

Historians and Their Work

The writing of U.S. history reflects clear-cut patterns of thought at various periods. The Puritans had their Christian interpretation of history. Early colonial leaders such as William Bradford and John Winthrop reflected this approach. In the eighteenth century, historians stressed the Enlightenment idea that reason would guide mankind along the path of progress. Historians in the next century turned to romantic beliefs in hero worship and adventure. Near the end of the nineteenth century, American historians, many of them with academic training in Germany, began to practice the teaching and writing of history as a profession. It was quite the fashion at the time to think of history writing in scientific rather than literary terms. During the Depression of the 1930s, practically every study involved an economic interpretation. As you can see, the way history is written is not static; it mirrors the ideas and characteristics of the time in which it was written.

Perhaps the most well-known school of thought is that of the Progressive historians of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. These scholars viewed American history in terms of conflict — rich vs. poor, farmer vs. merchant, debtor vs. creditor, democracy vs. aristocracy. They believed that progress was inevitable, that the United States was moving toward a more ideal order. To the Progressive historian, all periods in American history could be divided into two clear and distinct phases: periods of active reform and periods of conservative consolidation.

Many Progressive historians were themselves committed to reform movements in the early 1900s and tended to view their own era in terms of a struggle by the people to free themselves from the large corporate monopolies. They read back into history the same conflict between the masses and the upper classes that seemed to be taking place before their own eyes. An excellent analysis of this group is Richard Hofstadter's *The Progressive Historians*, which focuses on Frederick Jackson Turner, Charles Beard, and Vernon L. Parrington.

After World War II, historical writing in the United States became more conservative. Historians such as Daniel Boorstin and Richard Hofstadter viewed American history in terms of consensus rather than conflict. They deemphasized class and sectional divisions, arguing instead that there was never any class struggle in the United States as there had been in Europe. They were cynical about the optimistic view of the Progressive historians. The war, nuclear weapons, and the apathy of the masses during the 1950s made them see their predecessors' views as too simple. The Conservative historians claimed that Americans have fought only over the means of reaching their basic objectives but that the goals have always been the same. Their writing shows a need to prove national unity among the American people.

The Revisionists are in sharp contrast to the Conservative historians of the 1940s and 1950s. Revisionism occurs when a historian challenges the accepted understanding of an event or issue. Revisionist historians such as Howard Zinn, William Appelmann Williams, and Eugene Genovese offer new versions that on occasion overwhelm conventional understanding and become the new standard interpretation. A subject that revisionists have written extensively on is the involvement of the United States in World War II. The United States entered the war after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. The conventional interpretation is that Japan began the war with an unfair "sneak attack" that was part of a policy of aggression in the Pacific. The Revisionists maintain that President Franklin Roosevelt, through inept and racist foreign policies, placed Japan in a no-win position where the only alternative was to attack. Some historians also maintain that the United States knew about Japan's plans to attack Pearl Harbor but did nothing so as to provide a reason for getting involved in the war in Europe.

Students interested in the current work of American historians should examine *The New American History* (1997), which was edited for the American Historical Association by Eric Foner. It contains essays reviewing the latest scholarship both by time period and subject, e.g., women's history, labor history, diplomatic history. Each essay includes an extensive bibliography of books and articles.

The Varieties of History

History texts and many monographs and articles deal with a few areas of historical study: political, economic, social, and intellectual history. Today, many new fields have become objects of study by historians. These include ethnic history, women's history, environmental history, and psychohistory (which seeks to explain the past by examining the motives of individuals).

The use of oral history has also become significant, both as an aid to traditional research and a field of study in its own right. The recollections of people who were involved in significant events adds greatly to the historical record. Moreover, oral history gives a voice to people who didn't appear in history because they didn't leave written records.

Quantitative historians practice what they call "cliometrics," using such records as election returns, ship passenger lists, and a wide variety of other statistical sources to make conclusions about historical patterns in immigration, population movements, demography (where people live), persistence patterns (how long people live in one place), and economic status. Their work is characterized by numerous tables, charts, and graphs, which narrative historians sometimes claim makes their work unreadable. The quantitative historians reply that narrative is often inexact and imprecise when it come to the analysis of data.

History as an academic discipline in the United States is just over a century old. While most historians teach, others make their livelihood outside of the college or university community. The books of Barbara Tuchman and David McCullough have become national bestsellers. Public, or applied, history is a comparatively new field. Public historians are not based in a university but work for government agencies, private corporations, historical societies and museums, and as independent consultants. They may develop corporate archives, write a company or agency history, provide expert testimony in a lawsuit, or tackle numerous other assignments that involve the application of the historian's research and analytical skills to real-world issues.

You should be aware that there are people who use history for their own purposes. They knowingly twist facts, make up their own, and consciously misinterpret data to convince people that history happened in a certain way. The fake historians usually take an extreme view on topics that at first glance would seem unquestionable. The most notorious example of this type of writing is the effort to "prove" that the Holocaust, the extermination of six million Jews during World War II, never happened.

Some Prominent American Historians

There is no way to create a definitive list of historians without leaving out significant scholars or areas of research. But even a partial list of original and influential historians would include the following:

- **Charles A. Beard**

Beard achieved lasting and controversial fame when he published *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* in 1913. Instead of dealing with the Constitution as a political document, he studied it in economic terms and concluded that the framers were motivated by economic self-interest. Even today, any discussion of the Constitution remains incomplete without acknowledgment of Beard's work.

- **Bruce Catton**

While not a particularly original researcher, Catton wrote numerous studies on the Civil War distinguished by a very high level of quality writing. His works, including the three-volume *Centennial History of the Civil War*, are of continuing interest.

- **Henry Steele Commager**

A specialist in American intellectual history, Commager is perhaps best known for his classic textbook and his *Documents in American History*, which has gone through numerous editions and remains an excellent collection of primary sources.

- **John Hope Franklin**

For many years, Franklin was the leading African-American historian in the United States, and his works, particularly *From Slavery to Freedom* (1947), are basic to understanding African-American historiography.

- **Richard Hofstadter**

Hofstadter had the rare talent of writing on a number of subjects, primarily in intellectual history, and having each of his books influence the work of his colleagues. Among his many books are *The American Political Tradition*, *The Age of Reform*, and *Anti-Intellectualism in American Life*.

- **William Leuchtenburg**

A specialist in recent American history, Leuchtenburg is best known for his informative and readable *Perils of Prosperity, 1914–1932* (1958) and his contribution to the New American Nation series, *Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal, 1932–1940* (1963).

- **Patricia Nelson Limerick**

Limerick gained attention in the early 1980s with her major revisions of Frederick Jackson Turner's view of western history. Her *Legacy of Conquest: The Unbroken Past of the American West* is considered a major contribution to western historiography.

- **Arthur S. Link**

Link is the major interpreter of the life of Woodrow Wilson. He is writing a multi-volume biography of Wilson, and his significant monographs includes *Woodrow Wilson and the Progressive Era*. Link is the chief editor of the Wilson papers. Any study of Wilson must begin with Link's work.

- **Vernon Parrington**

The leader of the Progressive historians, Parrington's major work is *Main Currents in American Thought* (1927–1930). His negative interpretation of the Puritans influenced the views of a generation of other scholars.

- **Arthur Schlesinger, Jr.**

The son of a noted historian, Schlesinger gained early attention with his *Age of Jackson*. His *Age of Roosevelt*, a three-volume study of Franklin Roosevelt and the New Deal, is an outstanding example of history writing that has captured a popular audience. An advisor to President Kennedy, he has also written *A Thousand Days: John F. Kennedy in the White House*.

- **Frederick Jackson Turner**

In 1893, Turner delivered a path-breaking address to the American Historical Association entitled "The Significance of the Frontier in American History." For many years afterward, his ideas of the frontier as the determining factor in shaping the American character were discussed and debated among historians. Never a prolific writer, Turner's essays have been collected in several books, the most important of which is *The Frontier in American History*.

Although it might appear from the list that American historical writing is dominated by men, women historians have certainly made and continue to make important contributions to the field. Women's history encompasses both general surveys of women in American life and monographs on such topics as women in the workplace. Leading American women historians include Susan Hartmann, Alice Kessler-Harris, and Susan Ware.

An Overview of United States History

The following overview of U.S. history concentrates on political and economic developments. Each of the twelve sections contains a brief outline of things to know about the period, a list of important individuals, events, and concepts, key definitions, and a short bibliography of helpful monographs for further reading. Tables present information about the Age of Exploration, the founding of the British colonies, the background to the American Revolution, the Supreme Court decisions of Chief Justice Marshall, events leading up to the Civil War, and the programs of the New Deal. If you want a more detailed summary of American history, we suggest you use *Cliffs Quick Review U.S. History I and II* (1998, 1999) by the authors.

The overview is best used as a study guide for tests in your AP class and for the AP exam itself. As you read your text, identify the items listed under Key Terms and Concepts in a sentence or two. Since it's impossible to include all the people, places, and things or define all the terms that you or your teacher find important, add to those provided here. You may want to use three-by-five index cards to better organize this part of your notes. Also, try your hand at making up additional tables — Supreme Court decisions dealing with civil rights or major American writers, for example. Tables are a good way of summarizing information on a theme or broad subject in U.S. history, particularly one that covers a long period of time.

Exploration and Colonization, 1492–1763

Things to Know

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

THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

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

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

ENGLISH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA

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

4. *Economic basis of colonies*: differences between New England, middle colonies, and southern colonies; role of agriculture, industry, and trade.
5. *Colonial society*: labor force — indentured servants and slaves; ethnic diversity — Germans, Scotch-Irish, Jews; status of women; relations between colonists and Native Americans; religious dimension — religious conformity vs. religious dissent; Puritanism, Great Awakening.
6. *Relations with Great Britain*: mercantilism and its early impact on colonies; impact of events in England — Restoration (1660) and Glorious Revolution (1688); colonial political institutions — assemblies and governors; Anglo-French rivalry in North America — French and Indian War.

Key Terms and Concepts

Mesoamerica

Great Biological Exchange

Line of Demarcation

Treaty of Tordesillas

lost colony of Roanoke

Virginia Company

Virginia House of Burgesses

William Bradford

Mayflower Compact

John Winthrop

"City on a Hill"

Salem witch trials

Roger Williams

Thomas Hooker

Pequot War

King Philip's War

Bacon's Rebellion

New Amsterdam

"Peaceable Kingdom"

Society of Friends

Maryland Toleration Act (1649)

Fundamental Orders of Connecticut (1639)

Restoration colonies

Dominion of New England

John Peter Zenger

Jonathan Edwards

George Whitefield

Leisler's Rebellion

Albany Plan of Union

Benjamin Franklin

Treaty of Paris (1763)

Important Definitions

Antinomianism: An interpretation of Puritan beliefs that stressed God's gift of salvation and minimized what an individual could do to gain salvation; identified with Anne Hutchinson.

enumerated articles: Under the English Navigation Acts, those commodities that could be shipped only to England or other English colonies; originally included sugar, tobacco, cotton, and indigo.

Great Awakening: Religious revival movement during the 1730s and 1740s; its leaders were George Whitefield and Jonathan Edwards; religious pluralism was promoted by the idea that all Protestant denominations were legitimate.

Great Migration: Settlement of over twenty thousand Puritans in Massachusetts Bay and other parts of New England between 1630 and 1642.

Half-Way Covenant: In 1662, Puritans permitted the baptized children of church members into a “half-way” membership in the congregation and allowed them to baptize their children; they still could not vote or take communion.

headright system: Method of attracting settlers to Virginia; after 1618, it gave fifty acres of land to anyone who paid for their own passage or for that of any other settlers who might be sent or brought to the colony.

indentured servants: Individuals who sold their labor for a fixed number of years in return for passage to the colonies; indentured servants were usually young, unemployed men and could be sold.

joint-stock company: The company sold shares of stock to finance the outfitting of overseas expeditions; colonies founded by joint-stock companies included Jamestown (Virginia Company) and New Amsterdam (Dutch West India Company).

mercantilism: Economic policy that held that the strength of a nation is based on the

amount of gold and silver it has; also, that the country needs a favorable balance of trade and that colonies exist for the good of the mother country as a source of raw materials and a market for manufactured goods.

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

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

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

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

Readings on Exploration and Colonization

Bailyn, Bernard. *The Peopling of British North America: An Introduction* (1986).

Boorstin, Daniel J. *The Americans: The Colonial Experience* (1958).

Greene, Jack P. and J. R. Pole, eds. *Colonial British America* (1984).

Hofstadter, Richard F. *America at 1750: A Social Portrait* (1971).

Nash, Gary B. *Red, White, and Black: The Peoples of Early America* (1982).

The American Revolution, 1763–1787

Things to Know

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

BRITISH IMPERIAL POLICY, 1764–1774

Parliamentary Act	Colonial Reaction
Sugar Act (1764): expanded the list of enumerated articles; stricter enforcement of trade regulations	
Currency Act (1764): colonies prohibited from issuing paper money	
Stamp Act (1765): tax on printed materials and legal documents	Virginia Resolves; Stamp Act Congress; Sons of Liberty
Quartering Act (1765): colonies to provide British troops with housing and provisions	
Townshend Acts (1767): external taxes on colonial imports	non-importation agreements; <i>Letters of a Farmer in Pennsylvania</i>
Tea Act (1773): monopoly to East India Company for tea sold in colonies	Boston Tea Party
Coercive Acts (1774): British response to Boston Tea Party, intended to punish Boston	First Continental Congress

3. *The American Revolution*: Key political and military events of the American Revolution, 1775–1783; change in attitude on independence; social consequences of Revolution — slavery, status of women; growth of religious toleration.
4. *United States under the Articles of Confederation*: accomplishments under the Articles — land policy and foreign relations; weaknesses of the Confederation; immediate background to the Constitutional Convention.

Key Terms and Concepts

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

Important Definitions

Committees of Correspondence: First established in Boston in 1772, the committees became a way for the colonies to state and communicate their grievances against Great Britain.

Critical Period: Term used by historians to describe the United States under the Articles of Confederation.

direct tax: British-imposed tax directly on the colonies that was intended to raise revenue; the Stamp Act was the first attempt by Parliament to impose a direct tax on the colonies.

indirect tax: A measure that raised revenue through the regulation of trade — the Sugar Act, for example.

Loyalists: Also known as Tories, the term refers to those Americans who remained loyal to Great Britain during the Revolution.

non-importation agreements: A form of protest against British policies; colonial merchants refused to import British goods.

“No taxation without representation”: The assertion that Great Britain had no right to tax the American colonies as long as they did not have their own representatives in Parliament.

virtual representation: The British argument that the American colonies were represented in Parliament, since the members of Parliament represented all Englishmen in the empire.

Whig ideology: Idea that concentrated power leads to corruption and tyranny; emphasis on balanced government where legislatures check the power of the executive.

Writs of Assistance: Search warrants that allowed British soldiers to search the houses or businesses of colonists.

Readings on the American Revolution

- Alden, John. *The American Revolution* (1969).
- Bailyn, Bernard. *The Ideological Origins of the American Revolution* (1967).
- Fiske, John M. *The Critical Period of American History, 1783–1789* (1883).
- Higginbotham, Don. *The War of American Independence* (1971).
- Jameson, John Franklin. *The American Revolution Considered as a Social Movement* (1926).
- MacLeod, Duncan J. *Slavery, Race and the American Revolution* (1974).
- Middlekauff, Robert. *The Glorious Cause: The American Revolution, 1763–1789* (1982).
- Quarles, Benjamin. *The Negro in the American Revolution* (1961).

The Constitution and the Federalists, 1787–1800

Things to Know

1. *The Constitution*: major compromises of the Constitutional Convention — representation, slavery, election of the President; principles embodied in the Constitution — separation of power and checks and balances; ratification — Federalists vs. Antifederalists; amendments to the Constitution.
2. *Washington as President*: development of the Cabinet; economic problems facing the early Republic and Hamilton's response; relations with Great Britain and France.
3. *Rise of political parties*: election of John Adams; issues that led to Republican opposition; relations with France and the Alien and Sedition Acts and Republican response; Jefferson and the "Revolution of 1800."

The Structure of Government under the Constitution

Article I: Legislative Branch (Congress)

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

Senate: Two senators from each state, chosen by state legislatures; serve six-year term; Vice President is President of the Senate and votes only in the event of tie; tries all impeachment cases; ratifies treaties and confirms appointments.

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

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

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

Article II: Executive Branch (President and Vice President)

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

Powers of the President: Commander-in-chief of army, navy, and state militia; make treaties and appointments of ambassadors, executive departments, and Supreme Court with “advice and consent of the Senate.”

Article III: Judicial Branch (Supreme Court)

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

Article IV: Relations with States

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

Article V: Amendment Process

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

Article VI: Supremacy Clause

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

Article VII: Ratification of Constitution

Ratification of Constitution requires nine of the thirteen states.

Amendments to the Constitution

Amendment I (1791): Freedom of religion, speech, press, and assembly; right of petition.

Amendment II (1791): Right to bear arms (militia).

Amendment III (1791): Limit on quartering of troops.

Amendment IV (1791): Protection against unreasonable search and seizure.

Amendment V (1791): Due process; double jeopardy; self-incrimination.

Amendment VI (1791): Right to speedy trial.

Amendment VII (1791): Trial by jury in civil cases.

Amendment VIII (1791): No excessive bail or fine; no cruel or unusual punishment.

Amendment IX (1791): People retain rights.

Amendment X (1791): Powers not delegated to United States to states or people.

Amendment XI (1798): States cannot be sued by individuals.

Amendment XII (1804): Electoral College.

Amendment XIII (1865): Abolition of slavery.

Amendment XIV (1868): Equal protection under the law.

Amendment XV (1870): Right to vote guaranteed irrespective of race, color, or former condition of slavery.

Amendment XVI (1913): Income tax.

Amendment XVII (1913): Direct election of senators.

Amendment XVIII (1919): Prohibition.

Amendment XIX (1920): Women gain right to vote.

Amendment XX (1933): End to lame-duck session of Congress; change in when President and Congress take office.

Amendment XXI (1933): Repeal of prohibition.

Amendment XXII (1951): Two-term limit for President.

Amendment XXIII (1961): Voting for President in District of Columbia.

Amendment XXIV (1964): Abolition of poll tax in national elections.

Amendment XXV (1967): Presidential succession.

Amendment XXVI (1971): Lower voting age to eighteen.

Amendment XXVII (1992): Congressional salaries.

Key Terms and Concepts

Virginia Plan	Bank of the United States
New Jersey Plan	strict/loose construction
Connecticut Compromise	protective tariff
3/5 Compromise	Whiskey Rebellion
census	impressment
Federalists	Citizen Genêt
Antifederalists	Jay's Treaty
<i>Federalist Papers</i>	Pinckney's Treaty
Alexander Hamilton	XYZ Affair
John Jay	John Adams
James Madison	Democratic-Republicans
Bill of Rights	Alien and Sedition Acts
Judiciary Act of 1789	Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions
Executive departments — State, Treasury, War, Attorney General	Aaron Burr election of 1800

Important Definitions

Antifederalists: Opposed to a strong central government; saw undemocratic tendencies in the Constitution and insisted on the inclusion of the Bill of Rights. Included Thomas Jefferson, James Monroe, and Patrick Henry.

checks and balances: System embodied in the Constitution through which the power of each branch of government is limited by the other; the President's authority to veto legislation and Congress's power to override that veto are examples.

Compact theory of government: The idea that the Constitution was a compact of sovereign states, and when the government exceeded its limited powers, the states had the right to take action. This idea is reflected in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions.

enumerated powers: Powers specifically given to Congress in the Constitution; including the power to collect taxes, coin

money, regulate foreign and interstate commerce, and declare war.

Federalists: Supporters of a strong central government; stressed the importance of maintaining the social order and the rights of property. Included George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, and James Madison.

loose construction: Constitution is broadly interpreted, recognizing that it could not possibly anticipate all future developments; relies on idea of implied powers and the "necessary and proper" clause. Both views on how to interpret the Constitution came up during the debate on chartering the Bank of the United States.

protective tariff: A tax on goods imported into the country that is intended to protect manufacturing and industry from foreign competition.

separation of powers: The structure of the government provided for in the Constitution where authority is divided between the executive, legislative, and judicial branches; idea comes from Montesquieu's *Spirit of the Laws*.

strict construction: Constitution is narrowly interpreted to give the federal government only those powers specifically delegated to it.

supremacy clause: The Constitution, treaties entered into by the United States, and laws passed by Congress are superior to state laws.

Readings on the Constitution and the Federalists

Appleby, Joyce. *Capitalism and a New Social Order: The Republican Vision of the 1790s* (1984).

Beard, Charles A. *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (1913).

Collier, Christopher and James Collier. *Decision in Philadelphia* (1986).

Cunliffe, Marcus. *The Nation Takes Shape, 1789–1837* (1959).

Main, Jackson T. *The Anti-Federalists* (1961).

Miller, John C. *The Federalist Era, 1789–1800* (1960).

Morris, Richard. *Witnesses at the Creation: Hamilton, Madison, Jay and the Constitution* (1985).

Jeffersonian and Jacksonian Democracy, 1800–1840

Things to Know

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

KEY DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT UNDER JOHN MARSHALL

Case	Significance
<i>Marbury v. Madison</i> (1803)	first time an act of Congress declared unconstitutional; establishes principle of judicial review
<i>Fletcher v. Peck</i> (1810)	first time a state law declared unconstitutional; contract clause of the Constitution overrode state law
<i>Dartmouth College v. Woodward</i> (1819)	the charter of a private corporation is protected under the Constitution
<i>McCulloch v. Maryland</i> (1819)	upheld constitutionality of Bank of the United States; example of loose construction of the Constitution
<i>Gibbons v. Ogden</i> (1824)	affirmed federal control of interstate commerce under commerce clause of the Constitution

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

Key Terms and Concepts

Judiciary Act of 1801

midnight judges

judicial review

Lewis and Clark Expedition

Embargo Act of 1807

Non-Intercourse Act

Henry Clay

John C. Calhoun

Daniel Webster

Francis Scott Key

Battle of New Orleans

Treaty of Ghent

Hartford Convention

Rush-Bagot Agreement

factory system
 National Road
 Erie Canal
 Adams-Onís Treaty
 Monroe Doctrine
 Noah Webster
 Washington Irving
 James Fenimore Cooper

Democrat-Republicans
 National-Republicans
 Trail of Tears
 spoils system
 Maysville Road veto
 Tariff of Abominations
 Webster-Hayne debate
 Independent Treasury Act

Important Definitions

American System: Economic program advanced by Henry Clay that included support for a national bank, high tariffs, and internal improvements; emphasized strong role for federal government in the economy.

corrupt bargain: Refers to the claim from the supporters of Andrew Jackson that John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay had worked out a deal to ensure that Adams was elected President by the House of Representatives in 1824.

Era of Good Feelings: Refers to the period after the War of 1812, during the presidency of James Monroe, when competition among political parties was at a low ebb.

impressment: British practice of taking American sailors from American ships and forcing them into the British navy; a factor in the War of 1812.

internal improvements: Included roads, canals, railroads; essentially, an internal transportation network that would bind the country together.

judicial review: The right of the Supreme Court to declare a law passed by Congress unconstitutional; the principle was established in *Marbury v. Madison*.

Kitchen Cabinet: Informal group of friends who advised Jackson during his administration. Jackson believed that the “official” Cabinet’s main function was to carry out his orders.

nullification: The theory advanced by John Calhoun in response to the Tariff of 1828; states, acting through a popular convention, could declare a law passed by Congress “null and void”; the roots of the idea go back to Jefferson’s compact theory of government.

pet banks: A term used by Jackson’s opponents to describe the state banks that the federal government used for new revenue deposits in an attempt to destroy the Second Bank of the United States; the practice continued after the charter for the Second Bank expired in 1836.

spoils system: Essentially, political patronage; public offices went to political supporters during Jackson’s presidency.

War Hawks: Those nationalist members of Congress who strongly supported war with Great Britain on the eve of the War of 1812; included Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun.

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Sectionalism and Expansion, 1840–1860

Things to Know

1. *Rise of sectionalism*: economic issue — industrial North vs. agricultural South; immigration and nativism; slavery and sectionalism — Missouri Compromise; slavery in the territories after the Mexican War — Compromise of 1850.
2. *Manifest Destiny*: Texas independence and the issue of annexation; election of James Polk — Texas and Oregon as issues; acquisition of Oregon; war with Mexico — Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
3. *Intellectual and cultural trends*: rise of an American literature — major writers; major reform movements — abolitionists; temperance; women's rights; utopian communities; rise of public education.
4. *The coming of the Civil War*: key events after 1850: *Uncle Tom's Cabin*; Kansas-Nebraska Act; Dred Scott decision; Lincoln-Douglas debates; John Brown's raid; election of Lincoln.

Key Terms and Concepts

cotton gin
Nat Turner's rebellion
American Colonization Society
Elias Howe
Irish potato famine
Know-Nothing party
Wilmot Proviso

popular sovereignty
Free Soil party
Stephen Douglas
Compromise of 1850
Fugitive Slave Law
Webster-Ashburton Treaty
Mormons

Joseph Smith
 Brigham Young
 Treaty of 1846
 Texas independence
 Mexican cession
 Gadsden Purchase
 Edgar Allan Poe
 Nathaniel Hawthorne
 Herman Melville
 Henry David Thoreau
 Ralph Waldo Emerson

Walt Whitman
 Dorothea Dix
 William Lloyd Garrison
 Frederick Douglass
 Sarah Grimké
 Elizabeth Cady Stanton
 Lucretia Mott
 Seneca Falls Declaration of Sentiments
 Horace Mann
 Harriet Beecher Stowe
 Dred Scott decision

Important Definitions

“Bleeding Kansas”: The virtual civil war that erupted in Kansas in 1856 between proslavery and free soilers as a consequence of the Kansas-Nebraska Act.

“Fifty-four forty or fight”: Political slogan of the Democrats in the election of 1844, which claimed fifty-four degrees, forty minutes as the boundary of the Oregon territory claimed by the United States. The Treaty of 1846 with Great Britain set the boundary at the forty-ninth parallel.

Freeport Doctrine: The position on slavery taken by Stephen Douglas during the debates with Lincoln in 1858. Slavery could not exist if local legislation did not accept it. Douglas refused to say whether he believed slavery was right or wrong.

“free soil”: The idea surfaced after the Mexican War that Congress had the authority to ban slavery in the newly acquired territories. It was embodied in the Wilmot Proviso. The advocates of “free soil” formed their own political party in 1848, and Martin Van Buren was their candidate for President.

Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854): Created two new territories with slavery decided by popular sovereignty; it effectively repealed the

Missouri Compromise as it applied to slavery north of the Compromise line.

Manifest Destiny: Americans had the God-given right to spread their institutions and culture across the continent; it was the ideological justification for territorial expansion in the 1840s.

nativism: Response to the increased immigration in the 1840s, it reflected a fear that the United States was being taken over by foreigners. Nativism found a political expression in the American party, also known as the Know-Nothing party, which was founded in 1854 on a program of controlling immigration and requiring a longer naturalization period; the party was strongly anti-Catholic.

popular sovereignty: Proposed by Senator Lewis Cass, it meant that the decision to permit slavery in a territory was up to the territorial legislature; it was incorporated into the Compromise of 1850 for New Mexico and Utah territories.

transcendentalism: American expression of the Romantic movement that emphasized the limits of reason, individual freedom, and nature; best represented by Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau, the author of *Walden* and *Civil Disobedience*.

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Civil War and Reconstruction, 1860–1877

Things to Know

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

Key Terms and Concepts

Fort Sumter
Jefferson Davis
Anaconda Plan
First Battle of Bull Run
Antietam
U. S. Grant
Robert E. Lee
George McClellan
Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson
Shiloh
Vicksburg
Monitor
Merrimac

Sherman's March to the Sea
Gettysburg
Chancellorsville
Appomattox
Mathew Brady
Morrill Land Grant Act
Pacific Railroad Act
National Bank Act
Wade-Davis Bill
John Wilkes Booth
Thirteenth-Fifteenth Amendments
Civil Rights Act of 1866
Andrew Johnson

Radical Republicans
 Freedmen's Bureau
 Reconstruction Acts (1867)
 tenant farms

contract labor system
 Ku Klux Klan
 Force Acts
 election of 1876

Important Definitions

Black Codes: Passed by state legislatures in 1865–1866; granted former slaves right to marry, sue, testify in court, and hold property but with significant qualifications.

Border States: Slave states — Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri — that remained loyal to the Union; the secession of these states would have considerably strengthened the South.

Carpentbaggers: Derogatory term for Northern Republicans who were involved in Southern politics during Radical Reconstruction.

Compromise of 1877: Rutherford B. Hayes and other Republicans agreed that U.S. troops would be withdrawn from the South, agreed to appoint a Southerner to the Cabinet, and pledged federal projects to the South in return for an end to Democratic opposition to official counting of the electoral votes for the disputed election of 1876.

Copperheads: Northern Democrats, also known as Peace Democrats, who opposed Lincoln's war policies and were concerned with the growth of presidential power. In the election of 1864, General George McClellan was nominated by the Democrats with their support.

Ex Parte Milligan (1866): Supreme Court decision involving presidential war powers; civilians could not be tried in military courts in wartime when the federal courts were functioning.

Presidential Reconstruction: Put forward by Andrew Johnson, it included repeal of ordinances of secession, repudiation of Confederate debts, and ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment. By the end of 1865, only Texas had failed to meet these terms.

Radical Reconstruction: Provided for dividing states into military districts with military commanders to oversee voter registration that included adult African-American males for state conventions; state conventions to draft constitutions that provided for suffrage for black men; state legislatures to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment.

Scalawags: Term used to describe Southern white Republicans who had opposed secession.

sharecropping: Common form of farming for freed slaves in the South; received a small plot of land, seed, fertilizer, tools from the landlord who decided what and how much should be planted; landlord usually took half of the harvest.

“Ten-Percent Plan”: Lincoln's Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction (December 1863) provided that new state governments could be established in the South when ten percent of the qualified voters in 1860 took an oath of loyalty.

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The Gilded Age, 1877–1900

Things to Know

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

Key Terms and Concepts

Comstock Lode
Central Pacific Railroad
Union Pacific Railroad
Promontory Point
long drive
Joseph Glidden
Great American Desert

Sand Creek massacre
Battle of the Little Bighorn
Nez Percé
Chief Joseph
Helen Hunt Jackson
Wounded Knee
Jim Crow laws

1883 *Civil Rights Cases*

Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)

Thomas Edison

John D. Rockefeller

Standard Oil

Andrew Carnegie

J. Pierpont Morgan

Horatio Alger

horizontal/vertical combinations

Social Darwinism

Sherman Anti-Trust Act

National Labor Union

Knights of Labor

Terence Powderly

American Federation of Labor

Samuel Gompers

company town

closed shop

The Grange

long vs. short haul

Munn v. Illinois

Interstate Commerce Commission

subtreasury plan

William Jennings Bryan

spoils system/merit system

Greenback party

Pendleton Civil Service Act

Grand Army of the Republic

Sherman Silver Purchase Act

McKinley Tariff

William Marcy Tweed

Social Gospel

Salvation Army

YMCA

New Immigration

Chinese Exclusion Act

Important Definitions

Atlanta Compromise: Argument put forward by Booker T. Washington that African-Americans should not focus on civil rights or social equality but concentrate on economic self-improvement.

craft unions: Labor organizations whose members were skilled workers in a particular craft — for example, carpenters, masons, or cigar makers. The American Federation of Labor was composed of individual craft unions.

“Crime of ’73”: Through the Coinage Act of 1873, the United States ended the minting of silver dollars and placed the country on the gold standard. This was attacked by those who supported an inflationary monetary policy, particularly farmers, and believed in the unlimited coinage of silver.

Dawes Act (1887): Changed the reservation system by granting 160 acres and U.S. citizenship to Native American heads of families who agreed to give up their tribal allegiance.

Gilded Age: The name applied to the 1870s and 1880s during which national politics was characterized by party rivalries, the spoils system, and unregulated business competition. The term comes from the title of a novel written by Mark Twain and Charles Dudley Warner.

long vs. short haul: The railroad practice to charge higher rates on lines where there was no competition than on routes where several lines were operating. This often meant that the cost of shipping goods a short distance was greater than over a long distance.

Mugwumps: Reform Republicans who refused to support James Blaine, the party's candidate in the election of 1884.

“Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion”: An insult made against New York Irish-Americans by a Republican clergyman in the 1884 election; Republican candidate James Blaine's failure to repudiate this statement lost him New York and contributed to his defeat by Grover Cleveland.

Social Gospel: Religious response to the problems created by industrialization and urbanization in the late nineteenth century; supporters of the Social Gospel supported child labor laws, civil service reform, and control of the trusts.

Stalwarts and Half-Breeds: Factions in the Republican party that emerged by 1880; the Stalwarts, led by Senator Roscoe Conkling,

supported the spoils system, while the Half-Breeds claimed to represent the idea of civil service reform.

trust: A form of business organization in which a group of corporations in the same industry gave their stock in the individual companies to a board of trustees in return for stock certificates that earned dividends. The trust effectively eliminated competition by giving control to the board. The earliest example is the Standard Oil Trust that controlled ninety percent of the oil refineries and pipelines.

Turner Thesis: The historian Frederick Jackson Turner argued that the frontier was the key factor in the development of American democracy and institutions; he maintained that the frontier served as a “safety valve” during periods of economic crisis.

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The United States at Home and Abroad, 1896–1920

Things to Know

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

Key Terms and Concepts

Robert M. La Follette

Ida Tarbell

Lincoln Steffens

Upton Sinclair

Frank Norris

progressive constitutional amendments:
Sixteenth–Nineteenth Amendments

Gifford Pinchot

Northern Securities case

Hepburn Act

Meat Inspection Act

Pure Food and Drug Act

Payne–Aldrich Tariff

Eugene Debs

Bull Moose party

Underwood Tariff

Clayton Anti-Trust Act

Federal Reserve Act

Federal Trade Commission

Josiah Strong

Alfred Thayer Mahan

De Lôme Letter

Teller Resolution

Emilio Aguinaldo

Open Door Policy

Boxer Rebellion

Treaty of Portsmouth

Gentlemen’s Agreement

Platt Amendment

Roosevelt Corollary

Pancho Villa

General John J. Pershing

Lusitania

Sussex pledge
Zimmermann telegram
unrestricted submarine warfare
Treaty of Brest-Litovsk
Selective Service Act
War Industries Board

Creel Committee
Fourteen Points
Paris Peace Conference
Treaty of Versailles
Henry Cabot Lodge

Important Definitions

The Big Four: Refers to the allied leaders at the Paris Peace Conference: Wilson (United States), Georges Clemenceau (France), David Lloyd George (Great Britain), Vittorio Orlando (Italy).

Dollar Diplomacy: President Taft's policy of promoting U.S. interests overseas by encouraging American business to invest in foreign countries, particularly in the Caribbean and Central America.

Insular Cases: The Supreme Court cases (1901–1903) that dealt with the constitutional rights in the newly acquired overseas territories. The Court ruled that the Constitution did not necessarily follow the flag, and therefore Congress was to determine how to administer the territories.

Irreconcilables: Senators opposed to ratification of the Treaty of Versailles on any grounds; led by isolationists William Borah, Hiram Johnson, and Robert La Follette.

Muckrakers: A group of investigative reporters who pointed out the abuses of big business and the corruption of urban politics; included Frank Norris (*The Octopus*), Ida Tarbell (*A History of the Standard Oil Company*), Lincoln Steffens (*The Shame of the Cities*), and Upton Sinclair (*The Jungle*).

New Freedom: Woodrow Wilson's program put forward during the election of 1912; business competition could be restored by breaking up the trusts, but Wilson did not

believe in having the federal government control the economy.

New Nationalism: Program that Theodore Roosevelt ran on in the election of 1912; large corporations had to be controlled and regulated by a strong President and the federal government that would protect the rights of women, labor, and children.

referendum, recall, direct primary: Ways in which the Progressives hoped to bring about direct democracy; *referendum* gives the voters the right to accept or reject a piece of legislation; *recall* is a mechanism for removing an officeholder before the end of his or her term; *direct primary* allows the voters rather than the political bosses to nominate a party's candidate for office.

Reservationists: Members of the Senate who were ready to ratify the Treaty of Versailles with modifications; the group is often divided into the "mild" Reservationists, who wanted only minor changes, and the "strong" Reservationists, who favored the significant changes advocated by Henry Cabot Lodge.

yellow journalism: Refers to the treatment of the Cuban Revolution that exaggerated the Spanish atrocities; the sensational stories in William Randolph Hearst's *New York Journal* and Joseph Pulitzer's *New York World* were a factor in the U.S. declaration of war against Spain in 1898.

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Prosperity and Depression, 1920–1940

Things to Know

1. *Politics of prosperity*: period of Republican ascendancy — Harding, Coolidge, Hoover; political scandals, economic policy (“business of America is business”), election of 1928 and Al Smith.
2. *Social and cultural aspects of prosperity*: “Roaring Twenties” vs. conservatism — background of Red Scare, immigration policy, KKK, Scopes trial, religious fundamentalism; writers of the “Lost Generation”; consumer culture.
3. *The coming of the Depression*: problems in agriculture and other indicators of economic weakness — stock speculation and stock market crash; Hoover’s response to the onset of the Depression.
4. *Roosevelt and the New Deal*: New Deal — conservative or revolutionary; major New Deal legislation and agencies; New Deal and the Supreme Court; did the New Deal end the Depression?

ALPHABET SOUP: NEW DEAL AGENCIES, 1933–1938

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

Key Terms and Concepts

Ohio Gang

Teapot Dome scandal

Secretary of the Treasury Andrew Mellon

Budget and Accounting Act

Bureau of the Budget

Dawes Plan

Veterans Bureau

Bonus bill

Hawley-Smoot Tariff

A. Mitchell Palmer

National Origins Act of 1924

Sacco and Vanzetti

Charles Lindbergh

T. S. Eliot

F. Scott Fitzgerald

Theodore Dreiser

Sinclair Lewis

Ernest Hemingway

Gertrude Stein

Harlem Renaissance —

Langston Hughes

Marcus Garvey

McNary-Haugen Bill

Reconstruction Finance Corporation
bank holidays

Harry Hopkins

Huey Long

Father Coughlin

Francis Townsend

John Steinbeck

Indian Reorganization Act

Social Security Act

Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins

Congress of Industrial Organizations
(CIO)

Alf Landon

Important Definitions

Bonus Army: Unemployed World War I veterans who came to Washington in the spring of 1932 to demand the immediate payment of the bonus Congress had voted them in 1922. The veterans were forcibly removed from Anacostia Flats by federal troops.

court packing proposal: In the wake of Supreme Court decisions that declared key piece of New Deal legislation unconstitutional, Roosevelt proposed increasing the number of justices. If a justice did not retire at age seventy, the President could appoint an additional justice up to a maximum of six.

deficit spending: The English economist John Maynard Keynes proposed that governments cut taxes and increase spending in order to stimulate investment and consumption. The effect was to increase the deficit because more money was spent than was taken in.

Hoovervilles: Shantytowns that the unemployed built in the cities during the early years of the Depression; the name given to them shows that the people blamed Hoover directly for the Depression.

Lost Generation: Term coined by Gertrude Stein to describe American expatriate writers of the 1920s; include T. S. Eliot, F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, and Stein herself.

100 Days: Period from March to June 1933 when Congress passed major legislation submitted by Roosevelt to deal with the Depression.

Return to Normalcy: Campaign theme of Warren Harding during the election of 1920; it reflected the conservative mood of the country after the constant appeals to idealism that characterized both the Progressive Era and Wilson's fight over the League of Nations.

Roaring Twenties: Popular image of the decade as a period of prosperity, optimism, and changing morals; symbolized best by the "flapper."

Share the Wealth: Program of Huey Long that proposed the redistribution of income of the rich to give every American a guaranteed annual income of \$2,000 to \$3,000, old-age pensions, money for a college education, and veterans benefits.

Sick Chicken Case: In *Schechter Poultry v. U.S.*, the Supreme Court struck down the National Industrial Recovery Act as unconstitutional. The decision encouraged Roosevelt to consider ways to change the makeup of the Court.

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America at War, 1941–1945

Things to Know

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

Key Terms and Concepts

Washington Disarmament Conference

London Naval Conference

Kellogg-Briand Pact

Dawes and Young Plans

Clark Memorandum

Stimson Doctrine

Good Neighbor Policy

Nye Committee

Neutrality Acts, 1935–1937

Panay incident

“Quarantine the Aggressor”

Neutrality Act of 1939

Lend-Lease Act

Atlantic Charter

America First Committee

Casablanca Conference

Operation Overlord

Teheran Conference

Yalta Conference

Potsdam Conference

Manhattan Project

J. Robert Oppenheimer

Hiroshima and Nagasaki

Executive Order 9066

Manzanar

A. Philip Randolph

War Production Board

Office of Price Administration

Office of War Information

War Labor Board

Wendell Willkie

Thomas Dewey

Important Definitions

blitzkrieg: German term meaning “lightning war”; term applied to the rapid German military advance into Poland, Denmark, Norway, Belgium, Netherlands, and France in 1939 and 1940.

Bracero Program: Wartime agreement between the United States and Mexico to import farm workers to meet a perceived manpower shortage; the agreement was in effect from 1941 to 1947.

cash and carry: Key provisions of the Neutrality Act of 1939 that allowed the United States to sell arms and other contraband as long as nations paid cash and shipped the goods on their own vessels.

Europe First: Military strategy adopted by the United States that required concentrating on the defeat of Germany while maintaining a holding action against Japan in the Pacific.

Final Solution: Plan for the extermination of the Jewish population in Nazi-occupied Europe; a total of six million Jews were killed in death camps such as those established at Auschwitz, Belzec, Majdanek, Sobibor, and Treblinka.

internment: Detaining enemy aliens during wartime; term specifically applied to Japanese aliens and Japanese-Americans living on the West Coast who were sent to relocation centers (Manzanar) in 1942 allegedly because of possible disloyalty.

kamikaze: Literally “divine wind,” Japanese term for fighter pilots who crashed their planes into American warships during the latter stages of World War II.

merchants of death: Term used by Senator Gerald P. Nye to describe the munition-makers whom he blamed for forcing the United States into World War I. Nye headed a committee that investigated the industry from 1934 to 1936.

Rosie the Riveter: Term that came to symbolize all women who worked in defense plants and other industries during World War II.

second front: British and American invasion of France to relieve pressure on the Soviet Union in the east; Stalin had insisted on opening the second front from June 1941, but the invasion of Normandy (Operation Overlord) did not take place until June 1944.

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The United States As a Superpower, 1945–Present

Things to Know

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

Key Terms and Concepts

San Francisco Conference
Central Intelligence Agency
Marshall Plan
Berlin airlift
Warsaw Pact
Korean War

Secretary of State John Foster Dulles
SEATO
CENTO
ANZUS
Suez crisis
U-2 incident

Bay of Pigs invasion
 Cuban missile crisis
 Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty
 Berlin Wall
 Peace Corps
 Six-Day War
 Yom Kippur War
 Dien Bien Phu
 Vietminh
 Vietcong
 Gulf of Tonkin Resolution
 Ho Chi Minh Trail
 Tet offensive
 My Lai massacre
 Khmer Rouge
 Paris Peace Accords

Henry Kissinger
 Salvador Allende
 SALT
 ABM Treaty
 OPEC
 Arab oil embargo
 Solidarity
 Camp David Accords
 Iranian hostage crisis
 Panama Canal Treaty
 Grenada invasion
 Sandinistas/Contras
 Iran/Contra
glasnost
 perestroika

Important Definitions

brinkmanship: The policy associated with Secretary of State John Foster Dulles that stressed that Soviet aggression would be met by massive nuclear retaliation; Dulles was opposed to simply “containing” the USSR and wanted to liberate the countries under Soviet control.

containment: American foreign policy adopted after World War II to restrain the expansion of the Soviet Union. It was based on the belief that the USSR does not take risks and would back down if faced with determined opposition. The policy was developed by Foreign Service officer George Kennan in 1947.

detente: Policy toward the USSR developed by President Nixon and Henry Kissinger focused on easing tensions through negotiations, particularly on arms reductions — for example, the first **SALT** treaty (1972).

Eisenhower Doctrine: The United States was prepared to use force in the Middle East against aggression from any country controlled by the Soviet Union (1957).

military-industrial complex: In his farewell address in 1961, Eisenhower warned of the danger posed by a strong defense industry and the armed forces; despite his own background, Eisenhower wanted to control military spending.

shuttle diplomacy: Henry Kissinger’s diplomatic efforts in the Middle East in early 1974 led to the withdrawal of Israeli troops from the west bank of the Suez Canal and disengagement between Israel and Syria on the Golan Heights.

summit diplomacy: Meetings between world leaders, usually the United States and the Soviet Union, to discuss bilateral issues and matters of mutual concern — for example, nuclear disarmament; the first summit conference took place in 1955 in Geneva.

Truman Doctrine: In response to the Greek Civil War in 1947, the United States provided economic and military aid to both Greece and Turkey. The United States would support “free peoples” against armed minorities or outside pressure.

Vietnamization: President Nixon’s policy of withdrawing troops from Vietnam and turning the fighting over to the South Vietnamese with massive amounts of American supplies.

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Contemporary America, 1945–Present

Things to Know

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

Key Terms and Concepts

GI Bill of Rights	revenue sharing
Taft-Hartley Act	energy crisis
McCarran Act	WIN
HUAC	Kent State
Alger Hiss case	hippies
Rosenbergs	Chicago Democratic Convention
Youngstown Sheet and Tube v. Sawyer	CREEP
Adlai Stevenson	Reaganomics
Senator Joseph McCarthy	Rosa Parks
Brown v. Board of Education	Martin Luther King, Jr.
AFL-CIO	Civil Rights Act of 1964
Gideon v. Wainwright	Voting Rights Act of 1965
Office of Economic Opportunity	black power
War on Poverty	Black Muslims — Malcolm X
Medicare	<i>Board of Regents v. Bakke</i>
Immigration Act of 1965	National Organization for Women
Jack Kerouac	Betty Friedan
Students for a Democratic Society (SDS)	ERA
Woodstock	<i>Roe v. Wade</i>
Environmental Protection Agency	Cesar Chavez — UFW
	American Indian movement

Important Definitions

baby boom: The significant increase in the birth rate from 1946 through 1957; the rise in population contributed to the growth of the suburbs, consumer culture, and the sharp increase in college enrollments in the 1960s.

Dixiecrats: Southern Democrats who bolted the party following the adoption of a civil rights plank at the 1948 convention; ran Strom Thurmond as their candidate in 1948 as the States' Rights party.

Fair Deal: President Truman's domestic policy (1948) that included civil rights and an extension and enlargement of the New

Deal — health insurance, federal aid to education, public housing, and repeal of the Taft-Hartley Act.

Great Society: President Johnson's domestic program that included Medicare, civil rights legislation, the War on Poverty; funding for the programs suffered because of the costs of the Vietnam War.

Modern Republicanism: Represented by President Eisenhower, it combined acceptance of the basic features of the New Deal with a conservative economic policy, particularly controlling government spending.

New Federalism: President Nixon's program to return power and tax dollars to the states and cities; the key aspect was revenue sharing, which distributed \$30 billion in revenues to the states.

stagflation: High inflation combined with high unemployment and a declining gross national product; used to describe economic condition of the country in the mid-1970s.

supply-side economics: President Reagan's economic policy; reduction in taxes would

give people more spendable income and in turn lead to business expansion and more jobs. The policy did increase the federal deficit.

Warren Court: Under Chief Justice Earl Warren (1953–1969), an activist Supreme Court became an important instrument of social and political change, particularly in the areas of civil rights and civil liberties.

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