosophy of government in the 1980s was based on this motto.
40. Betty Freidan's The Feminist Mystique, published in 1963, touched a responsive chord among many women and advanced the women's rights movement.

 Name:

Remembering Your Ps and Qs: Presidential Promises and Quotable Quotations

Part A.
Directions: Identify the president associated with each term, key policies of his administration associated with the term, and the term's importance in conveying a major theme of history at the time.

1. Square Deal

2. Dollar Diplomacy

3. Modern Republicanism

4. New Freedom

5. New Deal

6. Manifest Destiny

7. Rugged Individualism

8. Great Society

9. Fair Deal

10. New Frontier

Part B.
Directions: Identify the source of the quotation, when and in what context it was used, and its larger significance in illuminating a theme of American history.

1. "A house divided against itself cannot stand."

2. "The power to tax involves the power to destroy."

3. "It is at the bottom of life we must begin, not at the top."

4. "Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal."

5. "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal."

6. "A war to end all wars."

7. "All we ask is to be left alone."

8. "December 7, 1941—a date that will live in infamy."

9. "I have a dream that my four children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character."

10. "A law repugnant to the Constitution is void."

11. "To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers."

12. "We . . . covenant and combine ourselves into a civil body politic."

13. "Fifty-four forty or fight."

14. "Free trade and sailors' rights."

15. "You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold."

16. "God made us neighbors. Let justice make us friends."

17. "And so, my fellow Americans: Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country."

18. "We must be the great arsenal of democracy."

19. "With malice toward none, with charity for all. . . ."

20. "It is our policy to stay clear of permanent alliances."

21. "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it."

22. "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

23. "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute."

24. "My paramount object in this struggle is to save the Union."

25. "Peace without victory."

26. "Remember the Alamo."

27. "Remember the Maine."

28. "Speak softly and carry a big stick; you will go far."

29. "The ideals and traditions of our nations demanded that we come to the aid of Greece and Turkey and that we put the world on notice that it would be our policy to support the cause of freedom wherever it was threatened. . . ."

30. "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself."

31. "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men and women are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights."

32. "The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subject for future colonization by any European powers."

33. "And, by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within these said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be free."

34. "We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, . . ."

35. "No one can make you feel inferior without your consent."

36. "Surplus wealth is a sacred trust which its possessor is bound to administer in his lifetime for the good of the community."

37. "The advance of the frontier has meant a steady movement away from the influence of Europe, a steady growth of independence on American lines. And to study this advance . . . is to study the really American part of our history."

38. "What hath God wrought!"

39. "Government is not the solution to our problem. Government is the problem."

40. "Women of the world unite! You have nothing to lose but your vacuum cleaner."

Lesson 21

Where in the United States Did It Happen?

Objective

- To examine U.S. history through geography

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-6: Analyze the major aspects of domestic debates over U.S. expansionism in the 19th century and the early 20th century

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-5: Analyze the role of economic, political, social, and ethnic factors on the formation of regional identities in what would become the United States from the colonial period through the 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

Students—even the best of them—often learn history without having a clear idea of where key events took place. In so doing, they develop incomplete or even inaccurate concepts of critical issues. Geography helps historians understand the relationships among people, places, and environments. Economic independence, patterns of human settlement, the use of natural resources, the physical environment, and the influence of geography on people's perceptions of place are all key factors in understanding the importance of geography in the study of history. This review offers an opportunity to clarify points students may have originally missed. The discussion of the importance of the place of an event in the scheme of U.S. history is crucial as students prepare for the Advanced Placement examination, particularly the objective portion.

In this lesson, students identify the state or states implied in descriptive phrases and then review the larger significance of the events.

Procedure

1. Explain that geography is an important tool in understanding the importance of events in U.S. history. Ask students for examples of factors that support this statement (physical terrain, weather conditions, geographic isolation, natural resources, and economic interdependence).

2. Distribute **Handout 35**, and have students complete it either individually or in small groups.
3. Review students' responses, and take time to clarify points on which students have questions.

Suggested Responses

1. 2—The convention in Philadelphia developed the Constitution to replace the Articles of Confederation. It was based on principles of federalism, separation of powers, representation, and flexibility.
2. 27—After Andrew Jackson's 1818 military expedition into Florida to crush hostile Seminole Indians, Spain sold Florida to the United States rather than risk losing it by force. This eliminated border problems with pirates and runaway slaves. The United States gave up claims to Texas, and Spain accepted the forty-second parallel as the border between Mexico and Oregon Country.
3. 10—Virginia wanted representation in Congress to be based on population, with more populous states having more representatives. This suggestion became the basis for the House of Representatives.
4. 3—New Jersey wanted representation in Congress to be based on equality of states, as it was under the Articles of Confederation. This idea became the basis of the Senate.
5. 5—The Great, or Connecticut, Compromise on representation called for a popularly elected House of Representative based on population and a Senate with two representatives per state chosen by the state legislatures. It settled the most pressing conflict at the Constitutional Convention.
6. 28—John Tyler suggested Congress admit Texas by joint resolution after James K. Polk campaigned successfully on an expansionist platform. Annexation in 1846 was a major cause of the Mexican War.
7. 22—Muscle Shoals was the site of a federal project that set out to harness the power of the Tennessee River to produce electricity and nitrates for the poverty-stricken farmers of the Tennessee River Valley. After a long struggle between public and private interests over control of the project and vetoes by Calvin Coolidge and Herbert Hoover, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed a bill establishing federal control over the region and expanded the project to become the Tennessee Valley Authority.

8. 46—When the last remaining territory of the continental United States was opened to white settlers in 1889, legal homesteaders found the land already occupied by illegal "Sooners" who had established claims. The 1890 census revealed that, for practical purposes, the frontier of the United States was gone. Frederick Jackson Turner's *The Significance of the Frontier in American History* supported the idea that once there was no longer a frontier beyond which Americans could settle, they would look outside the continental boundaries of the United States for new lands to annex.
9. 45—After facing persecution in several eastern states, the Mormons settled near Salt Lake City and used irrigation and progressive farming techniques to make the desert bloom.
10. 38—Gold discoveries, the Homestead Act, and transcontinental railroads made Colorado ready for statehood in 1876, the centennial of the Declaration of Independence.
11. 23—Maine was admitted as a free state to counterbalance the slave state, Missouri. The line 36° 30′ would divide slave and free territory in the rest of the Louisiana Purchase.
12. 31—After the outbreak of the Mexican War, John C. Fremont and others set up the Bear Flag Republic in California. The United States took control of it in the Mexican War. Discovery of gold in California made the territory ready to apply for statehood in 1849, and subsequently, it was admitted to the Union as part of the Compromise of 1850.
13. 48—Arizona was admitted to the Union during the Taft administration.
14. 44—Teapot Dome, Wyoming, was one of two government oil reserves that Secretary of the Interior Albert Fall leased to private interests in return for gifts and a loan. This scandal landed Fall in jail, and when it became public shortly after Warren G. Harding's death, it resulted in the discrediting of the Harding administration.
15. 4—Georgia was meant to be a colony for the poor and debtors and a buffer against Spanish intrusion from Florida. James Oglethorpe's colony was the least prosperous of the original thirteen colonies.
16. 8—South Carolina was the leader of southern radicalism from the days of John C. Calhoun and the tariff controversy during Andrew Jackson's administration.
17. 20—The Union victory at Vicksburg in the Civil War gave the Union control of the Mississippi and effectively cut the Confederacy in half. This was a key measure in the Union strategy to win the war.

18. 14—Ethan Allen's Green Mountain Boys captured British cannons from Fort Ticonderoga and dragged them overland to use in the successful colonial strategy to take control of the important port of Boston at the start of the Revolution.
19. 6—The incidents in 1775 marked the first battles of the Revolution in which the American colonies became the first ever to win independence from a mother country.
20. 5—Some colonies, including Connecticut, had charters extending "from sea to sea." One requirement for unanimous approval of the Articles of Confederation was that these states give up their western lands so that large states such as Virginia did not dominate the Union.
21. 2—When farmers in Western Pennsylvania refused to pay Alexander Hamilton's whiskey excise tax, George Washington sent 15,000 federal troops to demonstrate the power and authority of the new national government under the Constitution.
22. 6—Daniel Shays led a rebellion of Massachusetts farmers in 1786 to protest mortgage foreclosures. The lack of a national force to put down such uprisings convinced many that a more powerful federal government than the Articles of Confederation provided was needed to preserve the peace and protect private property.
23. 21—Chicago workers, demonstrating in support of an eight-hour day in 1886, faced brutal treatment by police. When the demonstration turned violent, the public turned against the Knights of Labor, who were blamed erroneously for the bloodshed. This incident effectively doomed the Knights of Labor.
24. 34—"Bleeding Kansas" resulted from proslavery and antislavery conflicts in Kansas after the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 introduced the concept of popular sovereignty in the two territories. The bloodshed was a precursor of the Civil War.
25. 25—When Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus opposed implementation of the Supreme Court decision in *Brown v. Board of Education*, President Dwight D. Eisenhower sent in the National Guard to guarantee the rights of African-American students to attend Central High School in Little Rock and preserve the authority of the federal government against states' rights advocates.
26. 36—Discovery of silver in Nevada in 1859 led to a stampede of fortune seekers in the territory. More than three hundred million dollars' worth of silver came out of the territory in the first twenty years after its discovery.

27. 35—The northwestern counties of Virginia chose to remain loyal to the Union; their secession from Virginia helped the Union to keep control of the Ohio River.
28. 17—The Northwest Ordinance of 1787 provided for eventual statehood rather than perpetual subordination, as the British expected of their colonial territories. Ohio became the first state to enter the Union under this "enlightened colonial policy."
29. 10—The first representative colonial legislature was started in Virginia in 1619. It became a model for other colonies.
30. 49—This bold claim by James K. Polk in his presidential campaign allowed room for compromise with the British over disputed claims to the Oregon Country. The two settled on the 49th parallel as the eventual border.
31. 9—Theodore Roosevelt mediated an end to the Russo-Japanese War in 1905. The treaty, signed in New Hampshire, alienated the Japanese, who believed they were entitled to land because of their victory. This slight was the start of tensions between Japan and the United States. Pearl Harbor was the eventual result.
32. 10 and 35—The raid to capture the federal arsenal and arm slaves took place in the part of the state of Virginia that seceded several years later to become West Virginia. The raid convinced southerners that the north would stop at nothing to abolish slavery.
33. 8—The fort, located in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, was the site of the first battle between the North and South. President Abraham Lincoln, who hoped to preserve a Union fort in Confederate territory as a symbol of national authority, sent food and medical supplies to the fort. When Confederates prevented provisioning the fort, Lincoln claimed that this was an act of aggression on their part and put the blame for the start of the war on the South.
34. 31—The San Francisco Conference (1945) guaranteed that the United Nations, unlike the earlier League of Nations, would have the full cooperation and support of the United States.
35. 13—Roger Williams's colony of Rhode Island became the model for the rest of the country when it guaranteed religious freedom for all.
36. 7—Maryland, originally settled by Catholics, passed this legislation in order to guarantee religious rights for Catholics, who had by then become a minority.

37. 2—Andrew Carnegie's steel plant in Homestead, Pennsylvania, was the site of a bloody battle between strikers and the state militia, who had been called to protect property rights. The strike reaffirmed the position of the government on the side of business rather than labor.
38. 48—The purchase of this strip of land from Mexico in 1853 gave the United States access to a favorable route for a southern transcontinental railroad. Some viewed it, too, as "conscience money" for the Mexican War.
39. 40—This was the sight of the last of the Indian battles in 1890 and also of the 1973 takeover of the Oglala Sioux Pine Ridge Reservation by the radical American Indian Movement. In 1975, Congress passed the American Indian Self-Determination and Education Act to give Native Americans greater authority on tribal reservations.
40. 24, 15, 7, and 1—Although in some instances it was not a free choice, the retention of the border states of Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware in the Union helped the United States keep control of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers and prevented the District of Columbia from being surrounded by Confederate territory.
41. 49—Secretary of State William Henry Seward's purchase of Alaska in 1867 later proved to be a wise move for both strategic and economic reasons.
42. 50—The December 7, 1941, attack on Pearl Harbor led to a congressional declaration of war against Japan on the following day.
43. 2—The Confederate attempt to disrupt the railroad center at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, was derailed when the Union fought and won the Battle of Gettysburg. This victory proved to be a turning point in the war for the Union.
44. 23—Settlement of a lingering border dispute between Britain and the United States over Maine gave this country the fertile Aroostook Valley and paved the way for compromise on the Oregon Country.
45. 22—Booker T. Washington's Tuskegee Institute, a vocational training facility for African Americans, typified the gradualist approach to progress for African Americans that W. E. B. Dubois found so objectionable.
46. 31, 36, 45, and 48—Loss of these lands, as well as parts of New Mexico and Colorado, caused Mexico and other Latin American countries to view the United States with suspicion for decades after the war. Acquisition of these lands also revived the slavery issue that led to the Civil War.

47. 31—Riots in the Watts section of Los Angeles touched off a summer of urban violence and led to white backlash against the progress achieved by the civil rights movement. They called attention to the views of radical African-American leaders and their proposed solutions for problems of African Americans in the United States.
48. 34—John Brown and his sons murdered five proslavery men in their beds to avenge an earlier proslavery sacking of Lawrence, Kansas, during the "Bleeding Kansas" episode after passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act. The incident incited passions on both sides and contributed to the outbreak of the Civil War.
49. 30—Robert La Follette's Progressive reforms, including the direct primary and state commission to regulate railroad rates, became the model of Progressivism for other states.
50. 42 and 43—The Oregon Compromise with Britain established the 49th parallel as the northern border of these states and part of Montana. Settlement of this issue freed President James K. Polk to focus on his campaign promise to secure what later became known as the Mexican Cession.

Geography and History

Directions: Identify by number the state or states where each of the following events occurred. (Refer to the map at the end of the handout.) Be prepared to state the larger significance of each of the items.

_____ 1. The Constitutional Convention was held here.

_____ 2. The Adams-Onis Treaty dealt with this state.

_____ 3. The author of the large-state plan came from here.

_____ 4. The author of the small-state plan came from here.

_____ 5. Roger Sherman, author of the Great Compromise, represented this state.

_____ 6. The United States annexed this area in 1845.

_____ 7. Muscle Shoals is in this state.

_____ 8. This state is known as the "Sooner" state.

_____ 9. The Mormons finally settled here.

_____ 10. This is the Centennial State.

_____ 11. This state was admitted as a free state in 1820.

_____ 12. This state was originally called the Bear Flag Republic.

_____ 13. This was the last of the continental forty-eight states to be admitted to the Union.

_____ 14. This is the site of the Tea Pot Dome.

_____ 15. This colony was originally set up for debtors.

_____ 16. This was the first state to secede at the start of the Civil War.

_____ 17. Vicksburg is in this state.

_____ 18. The Green Mountains are in this state.

_____ 19. Lexington and Concord are located here.

_____ 20. Ohio's Western Reserve was originally part of this state.

_____ 21. The Whiskey Rebellion took place here.

_____ 22. Shays's Rebellion took place here.

_____ 23. This was the site of the Haymarket Riot.

_____ 24. This future state experienced a small civil war in 1856.

_____ 25. The National Guard was called here to facilitate school integration in 1957.

_____26. The Comstock Lode is in this state.

_____27. This area separated from an existing state in 1863.

_____28. This became the first state in the Northwest Territory.

_____29. The House of Burgesses is located in this state.

_____30. The line implied in "Fifty-four forty or fight!" is the southern border of this state.

_____31. The Treaty of Portsmouth was signed here.

_____32. John Brown's famous raid on Harper's Ferry was in this state.

_____33. Fort Sumter is in this state.

_____34. The conference to start the United Nations was held in this state.

_____35. This was the first colony to grant freedom of religion and separation of church and state.

_____36. This colony passed an Act of Toleration in 1649.

_____37. This state was the site of the Homestead Strike.

_____38. Most of the Gadsden Purchase is in this state.

_____39. This state was the location of Wounded Knee.

_____40. These four border states remained loyal to the Union.

_____41. Seward's Folly referred to this area.

_____42. This was the site of the attack on Pearl Harbor.

_____43. The Battle of Gettysburg took place here.

_____44. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty established the border of this eastern state.

_____45. Tuskegee Institute was founded here.

_____46. The Mexican Cession included all of these four states.

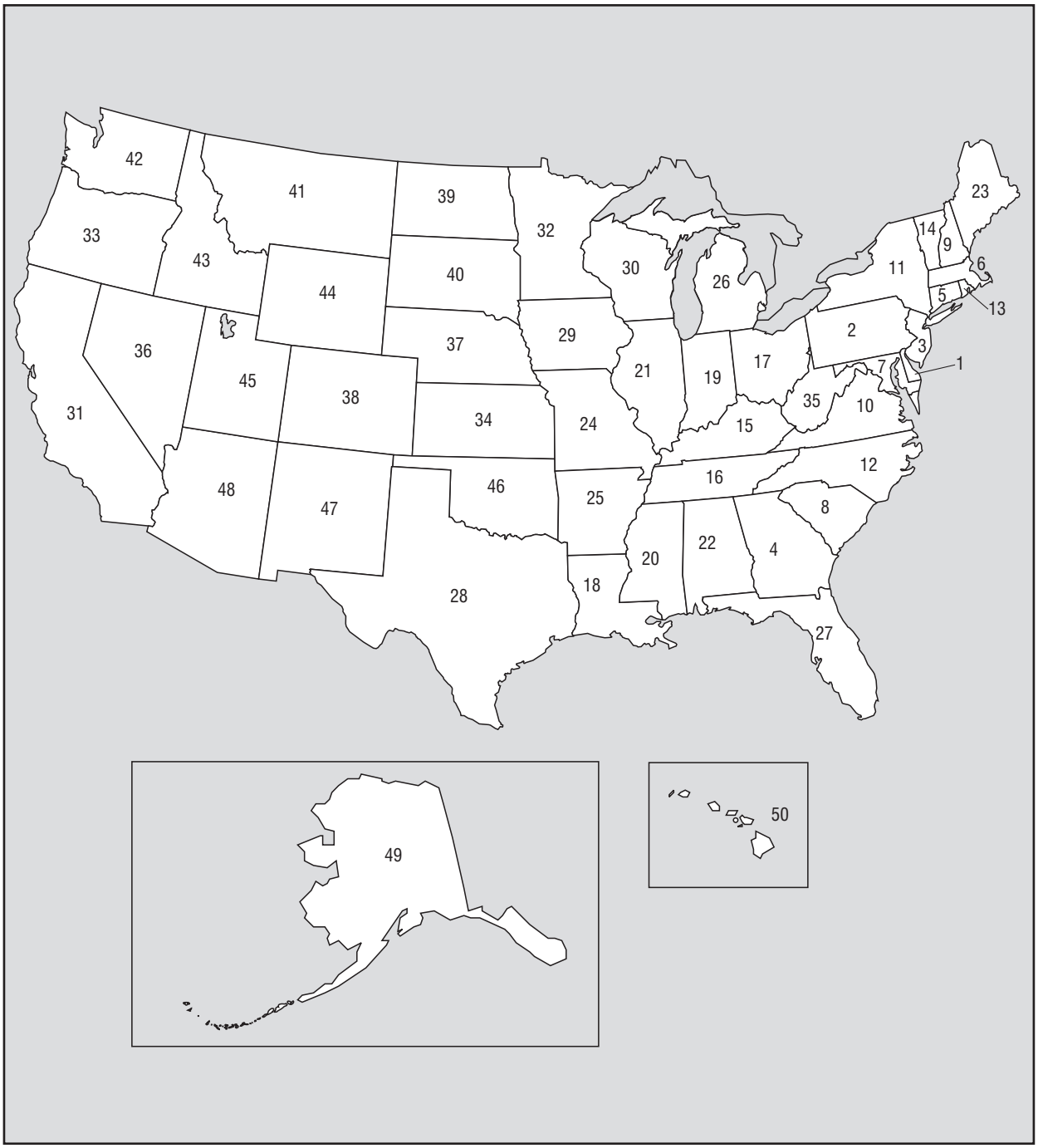
_____47. The area known as Watts is located in a large city in this state.

_____48. The Pottawatomie Massacre took place here.

_____49. This state's Progressive governor made it "the laboratory of democracy" and a model for others interested in reform.

_____50. The Oregon Compromise set the northern border of these two states.

 Name:



Lesson 22

The Power of the Printed Word

Objective

- To evaluate the impact of critical books, pamphlets, and documents in the evolution of American society

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-2: Analyze how emerging conceptions of national identity and democratic ideals shaped value systems, gender roles, and cultural movements in the late 18th century and the 19th century

CUL-5: Analyze ways that philosophical, moral, and scientific ideas were used to defend and challenge the dominant economic and social order in the 19th and 20th centuries

Notes to the Teacher

A number of books, documents, and pamphlets have had a far-reaching impact on the political, economic, and social development of American society. These writings, which have stood the test of time, have shaped American society for good or ill since 1776. In addition, some have also influenced the thinking of individuals in other countries and the actions of other governments. While other writings might have been included, those selected provide students with a foundation for understanding major themes in American thought.

In this lesson, students review selected books, documents, and pamphlets and state the main idea and the impact of each work. They organize the writings by centuries and discuss the extent to which they shaped the character of the century in which they were written. Students conclude by ranking the works in importance for the development of American thought.

Procedure

1. Explain that in most societies, writings have had a far-reaching impact on political, economic, and social developments. Mention that sometimes these writings influence the thoughts and actions of individuals in other countries. Ask students for examples (the influence of the Declaration of Independence on revolutionary movements in France and Central and South America).

2. Distribute **Handout 36**, and have students complete part A as a small-group activity.

Suggested Responses

1. Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1852) served as an indictment of the evils of slavery and the laws that supported it. Abraham Lincoln once referred to Stowe as "the little lady who started this great war" and termed the novel the most powerful argument offered for the Emancipation Proclamation.
2. The Declaration of Independence, written largely by Thomas Jefferson, announced the colonies' separation from Britain and justified independence on the grounds of British violations of the colonists' natural rights. The statement that "all men are created equal" has served since 1776 as a standard by which to judge America's progress toward the ideal of equality.
3. Alfred Thayer Mahan's study of sea power, especially that of England, convinced him that a country's strength on the sea largely determined its prosperity and position in the world. The book prompted many countries, including the United States, Germany, and Japan, to begin naval expansion in the pre–World War I years.
4. Thomas Paine's influential pamphlet, *Common Sense*, attacked monarchy and inherited privilege. In a brilliant statement of the colonists' cause, he demanded complete independence from England and establishment of a strong federal union. Both influential leaders and thousands of ordinary colonists became converted to the cause of independence.
5. *The Jungle*, a novel, exposes the evils of early twentieth-century Chicago meatpacking plants. It led to the 1906 Meat Inspection Act, one of the first pieces of Progressive legislation to regulate industries.
6. Alexander Hamilton's report to Congress argued persuasively the advantages of a diversified economy, which included both industry and agriculture, to insure the country's economic as well as political independence. He called in particular for a high protective tariff, a measure finally enacted in 1816.
7. Frederick Jackson Turner's famous essay, published just after the Census Bureau announced the end of the frontier, outlined how the frontier experience shaped American development and focused historians' attention on a previously overlooked factor in explaining America's past.
8. *The Feminine Mystique* argues that the media convinced American women that they could be completely fulfilled through life as a wife and mother. The book launched the modern women's rights movement and led to the establishment of the National Organization for Women (NOW).

9. *The Liberator,* which began publication in 1831, became the leading abolitionist newspaper and helped create the climate of public opinion necessary for success in the antislavery movement.
10. Helen Hunt Jackson's exposé of the government's treatment of Native Americans detailed a long list of broken promises and treaties and led to the Dawes Act, often called the "Indian Emancipation Act," giving the president authority to distribute Native American lands among the tribes.
11. *The Federalist Papers,* a collection of essays, was meant to persuade New York to ratify the Constitution. The essays have since become classic interpretations of the Constitution.
12. Drawing on the philosophy of social Darwinism, Andrew Carnegie argued that unbridled competition is beneficial to the business world, but the wealth it created obligated the rich to spend some of their wealth to help others. His own large-scale philanthropy created a model for others to follow, although some questioned whether his harsh treatment of workers was justified by the philanthropy.
13. Henry David Thoreau's essay, based on his own protest against paying taxes to support the war in Mexico, became an inspiration for others, including Martin Luther King Jr.
14. John Steinbeck's prize-winning novel chronicles the plight of migrant workers during the Depression. The popular social-protest novel suggests the perfectibility of humanity and the possibility of improved conditions.
15. Lincoln Steffens's muckraking exposé of municipal corruption in numerous cities led to a variety of changes in the form of urban government and other municipal reforms during the Progressive Era.
16. Michael Harrington's moving exposé of rampant poverty, particularly among the "invisible poor"—the elderly, uneducated, and low-paid workers—inspired Lyndon Johnson's "war on poverty."
17. "The Atlanta Compromise" aimed to cement relations between the black and white races by suggesting that African Americans should work their way up by starting with vocational training and proving their worth before striving for social integration and the right to "spend a dollar at the opera house." This gradualist approach was popular among many whites, but it probably set the civil rights movement back several decades.

18. *The Promise of American Life* outlined a "New Nationalism," a philosophy on which Theodore Roosevelt based his 1912 campaign for the presidency. According to the philosophy, a strong government would act as "steward of the public welfare" to guarantee the rights of the people.
19. Henry George proposed a single tax on the unearned increment in land values to break up landholding monopolies and finance a better life for all. His faith in the people's ability to effect change created a climate for reform efforts rather than inaction later, during the Progressive and New Deal periods.
20. Alain Locke's *The New Negro* focuses on black contributions to American culture and civilization. The book made him the "Father of the Harlem Renaissance," the movement of the 1920s that contributed to African Americans' sense of self-esteem and whites' recognition of the value of African-American culture for both races.
21. Adam Smith's *A Wealth of Nations*, published in England the year the colonists declared their independence, launched an assault on the principles of mercantilism. Smith's contention—that enlightened self-interest, competition, and a laissez-faire approach of government provided a better basis for an economy—suited conditions in America and became the foundation of the new U.S. economy.
22. Edward Bellamy's Utopian novel predicts how class divisions and relentless competition would give way to a caring, cooperative, classless, socialistic state by the year 2000. This manifesto for social and economic reform won many adherents and helped set the stage for new philosophies in the Progressive and New Deal eras.
23. *Twenty Years at Hull House* describes Jane Addams's settlement house experiences in early twentieth-century Chicago. Her work provided a model for the kind of services settlement houses everywhere could offer the urban poor.
24. Rachel Carson's book reveals the depletion and pollution of America's resources, both by government actions and by the use of toxic chemicals and pesticides. The book raised environmental consciousness and inspired the ecology movement.
25. Frederick Taylor showed factory managers how to use efficient plant organization and time-motion studies to lower production costs per unit and increase production per worker.
26. Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein, reporters for the *Washington Post*, painstakingly tracked numerous leads to unravel

the story of the Watergate cover-up. Their book was a major factor in forcing the resignation of President Richard Nixon.

27. W. E. B. Du Bois predicted that race relations would be the critical issue of the twentieth century. Unlike Booker T. Washington, he advocated an immediate end to segregation and prompt steps to introduce quality education and voting for African Americans. His impassioned plea for unconditional equality set the agenda for the civil rights movement.
28. Defense analyst Daniel Ellsberg leaked a secret account of American involvement in Vietnam to the *New York Times*. The paper allowed Americans to read the lies and faulty assumptions that led to this country's increasing involvement in the war. The Supreme Court denied the Nixon administration an injunction to halt publication. Thus, the public's right to know took precedence over the Defense Department's claim of secrecy in the name of public security. As a result, protests over American involvement increased until the government promised to end the war without fighting on to victory.
29. Martin Luther King's response to white leaders who criticized his willingness to go to jail rather than obey an unjust segregation law became the classic interpretation of the civil rights movement. It prompted President John F. Kennedy to make an important television address supporting civil rights legislation.
30. Jacob Riis, a reform-minded photojournalist, included grim pictures of New York City tenements along with his accounts of life in the poorer neighborhoods. His work led to the first housing reforms and other education, social welfare, and health care legislation during the Progressive era.

3. Have students group the writers by centuries as indicated in part B. Conduct a discussion of how this grouping of influential writers might help to suggest a theme for each century.

Suggested Responses

Eighteenth century

Writers—Thomas Paine, Thomas Jefferson, Adam Smith, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, John Jay

Possible theme—During the eighteenth century, writers dealt with the separation from Great Britain, the creation of a strong federal union, and the establishment of a diversified economy based on self-interest, competition, and a laissez-faire approach by the government.

Nineteenth century

Writers—William Lloyd Garrison, Henry David Thoreau, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Henry George, Helen Hunt Jackson, Edward Bellamy, Andrew Carnegie, Alfred Thayer Mahan, Frederick Jackson Turner, Booker T. Washington, Jacob Riis

Possible theme—The works of nineteenth-century writers were characterized by a desire to effect change and create a climate for economic, political, and social reform in American society, while at the same time insuring American prosperity and position in the world.

Twentieth century

Writers—W. E. B. Du Bois, Lincoln Steffens, Upton Sinclair, Herbert Croly, Jane Addams, Frederick Taylor, Alain Locke, John Steinbeck, Michael Harrington, Rachel Carson, Betty Freidan, Martin Luther King Jr., Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein, Daniel Ellsberg

Possible Theme—Writers in the twentieth century were concerned with corruptions and dishonesty in government and politics, advocated an end to segregation and the passage of legislation that recognized the rights of women and African Americans, and promoted the development of an American environmental consciousness and the ecology movement.

4. Raise the following points in a concluding discussion.
   - What three works in each of the following categories have had the greatest long-range impact: political, economic, and social?
   - What other writings should have been included on the list? Why?

   Have students justify their choices.

Standing the Test of Time: Key Writings in American History

Part A.
Directions: Explain the main idea and significance of each of the following books, pamphlets, and documents that had important consequences for the development of American society.

1. Harriet Beecher Stowe, *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1852)

2. Thomas Jefferson, *Declaration of Independence* (1776)

3. Alfred Thayer Mahan, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660–1783* (1890)

4. Thomas Paine, *Common Sense* (1776)

5. Upton Sinclair, *The Jungle* (1906)

6. Alexander Hamilton, "The Report on Manufactures" (1791)

7. Frederick Jackson Turner, "The Significance of the Frontier in American History" (1893)

8. Betty Friedan, *The Feminine Mystique* (1963)

9. William Lloyd Garrison, *The Liberator* (1831)

10. Helen Hunt Jackson, *A Century of Dishonor* (1881)

11. Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay, *The Federalist Papers* (1787)

12. Andrew Carnegie, "The Gospel of Wealth" (1889)

13. Henry David Thoreau, "On Civil Disobedience" (1849)

14. John Steinbeck, *The Grapes of Wrath* (1939)

15. Lincoln Steffens, *The Shame of the Cities* (1904)

16. Michael Harrington, *The Other America* (1961)

17. Booker T. Washington, "The Atlanta Compromise" (1895)

18. Herbert Croly, *The Promises of American Life* (1909)

19. Henry George, *Progress and Poverty* (1879)

20. Alain Locke, *The New Negro* (1925)

21. Adam Smith, *A Wealth of Nations* (1776)

22. Edward Bellamy, *Looking Backward* (1888)

23. Jane Addams, *Twenty Years at Hull House* (1910)

24. Rachel Carson, *Silent Spring* (1961)

25. Frederick Taylor, *Principles of Scientific Management* (1911)

26. Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein, *All the President's Men* (1974)

27. W. E. B. Du Bois, *The Souls of Black Folk* (1903)

28. Daniel Ellsberg, *The Pentagon Papers* (1971)

29. Martin Luther King Jr., "Letter from Birmingham Jail" (1963)

30. Jacob Riis, *How the Other Half Lives* (1890)

 Name:

Part B.
Directions: Group the writers by centuries. Use these groupings and your completed part A to develop a theme for each century based on the intellectual breakthroughs of its great minds.

Time Period	Writers	Theme
Eighteenth century		
Nineteenth century		
Twentieth century		

Lesson 23

Points of Conflict: The Focus of History

Objective

- To review the course of American history through its major conflicts

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-1: Analyze how competing conceptions of national identity were expressed in the development of political institutions and cultural values from the late colonial through the antebellum periods

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-2: Explain how and why major party systems and political alignments arose and have changed from the early Republic through the end of the 20th century

POL-6: Analyze how debates over political values (such as democracy, freedom, and citizenship) and the extension of American ideals abroad contributed to the ideological clashes and military conflicts of the 19th century and the early 20th century

POL-7: Analyze how debates over civil rights and civil liberties have influenced political life from the early 20th century through the early 21st century

Notes to the Teacher

Conflicts that highlight an age have often had long-range implications for the course of history. Reviewing these critical conflicts helps students gain an understanding of chronology and the main characters and movements that have shaped America's development. At this stage in the review process, this activity should be a confidence builder as students recognize that they understand main currents in American thought.

In this lesson, students identify the key individuals, disputes, eras, issues, and impacts of fifteen major conflicts in American history.

Procedure

1. Explain that conflicts in history often have long-ranging implications. Ask students for examples of people and events that are linked in American history (Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson; the Civil War, Reconstruction, and the twentieth-century civil rights movement; Herbert Hoover, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and the Great Depression).
2. Distribute **Handout 37**, and have students complete the outline individually.
3. Review and discuss students' responses. Answer any questions students have about these critical issues.

Suggested Responses

1. Woodrow Wilson vs. Henry Cabot Lodge

   Main characters—President Woodrow Wilson, a Democrat, and Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, a Republican and chair of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee

   Time—1919

   Conflict—Battle over the ratification of the Treaty of Versailles

   Issues—At issue was U.S. entry into the League of Nations, which was part of Wilson's Fourteen Points peace proposal at the Versailles negotiations. Lodge was angry with Wilson for not consulting him or other key Republicans during the negotiations and sought to add a list of "reservations" to the League of Nations. Wilson, who was unwilling to compromise, was adamant about retaining Article X, which called for member nations to go to the assistance of any nation that suffered acts of aggression. Lodge's protests and stalling, coupled with Wilson's intransigence and crippling stroke at the height of the battle, led to defeat of the treaty and prevented U.S. membership in the League.

   Impact—The United States retreated from obligations of world leadership until World War II and, in so doing, may have crippled the League of Nations.

2. Alexander Hamilton vs. Thomas Jefferson

   Main characters—Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury in George Washington's cabinet, and Thomas Jefferson, Washington's secretary of state

   Time—1790–1791

   Conflict—The two cabinet members clashed over Hamilton's proposed financial program and Jefferson's support for France in foreign relations.

   Issues—Jefferson disagreed with Hamilton's plans to fund the state debt and create a Bank of the United States, as well as with his whiskey excise tax and his proposal to impose a protective tariff to encourage manufacturing.

Impact—Representing different constituencies, the two men soon headed different factions with Hamilton representing the business elite and Jefferson the agrarian elements in society. Congressional acceptance of the Bank of the United States and a whiskey excise tax put the country on a firm foundation financially and set a precedent for a strong national government. Jefferson's less aristocratic faction, in the end, garnered greater political and public support and set the country on a path toward democracy.

3. Richard Nixon vs. the U.S. Supreme Court

Main characters—President Richard M. Nixon and the U.S. Supreme Court

Time—July 1974

Conflict—They clashed over Nixon's claim of executive privilege in objecting to release of critical portions of the Watergate tapes.

Issues—Special prosecutor Leon Jaworski obtained a court order directing Nixon to turn over the tapes. Nixon's appeal to the Supreme Court resulted in an 8-0 decision against him. The tapes contained damaging evidence that the president lied about his knowledge of the Watergate cover-up.

Impact—The conflict was a key factor in forcing Nixon's resignation the following month.

4. Franklin Roosevelt vs. the U.S. Supreme Court

Main characters—President Franklin D. Roosevelt and the U.S. Supreme Court

Time—1937

Conflict—Roosevelt was frustrated by the Supreme Court's invalidation of key New Deal legislation.

Issues—Roosevelt sought the right to add six new justices to the Court to assist the judges over seventy years old.

Impact—Even though Congress was of the president's party, it refused to allow this packing of the Court because it would have upset the balance of power among the three branches of government.

5. Rutherford B. Hayes vs. Samuel Tilden

Main characters—Rutherford B. Hayes, a Republican, and Samuel Tilden, a Democrat

Time—1876

Conflict—The very close presidential election of 1876

Issues—Tilden won the popular vote. Voters, tired of the corruption of the Grant administration, supported Tilden in large numbers. Some states submitted disputed returns, and election results hinged on twenty key electoral votes. Tilden needed only one of the votes, while Hayes

needed all twenty to win. An electoral commission, which consisted of seven members of each party and one Independent, was created to determine to whom the electoral votes would be awarded. The Independent, a Supreme Court justice, resigned, and President Grant replaced him with a Republican, which changed the balance to favor the Republicans, giving the election to Hayes.

Impact—The claims of Southern Democrats that Hayes "stole" the election quieted when he agreed to remove the last remaining troops from the South and officially ended Reconstruction. This action left newly freed African Americans at the mercy of Southern whites intent on retaliation.

6. Gloria Steinem vs. Phyllis Schafly

   Main characters—Gloria Steinem, feminist author, and Phyllis Schafly, leader of a national movement in opposition to the women's rights movement

   Time—1970s

   Conflict—These two women clashed over the Equal Rights Amendment and a variety of other feminist issues.

   Issues—Steinem argued the necessity of reform to gain equal rights, while Schafly countered that these moves would deprive women of separate restrooms, exemption from the draft, alimony, and the right to attend single-sex colleges.

   Impact—Division within the ranks of the women's movement may have doomed the ERA.

7. Harry S. Truman vs. Douglas MacArthur

   Main characters—President Harry S. Truman, the commander-in-chief, and Douglas MacArthur, the general in charge of the United Nations' operation in Korea

   Time—1950s

   Conflict—They argued over whether or not to pursue North Korean troops beyond the 38th parallel into their own territory.

   Issues—Fearing an all-out war with the Chinese, Truman argued against the move and had no choice but to fire MacArthur when MacArthur's public statements in support of a more vigorous policy became too loud. Many Americans found the concept of limited war and the UN's policy of merely stopping aggression to be frustrating.

   Impact—Removal of MacArthur did preserve the constitutional power of the president as commander-in-chief with final authority over the military.

8. William Jennings Bryan vs. William McKinley
   Main characters—William Jennings Bryan, representing both Populist and Democratic parties, and William McKinley, a Republican
   Time—1896
   Conflict—Presidential election
   Issues—The election dealt largely with the silver issue and Bryan's determination to support inflation beneficial to farmers.
   Impact—Results of the election made clear the waning influence of farmers and the rising control of American business interests.
9. Abraham Lincoln vs. Stephen Douglas
   Main characters—Abraham Lincoln and Stephen Douglas
   Time—1858
   Conflict—The Senate race in Illinois
   Issues—The Lincoln-Douglas debates focused on the slavery issue and served as a prelude to the 1860 presidential election. Lincoln's question asking Douglas how he reconciled his support for popular sovereignty with the recent Dred Scott decision turned out to be critical. In making his response, Douglas alienated the proslavery and antislavery advocates. By trying to take a neutral stand on the issue, Douglas hoped to preserve the Union. Lincoln's strong stand in opposition to the spread of slavery cost him all hope of gaining Southern support, but gained him solid support in the North.
   Impact—Although Douglas won the Senate seat, he lost the bigger campaign for the presidency in 1860. Lincoln's election led to Southern secession.
10. Tories vs. Patriots
   Main characters—Patriots and Tories
   Time—1770s
   Conflict—The American Revolution
   Issues—Tories questioned giving up the stable government and protection of the British in return for an unknown American government. Fears of a possible plan to remove the elite from office further disquieted them. Patriots, on the other hand, approved the reasoning of Thomas Paine in *Common Sense* and Thomas Jefferson in the Declaration of Independence.
   Impact—The dispute between Tories and Patriots led to a divided American population during the American Revolution. Many Tories served as British soldiers and provided money and shelter, particularly in the cities.

11. Federalists vs. Antifederalists
    Main characters—Federalists and Antifederalists
    Time—1789
    Conflict—Ratification of the Constitution
    Issues—Antifederalists feared a strong central government, physically far removed from their sight. Federalists saw the need for a strong national government that could solve pressing problems such as trade wars, financial crises, threats to private property, and difficulties with Native Americans.
    Impact—Federalist victories led to ratification of the Constitution to replace the weaker Articles of Confederation and set the country on a firm foundation for progress in the future.
12. Andrew Jackson vs. Nicholas Biddle
    Main characters—President Andrew Jackson and Nicholas Biddle, president of the Second Bank of the United States
    Time—1832
    Conflict—Jackson and Biddle argued over the wisdom of rechartering the Bank of the United States.
    Issues—Jackson argued that the Bank was an institution of the rich and was both undemocratic and unconstitutional. Biddle argued that it had served a critical role in preserving the stability of money.
    Impact—In the presidential election, in which the Bank was the key issue, Jackson, the popular war hero and incumbent president, defeated Henry Clay, who supported the Bank. Killing the Bank meant that the national government lost control of the money supply.
13. Herbert Hoover vs. Franklin D. Roosevelt
    Main characters—Herbert Hoover, the incumbent Republican president, and Franklin D. Roosevelt, the Democratic governor of New York
    Time—1932
    Conflict—Presidential election
    Issues—Hoover was convinced that the country could ride out the deepening depression without significant changes in government responsibilities. Roosevelt, unsure exactly how to proceed, promised bold experimentation to bring the country back to prosperity.
    Impact—Roosevelt's election in that year and in the succeeding three elections set the nation on the path to becoming a welfare state with broad federal obligations to help those unable to help themselves.

14. Martin Luther King Jr. vs. Malcolm X
    Main characters—Martin Luther King Jr. and Malcolm X
    Time—mid-1960s
    Conflict—King and Malcolm X clashed over the proper process of gaining civil rights for African Americans.
    Issues—King preached and practiced nonviolence and cooperation with whites in his successful campaign to gain civil right legislation. Malcolm X, a radical and articulate spokesman, believed that one should use "any means necessary to fight racism" and spoke for the needs of the urban poor in particular. He insisted that violence would gain attention and help the cause.
    Impact—Although Malcolm X was assassinated in 1965, his thinking dominated the civil rights movement for the next few years.
15. Booker T. Washington vs. W. E. B. Du Bois
    Main characters—W. E. B Du Bois, founder of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and Booker T. Washington, the founder of the Tuskegee Institute and author of "Atlanta Compromise"
    Time—Early twentieth century
    Conflict—Du Bois took issue with Washington's strategy of gradualism and accommodation with whites to prepare African Americans for eventual equality and social acceptance by whites.
    Issues—Washington suggested that blacks start at the bottom and gain economic strength before insisting on equality. Du Bois insisted that voting, an end to segregation, and advanced education for the "Talented Tenth" were reasonable requests in the early 1900s and that adherence to Washington's philosophy would put the civil rights movement back decades.
    Impact—Du Bois helped create the Niagara Movement, which called for pride in African-American accomplishments and an uncompromising demand for political and social equality.

Name:

Critical Conflicts

Directions: Review the following conflicts that set the tone for their respective eras. On separate paper, summarize each conflict. Include the main characters, key dates, and relevant issues as well as the impact of each conflict. Then add one conflict of your choice to the list and analyze it.

1. Woodrow Wilson vs. Henry Cabot Lodge
2. Alexander Hamilton vs. Thomas Jefferson
3. Richard Nixon vs. the U.S. Supreme Court
4. Franklin D. Roosevelt vs. the U.S. Supreme Court
5. Rutherford B. Hayes vs. Samuel Tilden
6. Gloria Steinem vs. Phyllis Schafly
7. Harry S. Truman vs. Douglas MacArthur
8. William Jennings Bryan vs. William McKinley
9. Abraham Lincoln vs. Stephen Douglas
10. Tories vs. Patriots
11. Federalists vs. Antifederalists
12. Andrew Jackson vs. Nicholas Biddle
13. Herbert Hoover vs. Franklin D. Roosevelt
14. Martin Luther King Jr. vs. Malcolm X
15. Booker T. Washington vs. W. E. B. Du Bois

Lesson 24

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: Change over Time

Objectives

- To examine the basic ideas behind America's foreign policy throughout history
- To determine how those ideas shaped public policy and were implemented through legislation

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-5: Analyze the motives behind, and results of, economic, military, and diplomatic initiatives aimed at expanding U.S. power and territory in the Western Hemisphere in the years between independence and the Civil War

WOR-6: Analyze the major aspects of domestic debates over U.S. expansionism in the 19th century and the early 20th century

WOR-7: Analyze the goals of U.S. policymakers in major international conflicts, such as the Spanish-American War, World Wars I and II, and the Cold War, and explain how U.S. involvement in these conflicts has altered the U.S. role in world affairs

WOR-8: Explain how U.S. military and economic involvement in the developing world and issues such as terrorism and economic globalization have changed U.S. foreign policy

Notes to the Teacher

Many historians believe that there are basic cornerstones on which our foreign policy rests. Identifying these cornerstones and interpreting and putting them into practice can depend on one's point of view and also can raise a great deal of discussion; however, most recognize and agree that there are fundamental beliefs at work in shaping American foreign policy. It is important to note that these cornerstones have changed over time. Students should be able to see some patterns to these, but they also need to take note of important changes, which developed as history evolved.

The history of American foreign policy has been divided into seven periods. These are as follows: American Neutrality, the Monroe Doctrine,

Manifest Destiny, American Imperialism, American Isolationism, the Cold War, and the War on Terror. This division was created in an attempt to simplify large amounts of information. It is important to note that there are many ways in which the information can be organized.

In this lesson, students read excerpts from individuals in American history who have clarified American foreign policy. Students working in groups are assigned a foreign policy category (e.g., the cold war or American isolationism) and asked to answer certain basic questions for their category. Each group is responsible for presenting its category to the entire class. Students take notes as each group presents information. After all the groups have presented their information, the entire class participates in a discussion.

Procedure

1. Ask students to define *foreign policy* (ways in which a country deals with other countries). Ask for examples of specific foreign policy issues (wars, trade policies, diplomatic issues, international economic crisis). Ask students to identify the most important foreign policy issues facing America today (war on terror, the price of oil, peace in the Middle East, America's global image).
2. Divide the class into seven groups, and distribute a different set of documents (**Handouts 38–44**) to each group. Explain that students are to use resources in the classroom, in the library, or on the Internet to answer the questions and that groups should be prepared to present their information to the class. All students should take notes during the presentations so that they have complete information about each concept covered in the handouts.

Suggested Responses

Handout 38

1. 1778 — Treaty of Alliance with France
   - This bound both countries to help each other if either were at war with Britain.
   - France honored this treaty by aiding the Americans during the American Revolution.
   - When France declared war on Britain, Holland, and Spain in 1793, the French expected America to honor the treaty.
   - On April 22, 1793, George Washington issued a Neutrality Proclamation declaring that the United States would not become involved in the European conflict.
2. *Document 1*—Alexander Hamilton, George Washington's secretary of the treasury, supported a federal form of government. He argued that the president, as commander-in-chief and executer of the laws, must judge the meaning of laws before they can be executed, that treaties

are law, and that it is the president's job to interpret and execute the treaty; therefore, the president has the power to declare acts of neutrality.

Document 2—James Madison, a Democratic-Republican and an opponent of a federal form of government, argued that the power to declare war and make treaties was not a power of the president. The executive branch was to execute laws, and the legislative branch was to make laws. Madison believed that to declare neutrality was in fact to make law, which was clearly within the power of the legislative branch, not the executive branch.

Document 3—In his Farewell Address, George Washington warned future presidents to avoid permanent alliances with any European powers.

3. These excerpts show that America during its infancy was concerned with the nature of foreign policy. Washington laid out principles that would guide America for a number of years.

Handout 39

1. In 1823, President James Monroe issued the Monroe Doctrine.
   - Russia had begun to establish settlements in North America; Austria and Prussia were interested in establishing colonies in the Western Hemisphere.
   - France had tried to reestablish its position in North America.
   - Great Britain was concerned about American involvement in Latin America, particularly the threat to British possessions in the Caribbean.
2. *Document 1*—John Quincy Adams, James Monroe's secretary of state, argued that America had always respected the rights of other nations, even if their policy was contrary to the ideals and principles of America. America was not interested in foreign domination, but in liberty and freedom. He was not advocating isolationism and believed very strongly in developing an American continental empire. This belief eventually led to the Monroe Doctrine.

   Document 2—In his Seventh Annual Address (1823), James Monroe advanced the idea of noncolonization of the American continent by European powers, reasserted George Washington's idea of American neutrality and independence from European affairs, and asked Europe to do the same.

3. Between 1820 and 1840, there was a continuation of George Washington's neutrality policy, which was expanded to argue that European powers also should not interfere in American affairs. The Monroe Doctrine put forth the principles of non-colonization and nonintervention on the part of the European powers in the Western Hemisphere.

Handout 40

1. Between 1840 and 1860, westward expansion fueled the growth of the young nation.
   - Constant conflict with Native Americans led to a number of controversial policies under Andrew Jackson, such as the Indian Removal Act of 1830, which while viewed on the one hand as a practical solution, was seen by others to be a direct violation of the natural and civil rights of the Native American population.
   - The Mexican War and the acquisition of new territories like Texas and California led to discussions about growth, while tensions continued to increase between slave and free states. Many viewed the expansion as an extension of the divine right of Americans to establish John Winthrop's "city on a hill."
2. *Document 1*—Andrew Jackson in his First Annual Message to Congress (1829) argued that because the growth of America has caused much suffering among both white settlers and Native Americans, the best course of action would be to set aside a portion of the western territory, which would not be settled by any of the states, and allow Native Americans to move there voluntarily and live free of any white encroachments. If Native Americans chose to stay in the states, they would have to follow the laws of the states they were living in. Missionaries would still be allowed to work in the area.

   Document 2—John O'Sullivan, who coined the phrase "Manifest Destiny," wrote two articles in the *U.S. Democratic Review*, "The Great Nation of Futurity" (1839) and "Annexation" (1845). O'Sullivan used the term to describe the divine ordinance given to America to spread throughout the North American continent.

   Document 3—James K. Polk's Second Annual Address (1846) argued that the United States had not sought war with Mexico and in fact had tried every means to avoid war. Texas tried to join the Union on its own, and even though America worked for a peaceful solution to issues with Mexico, the U.S. army would prosecute the war with an eye toward total victory.

3. Between 1840 and 1860, there was a fundamental shift in foreign policy on the part of the American government. The idea of Manifest Destiny was a clear departure from George Washington's policy of neutrality. Previous presidents such as John Quincy Adams certainly had believed in the idea of a continental American empire, but an ideological justification for this was wanting—until Manifest Destiny provided it.

Handout 41

1. The American victory in the Spanish-American War in 1898 left the United States in possession of the Spanish colonies of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands.
   - The acquisition of these territories led to a fierce debate in American history. Many asked whether the United States should hold foreign territories abroad.
   - The notion of Manifest Destiny had been applied to the contiguous continent, but now the United States found itself in a position that many Americans supported, that of a world power.
2. *Document 1*—Josiah Strong argued that, as an extension of Manifest Destiny, America had a responsibility and a destiny to conquer the entire globe. Strong believed that the Anglo race should spread its wings out over the world and spread Christianity everywhere.

   Document 2—Alfred Thayer Mahan argued the same idea from a very different perspective. He said that it was critical and essential that the United States establish a strong navy, as well as American naval bases at ports around the world. This would help trade in peacetime, allow the United States to supply its army during wartime, prevent a foreign country from occupying our territory, and strengthen the position of the United States as a world power.

   Document 3—Congressman Albert J. Beveridge argued that God ordained the United States to bring progress and prosperity to other countries and that it was our moral obligation to rescue foreign countries in need of religious, political, and economic support.

   Document 4—In his Fourth Annual Message to Congress (1904), Theodore Roosevelt proposed what is commonly known as the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine. Roosevelt attempted to quiet the critics who argued that the United States simply was seeking foreign territory for its own gain; instead, he argued that America simply was looking for peace and stability in the Americas and that it was not the business of European powers to interfere with any of the dealings within the Americas.

Solutions to problems in the Western Hemisphere had to come from powers already present. Serious issues would result in the United States resorting to police and military action.

3. Manifest Destiny was applied globally instead of just continentally. There was much opposition to these policies and ideologies; however, there was a general belief, as there had been from the beginning of colonization, in the superiority of the civilization of the white Anglo-Saxon Protestant and in America's destiny to bring civilization and religion to all parts of the world.

Handout 42

1. After the Spanish-American War, a new ideology developed that challenged the idea of imperialism. Individuals began to question whether America had a right to lay claim to foreign territories.
   - World War I, with its new weapons of mass destruction and high number of casualties, threw the world into chaos. Many Americans felt a deep loss and developed a sense of alienation. The "Lost Generation," a group of American writers, disillusioned by World War I, became cynical and disdainful of Victorian morals. Many moved to Europe where they lived and wrote.
   - The Roaring Twenties also fueled the idea of imperialism. Many Americans felt that they had recovered from World War I and, at least on the surface, the country seemed to be doing well economically.
   - A series of conservative presidents who were elected during the Twenties—Warren Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover—advocated a kind of status quo.
2. *Document 1*—The American Anti-Imperialist League referred to George Washington and Abraham Lincoln when they argued that "might does not make right." America had a heritage of respecting freedom and liberty; to subjugate others by force, regardless of intentions, was contrary to American principles and ultimately would fail.

   Document 2—Senator George F. Hoar, speaking specifically to those who argued that the Philippines should be annexed by the United States, argued that to do so was to compromise the principles that lay at the foundation of our country.

   Document 3—William Jennings Bryan, in his second Democratic acceptance speech. turned to what he considered to be the most important issue of the day: the issue of imperialism. Bryan argued that the philosophy of imperialism

was not only inconsistent with ideals of freedom and democracy, but also diametrically opposed to the ideals of Christianity, as it was inconsistent with the Golden Rule.

Documents 4 and 5—Wisconsin Senator Robert M. La Follette, a Progressive who opposed World War I, emphasized the importance of democracy, freedom, and peace. He argued that civilized and organized society should seek peaceful ways to resolve disputes, not brute force and war.

Document 6—Warren G. Harding, in his 1921 Inaugural Address, echoed the words of George Washington's Farewell Address. Harding stated that America had an interest in what was happening in Europe but could not afford to enter into political, economic, or military alliances with anyone. America was willing, as a world leader, to step up and participate in dialogue, but anything that would force America's hand was something in which the United States was not willing to engage. America always must look to itself to solve its problems, and all other countries should do the same. Harding also warned against the establishment of worldwide supergovernment such as the League of Nations and clearly stated that the United States would have no involvement with the League.

3. At the beginning of the twentieth century, especially after World War I and during the 1920s, Americans were aware of the dangers of foreign commitments. While the war was still strong in the memories of many people, most Americans regarded the Twenties as a time of prosperity. The conservatism that rose during the Twenties fed a sense of isolationism as American foreign policy turned inward.

Handout 43

1. This inward turn did not last long, as the Great Depression and World War II shocked the world. What the world had experienced during World War I paled in comparison to the experience of the Depression and the rise of fascism in Europe and the Far East after World War I.
   - After World War II, a new enemy (Russia) and a new ideology (communism) arose. The world was asked to choose sides, either with the capitalism of Western democracy or with the communism of the Soviet Union, its satellite nations, and China. Both ideologies needed to grow and check the growth of the other.
   - The domino theory proposed the idea that if communism were allowed to spread, it would eventually take over Europe and attempt to spread into other parts of the world, where it would threaten the very foundations of democracy and capitalism. Two military actions, the Korean and

Vietnam Wars, were fought as a result of this ideology. The tension that resulted from these conflicts became known as the Cold War.

2. *Document 1*—George F. Kennan, the director of the Policy Planning Staff at the U.S. State Department in Washington, spent some time in the Soviet Union. In 1947, Kennan advocated a containment policy and laid out the fundamental tensions between capitalism and communism. He argued that there could be no peace between the United States and the Soviet Union. Kennan believed that United States should not seek open war with the Soviets; however, it should take steps to ensure that Soviet power did not grow.

   Document 2—George C. Marshall, an American military leader during World War II, served as secretary of state and secretary of defense. He argued that it was the responsibility of the United States to help rebuild Europe after the devastation of World War II and that the world had an economic interest in seeing Europe back on its feet as fast as possible. Marshall believed that any country willing to help the United States in this endeavor would be welcomed, any country trying to stop the United States would feel American opposition.

   Document 3—In his 1961 Farewell Address, President Dwight D. Eisenhower argued that the United States was facing a hostile enemy and while Americans were peaceful, the country must be ready to defend itself and its way of life. Eisenhower supported defense spending, but he also warned about the dangers of a vast "military industrial complex" of which Americans should be wary. He believed that America must hold fast and not sacrifice its freedom at the expense of its security.

3. Issues surrounding world affairs during the middle and second half of the twentieth century revolved around the tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union. Many believed the world was teetering on the brink of World War III.

Handout 44

1. Two events—Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in 1990 and the attack by al-Qaeda on September 11, 2001—shaped American foreign policy at the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

2. *Document 1*—George H. W. Bush, in his address to the nation (1991), laid out the vision of a "new world order" based on the rule of law.

Document 2—George W. Bush, in an address to a Joint Session of Congress (2001) after the attack by al-Qaeda, outlined his vision of America's role in the twenty-first century and stressed the need for the elimination of terror and evil in the world.

3. America's "war on terror" has become a common phrase and dominant theme in America's foreign policy in the first half of the twenty-first century.

3. Conclude with a class discussion. Explain that throughout America's history historians have asked some fundamental questions about foreign policy and the ideologies from which it developed. Instruct students that during class discussion they will have the opportunity to answer these questions themselves. Encourage students to take notes during the discussion of the following questions:

   a. Is the ideology behind American foreign policy a byproduct of the times?
   b. Does foreign policy go in cycles?
   c. What is the cornerstone of American foreign policy?
   d. When was the United States at its strongest, and when was it at its weakest?
   e. What type of role will America play on the world stage in the future?

Suggested Responses

a. The particular events that America was involved with basically dictated a particular ideology; ideology is more fundamental and represents a worldview that helps shape particular events; ideology precedes.

b. The pattern goes in cycles. American Neutrality and the Monroe Doctrine seem to have some common characteristics and both argue that America should stay out of the affairs of Europe and that Europe should stay out of the affairs of America. Manifest Destiny, which deals with American imperialism as a continental force, and American Imperialism, which promoted the concept on a global or intercontinental level, are connected. American Isolationism seemed to be somewhat of a return to the earlier foreign policy ideology of Washington—that it was in America's best interest to stay clear of foreign entanglements. The Cold War and War on Terror seem to have some common characteristics with the second group, Manifest Destiny and American Imperialism. One could also argue that the pattern is more linear, in the sense that the United States was improving and creating a historical evolution in the direction of a highly complex society and social structure.

c. One cornerstone has been religious faith, which seems to be a guiding principle behind many of the ideologies. Another cornerstone might be its belief in democracy. All of the ideologies promote democracy and advocate the spread of liberty and freedom across the world. Another cornerstone might be the belief that America is a world power and must lead by example.

d. The United States was at its strongest at the turn of the twentieth century under the leadership of Theodore Roosevelt, after World War II under the leadership of Dwight D. Eisenhower, and in the 1980s under the leadership of Ronald Reagan. The United States was at its weakest early in its history as well as early in the twenty-first century because of the lack of world support for its actions in the war against terror across the globe.

e. America will probably play a major role in world affairs for some time to come, but there might be some concerns about the budget deficit, the trade deficit (especially with China), and the effects of George W. Bush's go-it-alone policy (especially in the Middle East), on America's role in world affairs.

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: American Neutrality

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

Alexander Hamilton, *Pacificus, No. 1* (1793)

[The Constitution] declares among other things that the President shall be Commander in Chief of the army and navy of the U States and of the Militia of the several states when called into the actual service of the U States, that he shall have power by and with the advice of the senate to make treaties; . . . the issuing of a proclamation of neutrality is merely an Executive Act. . . . The President is the constitutional EXECUTOR of the laws. Our Treaties and the laws of Nations form a part of the law of the land. He who is to execute the laws must first judge for himself of their meaning. In order to the observance of that conduct, which the laws of nations combined with our treaties prescribed to this country in reference to the present War in Europe, it was necessary for the President to judge for himself whether there was any thing in our treaties incompatible with an adherence to neutrality. Having judged that there was not, he had a right, and if in his opinion the interests of the Nation required it, it was his duty, as Executor of the laws, to proclaim the neutrality of the Nation. . . .

Document 2

James Madison, *Helvidius, No. 1* (1793)

If we consult for a moment, the nature and operation of the two powers to declare war and make treaties, it will be impossible not to see that they can never fall within a proper definition of executive powers. The natural province of the executive magistrate is to execute laws, as that of the legislature is to make laws. All his acts therefore, properly executive, must pre-suppose the existence of the laws to be executed. A treaty is not an execution of laws: it does not pre-suppose the existence of laws. It is, on the contrary, to have itself the force of a *law*, and to be carried into *execution*, like all *other laws*, by the *executive magistrate*. To say then that the power of making treaties which are confessedly laws, belongs naturally to the department which is to execute laws, is to say, that the executive department naturally includes a legislative power. In theory, this is an absurdity—in practice a tyranny.

The power to declare war is subject to similar reasoning.

Document 3

George Washington, Farewell Address (1796)

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all. . . . In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others, should be excluded; and that in place of them, just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. . . .

The great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations is in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connection as possible. . . . Europe has a set of primary interests which to us have none; or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves by artificial ties in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, . . .

> Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humour or caprice? It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world. . . .

1. Connect the time period to the concept of American Neutrality, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: The Monroe Doctrine

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

John Quincy Adams, Address (July 4, 1821)

. . . [W]hat has America done for the benefit of mankind?

Let our answer be this: America, with the same voice which spoke herself into existence as a nation, proclaimed to mankind the inextinguishable rights of human nature, and the only lawful foundations of government. America, in the assembly of nations, since her admission among them, has invariably, though often fruitlessly, held forth to them the hand of honest friendship, of equal freedom, of generous reciprocity.

She has uniformly spoken among them, though often to heedless and often to disdainful ears, the language of equal liberty, of equal justice, and of equal rights.

She has, in the lapse of nearly half a century, without a single exception, respected the independence of other nations while asserting and maintaining her own.

She has abstained from interference in the concerns of others, even when conflict has been for principles to which she clings, as to the last vital drop that visits the heart. . . .

Wherever the standard of freedom and Independence has been or shall be unfurled, there will her heart, her benedictions and her prayers be.

But she goes not abroad, in search of monsters to destroy. . . .

She well knows that by once enlisting under other banners than her own, were they even the banners of foreign independence, she would involve herself beyond the power of extrication, in all the wars of interest and intrigue, of individual avarice, envy, and ambition, which assume the colors and usurp the standard of freedom.

The fundamental maxims of her policy would insensibly change from liberty to force. . . .

She might become the dictatress of the world. She would be no longer the ruler of her own spirit. . . .

[America's] glory is not dominion, but liberty. Her march is the march of the mind. She has a spear and a shield: but the motto upon her shield is, Freedom, Independence, Peace.

Document 2

James Monroe, Seventh Annual Address (December 2, 1823)

[As] a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers. . . .

The citizens of the United States cherish sentiments the most friendly in favor of the liberty and happiness of their fellow men on that side of the Atlantic. In the wars of the European powers in matters relating to themselves we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy so to do.

It is only when our rights are invaded or seriously menaced that we resent injuries or make preparation for our defense. With the movements in this hemisphere we are of necessity more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. . . .

> We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. . . . we declared our neutrality . . . and shall continue to adhere, provided no change shall occur which, in the judgment of the competent authorities of this Government, shall make a corresponding change on the part of the United States indispensable to their security.

1. Connect the time period to the concept of the Monroe Doctrine, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: Manifest Destiny

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the following questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

Andrew Jackson, First Annual Message to Congress (December 8, 1829)

The condition and ulterior destiny of the Indian tribes within the limits of some of our States have become objects of much interest and importance. It has long been the policy of Government to introduce among them the arts of civilization, in the hope of gradually reclaiming them from a wandering life. This policy has, however, been coupled with another wholly incompatible with its success. Professing a desire to civilize and settle them, we have at the same time lost no opportunity to purchase their lands and thrust them farther into the wilderness. By this means they have not only been kept in a wandering state, but been led to look upon us as unjust and indifferent to their fate. . . . As a means of effecting this end I suggest for your consideration the propriety of setting apart an ample district west of the Mississippi, and without the limits of any State or Territory now formed, to be guaranteed to the Indian tribes as long as they shall occupy it, each tribe having a distinct control over the portion designated for its use. There they may be secured in the enjoyment of governments of their own choice, subject to no other control from the United States than such as may be necessary to preserve peace on the frontier and between the several tribes. There the benevolent may endeavor to teach them the arts of civilization, and, by promoting union and harmony among them, to raise up an interesting commonwealth, destined to perpetuate the race and to attest the humanity and justice of this Government. . . . This emigration should be voluntary, for it would be as cruel as unjust to compel the aborigines to abandon the graves of their fathers and seek a home in a distant land. But they should be distinctly informed that if they remain within the limits of the States they must be subject to their laws. In return for their obedience as individuals they will without doubt be protected in the enjoyment of those possessions which they have improved by their industry.

Document 2

John O'Sullivan, "The Great Nation of Futurity," *The U.S. Democratic Review* (1839)

The far-reaching, the boundless future will be the era of American greatness. In its magnificent domain of space and time, the nation of many nations is destined to manifest to mankind the excellence of divine principles; to establish on earth the noblest temple ever dedicated to the worship of the Most High—the Sacred and the True. Its floor shall be a hemisphere—its roof the firmament of the star-studded heavens, and its congregation an Union of many Republics, comprising hundreds of happy millions, calling, owning no man master, but governed by God's natural and moral law of equality, the law of brotherhood—of "peace and good will amongst men." . . .

Yes, we are the nation of progress, of individual freedom, of universal enfranchisement. . . . We must onward to the fulfillment of our mission—to the entire development of the principle of our organization—freedom of conscience, freedom of person, freedom of trade and business pursuits, universality of freedom and equality. This is our high destiny, and in nature's eternal, inevitable decree of cause and effect we must accomplish it. All this will be our future history, to establish

on earth the moral dignity and salvation of man—the immutable truth and beneficence of God. For this blessed mission to the nations of the world, which are shut out from the life-giving light of truth, has America been chosen; and her high example shall smite unto death the tyranny of kings, hierarchs, and oligarchs, and carry the glad tidings of peace and good will where myriads now endure an existence scarcely more enviable than that of beasts of the field. Who, then, can doubt that our country is destined to be *the great nation of futurity*?

Document 3

John O'Sullivan, "Annexation," *The U.S. Democratic Review* (1845)

. . . It is time now for opposition to the Annexation of Texas to cease. . . .

Texas is now ours. . . . Texas has been absorbed into the Union in the inevitable fulfilment of the general law which is rolling our population westward. . . .

Document 4

James K. Polk, Second Annual Address to Congress (December 8, 1846)

The existing war with Mexico was neither desired nor provoked by the United States. On the contrary, all honorable means were resorted to avert it. After years of endurance of aggravated and unredressed wrongs on our part, Mexico, in violation of solemn treaty stipulations and of every principle of justice recognized by civilized nations, commenced hostilities, and thus by her own act forced the war upon us. . . .

The annexation of Texas to the United States constituted no just cause of offense to Mexico. The pretext that it did so is wholly inconsistent and irreconcilable with well-authenticated facts connected with the revolution by which Texas became independent of Mexico. . . .

The United States never attempted to acquire Texas by conquest. On the contrary, at an early period after the people of Texas had achieved their independence they sought to be annexed to the United States. . . .

Every honorable effort has been used by me to avoid the war which followed, but all have proved vain. All our attempts to preserve peace have been met by insult and resistance on the part of Mexico. . . .

The war has not been waged with a view to conquest, but, having been commenced by Mexico, it has been carried into the enemy's country and will be vigorously prosecuted there with a view to obtain an honorable peace, and thereby secure ample indemnity for the expenses of the war, as well as to our much-injured citizens, who hold large pecuniary demands against Mexico.

1. Connect the time period to the concept of Manifest Destiny, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: American Imperialism

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

Josiah Strong, *Our Country: Its Possible Future and Its Present Crisis* (1885)

It seems to me that God, with infinite wisdom and skill, is training the Anglo-Saxon race for an hour sure to come in the world's future. . . . The unoccupied arable lands of the earth are limited, and will soon be taken. . . . Then will the world enter upon a new stage of its history—*the final competition of races, for which the Anglo-Saxon is being schooled*. . . . Then this race of unequalled energy, with all the majesty of numbers and the might of wealth behind it—the representative, let us hope, of the largest liberty, the purest Christianity, the highest civilization . . . will spread itself over the earth. If I read not amiss, this powerful race will move down upon Mexico, down upon Central and South America, out upon the islands of the sea, over upon Africa and beyond. And can any one doubt that the result of this competition of races will be the "survival of the fittest"?

Document 2

Alfred Thayer Mahan, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History* (1897)

To turn now from the particular lessons drawn from the history of the past to the general question of the influence of government upon the sea career of its people, it is seen that that influence can work in two distinct but closely related ways.

First, in peace: The government by its policy can favor the natural growth of a people's industries and its tendencies to seek adventure and gain by way of the sea; or it can try to develop such industries and such sea-going bent, when they do not naturally exist; or, on the other hand, the government may by mistaken action check and fetter the progress which the people left to themselves would make. In any one of these ways the influence of the government will be felt, making or marring the sea power of the country in the matter of peaceful commerce; upon which alone, it cannot be too often insisted, a thoroughly strong navy can be based.

Secondly, for war: The influence of the government will be felt in its most legitimate manner in maintaining an armed navy, of a size commensurate with the growth of its shipping and the importance of the interests connected with it. More important even than the size of the navy is the question of its institutions, favoring a healthful spirit and activity, and providing for rapid development in time of war by an adequate reserve of men and of ships and by measures for drawing out that general reserve power which has before been pointed to, when considering the character and pursuits of the people. . . . Having therefore no foreign establishments, either colonial or military, the ships of war of the United States, in war, will be like land birds, unable to fly far from their own shores. To provide resting-places for them, where they can coal and repair, would be one of the first duties of a government proposing to itself the development of the power of the nation at sea. . . .

The question is eminently one in which the influence of the government should make itself felt, to build up for the nation a navy which, if not capable of reaching distant countries, shall at least be able to keep clear the chief approaches to its own. The eyes of the country have for a quarter of a century been turned from the sea; the results of such a policy and of its opposite will be shown in the instance of France and of England. Without asserting a narrow parallelism

between the case of the United States and either of these, it may safely be said that it is essential to the welfare of the whole country that the conditions of trade and commerce should remain, as far as possible, unaffected by an external war. In order to do this, the enemy must be kept not only out of our ports, but far away from our coasts.

Document 3

Albert J. Beveridge, *Congressional Record*, 56th Congress, 1st Session (1900)

. . . [T]his question is deeper than any question of party politics; deeper than any question of the isolated policy of our country even; deeper even than any question of constitutional power. It is elemental. It is racial. God has not been preparing the English speaking and Teutonic peoples for a thousand years for nothing but vain and idle self-contemplation and self-admiration. No! He has made us the master organizers of the world to establish system where chaos reigns. He has given us the spirit of progress to overwhelm the forces of reaction throughout the earth. He has made us adepts in government that we may administer government among savage and senile peoples. Were it not for such a force as this the world would relapse into barbarism and night. And of all our race He has marked the American people as His chosen nation to finally lead in the regeneration of the world. This is the divine mission of America, and it holds for us all the profit, all the glory, all the happiness possible to man. We are trustees of the world's progress, guardians of its righteous peace.

Document 4

Theodore Roosevelt, Fourth Annual Message to Congress (1904)

It is not true that the United States feels any land hunger or entertains any projects as regards the other nations of the Western Hemisphere save such as are for their welfare. All that this country desires is to see the neighboring countries stable, orderly, and prosperous. Any country whose people conduct themselves well can count upon our hearty friendship. If a nation shows that it knows how to act with reasonable efficiency and decency in social and political matters, if it keeps order and pays its obligations, it need fear no interference from the United States. Chronic wrongdoing, or an impotence which results in a general loosening of the ties of civilized society, may in America, as elsewhere, ultimately require intervention by some civilized nation, and in the Western Hemisphere the adherence of the United States to the Monroe Doctrine may force the United States, however reluctantly, in flagrant cases of such wrongdoing or impotence, to the exercise of an international police power.

1. Connect the time period to the concept of American Imperialism, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: American Isolationism

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

American Anti-Imperialism League (1899)

We hold that the policy known as imperialism is hostile to liberty and tends toward militarism, an evil from which it has been our glory to be free. We regret that it has become necessary in the land of Washington and Lincoln to reaffirm that all men, of whatever race or color, are entitled to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. We maintain that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. We insist that the subjugation of any people is "criminal aggression" and open disloyalty to the distinctive principles of our Government. . . .

The United States have always protested against the doctrine of international law which permits the subjugation of the weak by the strong. A self-governing state cannot accept sovereignty over an unwilling people. The United States cannot act upon the ancient heresy that might makes right.

Document 2

George F. Hoar, Senate Speech (January 1899)

When you raise the flag over the Philippine Islands as an emblem of dominion and acquisition you take it down from Independence Hall. . . . Over every clause, syllable, and letter of the Constitution the Declaration of Independence pours its blazing torchlight. . . . The power to conquer alien peoples and hold them in subjugation is nowhere expressly granted.

Document 3

William Jennings Bryan, Democratic Presidential Acceptance Speech (August 1900)

Those who would have this nation enter upon a career of empire must consider not only the effect of imperialism on the Filipinos, but they must also calculate its effects upon our own nation. We cannot repudiate the principle of self-government in the Philippines without weakening that principle here. . . .

. . . The Filipino cannot be a subject without endangering our form of government. A republic can have no subjects. A subject is possible only in a government resting upon force; he is unknown in a government derived without consent and taxation without representation. . . . Compare, if you will, the swaggering, bullying, brutal doctrine of imperialism with the golden rule and the commandment "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." Love, not force, was the weapon of the Nazarene; sacrifice for others, not the exploitation of them, was His method of reaching the human heart.

Document 4

Robert M. LaFollette, *LaFollette's Magazine* (October 1914)

It is well for us to remember that war is always cruel; that its iron tread means destruction and devastation, whether its march is across Europe or from Atlanta to the sea; that war arouses all the fiercest human passions; that there are always cases of brutality and outrage—and that usually there is quite as much of it on one side as upon the other. . . .

Document 5

Robert M. LaFollette, Speech, U.S. Senate (July 1916)

Believing in democracy, in the right of self-government—ready to defend the precious heritage of our own sovereignty—let us here and now resolve and declare that we will never permit the armed force of the United States to be used to despoil our sister republics of their property, nor to interfere with their right to govern themselves according to their own standard, nor violate their sovereignty—as sacred to them as [American] sovereignty is to us. . . .

Document 6

Robert M. LaFollette, *La Follette's Magazine* (March 1917)

I am not an extremist, I do not say there may not be supreme principles for which men must fight to the death as a last resort. But I do believe that as organized society in its slow evolution has developed more rational means of settling individual differences than brute force, so must the nations of the world ultimately find other ways of deciding their disagreements than war.

Document 7

Warren G. Harding, Inaugural Address (March 1921)

Our eyes never will be blind to a developing menace, our ears never deaf to the call of civilization. We recognize the new order in the world, with the closer contacts which progress has wrought. We sense the call of the human heart for fellowship, fraternity, and cooperation. We crave friendship and harbor no hate. But America, our America, the America builded on the foundation laid by the inspired fathers, can be a party to no permanent military alliance. It can enter into no political commitments, nor assume any economic obligations which will subject our decisions to any other than our own authority. . . .

We are ready to associate ourselves with the nations of the world, great and small, for conference, for counsel; to seek the expressed views of world opinion; to recommend a way to approximate disarmament and relieve the crushing burdens of military and naval establishments. We elect to participate in suggesting plans for mediation, conciliation, and arbitration, and would gladly join in that expressed conscience of progress, which seeks to clarify and write the laws of international relationship, and establish a world court for the disposition of such justiciable questions as nations are agreed to submit thereto. In expressing aspirations, in seeking practical plans, in translating humanity's new concept of righteousness and justice and its hatred of war into recommended action we are ready most heartily to unite, but every commitment must be made in the exercise of our national sovereignty. Since freedom impelled, and independence inspired, and nationality exalted, a world supergovernment is contrary to everything we cherish and can have no sanction by our Republic. This is not selfishness, it is sanctity. It is not aloofness, it is security. It is not suspicion of others, it is patriotic adherence to the things which made us what we are.

1. Connect the time period to the concept of American Isolationism, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: The Cold War

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

George Kennan, "The Sources of Soviet Conduct," *Foreign Affairs* (Spring 1947)

The first of these concepts is that of the innate antagonism between capitalism and Socialism. We have seen how deeply that concept has become imbedded in foundations of Soviet power. It has profound implications for Russia's conduct as a member of international society. It means that there can never be on Moscow's side any sincere assumption of a community of aims between the Soviet Union and powers which are regarded as capitalist. . . .

. . . The Soviet concept of power, which permits no focal points of organization outside the Party itself, requires that the Party leadership remain in theory the sole repository of truth. . . .

In these circumstances it is clear that the main element of any United States policy toward the Soviet Union must be that of a long-term, patient but firm and vigilant containment of Russian expansive tendencies. . . .

It is clear that the United States cannot expect in the foreseeable future to enjoy political intimacy with the Soviet regime. It must continue to regard the Soviet Union as a rival, not a partner, in the political arena. It must continue to expect that Soviet policies will reflect no abstract love of peace and stability, no real faith in the possibility of a permanent happy coexistence of the Socialist and capitalist worlds. . . .

Document 2

George C. Marshall, Speech at Harvard University (June 5, 1947)

The truth of the matter is that Europe's requirements for the next three or four years of foreign food and other essential products—principally from America—are so much greater than her present ability to pay that she must have substantial additional help or face economic, social, and political deterioration of a very grave character.

The remedy lies in breaking the vicious circle and restoring the confidence of the European people in the economic future of their own countries and of Europe as a whole. . . .

Aside from the demoralizing effect on the world at large and the possibilities of disturbances arising as a result of the desperation of the people concerned, the consequences to the economy of the United States should be apparent to all. It is logical that the United States should do whatever it is able to do to assist in the return of normal economic health in the world, without which there can be no political stability and no assured peace. Our policy is directed not against any country or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation, and chaos. Its purpose should be the revival of a working economy in the world so as to permit the emergence of political and social conditions in which free institutions can exist. Such assistance, I am convinced, must not be on a piecemeal basis as various crises develop. Any assistance that this Government may render in the future should provide a cure rather than a mere palliative. Any government that is willing to assist in the task of recovery will find full cooperation, I am sure, on the part of the United States Government. Any government which maneuvers to block the recovery of other countries cannot expect help from us. Furthermore, governments, political parties, or groups which seek to perpetuate human misery in order to profit therefrom politically or otherwise will encounter the opposition of the United States.

Document 3

Dwight D. Eisenhower, Farewell Address (January 17, 1961)

Throughout America's adventure in free government, such basic purposes have been to keep the peace; to foster progress in human achievement, and to enhance liberty, dignity and integrity among people and among nations.

To strive for less would be unworthy of a free and religious people.

Any failure traceable to arrogance or our lack of comprehension or readiness to sacrifice would inflict upon us grievous hurt, both at home and abroad.

Progress toward these noble goals is persistently threatened by the conflict now engulfing the world. It commands our whole attention, absorbs our very beings. We face a hostile ideology global in scope, atheistic in character, ruthless in purpose, and insidious in method. Unhappily the danger it poses promises to be of indefinite duration. To meet it successfully, there is called for, not so much the emotional and transitory sacrifices of crisis, but rather those which enable us to carry forward steadily, surely, and without complaint the burdens of a prolonged and complex struggle—with liberty the stake. Only thus shall we remain, despite every provocation, on our charted course toward permanent peace and human betterment. . . .

A vital element in keeping the peace is our military establishment. Our arms must be mighty, ready for instant action, so that no potential aggressor may be tempted to risk his own destruction. . . .

This conjunction of an immense military establishment and a large arms industry is new in the American experience. The total influence—economic, political, even spiritual—is felt in every city, every Statehouse, every office of the Federal government. We recognize the imperative need for this development. Yet we must not fail to comprehend its grave implications. Our toil, resources and livelihood are all involved; so is the very structure of our society.

In the councils of government, we must guard against the acquisition of unwarranted influence, whether sought or unsought, by the military-industrial complex. The potential for the disastrous rise of misplaced power exists and will persist.

We must never let the weight of this combination endanger our liberties or democratic processes. We should take nothing for granted. Only an alert and knowledgeable citizenry can compel the proper meshing of the huge industrial and military machinery of defense with our peaceful methods and goals, so that security and liberty may prosper together.

1. Connect the time period to the concept of the Cold War, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Cornerstones of American Foreign Policy: The War on Terror

Directions: Read the assigned selections carefully, and answer the questions. Be prepared for further discussion.

Document 1

George H. W. Bush, Speech to the Nation (January 16, 1991)

This is an historic moment. We have in this past year made great progress in ending the long era of conflict and Cold War. We have before us the opportunity to forge for ourselves and for future generations a new world order—a world where the rule of law, not the law of the jungle, governs the conduct of nations. When we are successful—and we will be—we have a real chance at this new world order, an order in which a credible United Nations can use its peacekeeping role to fulfill the promise and vision of the UN's founders.

We have no argument with the people of Iraq. Indeed, for the innocents caught in this conflict, I pray for their safety. Our goal is not the conquest of Iraq. It is the liberation of Kuwait. It is my hope that somehow the Iraqi people can, even now, convince their dictator that he must lay down his arms, leave Kuwait, and let Iraq itself rejoin the family of peace-loving nations. . . .

. . . But even as planes of the multinational forces attack Iraq, I prefer to think of peace, not war. I am convinced not only that we will prevail but that out of the horror of combat will come the recognition that no nation can stand against a world united. No nation will be permitted to brutally assault its neighbor.

Document 2

George W. Bush, Speech to the Nation (September 20, 2001)

Our war on terror begins with al Qaeda, but it does not end there. It will not end until every terrorist group of global reach has been found, stopped and defeated.

Americans are asking, why do they hate us? They hate what we see right here in this chamber—a democratically elected government. Their leaders are self-appointed. They hate our freedoms—our freedom of religion, our freedom of speech, our freedom to vote and assemble and disagree with each other.

They want to overthrow existing governments in many Muslim countries. . . . They want to drive Israel out of the Middle East. They want to drive Christians and Jews out of vast regions of Asia and Africa.

These terrorists kill not merely to end lives, but to disrupt and end a way of life. With every atrocity, they hope that America grows fearful, retreating from the world and forsaking our friends. They stand against us, because we stand in their way.

We are not deceived by their pretenses to piety. We have seen their kind before. They are the heirs of all the murderous ideologies of the twentieth century. By sacrificing human life to serve their radical visions—by abandoning every value except the will to power—they follow in the path of fascism, and Nazism, and totalitarianism. And they will follow the path all the way, to where it ends: in history's unmarked grave of discarded lies. . . .

This is not, however, just America's fight. And what is at stake is not just America's freedom. This is the world's fight. This is civilization's fight. This is the fight of all who believe in progress and pluralism, tolerance and freedom. . . .

The civilized world is rallying to America's side. They understand that if this terror goes unpunished, their own cities, their own citizens may be next. Terror, unanswered, can not only bring

down buildings, it can threaten the stability of legitimate governments. And you know what—we're not going to allow it. . . .

I will not forget this wound to our country or those who inflicted it. I will not yield; I will not rest; I will not relent in waging this struggle for freedom and security for the American people.

The course of this conflict is not known, yet its outcome is certain. Freedom and fear, justice and cruelty, have always been at war, and we know that God is not neutral between them.

Fellow citizens, we'll meet violence with patient justice—assured of the rightness of our cause, and confident of the victories to come. In all that lies before us, may God grant us wisdom, and may He watch over the United States of America.

1. Connect the time period to the concept of the War on Terror, explaining what was happening in America at the time. Does this help to explain the concept?

2. Who are important figures within the concept, and what are the basic principles of the concept?

3. How do these principles fit together to explain the concept?

Lesson 25

The Individual in History

Objective

- To assess the role of the individual in American history

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective:

Several, including Politics and Power and Ideas, Beliefs, and Cultures

Notes to the Teacher

One of the most controversial topics in history involves the role of the individual. Historians often ask whether an individual shapes an era or whether the individual is a reflection of the times. There is, of course, no right answer to the question, but students should note that individuals from earlier centuries are more likely to elicit consensus, while individuals from more recent times will elicit varied responses. Students need to understand the effect of history and historical forces on heroic and not-so-heroic figures.

In this lesson, students review the role of the individual in history by selecting heroic figures in six historical periods and by providing a rationale for each of their selections.

Procedure

1. Ask students for examples of individuals who have changed America's history. (Students will provide a wide range of answers.) Explain that sometimes individuals find themselves thrust upon the stage of history and are forced to act for the good of the nation or to act in a manner that will affect America for many years after. Mention that often the forces of history influence the actions of individuals.

2. Distribute **Handout 45**, and have students complete part A individually. Review students' selections. Insist on a rationale for each choice; this discussion is the most important part of the activity. Stress the more complicated nature of history in modern times and the likelihood that students will develop diverse responses to the most recent eras.

3. Divide the class into small groups to complete part B of **Handout 45**.

4. Review groups' responses as a class. Again, insist that students provide rationales for their choices.

5. Continue the discussion by raising the following point: Whom would you select as the outstanding individual of each century if you were a military historian? an intellectual historian? a historian of science? an African-American historian? a feminist? Require that students provide specific reasons in support of their selections.

6. Reassemble the small groups to complete part C of **Handout 45**. Have each group determine the criteria for its selection of the "Person of the Age."

7. Discuss in a large group the rationale for each group's choice for "Person of the Age." Ask students why each group might have different but valid nominations for this award. Ask whether individuals chosen have shaped the era or reflect the times. Finally, ask which students would like to revise their original selections, and have them explain why.

 Name:

Important Individuals in U.S. History

Part A.

Directions: For each time period, identify the individual who best represents each category.

Time Period	Most Influential Political Figure	Greatest Intellectual	Most Important Person in the Arts	Most Influential Woman
1750–1800				
1801–1850				
1851–1900				
1901–1950				
1951–2000				
2001–present				

Part B.
Directions: Identify the man or woman who could be cast as each era's hero or villain.

Time Period	Hero	Villain
1750–1800		
1801–1850		
1851–1900		
1901–1950		
1951–2000		
2001–present		

Part C.
Directions: Identify the individual you believe best represents the spirit of the present age, and indicate your criteria for selection.

My nomination for "Person of the Age" is _____.

My criteria are as follows:

Lesson 26

Major Critics and Criticisms of Roosevelt's New Deal

Objective

- To analyze major critics and criticisms of Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-3: Analyze how U.S. involvement in international crises such as the Spanish American War, World Wars I and II, the Great Depression, and the Cold War influenced public debates about American national identity in the 20th century

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-4: Analyze how and why the New Deal, the Great Society, and the modern conservative movement all sought to change the federal government's role in U.S. political, social, and economic life

Notes to the Teacher

Mired in a worldwide depression, Americans faced many challenges as they went to the polls in 1932. The candidates provided two different choices. On one hand, voters could choose Herbert Hoover, the incumbent and Republican president who boldly claimed in 1928, "We in America today are nearer to the final triumph over poverty than ever before in the history of any land. We have not yet reached the goal—but . . . we shall soon, with the help of God, be in sight of the day when poverty will be banished from this nation." On the other hand, they could choose Franklin D. Roosevelt, the Democratic challenger, who boldly claimed in his Democratic acceptance speech in 1932, "I pledge you—I pledge myself to a new deal for the American people. . . . This is more than a political campaign; it is a call to arms. Give me your help, not to win votes alone, but to win in this crusade to restore America to its own people."

Prior to this lesson, students should be familiar with the political and economic conditions of the 1920s, including the philosophical approaches of the presidents, specific reforms proposed by Roosevelt's administration, and the Hundred Days Congress of 1933.

In this lesson, students read short excerpts critical of Roosevelt's New Deal. Students conduct a small group Socratic seminar based on those excerpts. This approach encourages peer discussion groups in a smaller setting rather than a traditional whole-group class discussion. Each group is a self-contained unit. Conversation within one circle is not addressed to or by the other groups, allowing students to focus on their group's discussion. As students participate in the seminar, you, the teacher, should walk around and monitor discussions. You may interject something into the group discussion for clarification or to reinvigorate the discussion. You can do this by playing devil's advocate or throwing out a discussion topic that will get the discussion going.

Note: If you have had little experience with Socratic seminars, many Web sites offer additional information about this lively approach to discussion.

Procedure

1. Ask students what they think Roosevelt meant by a "New Deal." (He intended to take the country in a totally different direction; he was simply going to help ease the economic hardships of the Great Depression; during his administration he was going to attempt to reverse the direction of the country.)

2. Divide the class into groups of six to eight students, and distribute **Handout 46**. Have students read the seminar questions in part A and the excerpts in part B.

3. Appoint a leader for each small group. Have each group leader pick an object to use as a talk prompter (i.e., something a group member must be holding in order to speak).

4. Ask the group leaders to begin the Socratic seminar. As students participate in the Socratic seminar, walk around and monitor the groups.

Suggested Responses

1. Some students will identify with Calvin Coolidge and will stress the importance of individuals solving their own problems. Others will identify with Franklin D. Roosevelt and will emphasize the importance of the federal government stepping in with help, especially in an emergency. The Depression was a worldwide epidemic. Others will identify more with the critics and might emphasize the need for more intervention; they will most likely argue that Roosevelt did not do enough to help individuals.

2. During the 1920s, which were very prosperous, things went well for most of the country. Americans came out of World War I with an isolationist mindset. The federal government as we know it did not exist. The Progressivism of the early

part of the twentieth century began a shift in the view of the proper role of the federal government. There was slow movement on behalf of the federal government and a resistance to intervention in the economy. Many saw hands-off capitalism as the best way to allow the economy to grow; this philosophy was part of the presidential agenda for the presidents of the 1920s—Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover.

3. Some students will agree with Roosevelt, who viewed his election as a mandate. He received 57 percent of the popular vote and 89 percent of the electoral vote. Others will stress that the election was not so much for Roosevelt as it was against Hoover.
4. Students might argue that Roosevelt sought more and more power, such as his "blank check" policy with Congress or his plan to pack the Supreme Court. However, others might defend his actions by arguing that the Depression was equivalent to a foreign war and that broad powers must be given to the executive. Some students might argue that Roosevelt's New Deal policies were an attack on free-market capitalism, while others might argue that his policies saved capitalism. During this time, for the first time, more people left the country than entered it. There were legitimate threats from both the left and the right.
5. Some students will argue that the critics are the most radical. Others might argue that Roosevelt was radical by fundamentally changing the role of the federal government.
6. Some students will argue that the policies of the New Deal moved the country in the right direction; others will argue that the country was changed fundamentally because of the New Deal.

5. After students have completed the seminar, conduct a debriefing exercise as a whole class. Ask students to share with the class what kinds of conversations they had. What insights or astute observations developed in the groups? Finally, have each group decide whether it believes that the New Deal hurt or helped America. Are the critics' complaints justified?

The Socratic Circle

Part A.
Directions: Read the general rules for a Socratic seminar. Use the questions to guide you in a small-group discussion of the New Deal.

Seminar Rules

1. A group leader will be appointed and a talk prompter selected.
2. You may not express an opinion without first referencing the text (unless otherwise noted).
3. No reference may be repeated.
4. Participants will take turns. You may not talk until it is your turn.
5. Participants will value the opinions of the other participants.
6. Participants will treat one another with respect.
7. Everyone must answer questions 1 and 6. You do not need to reference the text for these questions. If you wish to speak more than once—after the entire circle has spoken—then you may raise your hand. The leader will recognize you, and you may make additional comments.
8. Anyone may answer questions 2, 3, 4, and 5. You should reference the text before answering. The leader will recognize those who wish to answer these questions.

Seminar Questions

1. Do you identify more with Calvin Coolidge, Franklin D. Roosevelt, or the critics? Why?
2. To what extent does the position of Coolidge represent the status quo of the 1920s? Why was that position so prevalent during the 1920s?
3. Was Roosevelt justified in viewing his election as a mandate for quick action? Was it appropriate to equate the war on the Depression with a foreign war? Is this analogy effective?
4. Do the critics make fair points against the New Deal and Roosevelt? How would Roosevelt respond to these criticisms? How would the critics counter?
5. Which view could more accurately be classified as radical? Why?
6. Ultimately, do you think the New Deal was helpful or harmful to the country?

Part B.

Directions: Read the primary source excerpts carefully, and take notes when appropriate. Be careful to read the questions in part A prior to reading the excerpts.

The Precursors

Document 1

Calvin Coolidge, Inaugural Address as President of the Massachusetts State Senate (1914)

Self-government means self-support.

Document 2

Calvin Coolidge, Speech to the Daughters of the American Revolution (1928)

Whenever [some people] find that some abuse needs correction in their neighborhood, instead of applying a remedy themselves they seek to have a tribunal sent on from Washington to discharge their duties for them, regardless of the fact that in accepting such supervision they are bartering away their freedom.

Franklin D. Roosevelt

Document 3

Franklin D. Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address as President of the United States (1933)

This Nation asks for action, and action now. . . . It is to be hoped that the normal balance of executive and legislative authority may be wholly adequate to meet the unprecedented task before us. But it may be that an unprecedented demand and need for undelayed action may call for temporary departure from that normal balance of public procedure. . . . [If the Congress fails to act, I shall seek] broad Executive power to wage a war against the emergency, as great as the power that would be given to me if we were in fact invaded by a foreign foe. . . .

[The people] have registered a mandate that they want direct, vigorous action. . . . In the spirit of the gift I take it.

The Critics

Document 4

Herbert Hoover, *The Challenge to Liberty* (1934)

In our blind groping we have stumbled into philosophies which lead to the surrender of freedom. The proposals before our country do not necessarily lead to the European forms of Fascism, of Socialism, or of Communism, but they certainly lead definitely from the path of liberty. The danger lies in the tested human experience, that a step away from liberty itself impels a second step, a second compels a third. The appetite for power grows with every opportunity to assume it, and power over the rights of men leads not to humility but to arrogance, and arrogance incessantly demands more power. A few steps so dislocate social forces that some form of despotism becomes inevitable and Liberty dies.

Document 5

"The New Deal vs. Democracy," *American Liberty League Bulletin* (1936)

In a word, the New Deal has sought to destroy the American system of government composed of three coordinate branches and to upset the dual sovereignty as between state and nation which the Constitution provides.

The New Deal represents the attempt in America to set up a totalitarian government, one which recognizes no sphere of individual or business life as immune from governmental authority and which submerges the welfare of the individual to that of the government.

Document 6

Father Charles E. Coughlin, "The National Union for Social Justice" (1934)

[T]he outworn creed of capitalism is done for. The clarion call of communism has been sounded. I can support one as easily as the other. They are both rotten! . . .

Away with both of them! But never into the discard with the liberties which we have already won and the economic liberty which we are about to win—or die in the attempt! . . .

[There is] a challenge for me to organize these men and women of all classes not for the protection of property rights as does the American Liberty League; not for the protection of political spoils as do the henchmen of the Republican or Democratic parties. . . .

. . . I accept the challenge to organize for obtaining, for securing and for protecting the principles of social justice.

Document 7

Huey P. Long, "Share Our Wealth" (1935)

But the good God who placed this race on earth did not leave us without an understanding of how to meet such problems; . . . God's law commanded that the wealth of the country should be redistributed ever so often, so that none should become too rich and none should become too poor. . . .

Lesson 27

Obstacles to Equality during the Reconstruction Era

Objectives

- To examine some of the obstacles that freed people faced in their efforts to achieve civil rights and civil liberties during Reconstruction, 1865–77
- To predict the problems for the post–1877 world

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Work, Exchange, and Technology

WXT-5: Explain the development of labor systems that accompanied industrialization since the 19th century and how industrialization shaped U.S. society and workers' lives

Notes to the Teacher

The period after the Civil War has been seen by participants and historians alike as one for all Americans to achieve the equality that had not been allowed despite the rhetoric of the U.S. Bill of Rights. New Federal laws—most significantly the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments—signified this change most clearly. Still, there was no clear plan. In the essay "Who Freed the Slaves? The Civil War and Reconstruction," historian Patrick Rael explained, "It happened haltingly, with hesitation and paradox, through the acts of hundreds of politicians and generals, many of whom worked at complete cross-purposes."[1] Numerous obstacles made the period of equality a short-lived one.

Rael argues that the combination of self-initiated emancipation and government-sponsored emancipation made this period distinctive in U.S. history. Given that the United States' war aims evolved away from Union preservation to abolition of slavery, it should be hardly surprising that the period was full of contradictions and that numerous politicians created obstacles—economic, legal, political, and social—that did not allow freed people to have the equality that they thought they had been promised.

[1]Patrick Rael, "Who Freed the Slaves? The Civil War and Reconstruction," in *Our New Day Begun, 1861–1877,* vol. 4 of *Making Freedom: African-Americans in U.S. History,* comp. and ed. Primary Source, Inc. (Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann, 2004), 2.

During this period, 1865–77, significant obstacles made it difficult for freed people to achieve their broadly stated goals of equality and a new start on life. Such obstacles included former Confederate leaders' ability to use so-called Black Codes to limit freed people's participation, the re-emergence of former Confederate leaders in southern states' politics, and political compromises at the federal level that excluded the interests of ex-slaves from the decisions of this period. Economic obstacles, including the growth of sharecropping, also limited full access.

In this lesson, students first analyze primary source material about the goals of ex-slaves. Next, they investigate a variety of Black Codes. Then they analyze a few examples of economic forms of exclusion. Finally, students create illustrations of the major obstacles that ex-slaves encountered in this period, and they predict problems for the post–1877 world.

Procedure

1. Ask students to brainstorm as to what they would expect slaves to want once they gain freedom. Record all answers.

2. Distribute **Handout 47**, and have students read the documents and answer the questions.

   Suggested Responses

   1. The people hoped to gain freedom, equality, their own crops, land, clothing, decent wages, and reunion with their families; they wanted to start their lives over on an equal footing with whites.
   2. They faced numerous obstacles, including lack of work, prejudice, their own negative assumptions, and whites' insulting attitudes.
   3. The documents express excitement, enthusiasm, pleasure, and impatience.
   4. Language and tone are full of excitement and enthusiasm.
   5. The authors appear to be excited about the new opportunities that they are experiencing and worried about potential problems.

3. Distribute **Handout 48**, and allow time for students to complete the handout. Then have students share and discuss their responses.

   Suggested Responses

   1. The kinds of rules that were imposed are as follows: orphaned minors were apprenticed to former owners (Alabama); persons of color would be guilty of a misdemeanor if they went to any public place designated for white people (Florida); free people served as witnesses regarding a crime of another free person of color (Georgia); kinds of disobedience included

neglect of duty, leaving home, and fighting (Louisiana); free person marrying a white person resulted in person of color becoming a slave and white person becoming a servant for seven years (Maryland); assembling was illegal (Mississippi); unemployed children of freed persons of color were apprenticed by the court (North Carolina); persons of color could not own weapons and any white person could arrest persons of color for a misdemeanor (South Carolina); schools were separated by race (Tennessee); servants worked at any time (Texas); and vagrants were to be employed (Virginia).

2. Reasons include restricting movement, reimposing slavery, limiting contact by race, and limiting independence and freedom.
3. Freed people would have reacted with anger, frustration, and disillusionment.

4. Distribute **Handout 49**. Allow students about fifteen minutes to read the handout and answer the questions.

Suggested Responses

1. obedience to rules, working long hours, deductions for lost time, poor quality of work (vaguely defined), consequences of breakage of tools and destruction of property
2. not following rules, being lazy, association with white people in secret, stealing
3. violence, rules, scare tactics

5. Ask pairs of students to make an illustration of some of the major obstacles that ex-slaves encountered in this period. Explain that they need to include a caption, as well as predictions about the post–1877 world. Allow class time for students to share their work.

Voices of Ex-Slaves, 1865

Directions: Read the documents, and answer the questions.

Document 1

From an Interview with Former Slave Felix Haywood, Age 92, of San Antonio, Texas

The end of the war, it come just like that—like you snap your fingers. . . . How did we know it! Hallelujah broke out—

Abe Lincoln freed the nigger
With the gun and the trigger;
And I ain't going to get whipped any more,
I got my ticket,
Leaving the thicket,
And I'm a-heading for the Golden Shore!

Soldiers, all of a sudden, was everywhere—coming in bunches, crossing and walking and riding. Everyone was a-singing. We was all walking on golden clouds. Hallelujah!

Union forever,
Hurrah, boys, hurrah!
Although I may be poor,
I'll never be a slave—
Shouting the battle cry of freedom.

Everybody went wild. We all felt like heroes, and nobody had made us that way but ourselves. We was free. Just like that, we was free. . . .

Document 2

From an Interview with Former Slave Fred James, Age 81, of Newberry, South Carolina

I 'member when freedom come, Old Marse said, "You is all free, but you can work on and make this crop of corn and cotton; then I will divide up with you when Christmas comes." They all worked, and when Christmas come, Marse told us we could get on and shuffle for ourselves, and he didn't give us anything. We had to steal corn out of the cob. We prized the ears out between the cracks and took then home and parched them. We would have to eat on these for several days.

Document 3

From an Interview with Former Slave Simon Phillips, Age 90, of Birmingham, Alabama

One day . . . a few niggers was sticking sticks in the ground when the massa come up.

"What you niggers doing!" he asked.

"We is staking off the land, Massa. The Yankees say half of it is ourn."

The massa never got mad. He jut look calm-like.

"Listen, niggers," he says, "what's mine is mine, and what's yours is yours. You are just as free as I and the missus, but don't go fooling around my land. I've tried to be a good master to you. I have never been unfair. Now if you wants to stay, you are welcome to work for me. I'll pay you one-third the crops you raise. But if you wants to go, you sees the gate."

The massa never have no more trouble. Them niggers just stays right there and works. Sometime they loaned the massa money when he was hard pushed. Most of 'em died on the old grounds.

Document 4

From Freed People's Reactions to Emancipation

We done heared dat Lincum gonna turn de niggers free. Ole missus say dey warn't nothin' to it. Den a Yankee soldier tole someone in Williamsburg dat Marse Lincum done signed de mancipation. Was winter time an' moughty cold dat night, but ev'ybody commence gittin' ready to leave. Didn't care nothin' 'bout Missus—was goin' to Union lines. An' all dat night de niggers danced an' sang right out in de cold. Nex' mornin' at day-break we all started out wid blankets an' clothes an' pots an' pans an' chickens piled on our backs, 'cause Missus said we couldn't take no horses or carts. . . .

Document 5

A Freedman's Description of Norfolk, Virginia, 1865

In many of the more remote districts, individual planters are to be found who still refuse to recognize their negroes as free, forcibly retaining the wives and children of their late escaped slaves; cases have occurred not far from Richmond itself, in which an attempt to leave the plantation has been punished by shooting to death; and finally, there are a number of cases known to ourselves in the immediate vicinity in which a faithfull performance, by colored men, of the duties of labor contracted for, has been met by a contemptuous and violent refusal of the stipulated compensation.

Document 6

Question from an Interview of African-American Leaders by Secretary of War Edwin W. Stanton and General William T. Sherman, January 12, 1865

Second [Question]—State what you understand by Slavery and the freedom that was to be given by the President's proclamation.

Answer—Slavery is, receiving by *irresistible power* the work of another man, and not by his *consent*. The freedom, as I understand it, promised by the proclamation, is taking us from under the yoke of bondage, and placing us where we could reap the fruit of our own labor, take care of ourselves and assist the Government in maintaining our freedom.

Document 7

Advertisements Seeking Relatives in the *Colored Tennesseean*, Nashville, 1865

Saml. Dove wishes to know of the whereabouts of his mother, Areno, his sisters Maria, Neziah, and Peggy, and his brother Edmond, who were owned by Geo. Dove, of Rockingham county, Shenandoah Valley, Va. Sold in Richmond, after which Saml. and Edmond were taken to Nashville, Tenn., by Joe Mick; Areno was left at the Eagle Tavern, Richmond. Respectfully yours, Saml. Dove, Utica, New York.

Source: *Our New Day Begun, 1861–1877,* vol. 4 of *Making Freedom: African-Americans in U.S. History,* comp. and ed. Primary Source, Inc. (Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann, 2004), 94–97.

 Name:

1. What did freed people hope to gain with emancipation?

2. What obstacles or hardships did they face?

3. What kinds of emotions are expressed in these documents?

4. How would you characterize the language and tone of these documents?

5. What do the documents reveal about the authors?

Black Codes, 1866

Directions: Read the following excerpts from codes of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia. Be ready to explain the codes, and answer the questions.

Document 1

Excerpts from Alabama Black Codes (1865)

It shall be the duty of the sheriffs, justices of the peace, and other civil officers of the several counties in this State to report to the probate courts all minors under the age of eighteen years, who are orphans, without visible means of support, or whose parent or parents have not the means, or who refuse to provide for and support said minors, and thereupon it shall be the duty of said probate court to apprentice said minor to some suitable and competent person. If said minor be a child of a freedman, the former owner of said minor shall have the preference, when proof shall be made that he or she shall be a suitable person for that purpose.

Document 2

Excerpts from Florida Black Codes (1865)

If any negro, mulatto, or other person of color shall intrude himself into any religious or other public assembly of white persons, or into any railroad car or other public vehicle set apart for the exclusive accommodation of white people, he shall be deemed to be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be sentenced to stand in the pillory for one hour, or be whipped, not exceeding thirty-nine stripes.

Document 3

Excerpts from Georgia Black Codes (1865)

Free persons of color shall be competent witnesses in all the courts of this State, in civil cases whereto a free person of color is a party, and in all criminal cases wherein a free person of color is defendant, or wherein the offence charged is a crime or misdemeanor against the person or property of a free person of color.

Document 4

Excerpts from Louisiana Black Codes (1865)

Failing to obey reasonable order, neglect of duty, and leaving home without permission will be deemed disobedience; impudence, swearing, or indecent language to, or in the presence of, the employer, his family, or agent, or quarreling and fighting with one another shall be deemed disobedience.

Document 5

Excerpts from Maryland Black Codes (1865)

If any free negro intermarry with any white woman, or if any white man shall intermarry with any negro women, on conviction thereof such negro shall become a slave during life, and such white man or white women who shall so intermarry shall become servants during the term of seven years.

Document 6

From Mississippi Black Codes (1865)

All freedmen, free negroes and mulattoes in this State, over the age of eighteen years, found on the second Monday in January, 1866, or thereafter, with no lawful employment or business, or found unlawful assembling themselves together, either in the day or night time, and all white persons assembling themselves with freedmen, Free negroes or mulattoes, or usually associating with freedmen, free negroes or mulattoes, on terms of equality, or living in adultery or fornication with a freed woman, freed negro or mulatto, shall be deemed vagrants, and on conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not exceeding, in the case of a freedman, freed negro or mulatto, fifty dollars, and a white man two hundred dollars, and imprisonment at the discretion of the court.

Document 7

From North Carolina Black Codes (1865)

It shall be the duty of the several courts of pleas and quarter sessions to bind out, as apprentices, all children of free negroes where the parents with whom such children may live do not habitually employ their time in some honest, industrious occupation.

Document 8

From South Carolina Black Codes (1865)

Persons of color constitute no part of the militia of the State, and no one of them, without permission in writing from the district judge, or a magistrate, shall be allowed to keep a firearm, sword, or other military weapon. . . .
Upon view of a misdemeanor committed by a person of color, any person present may arrest the offender and take him before a magistrate to be dealt with as the case may require. . . .

Document 9

From Tennessee Black Codes (1865)

The provisions of this act shall not be so construed as to require the education of colored and white children in the same school.

Document 10

From Texas Black Codes (1865)

Laborers, in the various duties of the household, and in all the domestic duties of the family, shall, at all hours of the day or night, and on all days of the week, promptly answer all calls and obey and execute all lawful orders and commands of the family in whose service they are employed. It is the duty of this class of laborers to be especially civil and polite to their employer, his family, and guests, and they shall receive gentle and kind treatment.

Document 11

From Virginia Black Codes (1865)

The overseers of the poor are required, on discovering any vagrant within their respective counties, to make information thereof to any justice of the peace. Such justices shall, by warrant, order such vagrant to be employed in labor for any term not exceeding three months, and to be hired out for the best wages that can be procured.

Source: "Laws in Relation to Freedmen," 39 Cong., 2 Sess., Senate Exec. Doc. 6, *Freedmen's Affairs,* 170–72, 174–76, 179–230.

1. What kinds of rules did the codes impose?

2. What were some possible reasons for these rules?

3. Think about the expectations of ex-slaves in the South. How would freed people have reacted to these codes? Why?

Contractual Restrictions

Directions: Read the documents, and answer the questions.

Document 1

Excerpts from Testimony Taken by the Joint Select Committee to Inquire into the Condition of Affairs in the Late Insurrectionary States, Spartanburgh, S.C. (July 6 and 7, 1871)

Q. Where did you come from?
A. From Union County, in this State.
Q. Are you a native of this State?
A. Yes, sir. I was born and raised in Union County.
Q. Have you suffered any violence at the hands of any person in this county?
A. From persons in this county or some others, I have.
Q. Go on and tell in what manner it was inflicted upon you, and when it was.
A. I had two attacks; the first was on the 4th of March last, on Saturday night; the second was on that night two weeks, which would make it the 18th of March.
Q. Go on and tell what occurred each time.
A. On the 4th of March there came a body of men to my house. They were all around my house before I knew they were there, and were hallooing and beating and thumping the house. I was nearly asleep, and as quick as I awoke I jumped up. They told me to open the door. I lighted a lamp and set it on a desk by the side of the house. I opened the door. These men were standing in front of the door with pistols drawn. They were knocking at the other door also. I said, "Gentlemen, somebody is knocking at the other door; let me open it." They let me turn around and open it. There were five men there. While I was opening that door more men came through the other door and into the room where I was. To the best of my mind, there were twelve men in all in my house. My wife thinks there were more, but I did not see them. They asked me to take a walk. I told them I would. I asked them to let me put on my clothes and shoes. They told me to put on my shoes, but not my clothes. They took me out and tied my hands together and hit me a few strokes and sent me back to the house. . . . [1]

Document 2

Contract for Agricultural Laborers, Alabama, 1874

He will be required to be ready for work by sunrise in mornings, then repair to same and render good and faithful service until noon, when he will be allowed for dinner one hour, during winter and spring and one hour and a half during the summer months. Then to perform faithful labor until sun down. Then feed stock or perform any other necessary duty demanded of him by his employer or agent.

All time lost to be deducted from the wages of the laborer, to be assessed by his employer.

Bad or unfaithful labor, careless breakage or loss of tools, willful destruction of property or abuse of stock will be charged for, and deducted out of the wages of the laborer.

[1]Testimony Taken by the Joint Select Committee to Inquire into the Condition of Affairs in the Late Insurrectionary States, in *Black Worker: A Documentary History, Vol. 2: The Black Worker during the Era of the National Labor Union,* ed. Philip S. Foner and Ronald L. Lewis (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1978).

> The laborer binds himself to be obedient to his employer or agent. To obey all orders willingly and cheerfully of either employer or agent, and to render good and faithful service at all times . . . [2]

1. What contractual restrictions were placed on newly freed slaves?

2. What warnings did black people have to endure? How were they enforced?

3. What tactics were used to keep former slaves "in their place"?

[2]Henry B. Cobb, "The Negro as a Free Laborer in Alabama, 1865–1875," *Midwest Journal* 6 (Fall 1954): 43–44. Reprinted in *Black Worker: A Documentary History, Vol. 2: The Black Worker during the Era of the National Labor Union,* ed. Philip S. Foner and Ronald L. Lewis (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1978).

Lesson 28

Government Patents, Science, and Technology in the 1870s and 1880s

Objectives

- To understand patents and their role in expanding the connections between inventors, users of technology, and government bureaucrats in the late nineteenth century
- To work on improving thesis construction for a document-based question

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Work, Exchange, and Technology

WXT-3: Explain how changes in transportation, technology, and the integration of the U.S. economy into world markets have influenced U.S. society since the Gilded Age

Notes to the Teacher

In the late nineteenth century, three inventions had a significant impact on American life. First, the increasing use of barbed wire affected land ownership patterns, limited the "loner cowboy" type of man following the American Dream of Manifest Destiny, and increased private property patterns with fenced-in livestock. Second, the invention of the telephone gradually affected communication and related industries, transforming how people contacted one another and creating new work for thousands of people. Finally, the light bulb had both immediate and long-range consequences on home life as well as industry and work, none of which could have been imagined by people accustomed to depending on sunlight and candles.

These inventions and others like them changed the nature of corporations, the role of government, and the kind of work available to skilled workers. Unlike America's earliest industries, which were based on cotton and wool processing and used relatively simple machines, the emerging industries of this time period came to be based on complicated scientific advances. To protect such inventions, the Patent Office issued patents to inventors. Thus, people like Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas Edison, as well as countless others, had a stake in the increasingly large government bureaucracy.

In this lesson, students read the portion of the U.S. Constitution that deals with patents and determine its meaning. Next, they analyze three sources: Joseph F. Glidden's application to the Patent Office, sketches from Alexander Graham Bell's approved patent, and sketches from Thomas Edison's approved patent. Finally, they use the sources to develop an appropriate thesis statement for a document-based question on the Advanced Placement examination. While students will have to use more documents on an actual document-based question, they will benefit from this exercise in thesis development.

Procedure

1. Ask students what effect the Constitution has in terms of regulating commerce and what ideas they have about answering a document-based question on that subject. Make a list of all answers.

2. Distribute **Handout 50**, and have students work with partners to answer the questions.

   Suggested Responses

   1. The role of Congress is to ensure that inventors are protected.
   2. The president carries out the policy by setting up a procedure to enforce the policy and officials to manage it.
   3. Inventors need to seek protection.
   4. As industrialization becomes more complicated, more and more inventors will develop new ideas that will need protection.

3. Distribute **Handout 51**, which consists of Joseph F. Glidden's patent application from 1874 with the submitted illustration of barbed wire; the diagrams of Alexander Graham Bell's approved patent for the telephone in 1876, and the drawing of Thomas Edison's approved patent for the light bulb in 1880.

4. Allow time for students to develop a thesis statement using the documents.

5. Share and discuss students' thesis statements.

 Name:

Congressional Regulation of Commerce and Invention

Directions: Read the following excerpt from the U.S. Constitution, and answer the following questions.

> **From Article 1, Section 8**
>
> The Congress shall have Power . . . To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries. . . .

1. What is the role of Congress?

2. Who carries out the policy?

3. What is the burden of inventors?

4. Do you think that the government's role will become more important as industrialization increases? Explain.

Analyzing Patent Information and Structuring a Thesis Statement

Directions: Study the following patent information, and summarize the key aspects. Then think about your answers to **Handout 50**. Consider all of the documents as part of a document-based question, and develop a thesis statement in response. You could focus on one of a number of concepts: the law, government process, industry, inventors, science, and/or their relationships. In any case, remember to structure your thesis statement around the four documents and to focus on developing main ideas and including the significance of the documents.

Document 1

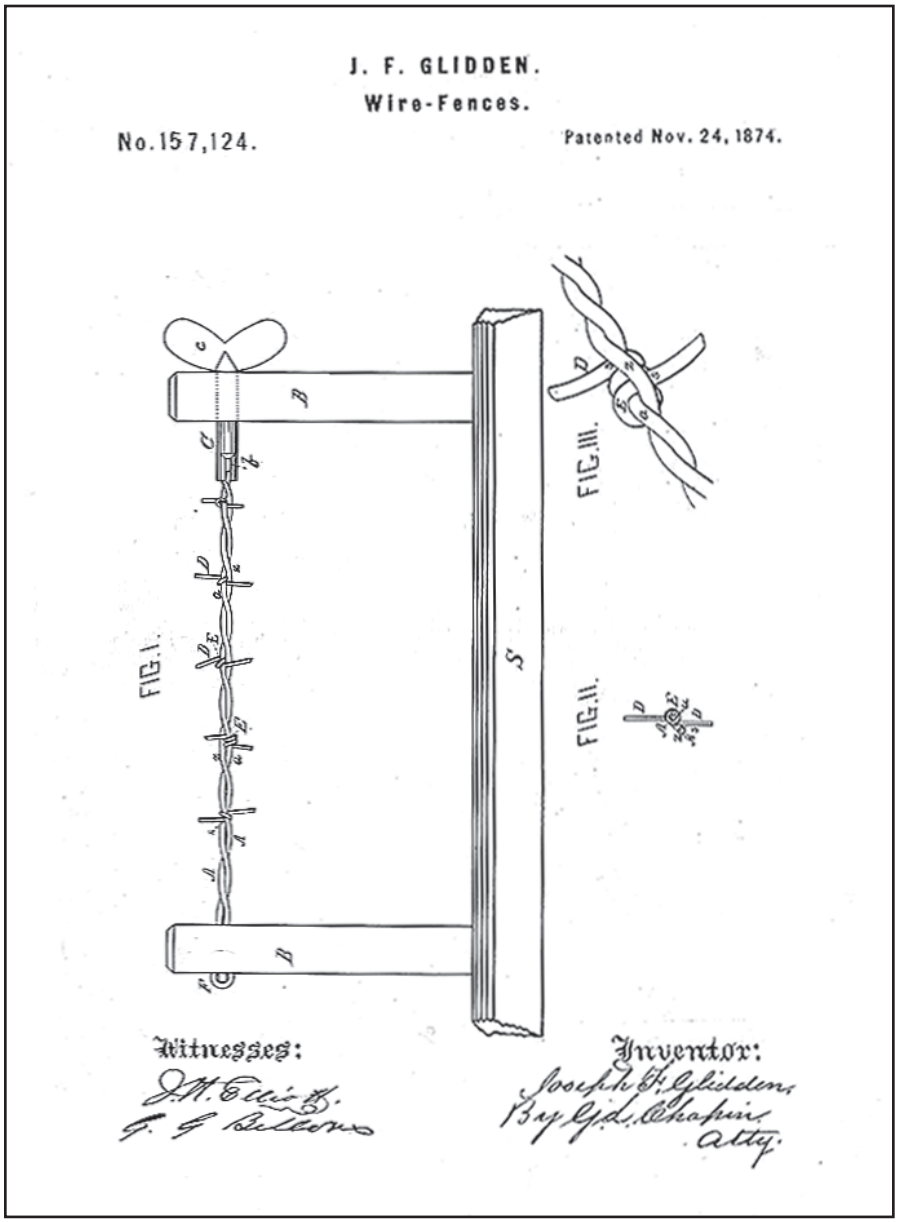


Fig. 28.1.

Fig. 28.1. Patent drawing for Joseph F. Glidden's improvement to barbed wire, November 24, 1874. Records of the Patent and Trademark Office, 1836–1978, Record Group 241; National Archives at College Park, College Park, Md. Available through the online catalog at http://www.archives.gov/research/arc; ARC ID 302051.

Document 2

United States Patent Office.

JOSEPH F. GLIDDEN, OF DE KALB, ILLINOIS. IMPROVEMENT IN WIRE-FENCES.

Specification forming part of Letters Patent No. 157,124, dated November 24,1874; application filed October 27, 1873.

To all whom it may concern:

Be it known that I, Joseph F. Glidden, of De Kalb, in the county of De Kalb and State of Illinois, have invented a new and valuable Improvement in Wire-Fences; and that the following is a full, clear, and exact description of the construction and operation of the same, reference being had to the accompanying drawings, in which—

Figure 1 represents a side view of a section of fence exhibiting my invention. Fig. 2 is a sectional view, and Fig. 3 is a perspective view, of the same.

This invention has relation to means for preventing cattle from breaking through wire-fences; and it consists in combining, with the twisted fence-wires, a short transverse wire, coiled or bent at its central portion about one of the wire strands of the twist, with its free ends projecting in opposite directions, the other wire strand serving to bind the spur-wire firmly to its place, and in position, with its spur ends perpendicular to the direction of the fence-wire, lateral movement, as well as vibration, being prevented. It also consists in the construction and novel arrangement, in connection with such a twisted fence-wire, and its spur-wires, connected and arranged as above described, of a twisting-key or head-piece passing through the fence-post, carrying the ends of the fence-wires, and serving, when the spurs become loose, to tighten the twist of the wires, and thus render them rigid and firm in position.

In the accompanying drawings, the letter B designates the fence-posts, the twisted fence-wire connecting the same being indicated by the letter A. C represents the twisting-key, the shank of which passes through the fence-post, and is provided at its end with an eye, *b*, to which the fence-wire is attached. The outer end of said key is provided with a transverse thumb-piece, *c*, which serves for its manipulation, and at the same time, abutting against the post, forms a shoulder or stop, which prevents the contraction of the wire from drawing the key through its perforation in said post.

The fence-wire is composed at least of two strands, *a* and *z,* which are designed to be twisted together after the spur-wires have been arranged in place.

The letter D indicates the spur-wires. Each of these is formed of a short piece of wire, which is bent at its middle portion, as at E, around one only of the wire strands, this strand being designated by the letter *a.* In forming this middle-bend or coil several turns are taken in the wire, so that it will extend along the strand-wire for a distance several times the breadth of its diameter, and thereby form a solid and substantial bearing-head for the spurs, which will effectually prevent them from vibrating laterally or being pushed down by cattle against the fence-wire. Although these spur-wires may be turned at once around the wire strand, it is preferred to form the central bend first, and to then slip them on the wire strand, arranging them at suitable distances apart. The spurs having thus been arranged on one of the wire strands are fixed in position and place by approaching the other wire strands *z* on the side of the bend from which the spurs extend, and then twisting the two strands *a z* together by means of the wire key above mentioned or otherwise. This operation locks each spur wire at its allotted place, and prevents it from moving there-from in either direction. It clamps the bend of the spur-wire upon the wire *a*, thereby holding it against

rotary vibration. Finally, the spur ends extending out between the strands on each side, and where the wires are more closely approximated in the twist, form shoulders or stops, *s,* which effectually prevent such rotation in either direction.

Should the spurs, from the untwisting of the strands, become loose and easily movable on their bearings, a few turns of the twisting-key will make them firm, besides straightening up the fence-wire.

What I claim as my invention, and desire to secure by Letters Patent, is—

A twisted fence-wire having the transverse spur-wire D bent at its middle portion about one of the wire strands *a* of said fence-wire, and clamped in position and place by the other wire strand *z,* twisted upon its fellow, substantially as specified.

JOSEPH F. GLIDDEN.

Witnesses:

G. L. Chapin,
J. H. Elliott.

Document 3

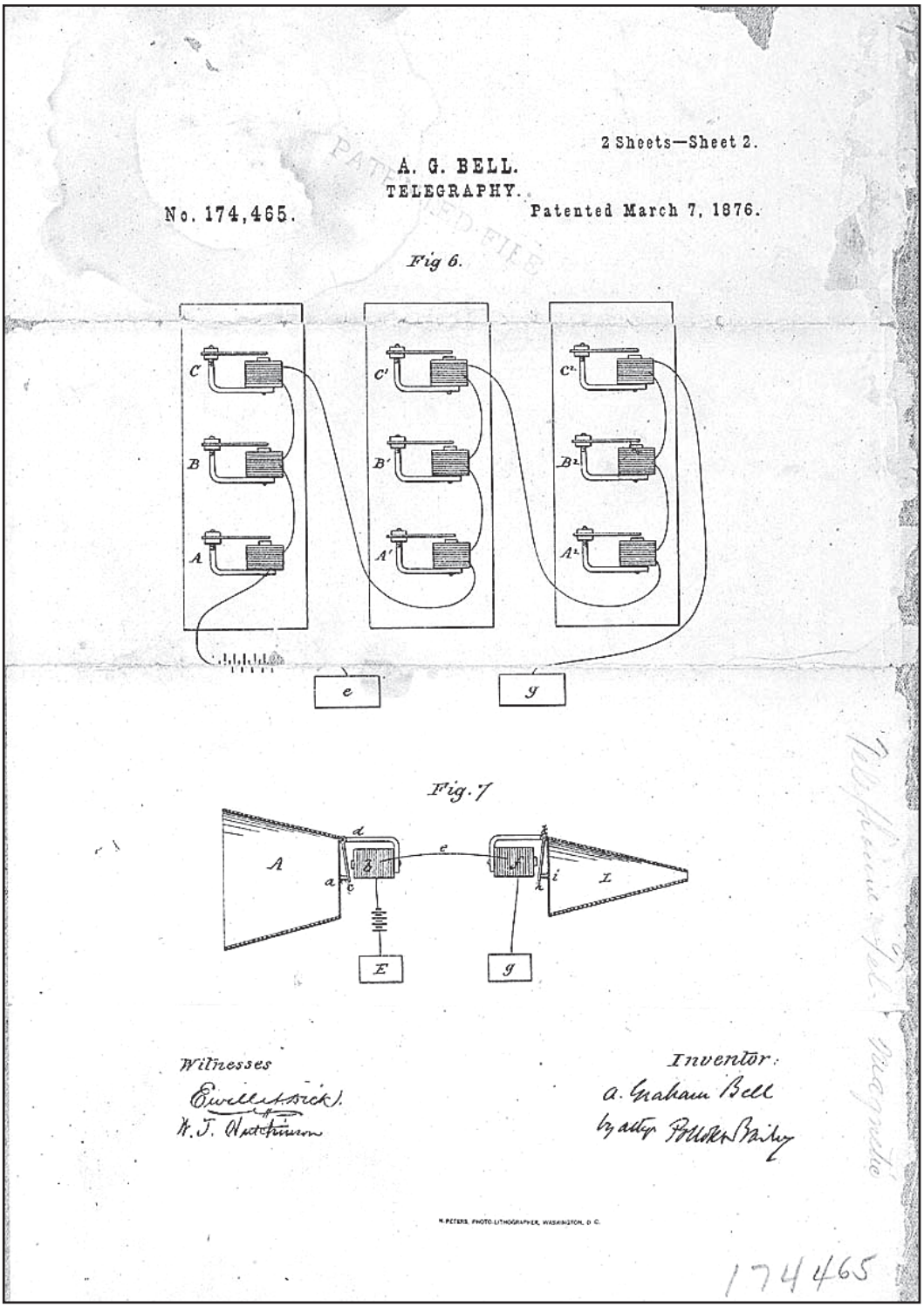


Fig. 28.2.

Fig. 28.2. Alexander Graham Bell's telephone patent drawing, March 7, 1876. Records of the Patent and Trademark Office, Record Group 241; National Archives at College Park, College Park, Md. Available through the online catalog at http://www.archives.gov/research/arc; ARC ID 302052.

Document 4

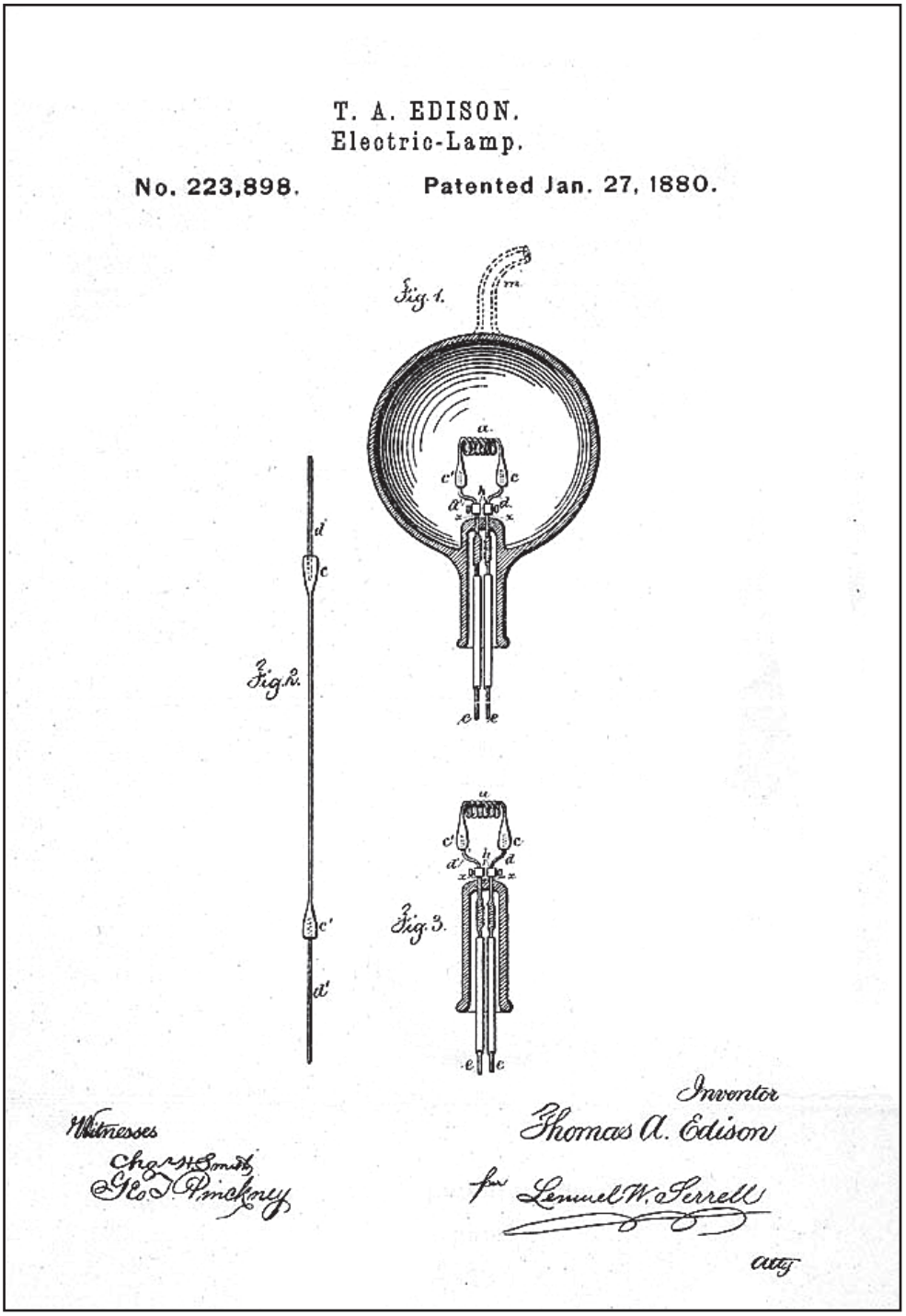


Fig. 28.3.

Fig. 28.3. Drawing of the incandescent light bulb by Thomas Edison, January 27, 1880. Records of the Patent and Trademark Office, 1836–1978; Record Group 241; National Archives at College Park, College Park, Md. Available through the online catalog at http://www.archives.gov/research/arc; ARC ID 302053.

Lesson 29

Party Platforms in the Election of 1912

Objective

- To analyze the philosophies of the political platforms that developed during the election of 1912

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-3: Explain how activist groups and reform movements, such as antebellum reformers, civil rights activists, and social conservatives, have caused changes to state institutions and U.S. society

Notes to the Teacher

The election of 1912 stands out in American history as a watershed event. The philosophy of Progressivism permeated every political corner. The voters were given the choice of four viable candidates. William Howard Taft, legalistic and conservative, was handpicked as Theodore Roosevelt's successor. Roosevelt challenged that position by breaking from the Republican "Old Guard" party to form the "New Guard" under the Bull Moose or Progressive Party. The Democrats, who had won only two elections since the outbreak of the Civil War, fielded a progressive and intellectual candidate, Woodrow Wilson. On the far left, the Socialist Party nominated Eugene V. Debs, a legitimate candidate who was critical of all the major political parties.

In this lesson, students study the political party platforms of the four major progressive parties and organize this information around major themes of the election of 1912. The parties' 1912 platforms are available on the Internet; a general search will provide many results, including the Web site of the American Presidency Project (http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu). Additional information about each party's positions can be found in its candidate's speeches and writings, which are available in a variety of print and online resources. Another potential source of background information for this lesson is the anthology *The 1912 Election and the Power of Progressivism: A Brief History with Documents,* edited by Brett Flehinger (Bedford/St. Martin's Press, 2003).

Procedure

1. Write the word *progressivism* on the board, and ask students to give their definitions of what the word means (progress, looking forward, moving ahead, changing things, opposite of maintaining the status quo). Ask students which presidential election was the first in which the Progressives were a national force (1912). Ask them for examples of the reforms promoted by the Progressives (secret ballot, referendum and recall, extension of the ballot, income tax). Explain that during the election of 1912, four political parties—the Republicans, the Democrats, the Progressives, and the Socialists—vied for the presidency, and each promoted a specific political agenda.
2. Divide the class into four groups, and distribute **Handout 52**. Assign each group a different political party. Have students find the information, fill in the content frame of their political party, and prepare to teach the material to the class. As each of the groups presents information, the other groups should record notes and complete the rest of the chart.

Suggested Responses

Republican

1. *Trusts and monopolies*—enforcement of antitrust laws in place; restriction of monopolies that inhibit trade; allowance of maximum freedom
2. *Tariffs*—believed in protective tariff; opposed a revenue tariff; condemned the Democratic tariff
3. *Banking and currency*—needed country to be put on the gold standard; revised banking standards; encouraged independence of individual banks; banking reform needed to be done with the business interest in mind
4. *Conservation*—applauded existing laws; supported rules that did not interfere with bona fide acquisitions of land; encouraged improvement of rivers and harbors
5. *Political reform*—protection of American citizenship; prevention of discrimination; in favor of laws that curbed undesirable immigration

Democratic

1. *Trusts and monopolies*—saw monopolies as indefensible and intolerable; promoted vigorous criminal and civil prosecution against trusts; encouraged additional legislation; strengthened the Sherman Antitrust Act
2. *Tariffs*—unconstitutional to use tariffs to collect anything other than revenue; Republican tariff caused an unequal distribution of wealth; farmer was the chief victim; importance of ability to use largely free markets and to buy in protected markets

3. *Banking and currency*—opposed establishment of a central bank; banks existed for the public, not just for business
4. *Conservation*—promoted protection and positive use of waterways, possibly as a source of energy; encouraged water transportation; public land to be used for the general welfare of society
5. *Political reform*—limit presidents to one term
6. *Other*—restricted eight-hour work day; denounced extravagant Republican spending; regulation of transportation and communication (e.g., railroads, telegraph, and telephone) by the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC); supported laborers' right to organize; supported creation of a Department of Labor; encouraged the promotion of a modern system of agriculture; promoted government agencies to protect the consumer; supported federalism; allowed states to exercise their full freedom; protected attempts to enlarge the federal government

Progressive

1. *Trusts and monopolies*—government responsibility to promote honest business; those who benefit must share with the public; concentration of wealth seen as natural and inevitable; commercial power must serve the good of society; endorsement of creation of a federal administrative commission
2. *Tariffs*—promoted a protective tariff to equalize conditions of competition between the United States and foreign countries; the tariff should benefit labor; no business that is unfair to labor should be protected
3. *Banking and currency*—did not address banks, but opposed the issuance of private currency and believed only the government had the right to issue currency
4. *Conservation*—natural resources to be used and developed to supply the people's needs; the environment cannot be wasted, exploited, or monopolized against the general good; land ought to be reserved to the genuine settler; construction of national roads and use of waterways for transportation
5. *Political reform*—promoted easier way to amend the Constitution; denounced the extreme states' rights position of the Democrats; equal suffrage to men and women; nullify judicial decisions at the state level; passing of legislation to protect the consumer/laborer; denounced child labor practices and advocated a minimum wage law; favored a policy to distribute immigrants away from the congested cities

Socialist

1. *Trusts and monopolies*—capitalism seen as incapable of meeting the problems facing society; prosperity only goes to the owning class; concentration of wealth crushing the small businessman; Republicans and Democrats both servants to the oppressors; society divided into warring classes based on material interests; representation of the economic interests of the workers
2. *Tariffs*—took no position on tariffs
3. *Banking and currency*—collective ownership of all banking and currency systems
4. *Conservation*—promoted the conservation of all natural resources
5. *Political reform*—extension of public works to relieve unemployed; equal suffrage for men and women; free speech; support initiative, referendum, recall, and direct vote of the president; removal of judicial review by the Supreme Court; support judicial review as a popular vote by the people; creation of Bureau of Education; collective ownership of all means of transportation and communication
6. Other—shorter workday for labor; day and a half per week of rest for labor; no child (under sixteen years of age) labor; establishment of minimum wage law, unemployment insurance

 Name:

The Election of 1912

Directions: Research the position of each party on key issues of the day.

Issue	Republican	Democratic	Progressive	Socialist
1. Trusts and monopolies				
2. Tariffs				
3. Banking and currency				

 Name:

Issue	Republican	Democratic	Progressive	Socialist
4. Conservation				
5. Political reform				
6. Other				

Lesson 30

Diplomatic Strategies and Policies: Dwight D. Eisenhower to George W. Bush

Objective

- To evaluate the foreign policies of the presidents during and after the Cold War

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-7: Analyze the goals of U.S. policymakers in major international conflicts, such as the Spanish-American War, World Wars I and II, and the Cold War, and explain how U.S. involvement in these conflicts has altered the U.S. role in world affairs

Notes to the Teacher

American foreign policy has undergone many fundamental changes since the beginning of World War II. America has gone from a policy of comparative isolation as one of several major international powers at the start of the war, to one of two superpowers after World War II, to being more recently the world's sole superpower after the collapse of the Soviet Union and its empire. When we examine American foreign policy during this period, we find a movement from the policy built upon the containment of communism to a search for a new role for America. In the absence of communism, we are acknowledging a new and very dangerous threat in terrorism and must formulate a new foreign policy to deal with that problem.

In this lesson, students research specific incidents related to the foreign policy of recent presidents to understand how their foreign policies were shaped by assumptions and traditions and influenced by crises and events. To conclude, students rank the presidents in their role of international leadership and explain their rankings.

Procedure

1. Discuss the changes that American foreign policy has undergone since the end of World War II. Ask students for examples of foreign policy crises that have confronted America's presidents during that

period (Suez Crisis; Berlin Airlift; Bay of Pigs and Cuban Missile Crisis; terrorism).

2. Explain that students are going to research major foreign policy events and decisions for each president since the end of World War II. Divide students into groups of three or four. Distribute **Handout 53**, and divide the work equally. Allow sufficient time for students to conduct research and compile results.

3. Have each group give a detailed report on the assigned president(s). All students should take notes on the presidents not covered by their group. Have students discuss each president's foreign policies and most important challenges, successes, and failures.

Suggested Responses

Dwight D. Eisenhower: 1953–61

Summary—Eisenhower continued Truman's containment policy and believed that the "ends justified the means." He used the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and covert methods to try to defeat communism; he ended the Korean War by hinting at the use of nuclear weapons; an armistice left a divided Korea at the 38th parallel. Secretary of State John Foster Dulles supported a foreign policy based on brinkmanship, never backing down in a crisis, and on a threat of retaliation because he thought that the Soviets only understood force. Many believed that this strategy was too rigid to deal with minor crises like the Hungarian uprising. Few believed that our government would use nuclear war to halt communist aggression. Eisenhower preferred peaceful coexistence, a more moderate conciliatory approach than that of Dulles. The CIA used covert operations in French Indochina. Although Eisenhower refused to get involved in another war in Asia, we gradually took over the French role in Vietnam after their defeat at Dien Bien Phu. The CIA installed Ngo Dinh Diem as president of the South Vietnamese government. Eisenhower's decision to contain communism in Indochina began our long involvement in Vietnam. Eisenhower believed in the domino theory, which proposed that if Vietnam fell to communism, first Southeast Asia, then all of Asia would fall like dominos. When Egypt's Gamal Abdel Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal in 1956, Eisenhower supported a United Nations resolution calling for the withdrawal of British and French troops who had launched an invasion to take it back. Because of this crisis, the United States became the major Western power in the Middle East, replacing the French and British. This created a great deal of ill will toward the United States in those countries not aligned with the Soviets or Americans. Under

the Eisenhower Doctrine, the United States pledged economic and military aid to Middle Eastern nations threatened by communism. An intervention in Lebanon in 1958 tried to restore stability after nationalists overthrew the pro-Western government. In Iran, the CIA used covert operations to place the Shah of Iran in control; in Guatemala, the CIA worked to overthrow a left-wing government. This caused resentment in Latin America. In Cuba, the CIA worked to overthrow Fidel Castro's government, which helped drive him toward the Soviets. A U-2 spy plane was shot down over the Soviet Union in 1960. Eisenhower tried to work with Soviets toward nuclear arms control, but the spy plane incident caused a planned summit to collapse.

Legacy—On the one hand, Eisenhower avoided war and began relaxing tensions with the Soviets. On the other hand, the pace of the nuclear arms race and Cold War accelerated while the CIA greatly expanded its covert operations.

John F. Kennedy: 1961–63

Summary—Kennedy's foreign policy supported a hard-line view of the Soviet Union and continued Eisenhower's containment policy. He saw communism as a monolithic force, with a single enemy controlled by either Moscow or Beijing. Kennedy authorized the construction of a nuclear arsenal that was five times greater than Eisenhower's plan and began a huge expansion of the military budget, both nuclear and conventional. His new strategy, called "flexible response," promised retaliation because he believed that the Soviets only understood force. Kennedy wanted a first-strike capability against the Soviets. The flaw was that lethal force would be used more quickly and would endlessly escalate, such as in Vietnam. The Bay of Pigs invasion was a CIA plan to remove Fidel Castro from power using Cuban exiles as troops. Use of American air power was cancelled at the last minute, giving Castro an overwhelming advantage. This drove Castro closer to the Soviets. During the Berlin Crisis, Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev threatened war unless the West withdrew from Berlin. Kennedy reacted by declaring that Berlin was vital to the defense of Western Europe and called reservists to active duty. The crisis ended in stalemate but indicated that Kennedy would honor America's commitment to its European allies. The Berlin Wall was built and became a symbol of Soviet disregard for individual freedom. In 1961, Kennedy ordered a sharp increase in military advisers to South Vietnam to promote stability and to protect the Diem regime from communism. Kennedy later supported a coup involving the CIA against Diem leading to further

American involvement. During the Cuban Missile Crisis, the world came close to nuclear war. After the Soviets installed nuclear missiles in Cuba, Kennedy responded with a quarantine of Cuba and a demand for the immediate withdrawal of the missiles. The American navy was positioned to intercept the Soviet convoy of ships about five hundred miles from Cuba. Kennedy's actions caused Khrushchev to back down; in return, America agreed not to invade Cuba. Humiliation forced the Soviets to build up its navy, increasing the number of nuclear submarines and intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs). A Limited Test Ban Treaty with the Soviets in 1963 prohibited testing nuclear explosions in the atmosphere.

Legacy—On the plus side, Kennedy signed the first nuclear test ban treaty and advocated détente (the relaxation of tension) with the Soviets while maintaining our global superiority; however, his presidency initiated a huge nuclear arms buildup and increased American involvement in Vietnam.

Lyndon B. Johnson: 1963–69

Summary—Johnson, a confirmed "cold warrior," continued Kennedy's policy of containment and covert operations. Kennedy had engineered Diem's assassination in Vietnam; three weeks later, Johnson was president and South Vietnam was in turmoil with a continuing power vacuum. In 1964, U.S. Navy destroyers patrolling the Gulf of Tonkin were fired upon by North Vietnamese gunboats. Johnson used the incident to gain passage of a congressional resolution giving him complete discretion to use military force. The strategy was steady military escalation instead of invasion of North Vietnam. Johnson believed that a slow, systematic escalation of the war would defeat the enemy with few casualties on either side. Unfortunately, the enemy, who engaged in guerrilla warfare, matched each increase in men; 485,000 U.S. troops were committed by the end of 1967. Johnson feared that withdrawal would damage our credibility worldwide and that invading North Vietnam would lead to a nuclear war with the Soviet Union. He settled for limited war. The Tet Offensive, a turning point of the war, proved that Johnson's policy of escalation would not bring victory. Even though it was a military victory for American forces, it was viewed as a political victory for the Viet Cong. It led to peace negotiations with Hanoi and to Johnson's decision not to run for another term as president. Distracted by Vietnam, the United States was caught off guard and unable to help resolve another Arab-Israeli conflict during the Six-Day War that resulted in an Israeli victory over

Soviet-backed Egyptian, Syrian, and Jordanian forces, occupation of more territory, and the creation of more problems in an already dangerous area.

Legacy—In the end, Johnson chose to enlarge the conflict in Vietnam and failed. The Vietnam War would be his downfall. He did not start the conflict, but he bears the burden of failure in not finding a way to end it. He is also blamed for lying to the American people, telling them that there was a "light at the end of the tunnel," that the war was almost over and victory in sight.

Richard M. Nixon: 1969–74

Summary—Nixon practiced Realpolitik, which supported practical and realistic foreign policy goals. He did not see our rivalry with the Soviet Union and China as an ideological battle of communism versus capitalism but as a traditional great power rivalry that needed to be managed. The Nixon Doctrine stated that we would honor our commitments, including military and economic aid, but in the future, others would have to fight their own wars without U.S. troops. This led to the Vietnamization of the war, as U.S. troops gradually withdrew and the South Vietnamese took over fighting. Troop levels went from 540,000 to 30,000 in 1972. Nixon advanced the foreign policy of détente with the Soviet Union and China and traveled to China, where an agreement to normalize relations with that country was reached. The next year he traveled to the Soviet Union and, playing his "China card," persuaded the Soviets to begin relaxation of tensions. Nixon predicted the Soviets would be willing to cooperate because of their poor economy and growing rivalry with China. His visits would begin an era of détente and provide some cover for America's departure from Vietnam. His secretary of state, Henry Kissinger, negotiated an end to the Vietnam War with the Paris Accords. In return for removing all troops within sixty days, the North Vietnamese agreed to return all American prisoners of war. The North Vietnamese could keep their troops in the south, which meant that communism would eventually prevail when the Americans left. An anti-ballistic missile treaty limited the U.S. and the U.S.S.R.'s defensive missiles, and the Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT) in 1972 was a symbolic first step to control nuclear weapons. Nixon worked with the CIA to undermine the Marxist leader of Chile, Salvador Allende. He backed Israel in the Yom Kippur War (1973). In this surprise attack by Syria and Egypt, Israel lost early battles but eventually won back lost territory. The Israelis were poised to go farther when Nixon and Kissinger persuaded them that

this would destabilize the Middle East. War in the Middle East against Israel led to an oil embargo by Saudi Arabia against the United States. The Watergate scandal distracted Nixon and eventually forced his resignation.

Legacy—Nixon ended American involvement in Vietnam and began a period of détente with the Soviet Union and China that greatly improved America's relationship with both countries. On the negative side was his abuse of power associated with Watergate.

Gerald R. Ford: 1974–77

Summary—Ford issued an executive order banning assassination as part of American foreign policy. The Helsinki Accords legitimized the post–World War II Soviet-dictated boundaries of Eastern Europe. The Soviets in return promised to guarantee the free exchange of people and information between the East and West and to protect human rights. The Soviets did not live up to their end of the bargain, and the era of détente seemed over. America's war in Vietnam ended.

Legacy—Ford is remembered mostly as a caretaker president who continued Nixon's policy of détente.

Jimmy Carter: 1977–81

Summary—The policy of détente continued. Carter based his foreign policy upon human rights. The Soviet Union interpreted this as an attack on how it treated dissidents. He supported majority rights in Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) and South Africa. A treaty returned the Panama Canal Zone to Panama in 1999. His greatest foreign policy achievement, the Camp David Accords (1978), saw President Anwar Sadat of Egypt and Prime Minister Menachem Begin of Israel agree to a peace treaty, which came after Israel withdrew from conquered territory in Egypt and Egypt promised to respect the borders of Israel. America's policy of détente with Soviets soured when the Soviet Union supported thousands of Cuban troops in Africa. The American embassy in Iran was seized, and fifty-eight Americans were taken hostage. The crisis dragged on for 444 days as the nightly news showed Americans footage of hostages being humiliated. Carter's popularity plummeted during this period of indecision and stalemate. When the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan, Carter took a harder line toward the Soviets, banned the sale of food and technology to them, and ordered a boycott of the Moscow Olympics of 1980. The Carter Doctrine said that we would respond with arms if the Soviets continued their advance toward the Persian Gulf. Carter authorized economic aid to the leftist Sandinistas in Nicaragua.

Legacy—His greatest foreign policy achievement was getting Egypt and Israel to agree to a peace treaty, but he will probably be remembered most for the Iranian hostage crisis in which his actions seemed incompetent and confused.

Ronald Reagan: 1981–89

Summary—Reagan abandoned détente and resumed a hard-line policy toward the Soviets. His strategy was to expand our military massively and bankrupt the Soviets, who could not match our economic strength in a new arms race. They would have to come to us begging for terms of surrender. The Soviet Union was an "evil empire" for sponsoring terrorism and ignoring human rights. Reagan deployed more missiles in Europe to counter a Soviet buildup. The Strategic Defense Initiative ("Star Wars") was part of Reagan's plan to create an orbital defensive shield using laser weapons against nuclear missiles. Reagan believed the Soviets would not be able to match this expensive high-tech system. He sent troops into Lebanon to keep the peace after an Israeli invasion to suppress terrorist attacks. Reagan remained popular even after more than two hundred troops were killed in Beirut by a suicide bomber. He reversed Carter's support of the Sandinistas in Nicaragua, leading to the Iran-Contra affair, in which arms were to be exchanged for hostages. When Congress refused to provide aid to Contra rebels seeking to overthrow the Sandinista regime, diplomats secretly arranged a deal providing arms to Iranians in exchange for their help in freeing American hostages in Lebanon. Money for sales would go toward Contras. Reagan was implicated but claimed innocence and said he knew nothing of the dealings of his subordinates. Reagan invaded the small Caribbean island of Grenada to prevent a communist takeover. He met twice with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, seeking to improve relations, but refused to scrap his SDI plan to build a missile shield. An Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty banned all intermediate nuclear missiles in Europe. These actions greatly reduced Cold War tensions.

Legacy—Reagan helped restore confidence and a sense of stability in foreign policy and continued America's Cold War victory through military buildup; on the negative side was the Iran-Contra scandal. Lack of attention to details damaged his presidency.

George H. W. Bush: 1989–93

Summary—Bush practiced a cautious foreign policy in a post–Cold War world. Eastern European communist governments collapsed without interference, signaling the end of the Cold

War. Bush spoke of a new world order after the collapse of communism. He thought that diplomacy and democracy would take the place of war. Bush signed the START II Accord with the new Russian president, Boris Yeltsin; both countries agreed to reduce their long-range nuclear weapons by two-thirds. U.S. troops invaded Panama to overthrow General Manuel Noriega, who allowed his country to be used as a conduit for drug dealers. During the Persian Gulf War, Bush responded to the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait by leading a coalition to free it and protect the strategic oil resources of the Persian Gulf. Kuwait was liberated, but Saddam Hussein remained in control of Iraq. This was the first crisis of the post–Cold War world in which the United States was the world's sole superpower.

Legacy—Bush forcefully responded to the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, which was a huge military success, but Saddam Hussein remained in power.

Bill Clinton: 1993–2001

Summary—His foreign policy during the post–Cold War era was ill-defined and hesitant at first. He preferred to concentrate on domestic issues. Clinton struggled to find a new role in the world for America. He mostly followed the lead of those who came before him. He strongly supported Russian president Yeltsin, as had Bush. Clinton had two main foreign policy issues: how to use American power and how to respond to terrorism. He persuaded the former Soviet republics of Kazakhstan, Belarus, and Ukraine to get rid of their ICBMs. He practiced a policy of "constructive engagement" with China. Instead of constantly criticizing human rights abuses, Clinton kept talking with the Chinese. American troops were deployed to Somalia to capture a local warlord. When the mission failed and eighteen American soldiers were killed, American forces were withdrawn without any accomplishment. Troops were sent into Haiti to restore democracy. Clinton proved incapable of handling the long-term economic problems of the country. Under the Dayton Accords, Clinton engineered a cease-fire between Bosnian Serbs and Muslims and Croats in former Yugoslavia. He called for North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) air strikes against Serbian troops accused of ethnic cleansing and forced the Serbs to accept UN troops on the ground. American troops helped maintain a cease-fire. In Kosovo, Clinton used air power rather than U.S. troops to force Serbian troops to stop their bloody campaign against Muslims, but he was reluctant to use U.S. troops in the conflict. Clinton tried to broker a deal based on prior UN agreements between Israel and the Palestinians

in the Middle East, Carter's Camp David Accords, and the Oslo Accords to bring about a just and lasting peace and permanent status for both states. Muslim fundamentalists began to intensify their attacks on American targets, including three U.S. embassies in Africa, the USS *Cole*, and the first attack on the World Trade Center. Clinton's response was criticized.

Legacy—Clinton hoped to create a legacy as a peacemaker by traveling to Northern Ireland, Korea, India, and Pakistan in his final year as president. Some would criticize him for not responding sufficiently to terrorist attacks against the United States and its interests.

George W. Bush: 2001–2009

Summary—During the early years of his presidency, terrorists flew planes into the World Trade Center Bush changed American foreign policy. The Bush Doctrine was simple: all nations sponsoring terrorism would be punished. He claimed that Iraq, along with Iran and North Korea, was part of an "Axis of Evil." We would defend freedom anywhere in the world in our role as the world's policeman and would seek the support of others. The United States would do it alone and preemptively, if necessary, a practice which was sometimes seen as unilateralism. Bush proclaimed a "War on Terror." He ordered American forces to invade Afghanistan to destroy terrorist bases of the Taliban and al-Qaeda. Congress in October 2002 passed a resolution authorizing the president to use armed force to defend against Iraqi threats to our security and to enforce UN sanctions against it. Less than a month after the invasion, Iraq collapsed with the fall of Baghdad. The war was over, but the violence continued. Bush's rationale for war remained controversial. He cited support of terrorist organizations, the oppression of its people, the building and possessing of weapons of mass destruction (WMD), and the goal of the creation of a democracy in the Middle East that would provide stability and hope for people in the region. In hindsight, much of the rationale for going to war seems unsupportable. Few links were found between the Iraqi government and al-Qaeda, no weapons of mass destruction were located, and the other regimes in the area seemed as stable as ever.

Legacy—Much depends on how history judges George W. Bush. Was the Iraq War a mistaken venture, out of step with traditional American values? Did it lead to negative consequences for America internationally? Should the war never have taken place? Did the first stage of conflict have some positive consequences for the region in terms of stability? Some experts point to the surge in the last year and a half of the Bush

presidency, which dramatically lowered American casualties, weakened al-Qaeda, and brought some stability to Iraq as evidence of success.

4. Have students rank the ten presidents in order of their effectiveness in international relations and explain their reasoning. Give them about five to ten minutes to think about this silently, and then lead them in a class discussion as you reach a consensus on the best to the worst. Students should focus only on foreign policy and not make moral distinctions. They should bring in outside factors only if they had an impact on foreign policy.

Presidential Foreign Policy

Directions: Research the events, decisions, and crises faced by each of the presidents listed below. Answer the questions for each president, and be prepared for class discussion.

Presidents

- Dwight D. Eisenhower
- John F. Kennedy
- Lyndon B. Johnson
- Richard M. Nixon
- Gerald R. Ford
- Jimmy Carter
- Ronald Reagan
- George H. W. Bush
- Bill Clinton
- George W. Bush

Questions

1. What was the foreign policy of this president? Summarize the foreign policy as clearly and precisely as possible. Include the following information in your summary:
   a. What were the foreign policy connections, if any, with predecessors? What changed? What caused the changes?
   b. What were the most important foreign policy concerns? Why?
   c. What strategies were the most effective for this president? Why?
   d. What was the biggest accomplishment of the foreign policy of this president? What factors influenced presidential decisions? Cite specific evidence to support your answers.
2. What is the legacy of this president?

Lesson 31

Popular Entertainment in America: 1920 to 1960

Objective

- To examine the development of popular entertainment in the United States between 1920 and 1960

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-7: Explain how and why "modern" cultural values and popular culture have grown since the early 20th century and how they have affected American politics and society

Notes to the Teacher

Prior to 1920, popular entertainment in the United States was localized and dictated by the amount of leisure time available to people. A wealthy family in New York City or Chicago might spend leisure time very differently from a farmer's family in rural Iowa. Overall, most families spent leisure time in similar pastimes. Games and community activities such as local theatrics, fairs, and festivals were usually the same across America. Immigrant communities often brought customs and forms of entertainment with them when they came to America, and they quickly adopted the local forms as well. Baseball, Sunday picnics, state fairs, exhibitions, and local newspapers were common to all areas, including large urban settings. In small-town America, most people were participants rather than spectators. The development of mass communication devices such as radio, motion pictures, and later television helped to change everything. Mass communication devices not only spread forms of popular entertainment across the country, but also led to an evolution of American culture.

In this lesson, students define popular entertainment and examine how it developed. They research examples of popular entertainment forms between 1920 and 1960 and prepare reports illustrating the significance of examples. They discuss the forms of popular entertainment that developed between 1920 and 1960 and write a short essay comparing and contrasting those examples with forms of popular entertainment that have developed since 1960.

Procedure

1. Ask students to define *popular entertainment.* (Common responses may include various descriptions of how people spend their leisure time. Some may mention that popular entertainment appeals to a mass audience rather than just a small segment of the population.) Explain that, before 1920, popular entertainment in the United States often was localized. Ask for examples (games, community activities, local newspapers, baseball, and horseracing). Ask for examples of popular entertainment that developed after 1920 (movies, magazines and paperback books, sporting events, radio, and television). Ask how popular entertainment developed. (Forms developed in small towns as well as in large urban areas. Urbanization meant more leisure time and often less parental involvement with their children.)

2. Explain that as mass communication developed, it became easier for smaller cities and towns to adopt entertainment forms already popular in large cities like New York and Chicago. Divide the class into small groups of three or four students, and distribute **Handout 54**. Assign a decade to each group, and have students use their textbook, the Internet, and other sources to find multiple examples of each category for the group's section of the chart. They should describe the significance of their choices and explain how they illustrate the meaning of *popular entertainment*.

Suggested Responses

1920s

Literature—Literary works may include the following: *The Great Gatsby; The Sun Also Rises; Death Comes for the Archbishop; Desire under the Elms.* The Book-of-the-Month Club used mass-marketing techniques to sell popular novels directly to the public. Many writers settled in Europe after World War I and became members of the Lost Generation.

Radio—Programs may include the following: *Amos 'n' Andy; Grand Ole Opry.* Radio quickly became popular and entertained Americans with music, news, comedies, and dramatic programming.

Motion Pictures—Movies may include the following: *The Ten Commandments; The Hunchback of Notre Dame; Ben Hur; The Gold Rush; The Jazz Singer.* The movie industry helped create a mass American culture by shaping the morals and behavior of generations of young people. Large studios dominated the industry, and national trends in fashion and hairstyles were set by movie stars. The industry brought the modern world to many areas, including rural America.

Sports—Athletes may include the following: Babe Ruth; Ty Cobb; Red Grange; Bobby Jones; Jack Dempsey. Baseball, golf, football, and boxing were the dominant professional sports and were played on the amateur level across the country.

Music—Musicians may include the following: George Gershwin; Duke Ellington; "Jelly Roll" Morton; Bessie Smith. Music produced during the 1920s included sentimental ballads, old-fashioned waltzes, and nonsense songs. Jazz and the blues spread across America after World War I because of the popularity of phonograph records.

1930s

Literature—Works may include the following: *The Grapes of Wrath; Ah, Wilderness!; Golden Boy; Gone with the Wind; Tender Is the Night.* Some writers expressed anger and dissatisfaction with the American way of life, while others concentrated on portraying the human condition. The paperback book made its debut and made books available to a wider audience.

Radio—Programs may include the following: *The Lone Ranger; The Burns and Allen Show; The Shadow.* Radio programs continued to develop and expand American culture. Families would listen to serialized dramas, mysteries, and comedy shows. Companies advertised on radio programs and expanded the sales of their products beyond cities into rural America.

Motion Pictures—Movies may include the following: *Frankenstein; Public Enemy; It Happened One Night; The Wizard of Oz; Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs; Gone with the Wind.* Motion pictures covered subjects from historical dramas to comedies and offered the American public an escape from the reality of the Great Depression.

Sports—Athletes may include the following: Jesse Owens; Joe Louis; Ben Hogan; Lou Gehrig. Miniature golf and softball became popular, inexpensive leisure time sports. College football and baseball dominated sports pages and radio airwaves.

Music—Musicians may include the following: George Gershwin; Aaron Copeland. Big bands popularized jazz, and the jukebox spread popular music across America. Government programs supported thousands of musicians during the Depression and financed the collection of traditional American music across the country.

1940s

Literature—Works may include the following: *A Long Day's Journey into Night; Native Son; A Streetcar Named Desire; All the King's Men.* American authors often wrote about controversial subjects such as mental illness, sexual abuse, and personal tragedy. They chronicled the anguish of family life, wrote about racism and growing up in white America, and dealt with themes of sexuality and political corruption.

Radio/Television—Programs may include the following: *The Amateur Hour; Our Gal Sunday; The Howdy Doody Show; The Jack Benny Show.* Quiz shows and variety shows, which highlighted new talent and were inexpensive to produce, were introduced. War news and patriotic programming dominated radio. Many performers moved from radio to television.

Motion Pictures—Movies may include the following: *The Maltese Falcon; Citizen Kane; National Velvet; The Best Years of Our Lives; Casablanca.* The motion picture industry was dominated by World War II. The Office of War Information was an important propaganda tool. Flag-waving character-driven stories dominated the early years of the decade, but by the end of the 1940s, films were realistic and technical improvements made films more watchable. An anticommunism hysteria led to congressional hearings, and groups of actors, filmmakers, and directors were blacklisted as communist sympathizers.

Sports—Athletes may include the following: Jackie Robinson; Ted Williams. The National Basketball Association (NBA) was established in 1947, and Jackie Robinson became the first African American to play baseball in the National League.

Music—Musicians may include the following: Glenn Miller; Benny Goodman; Duke Ellington; Bing Crosby; Frank Sinatra. Big bands, crooners, and patriotism characterized music. Bands crisscrossed the country and often went overseas to play for American troops.

1950s

Literature—Novels and plays may include the following: *A Raisin in the Sun; The Crucible; The Old Man and the Sea; Cat on a Hot Tin Roof; Catcher in the Rye; On the Road.* Many of the themes of the 1940s were carried over into the 1950s. Writers tackled controversial subjects, including sexuality, the anticommunist hysteria that carried over from the late 1940s, and racism. New writers of the Beat Generation began to emerge.

Radio/Television—Programs may include the following: *Leave It to Beaver; Ozzie and Harriet; The Life of Riley; The Honeymooners; Playhouse 90; Your Hit Parade; American Bandstand.* The development of television led to declining movie audiences. By the end of the 1950s, about 50 percent of America's households owned televisions. Television acted as a change agent but also preserved America's idea of an idyllic life. Television commercials spread consumerism and reinforced stereotypes of race and sex.

Motion Pictures—Movies may include the following: *The Bad Seed; High Noon; From Here to Eternity; Rebel Without a Cause; The Ten Commandments; The Invasion of the Body Snatchers; Marty*. Many motion pictures continued to present controversial subjects in a realistic manner. Hollywood films continued to portray America as middle-class and white, while a separate black film industry produced films for the African-American market.

Sports—Professional football and basketball became popular; stock car racing rose to prominence. Sports events began to be televised, and African-American athletes began to participate in professional sports in greater numbers.

Music—Musicians may include the following: Miles Davis; Charlie Parker; Elvis Presley; Bill Haley and the Comets; Buddy Holly; Richie Valens; Chuck Berry; Fats Domino. White performers transformed rhythm and blues into a new sound called rock and roll. The new music was sometimes condemned as corruptive of youth, and Presley would transform popular music into something some parents regarded as dangerous and threatening.

1960s

Literature—The literature of the 1960s was dominated by diversity. The popularity of the paperback book increased, and Americans read everything from the hard-boiled detective novels of Mickey Spillane to counterculture portraits penned by Tom Wolfe and Ken Kesey. Popular during this period were the following works: *To Kill a Mockingbird, The Bell Jar, One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest, In Cold Blood,* and *The Electric Kool-Aid Acid Test*.

Radio/Television—Comedies, science fiction, and variety shows filled many hours of television programming during the 1960s. Perry Como and Dean Martin, who were popular in the 1950s, developed variety programs, as did new entertainers such as the Smothers Brothers and Sonny and Cher. Popular shows

included the following: *American Bandstand, The Flintstones, The Andy Griffith Show, Star Trek,* and *The Addams Family.*

Motion Pictures—The subject matter of motion pictures began to change during the 1960s. Adaptations of Broadway plays such as *My Fair Lady, Hello Dolly, Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf,* and *The Sound of Music* were immensely popular. However, other films, including *Bonnie and Clyde, Easy Rider, The Wild Bunch, Midnight Cowboy, Butch Cassidy and the Sundance Kid,* and *The Graduate,* reflected a changing American culture.

Sports—During the 1960s, professional basketball and football dominated the sports scene. Golf, figure skating, and track and field were brought into American homes by television networks that broadcasted from around the world. Popular sports figures included the following athletes: Roberto Clemente, Roger Maris, Mickey Mantle, Sandy Koufax, and Willie Mays (baseball); Joe Namath, Jim Brown, and Y. A. Tittle (football); Wilma Rudolph, Bob Hayes, and Rafer Johnson (track and field); Arnold Palmer, Jack Nicklaus, and Mickey Wright (golf); Arthur Ashe (tennis); Floyd Patterson and Muhammed Ali (boxing); Peggy Fleming (ice skating); Wilt Chamberlain, Bill Russell, and Elgin Baylor (basketball).

Music—Music in the 1960s encompassed a wide range of styles. Rock, country, folk, acid rock, and rhythm and blues all had followings. Popular musicians included the following artists: Bob Dylan; The Beach Boys; The Rolling Stones; The Beatles; James Brown; The Grateful Dead; Chuck Berry; Jefferson Airplane; Smoky Robinson; Aretha Franklin; Jimi Hendrix; Peter, Paul, and Mary; The Supremes; Martha and the Vandellas; The Temptations.

3. Ask for examples of popular entertainment forms which have developed since 1960 (personal computers, video games, DVDs, CDs, MP3s, improvements in computer-generated graphics in movies and television, cable and satellite television). Have students write short paragraphs comparing and contrasting the forms of entertainment that were popular in 1960 with those which are most popular today.

 Name:

From the Roaring Twenties to the Turbulent Sixties: Popular Entertainment

Directions: Use your textbook, the Internet, and other sources to find two examples for each of the sections on the chart. Describe their significance, and explain how they illustrate the meaning of the term *popular entertainment*.

Topic	1920s	1930s	1940s
Literature			
Radio/ Television			
Motion Pictures			
Sports			
Music			

 Name:

Topic	1950s	1960s
Literature		
Radio/ Television		
Motion Pictures		
Sports		
Music		

Lesson 32

The Judicial Nationalism of John Marshall

Objectives

- To examine the major Supreme Court decisions of John Marshall
- To determine how those decisions shaped American questions about federalism, states' rights, and individual civil rights

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-5: Analyze how arguments over the meaning and interpretation of the Constitution have affected U.S. politics since 1787

Notes to the Teacher

John Marshall is considered an important figure in American history for a number of reasons. He was one of the leading figures of the Founding Fathers and was instrumental in defining many of the major issues during America's beginnings. He clearly defined the role of the Supreme Court in subsequent years, and he established judicial review as a power of the Supreme Court.

In this lesson, students work in groups to research assigned Supreme Court cases. Groups present cases to the class as a whole. To conclude, students participate in a class discussion. You may want to consult the following works in preparation for this lesson:

- *Summaries of Leading Cases on the Constitution,* Joseph F. Menez and John R. Vile
- *The Oxford Companion to the Supreme Court of the United States,* ed. Kermit L. Hall
- *John Marshall: Major Opinions and Other Writings,* ed. John P. Roche

Procedure

1. Ask students to define *federalism* (the sharing of power between national and state governments) and *nationalism* (the concept that the national government is superior to the state government; national pride).

2. Distribute **Handout 55**, divide the class into groups, and assign cases to groups. Students are to use resources in the classroom, in the library, or on the Internet to complete the content frames about their cases. Each group is responsible for presenting the information to the class.

Suggested Responses

1. *Marbury v. Madison* (1803)

   Facts of the Case

   - The Judiciary Act of 1789 established the right of the Supreme Court to issue Writs of Mandamus. In the election of 1800, Thomas Jefferson (Democratic-Republican) defeated the incumbent president John Adams (Federalist). The outgoing Congress passed the Judiciary Act of 1801, which established new judicial positions. The outgoing president, John Adams, appointed William Marbury as Justice of the Peace for the District of Columbia, signing and sealing his commission but not delivering it. The new president Thomas Jefferson and Secretary of State James Madison refused to deliver any of Adams' commissions. The new Democratic-Republican–dominated Congress repealed the Judiciary Act of 1801. Marbury sued Madison under a provision of the Judiciary Act of 1789 and asked the Supreme Court to issue a Writ of Mandamus and order Madison to deliver his commission.

   Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

   - Does the applicant have a right to the commission he demands? Yes, the commissions had been duly signed and sealed by the president of the United States.
   - If that right has been violated, do the laws of the United States afford him a remedy? Yes, Marbury had a right to his commission, and there had to be a legal remedy for him to acquire that right.
   - Is this remedy a mandamus issuing from the Supreme Court? No, the legal remedy is not a Writ of Mandamus from the Supreme Court in this instance, since the Constitution clearly defined what was within the Court's original jurisdiction and it is not within the power of Congress to expand that jurisdiction.
   - The question that Marshall does not state, but for which this decision is most famous, is whether the Supreme Court has the power to void an act of national legislation that it considers unconstitutional. Marbury did not satisfy any of the conditions in which the Supreme Court can hear the case; therefore, the case was dismissed; the Supreme Court can review congressional legislation and rule that legislation unconstitutional, if a conflict is found between that legislation and the powers of the Constitution.

Importance

- This case established the principle of judicial review for the Supreme Court. This had been a policy within the state and lower federal courts and was laid out as a power that the Supreme Court would have under the new Constitution in Alexander Hamilton's *Federalist* No. 78.

2. *Fletcher v. Peck* (1810)

Facts of the Case

- In 1794, the Georgia Legislature authorized the sale of 35 million acres of land in the Yazoo area of present-day Alabama and Mississippi to four land companies for 1.5 cents per acre. In 1796, accusations of corruption were leveled against the Georgia legislature, and a new legislature was elected. It rescinded the land grant and invalidated all property rights of the purchasers. Robert Fletcher sued John Peck, who sold him part of the land purchase, in hope of invalidating the legislative action.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Can an executed contract in which a state legislature granted land be rescinded by the state? No, to remedy political corruption, citizens should resort to the polls; the only issue at hand is that of title and whether the legislatures can deprive investors of land; the purchasers of the land had good intent and were innocent of corruption; the Georgia law violates Article I, Section 10, of the U.S. Constitution, which forbids states from passing laws impairing the obligations of contracts.

Importance

- This was the first time that the Supreme Court ruled a state law unconstitutional.

3. *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819)

Facts of the Case

- In 1791, the First Bank of the United States was chartered. The charter was to expire in twenty years. There was debate as to whether Congress had the power to charter a national bank. Loose constructionists (Alexander Hamilton) said yes, while strict constructionists (Thomas Jefferson) said no. In 1811, the Republican-controlled Congress refused to recharter the First Bank, and in 1816, a Second Bank of the United States was chartered. Several states passed laws taxing its branches. In 1818, Maryland passed a law that taxed any bank not chartered by its state legislature. The head cashier, James McCulloch of the Baltimore branch of the Second Bank, refused to pay the tax and the case was upheld by a Maryland Court of Appeals.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Does Congress have the power to incorporate a bank? Yes, the Constitution grants the power to carry out any of its enumerated powers through the Necessary and Proper Clause (Article 1, Section 8, Section 18) of the Constitution, including the power to create a National Bank.
- May the state of Maryland tax a branch of the U.S. Bank located in the state? No, the Supremacy Clause (Article 6) makes the Constitution the supreme law of the land; the states do have the power to tax, but that power is subordinate to the Constitution. The state cannot tax where its sovereign power does not extend; if it can tax a bank, it would be able to tax other agencies of the federal government; the power to tax is the power to destroy and the state governments cannot destroy the federal government.

Importance

- This ruling made most of Hamilton's policies matters of law. It declared a state law unconstitutional.

4. *Dartmouth College v. Woodward* (1819)

Facts of the Case

- In 1769, a Royal Charter created Dartmouth College. In 1816, New Hampshire's Republican governor, William Plumer, along with the Republican-controlled state legislature, attempted to remove the Federalist-controlled college trustees and replace them with Republican trustees. The state took control of the college. Woodward, one of the former trustees, challenged the constitutionality of the action.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Is the contract protected by the Constitution? Yes, it is a contract within the letter of the law, and the actions of the state legislature violated the contract clause.
- Does the 1816 act impair the original charter, as contended by the old college trustees? Yes, the college is a private entity, and, as such, the state cannot impair that contract. Under the 1816 act, the charter as originally intended no longer existed; therefore, the New Hampshire legislature violated the Constitution.

Importance

- The ruling reinforced the idea of the supremacy of the Constitution over state laws and upheld the primacy of contracts.

5. *Cohens v. Virginia* (1821)

Facts of the Case

- In 1802, Congress authorized the selling of lottery tickets to help raise money for improvements in Washington, D.C. A Virginia law forbade the selling of any lottery tickets except those authorized by the state. Philip and Mendes Cohen sold D.C. lottery tickets in Virginia and were found guilty and charged a $100 fine. They appealed the decision to the Supreme Court. Virginia wanted to challenge the ruling in the *McCulloch* decision. Virginia claimed that the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution forbade the Supreme Court from hearing the case and argued that Section 25 of the Judiciary Act of 1789 did not apply to the case.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- The union is supreme, and the federal judiciary is the ultimate arbiter of constitutional questions. The conflict is between a state law and a congressional statute; the congressional statute only applies to D.C.; Virginia has the authority to pass such a law.

Importance

- The decision gave the Supreme Court the authority to review state Supreme Court decisions; even though it was a victory for Virginia, it was seen as another blow to the issue of states rights.

6. *Johnson v. McIntosh* (1823)

Facts of the Case

- Thomas Johnson bought land from the Piankeshaw Indians in 1773 and 1775. William McIntosh obtained a land patent to the same land from the U.S. government; descendents of Johnson filed suit, claiming that the land was rightfully theirs as they purchased the land directly from the Piankeshaw.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Do Native Americans have the power to give or sell land to private individuals? No, the U.S. government acquired ultimate title to the lands under the principle of the Discovery Doctrine. European nations assumed free title to lands they "discovered." Natives occupied the land but did not own it and could only sell land to the discovering sovereign nations. The court recognized that this treated the Native Americans as an inferior race of people, without the privilege of citizenship, but living under the protection of the U.S. government.

Importance

- The case laid the foundation for the future Cherokee decisions from the Supreme Court and outlined the status of the Native Americans within the American legal system.

7. *Gibbons v. Ogden* (1824)

Facts of the Case

- In 1807, Robert Fulton acquired a monopoly from the state of New York for steam navigation on the Hudson River. Aaron Ogden held a state required Fulton-Livingston license. Thomas Gibbons held a federal coasting license that was granted under an act of Congress. Both men ran ferries between New Jersey and Manhattan. Gibbons was accused of operating his boat in violation of the New York statute, and the New York courts upheld the state monopoly.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Can a state grant exclusive right to navigate its waters? No, according to the Constitution, congressional power to regulate commerce is unlimited except where proscribed by the Constitution. The federal law must be supreme when state law and federal law conflict. The act of the state of New York was unconstitutional, and any matter that affects interstate commerce is within the power of Congress.

Importance

- This first case involving the Commerce Clause of the Constitution reinforced the principle that when there is conflict between the Constitution and a state law, the Constitution is supreme.

8. *Cherokee Nation v. Georgia* (1831)

Facts of the Case

- In 1828, Georgia stripped the Cherokee of their rights to their land in an attempt to force them to leave the state; in 1830, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act. After failing in their attempts to negotiate with the president or Congress, the Cherokee Nation filed suit in the Supreme Court. They asked for an injunction against Georgia, arguing that the state created laws that directly tried to annihilate the tribe as a political entity. They argued that they were a foreign nation and not subject to the laws of Georgia.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Is an Indian tribe a state or a foreign nation that can sue in court? No, under the terms of the Constitution, the Indian tribes did not constitute either a domestic state or a foreign nation; they are best described as "domestically dependent nations," similar to a ward-guardian relationship.
- Will the Court issue an injunction against Georgia? No, the tribe could not sue before the Supreme Court under Article 3, because the Court did not have original jurisdiction to hear the case.

Importance

- This was the first of the two important cases dealing with the Cherokee. It further defined the role of Native Americans within the American legal system.

9. *Worcester v. Georgia* (1832)

Facts of the Case

- Georgia required all whites living in the Cherokee territory to obtain a state license. Samuel Worcester from Vermont was a missionary living within the Cherokee territory and did not have a state license. He believed that if he applied for one he would be turned down. Worcester was appointed postmaster in the Cherokee capital, New Echota. This was a federal appointment, so the Georgia courts left him alone. Georgia governor George Gilmer appealed to the federal government to rescind his appointment and allow Georgia to arrest him for not having a license to live in the territory. Worcester was sympathetic to the Cherokee and opposed their removal from their native lands. Worcester was arrested and sentenced to four years in prison.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Was the record of the case properly before the Supreme Court? Yes, it is proper for the Court to hear the case when it is signed by the clerk.
- Can the Court take jurisdiction over a case involving an appeal of a state prosecution? Yes, the Judiciary Act gives the Court discretion over the cases it will accept, many of which involve federal treaties.
- Are treaties with Native American tribes a matter for state or national authorities? They are a matter for national authorities; the United States entered into a number of treaties with Native American tribes. Many treaties were inherited from European nations, particularly Great Britain. These treaties recognized the territory of the

Cherokees, and any state laws in conflict with such treaties, including the Georgia law, are void.

Importance

- The decision recognized a limited right on behalf of Native Americans.

10. *Barron v. Baltimore* (1833)

Facts of the Case

- The city of Baltimore, while paving its streets, diverted several streams from their natural courses, resulting in sand deposits near John Barron's wharf, rendering the water too shallow and preventing the approach of vessels, thus hurting his business. Barron claimed the city took his property without just compensation in violation of his Fifth Amendment rights. He argued that the amendment guaranteed individual liberty and ought to restrain the states, as well as the national government, from violating that liberty.

Questions/Decisions/Reasoning

- Does the Fifth Amendment restrain the states as well as the national government? No, the provisions of the Bill of Rights, of which the Fifth Amendment is a part, are designed to limit the national government rather than the state governments; Americans must look to the state constitutions for protection of their political liberties.

Importance

- With the ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment in 1868, the application of the Bill of Rights to the states became an issue. Under *Hurtado v. California* (1884), the Fourteenth Amendment is a limit on state power, but not until *Gitlow v. New York* (1925) did Barron really lose its authority. All rights have now been incorporated as restraints on the states.

3. Conduct a class discussion using the following questions.
   - What is the best way to characterize Marshall's judicial philosophy? (Marshall was a Federalist who pushed the strong national government agenda of his party. He also helped define the role that the Supreme Court would take over the course of American history. His decisions show strong character and leadership. He was someone who was willing to help define the Federalist vision of the American government.)

- What is the historical context of Marshall's tenure on the court? Does this help explain his judicial philosophy? (Student answers may vary, but most will point to the fact that there was a major shift in political power because of the election of 1800, sometimes known as the Revolution of 1800. The Federalists not only lost the presidency, but also had serious setbacks in losing control of the House and the Senate. The Democratic-Republicans now controlled two thirds of the government. The outgoing Federalists tried to keep what little hold they had on the judiciary and passed the Judiciary Act of 1801, creating more judicial posts to be appointed by Adams, the outgoing president. However, the Republican-controlled Congress repealed the act and refused to seat many of the judicial appointments. This will help explain Marshall's political philosophy.)
- What was Marshall's most important decision? Why? (Student answers may vary. *Marbury* was an important decision because it created the concept of judicial review, which previously had been part of both state and lower federal court decisions, and it was laid out in Hamilton's *Federalist* No. 78. *McCulloch* was another important decision because it helped define the political philosophy of Marshall's federalism. *Fletcher* was also an important decision because its emphasis on contracts became a recurring theme that the court faced. *Worcester*, another important decision, laid the foundation for future civil rights cases.)
- How consistent was Marshall throughout his career as Supreme Court Chief Justice? (Marshall was very consistent throughout his judicial career; he always ruled in favor of the federal government over the states; he always upheld the importance of contracts and maintained the importance of the federal government to be the final word when it comes to conflicts about the Constitution. The Barron case is the only example in which he may have strayed from his original federalism. His belief that the Bill of Rights was created to curb the powers of the federal government was consistent with the ideas of others of that time.)

Name:

Supreme Court Cases of John Marshall

Directions: Using the library, the Internet, and other resources, research the court cases listed below. Include answers to the following questions.

- What are the facts of the case?
- What questions were answered by the decision, and what was Marshall's reasoning in making the decision?
- Why is the case important?

Case	Facts	Questions/Decisions/ Reasoning	Importance
1. *Marbury v. Madison* (1803)			
2. *Fletcher v. Peck* (1810)			

 Name:

Case	Facts	Questions/Decisions/ Reasoning	Importance
3. *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819)			
4. *Dartmouth College v. Woodward* (1819)			
5. *Cohens v. Virginia* (1821)			

Name:

Case	Facts	Questions/Decisions/ Reasoning	Importance
6. *Johnson v. McIntosh* (1823)			
7. *Gibbons v. Ogden* (1824)			
8. *Cherokee Nation v. Georgia* (1831)			

Name:

Case	Facts	Questions/Decisions/ Reasoning	Importance
9. *Worcester v. Georgia* (1832)			
10. *Barron v. Baltimore* (1833)			

Acknowledgments

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