

COLONIAL PERIOD – RELIGION (THEME #1)

Jamestown/Virginia colony – not founded on basis of religion but economics by joint-stock company; when it became successful it was due to the cash crop tobacco maintaining economic, not religious focus

Plymouth Colony (1620)

- Pilgrims were Separatists who wanted to separate from Church of England
- Mayflower Compact – established a limited form of democracy for the colony

Great Migration (1630s) – Puritans migrated to Mass. escaping persecution

- Massachusetts Bay colony founded in 1629 (govt. in Salem, Mass.)
- Colony dominated by Puritans and self-governing
- Puritans wanted to reform or “purify” the Church of England and were persecuted in England
- Puritan church membership required for voting (these members called saints)

“City Upon a Hill” – name given to the colony by Governor John Winthrop

- wanted the colony to be a godly community that would shame the Church of England, by being such a great example of what society could be like
- emphasis on charity and helping the poor; away from materialism and social class

The New England Way – a set of orthodox practices for Puritans to follow

- this was established partly through education (each town was to have a teacher)
- need for properly trained ministers led to founding of colleges (Harvard in 1636)
- blue laws passed to restrain unwanted behaviors (for example prohibiting business activities on Sundays, whistling, cursing, or dancing, etc.)
- cooperation between church and state
 - o required attendance at church and to pay set rates (tithe) to support church
 - o meetinghouse used for religious services and town meetings

Weakening of Puritanism – over time the hold of Puritans on New England society diminished

- Roger Williams – argued civil govt. should remain absolutely uninvolved with religious matters for which he was banished from the colony in 1635
 - o Went on to found Rhode Island (only New England colony with religious toleration) in 1636
- Anne Hutchinson – angered ministers by holding Bible discussions at home, and for questioning their authority and for encouraging people to look inward for salvation, further she was a woman and they were not to step out of their prescribed roles
 - o Believed one’s good works on earth were the key to salvation
 - o Her followers, branded Antinomians by Winthrop, grew in numbers and they even elected their own governor for one term
 - o When Winthrop regained the governor position he held a trial and she and other leading Antinomians were banished from the colony (most went to Rhode Island)
- Halfway Covenant – would permit the children of baptized adults, including non-saints, to receive baptism (allowing founders’ descendants to transmit church membership to their grandchildren even if their parents elected to become saints because of the public conversion experience)
 - o Prevented the numbers of saints from dwindling, but signaled a weakening in the church
- Restoration (1660) – ended Puritan rule of England following the English Civil War and hurt the power of Puritans in America
- Salem Witch Trials – accusations in Salem revolving around some girls and witchcraft led to a series of further accusations which split the town
 - o Became a conflict over class as Winthrop’s vision of a nearly classless society had turned into a society with a growing wealthy class and with a jealous poorer class that turned on the rich

Maryland founded (1634) – Lord Baltimore founds this proprietary colony as a haven for Catholics

- Catholics in England faced persecution (they couldn’t worship in public, had to pay tithes to the Church of England, and were barred from holding political office)
- Despite the intent, Protestants quickly bought up much of the land in Maryland and they began to outnumber the Catholics
- Act of Religious Toleration (1642) – passed by the Puritan dominated assembly making it the second colony to allow freedom of religion
- Battle of Severn River (1654) – Protestant majority barred Catholics from voting, ousted a pro-tolerance Governor, William Stone, and repealed the toleration act
 - o 1665 Stone raised an army of both faiths to regain the govt. but was defeated in this battle and he was imprisoned and Catholic leaders were hung
 - o Protestants encouraged to do this due to the English Civil War won by the Protestants in Parliament

Pennsylvania founded (1684) – William Penn founds this proprietary colony after the land was given to his father by King Charles II to repay an old debt

- Penn wanted to make it a “holy experiment” based on the teaching of radical preacher George Fox whose followers were known as the Society of Friends (Quakers)
 - o Appealed to men and women on the bottom of society

- Attracted some intellectual elites (like Penn) for its quiet introspection
 - Believed the holy spirit or "inner light" could inspire every soul
 - Disavowed a need for clergy and a formal creed
 - Core beliefs included spiritual state more important than wealth; informally addressed all from any social class; would not swear oaths; women given equality; refused to bear arms
 - For these reasons they faced intense persecution in Europe
 - Colony allowed freedom of religion (which allowed it to grow rapidly)
 - Philadelphia (City of Brotherly Love) was a planned city for its capitol
- Great Awakening (begins in 1739) – an outpouring of Protestant revivalism
- Begun by George Whitefield who traveled America giving sermons with his amazing oratorical skills by getting people to feel a direct connection with God
 - cut across class lines, gender and even race
 - unleashed people's anxieties over salvation in a time when religious fervor had previously faded
 - charismatic preachers appealed directly to them through their emotions
 - depicted emptiness of materialism, corruption of human nature, fury of divine wrath, and the need for immediate repentance
 - "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God" – famous sermon by Jonathan Edwards

COLONIAL PERIOD – ECONOMICS & POLITICS (THEME #2)

Spain's colonies (starting after Columbus' first voyage)

- characterized by exploitation and mistreatment of Native Americans as slaves
- Encomienda system for plantations, ranches, and mines with slave labor
- African slaves brought in after enslaved Native Americans died (mostly disease)
- Columbian exchange of goods between continents bring changes to both
- Mestizos – mixed Spanish and Indian blood (few Spanish women in New World)
- St. Augustine (1565) – first permanent European settlement on U.S. soil
- Missionaries attempting to convert natives had few successes in northern areas (some rebelled violently, often most converts died of diseases)

England (under Queen Elizabeth I) defeats the Spanish Armada (1588) – ends age of Spanish invincibility and leads to further exploration and settlement in New World by other European nations

Stuart Dynasty

James I (1603-1625) & Charles I (1625-1649)

- Catholics that upset Puritans
- Charles I tried to tax without Parliament's consent

Jamestown founded (1607) – led by Captain John Smith and funded by the Virginia Co.

- became profitable after John Rolfe planted tobacco there
- headright system (50 acres of land per person to who paid for their voyage over)
- indentured servants (often 5-7 years) – work for who paid for your voyage
- Virginia's House of Burgesses (1st legislative assembly) started in 1619
- James I revokes Virginia Co. charter in 1624 making it a royal colony

New France founded (1608) – colony based on fur trade which led to close ties with the neighboring tribes

- characterized by slow population growth as families didn't arrive
- religious dissidents not allowed to settle there, further slowing growth
- Battle of Lake Champlain cemented French alliance with Hurons against Mohawks
- France claimed Louisiana (land west of Appalachian Mountains to Rocky Mtns.)

New Netherlands founded (1614) – after exploration up Hudson River by Henry Hudson

- profited off of fur trade depending on neighboring tribes (like the French)

Mayflower Compact (1620) – established a limited form of democracy for the new colony Plymouth which they were founding

Great Migration (1630s) – Puritans migrated to Mass. escaping persecution

- Massachusetts Bay colony founded in 1629
- ultimately colony of Plymouth swallowed up by the larger Massachusetts colony
- Puritan church membership required for voting (these members called saints)
- Greater percentage of Mass. population could vote than in England
- Town meetings

Maryland founded (1634) – Lord Baltimore founds this proprietary colony as a haven for Catholics

Rhode Island founded (1636) – by religious dissenter Roger Williams

New Sweden founded in 1638 – its major contribution to America was the log cabin

- taken by New Netherlands in 1655

English Civil War (Cavaliers v. Roundheads)

- Puritan-led Parliament (Roundheads) defeated royal forces (King Charles I killed)

- All of Theme 2

- Commonwealth of England created (Republic under the rule of Parliament) became a dictatorship under Oliver Cromwell (a Puritan)

Navigation Acts (1650-1696) – series of laws to regulate trade in and out of colonies

- had to trade on English or colonial ships with English or colonial crews
- imports and exports had to go through England
- part of economic theory of mercantilism in which European nations tried to increase their overall wealth by becoming self-sufficient (colonies provided raw materials & markets)
- many merchants resorted to smuggling to defy law and make larger profits

Restoration (1660) chaos set in after death of Cromwell; return to monarchy settled crisis

- relations with colonies changed after Restoration:
 - o England expanded overseas trade and fought wars with trade rivals
 - o England tried to subordinate its colonies to English economic interests and political authority

Charles II (1660-1685)

- *his rule upset Puritans in England and New England*
- *passed many more of the Navigation Acts*
- *tried to rule like an absolute monarch and wouldn't call Parliament to meet*

English conquer New Netherlands (1664)

- Charles II gave his brother the Duke of York the colony of New York (which became a royal colony when the Duke of York became the next king, James II)
- New Jersey was divided between many proprietors whose settlers of different religious backgrounds got along poorly (became a royal colony in 1702)

Carolina colonies chartered (1670)

Bacon's Rebellion (1675-1676) – Nathaniel Bacon led poor western Virginians in a slaughter of neighboring tribes during a time tobacco prices were depressed with Gov.

Berkeley's permission

- when Berkeley changed his mind Bacon's forces burned the capitol (Jamestown)
- became a conflict between poor western farmers vs. plantation eastern elite

New Hampshire (founded 1679) – Charles II upset Mass. wouldn't follow Navigation Acts so carved this colony out

Mass. declared a royal colony (1684) – again, to force them to submit to royal authority

New England Colonies

Religious reasons for settling here

Family farms

Short growing season, rocky soil

Settlers brought families

Towns and cities developed

Town meetings important

Higher life expectancies

Pennsylvania founded (1684) – William Penn founds this proprietary colony for Quakers as “holy experiment”

- planned city of Philadelphia (city of brotherly love)
- good relations with Native Americans
- religious toleration led to large numbers of immigrants

James II (1685-1688)

- *younger brother of Charles II who was a Catholic (angered Parliament by naming Catholics to higher office)*
- *tolerated as his daughters Mary and Anne were Protestant*

Dominion of New England (1686) – created to control region which ignored Navigation Acts

- combined Mass., N. Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island into one royal colony

Glorious Revolution (1688-1689)

- when a Catholic son was born to James II Parliament asked Mary (James II's Protestant daughter) and her husband William to bring an army from the Netherlands to take the throne (ended any chance of a future Catholic monarch)
- during it Maryland's Protestants stormed the capitol and kicked Catholics out of govt. and denied them the right to vote (other uprisings in New York & Mass.)
- relations with colonies changed after Glorious Revolution:
 - restored “salutary neglect” with colonies more on their own to govern themselves (could call colonial assemblies to meet again)
 - ended Dominion of New England (Mass. returned as royal colony)
 - made land ownership not church membership basis for voting there

William & Mary (1689-1702)

King William's War (1689-1697) – France's Louis XIV supported James II's claim to throne

- was also fought in colonies with Iroquois facing the brunt of fighting
- Wm. & Mary forced to agree to the Bill of Rights which began constitutional monarchy

John Locke's "Essay Concerning Human Understanding" (1690) – outlined his thoughts about natural rights and roles and responsibilities of govt. to protect them

- part of the Enlightenment (movement of political philosophers who used reason)
- became basis for Declaration of Independence

Slavery (African) instituted in the South starting in 1690s to combat labor shortages

- tobacco crops depressed; cost of labor force through indentured servants too high

Anne (1702-1714)

- *Mary's sister who came to the throne after William's death*

Queen Anne's War/War of Spanish Succession (1702-1713) – showed the need that colonists had for English protection (on land and for protecting shipping) and intensified their loyalty to the crown and their identity as British citizens

Act of Settlement

- settled issue of next in line to the throne as Anne had no surviving children
- brought closest Protestant in line to throne
- prevented deposed James II or his son (both Catholics) from coming to power

Hanoverian Dynasty

George I (1714-1727)

- *his rule characterized by a generation of peace*
- *in colonies more immigrants came from other nations rather than Great Britain (particularly to Middle Colonies through ports of New York and Philadelphia)*

George II (1727-1760)

Georgia founded in 1733 as defensive outpost against Spanish in Florida

- led by James Oglethorpe and he made it a social experiment with many settlers released from debtors prisons, slavery was banned, along with alcohol and large landholdings were forbidden (all later ignored)

John Peter Zenger trial (1735) – arrest of a newspaper printer whose paper attacked the royal governor (Zenger won as court said it is not libel if it is true)

Anglo-Spanish War (1739-1744) – James Oglethorpe led an attack on Florida

King George's War/War of Austrian Succession v. France (1740-1748)

- colonists felt betrayed by England as the French fort of Louisburg (which protects the St. Lawrence River) was taken at a heavy cost and then returned to France after the war in exchange for a post in India

French and Indian War/Seven Years' War (1754-1760)

- colonists growing tired of constant involvement in England's wars, unwilling to pay for its fighting, and torn between responsibilities at home and to the crown

George III (1760-1820)

CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REBELLION (THEME #3)

Salutary neglect (1607-1763) – an undocumented, though long-standing, British policy of avoiding strict enforcement of parliamentary laws meant to keep the American colonies obedient to Great Britain

Navigation Acts (1651) – regulated trade with the colonies

- had to trade on English or colonial ships with English or colonial crews
- imports and exports had to go through England

Albany Plan of Union (1754) – colonists first attempt to devise policies regarding military defense and Native American affairs, led by Ben Franklin and Thomas Hutchinson

- plan calling for a Grand Council with reps. from all colonies never materialized

French & Indian War (1754-1760) – war with the French and their Native American allies

- “Pitt’s Promise” – PM William Pitt promised to reimburse the colonies for their military expenses to get them to play larger part in war
- Tension between colonist militiamen and regular army British soldiers
- with the end of the French as an enemy, colonists didn’t feel the need to have such close ties with Britain as they did in previous times for defense
- led to huge debt for England

End of Salutary neglect – ended after the French & Indian War with Parliament’s attempts to enforce the Navigation Acts to raise money for its debt

Writs of Assistance (1760-1761) – search warrants given to customs officials which didn’t require evidence to search anywhere smuggled goods could be hidden and seize them

- to enforce Navigation Acts

Pontiac’s Rebellion (1763) – western tribes including one led by Pontiac (with hopes of the return of the French) attacked English forts in the west before eventually agreeing to end hostilities

Paxton Boys Rebellion (1763) – dissatisfied about frontier protection in PA

Proclamation of 1763 – Parliament voted to limit American expansion in west to avoid more costly conflicts with Native Americans there (roughly along Appalachian Mountains)

Sugar Act (1764) – taxed sugar, and forced shipments to go through Britain first; those found guilty of violating were sent to Vice-Admiralty Courts in Nova Scotia and were denied juries and presumed guilty

Stamp Act (1765) – tax on all documents, which was an internal tax (not an external import tax)

- opposed heavily, particularly by groups like the Loyal Nine and Sons of Liberty

Stamp Act Congress (1765) – reps of 9 colonies met in NYC (1st such meeting since Albany in 1754)

- coordinated protests of the Stamp Act
- declared Britain lacked authority to tax here, or to deny a person a jury trial

“No Taxation Without Representation” – best articulated in a Boston town meeting by James Otis

“Virtual Representation” – counter-argument that states that colonists (as are all British subjects) are represented by all members of the British Parliament (they do have representation)

Declaratory Act (1766) – gave Parliament legislative power over colonies (despite repeal of Stamp Act)

Quartering Act (1765) – colonial legislatures had to pay for supplies for British soldiers

- NY assembly refused to appropriate funds for it in 1766
- New York Suspending Act – Parliament nullified all laws of an assembly that refuses

American Board of Customs Commissioners (1767) – created by Parliament to stop smuggling in violation of the Navigation Acts; paid informers and seized ships of those found guilty; heavy-handed enforcement upset colonists

Townshend Duties/Revenue Act (1767) – taxed certain goods imported from Britain

“Letter From a Farmer in Pennsylvania” – written by John Dickinson in 1767

- argued that a tax on imports to raise money (not to protect trade) was unconstitutional unless elected representatives voted for it

Circular Letters – Samuel Adams wrote the 1st of these in Massachusetts, which were sent to the assemblies of other colonies to approve

- they condemned taxation and restrictions on the power of colonial assemblies
- Britain overreacted and ordered royal governors to disband any assembly that agreed
- Many assemblies adopted the circular letters in response and were disbanded

Non-importation, non-consumption – boycotts on imports from Britain, and the consumption of goods from Britain (particularly effective with tea) in order to force the repeal of the Townshend duties (which were repealed in 1770)

Boston Massacre (1770)

Tea Act (1773) – tax on tea, revenue paid royal governors which took away colonies “power of the purse” and made governors more dependant on and loyal to Britain

Committees of Correspondence (1772-1773) – exchanged information between towns and coordinated efforts to defend colonial rights and oppose British laws

Boston Tea Party (1773)

Coercive/Intolerable Acts (1774) – in response to the Boston Tea Party

- closed port of Boston until the tea was paid for
- revoked Massachusetts charter (disbanding assembly) and gave power to the governor

First Continental Congress (1774) – met in response to Intolerable Acts; told colonies to train militias

Lexington/Concord (1775)

“Common Sense” – written by Thomas Paine in 1775, put the blame on king (not Parliament) and argued for independence

Second Continental Congress (1775) – issued the Olive Branch Petition (dismissed harshly by George III) which demanded a cease fire, repeal of Intolerable Acts, and negotiations to establish American rights; established the Continental Army under Washington; and declared independence (1776)

FORMATION OF A NEW REPUBLIC (THEME #4)

All of Theme 4

1619 – Virginia's House of Burgesses – 1st colonial assembly

- future colonial assemblies to be bicameral legislatures

1620 – Mayflower Compact – set up democratic participation in Plymouth colony

1754 – Albany Plan of Union – leaders from most of the colonies met first time to discuss military defense and Native American affairs (didn't lead to permanent unity)

1765 – Stamp Act Congress – reps. of 9 colonies met to coordinate protests of the Stamp Act

1774 – First Continental Congress – met in response to the Intolerable Acts; told colonies to train militias

1775 – Second Continental Congress – issued the Olive Branch Petition; organized the Continental Army under George Washington; declared independence

1776 – Declaration of Independence – written by Thomas Jefferson, used ideas of Enlightenment thinkers like John Locke to argue that natural rights such as life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness should be protected by govt., and if not do so it is the right of the people to overthrow it

1777 – Articles of Confederation – national govt. that consisted of a single chamber Congress

- each state one vote made representation unfair for larger states
- didn't have the power to tax, or regulate
- no executive or judicial branches

1785 – Land Ordinance – divided land in Northwest Territory for sale;

- divided it into plots of land within 6 mile by 6 mile townships

1787 – Northwest Ordinance – Congress took control of the Northwest Territory (OH, MI, IL, IN, WI); banned slavery there; and set rules for admitting new states (equal to the old ones)

1786-1787 – Shay's Rebellion – during hard economic times Daniel Shay's led 2000 western Mass. farmers in an uprising to stop courts from handling foreclosures on farms

- rebellion was put down quickly
- led to argument that mobocracy growing and that a strong central govt. was needed

1787 – Annapolis Convention – originally to be a conference about interstate trade

- called for another convention of delegates from states to amend the Articles of Confed.

1787 – Philadelphia Convention – 55 delegates from every state except Rhode Island met to amend the Articles, but quickly decided to start over to design a new govt.

- New Jersey Plan – one house Congress with one vote per state (like Articles)
- Virginia Plan – strong central govt., with representation based on population (2 houses)
- Great Compromise – agreement to combine the New Jersey and Virginia Plans
 - o 2 houses (Senate – 2 votes per state; House of Reps. – based on pop.)
- 3/5 Compromise – slaves count as 3/5 when determining pop. for rep. in the House
- Checks and balances between 3 branches (jud., exec., and leg.)
- Amendment Process – 2/3 of both houses & 3/4 of states

1789 – Battle over Ratification of the Constitution

- *The Federalist* papers – essays published in newspapers written by John Jay, Alexander Hamilton, and James Madison articulating the argument for a stronger central govt., that made new argument that a large republic best protected the rights of a minority
 - o helped get public opinion behind the ratification of the Constitution
- when 9 of 13 states ratified the Constitution it went into effect
 - o but large important states New York and Virginia had not ratified it yet
- promises of the addition of the Bill of Rights led to NY and VA to ratify it
 - o North Carolina and then Rhode Island followed to make it all 13 states

1789 – Washington elected President—sets precedents for future presidents

giving formality to the position to impress foreign leaders while maintaining a neutral position on issues and seeking advice from advisors (Cabinet) – Sec. of State, Sec. of Treasury, Sec. of War, Attorney General

1790 – Alexander Hamilton's Report on Public Credit – Hamilton's plan to help end the public debt

- sold govt. bonds and sell federal lands in the west to raise money
- collect customs on imports and an excise tax on whiskey

- pay off states' Rev. War debts (southern states had paid theirs off, so to get them to agree to this plan the U.S. capitol to current site located in the south)

Formation of 2 Party System (see Theme #5)

- Federalists were the supporters of Hamilton
- Democratic-Republicans were the supporters of Jefferson (who opposed Hamilton's plan)

1790-1791 – National Bank controversy (Bank of the U.S.) – Hamilton presented a plan to create this bank as a place for govt. to deposit tax money collected, get low interest loans, issue paper currency, oversee state banks and provide them with credit

Constitutional debate over the bank:

- strict construction (or interpretation) – follow Constitution word for word (no bank)
- loose construction – use Elastic Clause of Const. to allow for expanded meaning of Const.

1793 – Chisholm v. Georgia – Supreme Court ruled that a state could be sued in federal courts by non-residents of that state (overruled by 11th Amendment)

1793 – French Republic began - U.S. forced to choose whether to get involved (Wash. chose neutrality)

1794 – Whiskey Rebellion – western Pa. farmers attacked tax collectors, chased govt. supporters from the region as they were upset about the excise tax on whiskey

- Washington sent troops led by Hamilton to put down the rebellion, which they did
- this is in sharp contrast to Shay's Rebellion where the federal govt. did not act
- shows strength of new govt. under the Constitution

Election of 1796 – Won by Federalist Adams (Dem.-Rep. Jefferson finished 2nd so Vice-Pres.)

- Wash.'s Farewell Address – (1) party politics divisive & (2) stay out of wars of Europe

1798 – 11th Amendment – private citizens could no longer use federal courts to sue another state's govt. in civil cases (1st of only a few times that a S.Ct. decision was overruled by amend.)

1798 – Alien and Sedition Acts – Federalists insisted war with France was imminent so they passed these national security measures

- Alien Acts – “dangerous” foreigners could be expelled; residency for citizenship from 5 to 14 yrs. (Dem.-Reps. drew support from immigrants, Federalists could delay this effect)
- Sedition Acts – forbid criticism of the govt. (Dem.-Reps. saw them as attempt to silence criticism against Federalists in an election year)

1798 – Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions – in response to the Alien & Sedition Acts they declared states had not surrendered the right to judge the constitutionality of federal laws (interposition) and reserved right to nullify laws they deemed unconstitutional (nullification)

1799 – Fries Rebellion – Penn. German farmers freed prisoners who hadn't paid their property taxes

- rebellion was quickly put down by federal govt. (again showing strength of central govt.)

Election of 1800 – won by Democratic-Republican Jefferson

- tie between Jefferson and Aaron Burr (both Dem.-Rep.) due to the running of 2 candidates from each party with the hopes of gaining both the presidency and the vice-presidency
- resolved in House of Reps. when Hamilton (Federalist) pushed for a Jefferson victory
- showed peaceful transfer of power in a 2 party system democracy
- 12th Amendment – passed in 1804 separated balloting for President and Vice President

1803 – Marbury v. Madison – Supreme Court case which established the principle of judicial review where Supreme Court could declare laws passed by Congress unconstitutional

TWO PARTY SYSTEM (THEME #5)

George Washington

- first President, won Elections of 1789 and 1792 with no party affiliation
- in his Farewell Address to Congress when leaving office he warns the nation to avoid political parties
- political parties formed during his Presidency as view points of his major advisors (Alexander Hamilton – Sec. of Treasury and Thomas Jefferson – Sec. of State) conflicted dramatically

Federalist Party – based on the ideas of Hamilton

Republican (Democratic-Republican) Party – based on the ideas of Jefferson

Federalists

- led by Alexander Hamilton and John Adams
- favors Hamilton's economic plan
(solves national debt problem)
- favored a strong national govt.
- favors manufacturing, improved technology,
and capitol as keys to U.S. strength
- favors loose interpretation of Constitution
(eg. favors creation of a national bank)
- favors Great Britain in European wars in
order to protect trade
- most supporters in northeast
- supports tariffs as protection of U.S.
manufacturing

Democratic-Republicans

- led by Thomas Jefferson
- opposed to Hamilton's economic plan (only
helps the rich in east, doesn't help the south
that has paid off its debts, hurts western
farmers with excise tax on whiskey)
- favors protections of states' rights
- favors agriculture and land as keys to prosperity
- favors strict interpretation of the Constitution
(against the national bank)
- favors French Republic, as it is based originally
on same democratic ideals our nation was
created on, and they helped us in our rev.
- most supporters in south and west
- opposes tariffs, which causes prices for goods
purchased in the south and west to go

Election of 1796

- first to be contested by members of opposing parties
- John Adams (Federalist) defeated Thomas Jefferson (Dem.-Rep.)

Election of 1800 - won by Jefferson

- first of 7 consecutive elections won by the Democratic-Republicans

Era of Good Feelings (1817 – 1824)

- during the two Presidencies of James Monroe when Democratic-Republican Party faced no
opposition party
- Federalist Party which did not support the War of 1812 lost its support as the war was fought
and was a success

Election of 1824

- 5 Democratic-Republican candidates
- Andrew Jackson won the most popular and electoral votes, but did not have the majority
needed to become President
- election then went to the House of Representatives where John Quincy Adams won when
Henry Clay gave him his support in return for the office of Sec. of State (an office seen
as a jumping off spot for the Presidency)
- this deal became known as the "Corrupt Bargain"

Rise of Andrew Jackson

- Jackson's followers were so outraged by his loss in 1824 that they grew stronger
- Jackson's backwoods, common man persona drew more voters to him as well as his
popularity due to his victory at the end of the War of 1812 in the Battle of New Orleans
- lingering discontent with government over the Panic of 1819, the "Corrupt Bargain," J.Q.
Adams' ineffectual presidency led to the formation of a second party – the Democratic
Party with Jackson as its candidate

Election of 1828

- marks reemergence of a 2 party system
- J.Q. Adams' followers became known as the National Republican Party
- Jackson with his widespread support won easily

National Republicans disappear after disappointing results in 1828 and 1832

Emergence of the Whig Party

- a new second party is created with the unification of factions who opposed Jackson, became a national force by 1836
- name Whig refers back to a 1776 name given to patriots who opposed King George III, thus likening Jackson's behavior to a king – "King Andrew I"
- Whig supporters:
 - supporters of federally funded internal improvement projects
 - southerners who favored nullification, and opposed Jackson
 - Bank of U.S./soft money advocates
 - social reformers in the north
 - nativists who came to support the public education reforms which they assumed would teach Protestant doctrines
 - anti-Masons – fraternal organization seen as a conspiracy of the rich to suppress popular liberty
 - southern merchants, planters
 - northern merchants, bankers, evangelical clergymen

Election of 1840

- Whig candidate William Henry Harrison won
 - Whig platform was to have a tariff that was not "protective" but low enough to bring goods in from Europe, and use the revenue created to fund internal improvements in the south and west (northeasterners still supported the tariff though it was lower than previous protective tariffs)
 - had appeal as a "common man" a la Jackson with his log cabin upbringing and his victory in the Battle of Tippecanoe over Native Americans in Indiana Territory
 - "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too"
 - Harrison died only one month later and Vice-President John Tyler took over
 - Tyler vetoed the Whig tariff and angered members of his own party

Election of 1844

- Democrat James Polk (relative unknown) won defeating Henry Clay (Whig)
- Whigs struggled after wake of Tyler's turbulent Presidency
- Polk able to bring northerners to accept the annexation of Texas

Election of 1848

- Whig Zachary Taylor rode his popularity from Mexican War to Presidency

Demise of the Whig Party

- Democrat Franklin Pierce won Election of 1852 despite Whig's running a Mexican War hero, Winfield Scott, as their candidate (lost 50% to 44%)
- Pierce last President to win the popular and electoral vote in both the North and the South for 80 years (not again until Franklin Roosevelt did so in 1932)
- 2 party system had until Election of 1856 kept sectional tensions in line by giving Americans other issues to argue about (internal improvements, banking, tariffs, temperance, etc)
- by 1850s the debate over slavery became so strong that other issues were subordinated
- the Kansas-Nebraska Act (passed by the Democrats) with its popular sovereignty for allowing slavery in these territories caused aroused sectional tensions which destroyed the Whig Party (which had a large number of free soil supporters) and depleted Democratic support in the north

New Third Parties Emerge

- Free Soil Party (1848, 1852) – no slavery in territories platform
- American (Know-Nothing) Party (1856) – anti-immigration platform

Rise of Republican Party

- Republican Party formed on issue of anti-slavery
 - purely northern party
 - had members who were former northern Whigs and Democrats
- after demise of the Whigs and the weakening of support for Democrats in the north over slavery issue, Republicans won 2/3 of all state legislatures in the north by 1856 despite the fact the party was only a year old
- with popular westerner John Fremont (who had blazed the Oregon Trail) as their candidate the Republicans became the number 2 party in 1856

Election of 1860

- Democratic Party split between Northern and Southern factions
- Republican candidate Abraham Lincoln won without winning any electoral votes in the south

- Lincoln's election led to the succession of southern states as a purely northern candidate could win enough electoral votes to win the Presidency, and this succession led to the Civil War

Two Party System Solidifies

- Democrats and Republicans stay the dominant parties until the present
- they finish 1st and 2nd in every presidential election from 1856 to the present with the exception of 1912

Third Parties Since 1860

(more than 1% in a Presidential Election, but less than 10% unless specified)

- Greenback-Labor Party (1880, 1884)
- Prohibition Party (1888, 1892, 1900, 1904, 1908, 1912)
- Union Labor Party (1888)
- People's (Populist) Party (1892)
 - Populists threw in with the Democrats in 1896 over the issue of "free silver," and lost, which ended their effective existence
- Socialist Party (1904, 1908, 1912, 1916, 1920, 1932)
 - labor leader Eugene V. Debs its candidate in 1904, 1908, 1912
- Progressive (Bull Moose) Party (1912, 1924, 1948)
- former President Teddy Roosevelt its 1912 candidate and included large numbers that split from the Republican Party; won 27% of popular vote, finished 2nd
- Robert LaFollette of Wisconsin won 17% of the popular vote in 1924
- Farmer-Labor Party (1920)
- Union Party (1936)
- States' Rights (1948) - Strom Thurmond candidate for segregation
- American Independent Party (1968) - George Wallace on segregation platform
- Independents (1960, 1980, 1992, 1996)
- Ross Perot in 1992 won 19% of the popular vote (but only 8% in 1996)
- Green Party (2000, 2004) - Ralph Nader candidate

DOMESTIC CONCERNS - JEFFERSON TO JACKSON (THEME #6)

Revolution of 1800 - Dem.-Rep. Jefferson elected President

- election went to the House of Reps as Jefferson and his VP candidate Aaron Burr were tied
- House of Reps elected Jefferson after Hamilton supported him (political rival of Burr from NY)
- "revolution" as it was a peaceful transfer of power from one party (Federalists) to another
- "revolution" as it was major change to ideals of Dem.-Reps.
 - o less power to the rich; help for farmers, smaller govt. and lower taxes
- 12th Amendment separated balloting for President and Vice President

Judiciary Act of 1801 - Federalists tried to change Supreme Court from 6 to 5 justices to prevent Jefferson from nominated a Dem.-Rep. leaning justice

- also created 14 new federal judge positions
- Pres. Adams appointed the "midnight judges" to fill these new positions with Federalists

Marbury v. Madison (1803) - set up judicial review

Quids - group of dissenters led by John Randolph who believed in the wisdom of farmers and warned of govt.'s tendency to encroach on liberty

- Yazoo Tract - tract of land in Alabama and Mississippi given to investors at low prices as Georgia legislators had been bribed (example of political corruption)
- When a federal commission compromised and gave investors some land the Quids complained

Louisiana Purchase (1803) - went against Jefferson ideal of strict interpretation (too good of a deal)

- Lewis & Clark Expedition in 1804-1806

Aaron Burr Conspiracies - Burr VP after losing Election of 1800 until 1804 when Jefferson replaced him

- joined "High Federalists" in plot to sever New England and NY from the Union
- ran for Governor of NY as part of the plot, but Hamilton fought to prevent it from happening
- Burr challenged Hamilton to duel for this (and his role in Election of 1800) and killed him
- Burr allied with military governor of Louisiana Territory, James Wilkinson, and plotted to separate the states south of the Ohio River into a separate confederacy
- this plan halted before it was begun and Burr acquitted of treason by Supreme Ct. (no proof)

Embargo Act (1807) - cut off foreign trade to keep U.S. out of war in Europe, but ruined our trade

- gave Federalists an issue to gain back some political power (more-so with XYZ Affair)
- Non-Intercourse Act (1809) - replaced Embargo Act and authorized trade with all nations except Britain and France (until they respected our shipping rights, which they didn't)
- Macon's Bill No. 2 (1810) - opened trade to both Britain and France, and if either stopped restricting neutral trade then U.S. would halt trade with the other

(9)

Not on Periods

1-5 Test

- All of Theme 6

Fletcher v. Pack (1810) – Supreme Court ruled that an action of a state could be declared unconstitutional
Charter for the Bank of the U.S. rejected (1811)

War of 1812 – ends with the Treaty of Ghent (1814)

- brought a new wave of nationalism (people said “the United States is . . .” rather than “the United States are . . .”); viewing nation more important than state for first time
- Battle of New Orleans helped build that national pride and brought fame to Andrew Jackson

Hartford Convention (1814) – Federalist convention which passed a series of resolutions on grievances

- New Englanders becoming a permanent minority to be dominated by south and west and their economic interests were not being recognized by govt.
- Proposed to abolish the 3/5 clause; require 2/3 vote of Congress to declare war and admit new states; limit President to one term
- timing bad as Treaty of Ghent just agreed upon
- James Monroe won the election of 1816 in landslide and Federalist finished as a national party

Era of Good Feelings – Dem.-Reps. would run with no 2nd party opposing them in next couple elections

- name is a misnomer as there were still sectional tensions and arguments over federal v. state power
- end of war in Europe and War of 1812 did make things more relaxed; slavery to be next issue
- Agricultural Boom – cotton in the south, wheat in the west

Second Bank of the U.S. chartered (1816) – given 20 year charter

Henry Clay's American System – aimed to make nation self-sufficient and concentrated on national transportation system linking North, South, and West

Dartmouth v. Woodward (1819) – Supreme Court case where court ruled that state (N. Hampshire) couldn't transform a private corporation (Dartmouth College) into a public institution

- seen as a stripping of power away from states

McCulloch v. Maryland (1819) – S.C. case where court ruled that a state did not have the power to tax a national corporation (Baltimore branch of the Second Bank of the U.S.)

- “power to tax is the power to destroy”
- also seen as a stripping of power away from states

Adams-Onís Treaty (1819) – U.S. took Florida from Spain, and set western border w/ Spain, Spain received Texas (allowing for western settlement)

Panic of 1819 – land boom in west collapsed

- farmers had borrowed too much money to buy more land and assumed they could pay it back
- agricultural boom slowed and foreign demand for U.S. ag. goods down
- general curtailment of credit in the west forced banks to collect on loans to farmers
- land prices plummeted hurting speculators
- Bank of the U.S. blamed for its role in the curtailing of credit

Missouri Compromise (1820) –

- added slave state Missouri and free state Maine to keep balance
- drew line from southern border of Missouri west dividing territories into land set aside for slavery south of it and to remain free above it

New States Admitted (1816-1821) – Indiana, Illinois, Alabama, Mississippi, Maine, Missouri

Gibbons v. Ogden (1824) – Chief Justice John Marshall ruled that Congress had the constitutional right to break down the Livingston/Fulton steamboat monopoly that was granted by the NY state legislature; Congress had the right to do so as it could regulate the trade from NY to New Jersey

Election of 1824 – won by John Quincy Adams, despite the fact that Andrew Jackson had most votes

- “Corrupt Bargain” – when election went to the House of Reps. (no candidate with majority) then Henry Clay put his support behind JQ Adams, who then named Clay Sec. of State (an office which 4 presidents had held prior to becoming president)

Election of 1828 – won by Jackson – Democratic Party split from Dem.-Reps.

- campaign was characterized by mudslinging (JQ Adams an elitist who wears silk panties, Jackson portrayed as a drunk, adulterer, murderer, and gambler)
- lingering resentment over the “corrupt bargain” election helped increase voter turnout and Jackson's war hero past helped boost his popularity
- JQ Adams supporters became known as the National Republican Party

Jacksonian Democracy

- Policies to help and represent the “common man”
- poll taxes replaced property requirement
- written ballot replaced voting out-loud
- public campaigning became more prevalent
- more positions in govt. to be elected rather than appointed
- spoils system (rotation in office) allowed a President to replace appointed govt. officials to prevent a aristocratic permanent class of govt. officials

Tariff of Abominations (1828) – nickname for a high protective tariff that benefited the industrial north and the agricultural west; and was hated by the south as they would have to pay high prices for manufactured goods

South Carolina Exposition and Protest (1828) – published anonymously and written by John Calhoun

- outlined argument that the tariff did not meet an important criterion for constitutionality: it didn't benefit all as federal laws should
- aggrieved states then had the right to nullify such laws that were unconstitutional in its borders
- similar line of reasoning as was in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions (re: Alien & Sedition Acts)

Maysville Road veto (1829) – example of Jackson's and Democrats disapproval of federally funded internal improvements

- pushed for by Clay in his home state of Kentucky
- would extend the Cumberland and National Roads
- it would be federal funding for a program entirely in one state

Indian Removal Act (1830) – see Early Native American History Theme for related info and ornaments

Nullification Crisis (1832) –

- Jackson had avoided conflict over the tariff issue for awhile by promising to distribute excess federal revenue to the states (thus south would profit in some way from the high tariff)
- however, South Carolina used Calhoun's reasoning and nullified the tariff in 1832
- Jackson's Response "Olive Branch and the Sword"
 - o Olive branch – passage of a much lower tariff in 1833 known as the Compromise Tariff
 - o Sword – Force Bill – authorized the President to use arms to collect customs duties in South Carolina or any state that nullified the tariff
 - South Carolina nullified the Force Bill, but did end its nullification of tariffs

Bank of U.S. veto (1832)

- Second Bank of the U.S. received a 20 year charter which was expiring
- B.U.S. was a creditor of state banks and restrained their printing and loaning of money by being able to demand the redemption of state notes in specie (gold or silver coins)
- Jackson was concerned about privileged elites who controlled it, and the speculation that fueled the Panic of 1819 that was fueled by the bank's credit policies
- Nicholas Biddle who was president of the bank helped push a bill to re-charter the bank through Congress, but Jackson vetoed it (Congress's attempt to over-ride the veto failed)

Pet Banks (1833) – when Biddle began to restrict credit Jackson moved federal deposits in the B.U.S. to selected state banks (which critics nicknamed "pet banks")

- resulted in state banks being able to issue more paper money, and extend more loans
- this fueled a wave of speculation and economic expansion which grew out of control (exactly what Jackson wanted to avoid)

Democratic party split between hard currency supporters (Jackson) and soft money supporters (paper money)

Locofocos – faction of the Democratic party that supported Jackson's hard money stance

- they were originally members of workingmen's parties but gradually shifted to the Democrats
- also they called for free public education, abolition of imprisonment for debt, & 10 hour workday

Whig Party – coalition of groups that opposed Jackson became a viable second party (main issue – B.U.S.)

- ran 1st presidential candidate in 1836 finishing close behind Van Buren
- see Two Party System Theme for more information

"Democracy in America" (1835) – an insightful look at American society and politics in this time period written by Alexis de Toqueville

- shows Americans always trying to get ahead
- shows how whites treated each other as equals but discriminated heavily against others
- shows growth of the nation through internal improvements (roads, canals)
- shows growth of factories and expansion of trade

Deposit Act (1836) – with economic growth Congress pressured Jackson to sign this bill which increased the number of deposit banks and loosened federal control of them

Specie Circular (1836) – proclamation by Jackson that only specie (hard currency) would be accepted in payment for federal land (thought paper money led to speculation)

- he hoped this would reduce the effect of the Deposit Act
- took the wind out of the speculation boom by making banks hesitant to issue paper money

Panic of 1837 – severe depression that hit right when Van Buren took office, but caused by the end of the speculative boom fueled by Jackson's moving of federal deposits to state banks

- lasted much longer and was far more severe than Panic of 1819
- unemployment was high and wages dropped to 1/3 previous levels

- Democrat Martin Van Buren wins Election of 1836 and has to clean up the mess created by Jackson (called for the creation of an Independent Treasury)
 - o Independent Treasury Bill – did not address the banking issues on the state level
- Whigs blamed the Specie Circular rather than the banks and encouraged chartering more of them
- Democrats blamed the depression on banks and soft money and became after 1837 more aligned with Jackson's hard currency, anti-bank position (through Election of 1896)

"Tippecanoe and Tyler, Too" (Whigs William Henry Harrison and VP John Tyler) win Election of 1840

FOREIGN RELATIONS – WASHINGTON TO MONROE (THEME #7)

Disputed territory between Spain and U.S. included parts of Georgia and Tennessee, and all of Mississippi and Alabama

- Spain kept Mississippi River and port of New Orleans closed to Americans
- Spain allied with Creeks who had harassed settlers in the region
- In 1789 Spain opened port of New Orleans but with 15% duty on all exports

Andre Fagot (1789) – Spanish agent sent to Tennessee to make Spain's offer that if Tennessee joined with Spain then Mississippi River and port of New Orleans would be open to them

- Kentucky and Tennessee admitted into the Union in 1790s to ensure their loyalty

French Revolution (began in 1789)

- French Republic began in 1793; declared war on all nations with kings
- Federalists favored staying out of the war to protect trade with British (particularly northerners)
- Dem.-Reps. favored aiding the French Republic
- Westerners supported France (against Britain and Spain who posed threats in the west)
- Pres. Washington issued a declaration of neutrality

Citizen Genet (1793) – French minister to U.S. came to strengthen alliance with U.S., enlist American mercenaries to fight for republicanism

- American Foreign Legion of volunteer recruits created
- American privateer ships flying the French flag seized British ships and French consuls sold the ships and cargoes
- after Washington declared neutrality; asked France to recall Genet

Impressment – forced enlistment of American sailors into British Royal Navy

- Royal Navy also seized more than 250 American ships supposedly trading with France
- Americans saw this as a test of U.S. govt. to protect them and their property

Fort Miami (1794) – built by British on U.S. territory near Toledo, Ohio

- John Jay sent by Washington to Britain to negotiate
- Battle of Fallen Timbers near the fort was a victory for U.S. over the Shawnee (British close the fort soon after this battle)
- U.S. builds Fort Defiance nearby to protect American interests
- led to Treaty of Greenville which opened up most of Ohio and part of Indiana for settlement

Jay's Treaty (1794) – completed after the Battle of Fallen Timbers which gave him leverage

- British agreed to withdraw troops from American soil
- trade with French colonies during war prohibited (including profitable sugar and molasses)
- didn't address the problem of British impressments
- most saw the treaty as a failure, however, it did defuse the crisis with Britain and avoided war and greatly increased trade with Britain

Fort San Fernando (1794) – built by Spain on U.S. territory near Memphis, Tennessee

- Thomas Pinckney sent by Washington to Spain to negotiate

Pinckney's Treaty (1796) – also called the Treaty of San Lorenzo, it was an unqualified victory

- won westerners the right to duty-free access to the Mississippi River
- recognized the 31st parallel as the southern boundary of the U.S.
- Spain promised to remove forts on U.S. soil and to discourage Indian attacks on western settlers

Washington's Farewell Address (1797) – advised the nation to stay out of the wars in Europe and avoid partisan politics

XYZ Affair (1798) –

- French had seen Jay's Treaty and the defeat of Jefferson in 1796 election as a sign U.S. turning toward Britain
- France began seizing American ships and hanging American citizens caught on British ships
- Adams sent a peace delegation to France and the French govt. refused to negotiate
- 3 unnamed ministers (nicknamed X, Y, and Z) told the U.S. delegation that if the U.S. gave France \$250,000 and loaned them \$12 million then they would negotiate
- This blatant bribe hurt the Dem.-Reps. who had always supported France and led to a Federalist sweep of the 1798 midterm elections (gave them the majority they used to pass Alien & Sedition Acts)

Quasi-War (1798-1800) – undeclared naval war with France in Caribbean Sea

Election of 1800 – Adams prior to the election sends another diplomatic mission to France, this time getting France to openly negotiate to end hostilities

- removing France as an enemy helped Dem.-Reps. who always supported the French
- Adams (Federalist) then loses election to Dem.-Rep. Jefferson

Defeat of Barbary Pirates (1801-1805) – U.S. fought to stop paying tribute to pirates in the Mediterranean Sea

Louisiana Purchase (1803) – sold by Napoleon of France to help fund his war with Britain

British Rule of 1756 – declared any trade closed in peacetime couldn't be reopened during war

- designed to end U.S. trade with French in Caribbean (French would only trade using French ships prior to the war)

Orders in Council (1806) – a British blockade of French ports, which made U.S. trade w/ France difficult

- Napoleon responded with his Continental System which proclaimed ships obeying British regulations would be seized
- led to seizures of U.S. ships by both nations and outlawed nearly all U.S. trade
- French only seized U.S. ships in French ports, British seized them right off our coast
- British navy also increased its impressments of American sailors

Chesapeake Affair (1807) – British ship HMS *Leopard* attacked the USS *Chesapeake*, forced it to surrender and impressed sailors (British never had impressed sailors off a U.S. Navy ship before)

Embargo Act (1807) – U.S. law prohibiting vessels from leaving American ports for foreign ports

- Part of Jefferson's idea of "peaceable coercion"
- designed to prohibit exports, but ended imports as well (why bring goods to U.S. and then return home empty with nothing to sell for profit)
- resulted in a 50% decrease in trade with Britain which greatly hurt New England merchants
- did lead to a turn to manufacturing in U.S. to make goods previously purchased

Non-Intercourse Act (1809) – replaced Embargo Act and authorized trade with all nations except Britain and France (until they respected our shipping rights, which they didn't)

Macon's Bill No. 2 (1810) – opened trade to both Britain and France, and if either stopped restricting neutral trade then U.S. would halt trade with the other

War hawks elected to Congress in 1810

War of 1812 – war declared against Britain over incitement of Indians in west and shipping rights

- ironic as restricted trade starting to hurt Britain and they repealed the Orders in Council
- opposition to the war heavy and few volunteered
- unsuccessful attack on Canada launched and British burned down Washington, DC
- after relatively even fighting U.S. wins Battle of New Orleans (won after Treaty of Ghent signed in Europe)

Treaty of Ghent (1814) – treaty that ended War of 1812

- restored relations between U.S. and Great Britain to how they were before the war
- Effects of War of 1812
 - o American nationalism increased (eg. "Star Spangled Banner")
 - o Ended British interference in the west and normalized relations with them

Agreements with British under Pres. Monroe:

- Rush-Bagot Treaty (1817) – demilitarized the Great Lakes by restricting number of U.S. and British ships
- British-American Convention of 1818 restored U.S. fishing rights off of Newfoundland
- Oregon declared open to citizens of both nations

1818 – Andrew Jackson led raid of Spain's East Florida as it was a base for Seminole Indian attacks

- raid done independent of Monroe, though he later gave his approval
- helped put pressure on Spain to grant more concessions

Adams-Onís Treaty or Transcontinental Treaty (1819) –

- Spain ceded East Florida and rights to West Florida to U.S.
- Southern border of the U.S. west of the Mississippi River agreed upon (removing Spain from Oregon)
- U.S. conceded that Texas belonged to Spain

Monroe Doctrine (1820) –

- U.S. to abstain from European wars (unless American interests involved)
- American continents (recently independent of Spain) not to be recolonized by European powers
- U.S. would construe any European colonization attempt in the western hemisphere as an unfriendly act
- though not stated, it kept U.S. option to expand there open

SLAVERY INSTITUTION (THEME #8)

All of Theme 8

African Slavery (1400s) – usually enslaved because of indebtedness, either released or absorbed into family after debt paid off, treated more humanely

Portuguese began West African slave trade to the New World followed shortly thereafter by the Spanish

"New Slavery" – differed greatly from African slavery

- greater magnitude (not like it since the Roman Empire)

- new extremes in dehumanizing slaves (regarded as property not humans)
 - race became ideological basis for enslavement
- Slave-labor Plantations in the New World** – Portuguese and Spanish brought slaves to work
- Spanish particularly needed slaves for sugar cane production in the Caribbean
- Racial Slavery in the Chesapeake region** –
- John Rolfe development of tobacco as a cash crop led to need for large workforce
 - at first slavery was not necessarily for life, and some Africans became free
 - slavery replaced indentured servants in workforce in 1680s
 - numbers of slaves brought to Chesapeake increased dramatically then
 - slave trade came directly from Africa then (not through the Caribbean first)
 - decline in unemployment in England due to decline in population growth meant fewer available indentured servants
 - indentured servants had to be replaced when their contracts were up
 - the cost of keeping slaves was only 40% that of keeping indentured servants
- Slavery in the Carolinas** – rice production became very profitable there and African slaves became main source of labor because: (1) many had cultivated rice in Africa, and (2) they were more immune to malaria and yellow fever than other workers
- Middle Passage** – name for the voyage of slave-bearing ships from West Africa to the New World
- these ships were incredibly overcrowded, and sanitation and disease were major problems
- Slave population growth in English colonies**
- slaves were 11% of the population in 1700, and 20% by 1750
 - 40% of all newcomers were slaves during this time period
 - As slave owners were often outbid for slaves by rich plantation owners in the West Indies, American colonial slave owners overall treated their slaves better, and they lived longer
 - Slavery was primarily a southern institution, yet 15% of slaves lived north of Maryland by 1750
- Creoles** – American born slaves
- they differed greatly from African born slaves in that they knew English and were comfortable in their surroundings
 - African born slaves were relegated to the fields as creoles often were placed in better jobs
- Gang system** – group of slaves worked from sunrise to sunset and were mistreated and overworked by slave drivers (used mainly for field hands on plantations)
- Task system** – slaves given tasks for the day and their work was done when the tasks were complete (used mainly for those working near the plantation house or in cities)
- Georgia and Slavery** – founded by James Oglethorpe in 1732 an slavery was outlawed (thought it undermined the position of poor whites like those he sought to settle there)
- despite his good intentions slavery was made legal in Georgia in 1750
- Stono Rebellion** (1739) – occurs in South Carolina. Slaves burn and kill whites. Slaves are stopped before they can reach Florida, where runaway slaves are promised freedom by Spain
- James Somerset** – Massachusetts slave whose master had taken him to England sued for and won his freedom in court in 1772
- the court ruled that since Parliament did not establish slavery, no court could compel a slave to obey an order depriving him of his liberty
 - led other Massachusetts slaves to petition the legislature to apply the court decision in Mass.
 - dozens of slaves in Virginia & Maryland ran away and sought passage to England and freedom
- Revolutionary War** – as it neared many slaves looked for a British victory to mean freedom
- even free blacks at the time of the revolution could not vote, were subject to curfews, and had their rights in court limited, and earned much less than whites
 - during the war 25,000 African-Americans joined the British forces, and 5,000 (mostly from the North) fought for the colonists
 - comparison of colonies relationship with England to that between slave and master, and the assertions of natural rights and human equality in the Declaration of Independence led some to believe slavery was wrong (“all men are created equal”)
 - Quakers freed 80% of their slaves in 1770s
 - Vermont, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut phased out slavery between 1777 and 1784
- After the Revolution**
- New York in 1799, New Jersey in 1804, and New Hampshire by 1810
 - by 1800 11% of African-Americans were free
 - no push to end slavery in the south at the time due to the heavy cost, and the fear the south would secede if no compensation were offered
 - all southern states (except South Carolina and Georgia) banned slave importation
 - restrictions on free blacks including curfews and voting were lifted in most states
 - Setbacks for free African-Americans took place by the 1790s
 - militias refused them
 - voting restrictions reappeared in many states
 - immigration laws banned Africans
- Northwest Ordinance of 1787** – banned slavery in the Northwest Territory
- Benjamin Banneker** – free black who was a self-taught mathematician who in 1789 was one of the three surveyors for the new capitol city (also published a series of widely read almanacs)

Constitution and Slavery

- 3/5 Clause – count 3/5 of slaves when determining pop. for representation in the House of Reps.
- Constitution permitted Congress to ban the importation of slaves after 1808

Free African Society of Philadelphia (1780s) – to pool the resources of free blacks to assist each other

African Methodist Episcopal Church – founded after northern churches restricted black membership

- led by their first bishop, Richard Allen, it became the first black-run Protestant denomination

Fugitive Slave Law (1793) – denied accused runaways of a jury trial, and refused ability to present evidence

Slave Rebellion in Saint Domingue (1790s) – increased southerners' fears of slave rebellions in the U.S.

Gabriel's Rebellion (1800) – slave rebellion in Virginia in which a slave planned a march of 1000 slaves on Richmond (confirmed whites' anxieties about slave rebellions)

Cotton Gin (1803) – entrenched slavery in south

- it had become increasingly unprofitable in tobacco and rice production
- with cotton gin the cultivation of cotton was suddenly profitable with a black labor force
- cotton was compatible with corn production (corn could be planted earlier or later than cotton)

American Colonization Movement (1817) – proposed a plan for gradual compensation to slave owners and shipment of the freed blacks back to Africa (failed due a lack of funds and due to cotton profits southern slaveowners refused to sell their slaves)

Missouri Compromise (1820) – divided western territories between slave and free, and admitted Missouri as a slave state (with admission of free state Maine balance between free and slave states maintained preventing a majority for either in the Senate)

Nat Turner's Rebellion (1831) – slave rebellion that results in killing of 55 white people

- led to increased control of slave populations through slave patrols and passage of slave codes

Virginia Legislature's Emancipation Debate (1831) – in close vote decide not to emancipate; the last time abolition is considered by a southern state until the Civil War

Gag Rule (1836) – rule passed by Congress tabling abolitionist petitions and preventing discussion of slavery

Amistad (1839) – Cuban ship in which 53 Africans rose up and seized control of the vessel, which was brought ashore in Connecticut

- the Cuban owners sought a return of the ship and slaves
- U.S. Supreme Court (after an impassioned plea by former President JQ Adams) ruled that the men should be returned to Africa as free people

Abolition Movement (see Theme #9)

Ties between Lower and Upper South

- (1) many settler to the lower south had come from the upper south
- (2) all white southerners benefited from the 3/5 clause of the Constitution
- (3) all southerners were stung by abolitionist criticisms of slavery
- (4) profitability of cotton lead to increased value of slaves and many from upper south sold to lower

Social Groups of the South

Planters – owned the large plantations and large numbers of slaves; dominated politics and society

Small Slaveholders – 88% of slaveholders who owned less than 20 slaves (most less than 10)

Yeoman – non-slaveowners though most owned land; largest single group of whites

People of the Pine Barrens – 10% of pop., poor squatters on land

Sources of Unity in the South

- social groups were clustered (planters by planters, yeomen by yeomen)
- with widespread landownership and few factories whites didn't work for other whites
- those that didn't own slaves hoped to be slave-owners someday
- most accepted the racist assumptions that slavery was based on

George Fitzhugh – Virginia writer who argued there was "Wage Slavery" in the North which was less human as it didn't take care of the young and old like slavery did

Religious Reasons for Supporting Slavery

- helped blacks develop Christian values like humility and self-control
- slavery provided the opportunity to display Christian responsibility toward one's inferiors
- there were often used quotes from the Bible that backed slavery (St. Paul had ordered slaves to obey their masters)
- by 1830s even the churches in the south backed slavery

Fugitive Slave Act (1850) – part of the Compromise of 1850 (even stricter than previous law)

Uncle Tom's Cabin (1852) – written by Harriet Beecher Stowe influenced many in the north to turn against slavery

Impending Crisis of the South (1857) – written by Hinton R. Helper it urged slave holders to abolish slavery in their own interests

RELIGION & REFORM MOVEMENTS – TO CIVIL WAR (THEME #9)

RELIGION

Second Great Awakening (1790s) – featured revivals often at camp meetings

- differed from First Great Awakening in that it was human inspired (not seen as the miraculous work of a wrathful God)
- most successful on the frontier with ministers who were not college educated
- "burned over district" – central & western N.Y. state, known for religious zeal during the Second Great Awakening and support of reform movements

Eastern Revivals (1820s) – revivalism shifted back to the eastern cities

- Charles G. Finney, "Father of Modern Revivalism"

All of theme 9

- held city-wide revivals for all denominations and preached that sin was not a natural and irresistible behavior – it was voluntary and people could control their own destinies
- Unitarians – believed that Jesus was less than divine, but that one should cultivate moral goodness by “character building,” or trying to live like Jesus
 - criticized revivals for not changing people permanently, thought they were too emotional
- Mormons – Church of Latter-Day Saints founded by Joseph Smith
 - faced discrimination due to (1) they thought the addition of another book of the Bible (Book of Mormon) undermined the Bible, and (2) opposed to polygamy
 - moved to Illinois to escape persecution in east and built a model city, Nauvoo
 - later Brigham Young moved them to Utah to escape persecution again (Joseph Smith murdered)
- Shakers – name came from a religious dance that was part of their ceremony
 - known for being excellent artisans particularly the making of furniture
 - they opposed materialism, and supported abstinence
 - tried to integrate not separate from society, which made them available for joining reform movements
- Catholics – faced discrimination as nativist groups were opposed to the waves of poor Catholics (mostly Irish) that came to the U.S. and competed with them for jobs
 - Protestants thought their religion to be more democratic as their followers could interpret the Bible where the Pope does it for Catholics
 - Bible Riots – anti-Catholic mobs turned on Catholic communities burning houses down

REFORM

Age of Reform (1820s and 1830s) – a time when the major political parties avoided major issues so people joined private organizations to address them

- reformers looked at every issue as good vs. evil and that God was on their side
- New England and Midwest hotbeds for reform (not so much in South)
- Horizontal Allegiances – relationships built in the early 1800s that were between equals (often social organizations)
 - prior relationships were vertical in the family and the workplace where the authority of the father or shop-owner ruled
 - voluntary associations were a kind of horizontal allegiance often with a moral-reform focus

TEMPERANCE – war on liquor mostly inspired by revivals

- reformers saw alcoholic abuses as a male problem which led to problems for women and children
- American Temperance Society (1826) – most members were women and supported total abstinence; targeted the laboring classes and gained support from factory owners who wanted a more disciplined workforce
- Washington Temperance Society (1840) – formed after the Panic of 1837 when many saw temperance as the key to survival in hard economic times
 - held “experience meetings” where members described their salvation from drinking
- “Martha Washington” Societies – wives of workers pledged to smell the breath of their husbands and pressure them to stop drinking
- 1838 Massachusetts prohibited the sale of alcohol in amounts less than 15 gallons to restrict individuals rather than taverns from purchasing it

1851 Maine banned the manufacture and sale of all alcoholic beverages

PUBLIC EDUCATION – like temperance was to encourage orderliness and thrift among the common people; and move away from poorly attended one room school houses with harsh discipline

- Horace Mann – 1st Secretary of Education for Massachusetts
 - shifted burden of financial support of schools from parents to the state
 - set up graded school (classifying students by age and attainment)
 - introduced standardized textbooks (like McGuffey Readers) and curriculum
 - passed first compulsory ed. law in Mass. in 1852
- purpose of public education was to create a more educated working class particularly in New England to work in industry
- also, school to spread uniform cultural values exposing children to identical experiences and to promote patriotism and knowledge of our govt. (particularly for immigrants)
- most of the north modeled their school reform after Massachusetts
- opposition to this reform from farmers who liked the old schools, Catholics who didn’t like the Protestant bias of their books, and the poor who relied on children’s wages

ABOLITION – antislavery movement

- American Colonization Society (1817) – fought for gradual emancipation by compensating slave owners for their loss and sending freed blacks to Africa (only 1,400 sent to Liberia)
- David Walker – a free black from Boston published “An Appeal for a Black Rebellion” to crush slavery
- William Lloyd Garrison – famous and controversial abolitionist who launched his own abolitionist newspaper The Liberator (1831) in which he argued for immediate abolition

- Frederick Douglass and Sojourner Truth were former slaves who became lecturers
 - Douglass wrote his autobiography detailing life in slavery
 - Truth also lectured on women's rights
- abolition movement less popular than temperance (Protestant churches didn't rally to its cause)
- Grimke Sisters – gave speeches about abolition and faced criticism for lecturing men and not obeying them (led to their involvement in women's' rights)
- Gag rule – set up to prevent Congress from being bogged down by abolitionists' petition against slavery
- Political Parties formed on platform of Abolition:
 - Liberty Party, Free Soil Party, Republican Party
- Uncle Tom's Cabin (1852) – written by Harriet Beecher Stowe brought the issue of slavery to the North and made it seem more real to them

WOMEN'S RIGHTS – in 1830s women could not vote; if married they couldn't own property, and could not retain their own earnings

- women did get more social recognition through other reform movements
- discrimination faced as women within other reform movements led some women to turn towards the women's rights movement
- Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton were not seated at an abolition conference in London in 1840
 - they instead organized a women's rights convention in Seneca Falls, New York
 - Declaration of Sentiments – proclamation from the Seneca Falls Convention proclaiming "all men and women are created equal"
- Lucy Stone – in 1840s she was the first woman to lecture solely on women's rights
- Gains for women were slow
 - issues of temperance and school reform more popular
 - slowed by the idea of domesticity
 - associated with abolition which was unpopular
 - as small gains were made some women were satisfied and left the movement

PENITENTIARIES AND ASYLUMS – as poverty and crime increased people believed they were caused by alcohol and broken homes and thus could be prevented by being morally good

- to combat this reformers sought to target poverty, crime, and insanity by establishing highly regimented institutions to change people into virtuous, productive citizens

Combating Poverty:

- "outdoor relief" of the past – supporting the poor where they lived (which didn't solve the problem of demoralizing surroundings)
- move toward "indoor relief" in 1820s – almshouses for the infirm poor and workhouses for the able-bodied poor

Combating Crime:

- penitentiaries – prisons marked by an unprecedented degree of order and discipline in order to reform offenders
- solitary confinement used on the most violent offenders
- "Pennsylvania System" – each inmate in a single cell with no contact with other prisoners

Combating Mental Illness

- previously they were put in jails with criminals and treated horribly
- Dorothea Dix – encouraged legislatures to build insane asylums to meet their needs

UTOPIAN COMMUNITIES – sprung up in the 1820s and tried to create ideal societies

- New Harmony – (1825) founded in Indiana by British industrialist Robert Owen as a small planned community that would improve workers educational opportunities and living conditions
- Brook Farm – transcendentalists rural community to get away from competitive commercial life in cities
- Oneida Community (1848) – communist community that renounced private property founded in New York state; where community marriages existed (all married to all)

SECTIONALISM PRIOR TO THE CIVIL WAR (THEME #10)

- All of Theme 10

I. Slavery – not on the minds of Northern soldiers when war started, but clearly an issue that pervaded all of the social, political and economic causes

- Would there have been a split without slavery – no – root of all conflicts
- Conflict over slavery existed from birth of nation
- Nat Turner's Rebellion – slavery uprising that resulted in stricter laws in South controlling slave populations
- Virginia legislature debated the abolition of slavery in 1832 – the proposal was defeated and abolition was not discussed again in a southern legislature (had it passed other

- Southern states may have eventually followed)
 - gag rule – rule in Congress that tabled the discussion of petitions by anti-slavery Northerners to abolish slavery (1830's and 1840's)
 - Abolition – slavery moral wrong – Second Great Awakening
 - Underground Railroad – Harriet Tubman
- II. Economic – two competing systems (industrial north vs. agrarian south, free labor vs. slave)
 - cotton gin – made slavery profitable again, and thus entrenched in South
 - American System – plan pushed for by Henry Clay that would add internal improvements to the US (roads, canals, etc.) which the South objected to as they saw no benefit for them
 - Tariff battle for almost a century – south wants low tariff as they import all manufactured goods, and north wants high tariffs to protect their goods from international competition
 - South believed in nullification of Congressional laws which goes back to Virginia & Kentucky Resolutions regarding Alien & Sedition Acts
 - Nullification Crisis – John Calhoun and South Carolina Exposition and Protest, which outlined position of nullification in relation to the Tariff of Abominations
 - Andrew Jackson's response – the "olive branch" of Compromise Tariff which lowered the high tariff and the "sword" of Force Bill which allowed for federal troops to enforce the tariff (which South Carolina nullified)
 - Recession of 1857 causes bigger divide
- III. Political
 - Representation in Senate/Congress
 - Every new state could ruin balance – both sides feared other side would try to mandate their society on the other federally
 - Missouri Compromise (1820)
 - added slave state Missouri and free state Maine to keep balance
 - drew line from southern border of Missouri west dividing territories into land set aside for slavery south of it and to remain free above it
 - State power vs. Federal power
 - Southern states still felt states were sovereign – goes back to Federalist/Anti-Federalist battle (see Nullification Crisis)
 - Anti-Slavery political parties formed
 - William Lloyd Garrison edited The Liberator – an anti-slavery newspaper that called for govt. action against slavery
 - Liberty Party – 1840 – a minor political party that broke away from the American Anti-Slavery Society due to grievances with William Lloyd Garrison's leadership and nominated a Presidential candidate - 1844 & 1848
 - Free Soil Party – 1847 – formed with remnants of the Liberty Party and other groups and took the platform stance of no slavery in territories
 - Texas and Mexico
 - arguments over annexation of Texas centered on issue of Texas being added as a slave state (James Polk was able to push this through)
 - Wilmot Proviso – added to the appropriations bill for the treaty to end the Mexican War, it declared that slavery would not be permitted in any territory acquired in the war, though it never passed it angered the South
- IV. Catalysts – events that made both sides look evil, and created larger tension
 - Compromise of 1850 – CA admitted, popular sovereignty, DC no slaves, tougher/enforced fugitive slave act pushed through Congress by Henry Clay
 - Uncle Tom's Cabin – Harriet Beecher Stowe – first glimpse for Europe and North of life in South – kept England out of war – queen allegedly cried
 - Fugitive Slave Act – forced Northerners to return blacks to South and brought issue of slavery to the forefront for them
 - Anthony Burns – a fugitive slave who made it from Virginia to Boston, who was arrested and an anti-slavery mob tried to gain his release (and shot a US marshal in the process) but President Pierce sent in federal troops to assist in returning Burns to Virginia (anti-slavery supporters bought his freedom)
 - Kansas-Nebraska Act – 1854 split territories– dissenters create Republican Party and the Whig Party was divided and faded away
 - Popular Sovereignty – let states decide for themselves – ignore Missouri Compromise
 - Bleeding Kansas – fight between anti- and pro-slavery settlers in Kansas
 - Sack of Lawrence – pro-slavery force attacked anti-slavery town and destroyed

- its printing presses which were used to publish anti-slavery propaganda
- Pottawatomie Creek Massacre – in reaction to sack of Lawrence anti-slavery force led by John Brown hacks bodies of 5 pro-slavery settlers
- Lecompton Constitution – pro-slavery Constitution written to oppose the anti-slavery Topeka Constitution for the admitting of Kansas to the Union
 - Pres. Buchanan and southern Democrats endorsed this anti-slavery Constitution and Stephen Douglass and northern Democrats opposed it helping to divide the Democratic Party and pave way for Lincoln's election
 - Congress wouldn't approve this Constitution and Kansas wasn't added to the Union until 1863 (after the Civil War started) as a free state
- Bleeding Sumner – Senator Charles Sumner of Mass. caned violently on Senate floor after anti-South speech
- Republican Party – Northern party to outlaw slavery formed from Free-Soilers, anti-slavery Whigs, and some Northern Democrats
- Dred Scott Case – Justice Taney ruled slaves aren't citizens and can't sue, and that slaves are property and the govt. can't take them away, thus making the Missouri Compromise illegal
- Lincoln-Douglas Debates – in campaign for Illinois Senator – Lincoln argues no slavery in territories and loses election, but gains national prominence (he becomes Republican candidate for Pres. in 1860)
- Freeport Doctrine – Douglas's position on popular sovereignty and against Supreme Court ruling in Dred Scott Case (alienated Southerners and prevented him from being a viable national candidate for the Democratic Party in the 1860 Presidential Election)
- John Brown's Raid – tries to take over federal arsenal in Harper's Ferry to gain weapons to free slaves (greatly angers the South)
- Election of 1860 – S.C. secede after Lincoln elected (leading other Southern states to follow)
- Crittendon Compromise – unsuccessful last ditch effort to keep southern states from seceding by proposing a Constitutional amendment to protect slavery in the South

THE CIVIL WAR (THEME #10-B)

I. Beginning of the War

A. Confederate States of America created – Jefferson Davis (moderate from Miss. President)

B. Fighting Begins

1. Fort Sumter – Confederates attack Union fort in Charleston harbor starting the war
2. Robert E. Lee – offered Union commanding general position, but refuses to fight against home state of Virginia and takes same position with South
3. Battle of Bull Run – first battle of the war with armies for each side

II. The Union Homefront

A. Mobilization and Finance

1. First conscription or draft – can buy way out (the North allowed for hiring suitable substitutes or the payment of a \$300 "commutation fee" to the government to avoid service)
2. Increased tariffs, income tax, sold bonds, printed currency "greenbacks"
3. War profiteers – industry/manufacturing make a lot of money – some corrupt

B. Suspension of Civil Liberties/Ignoring the Constitution

1. Lincoln thought better to save United States than follow Constitution
 - A. Blockade, increased army, \$2 million to 3 men for army purchases – none of this in Constitution
2. Needs to keep border states
 - A. Suspends habeas corpus – don't need to tell suspect why arrested
 - B. "supervised" voting
 - C. Newspapers/editors influenced/pressured

C. Election of 1864 – Republican Party becomes Union Party for a bit

1. Copperheads – nickname for Northern Democrats who sought a negotiated end to the war with the South
2. "bayonet vote" – some soldiers return to vote - 49 times/others vote on front
3. Sherman captures Atlanta – gives boost to cause

II. Southern Homefront – President Jefferson Davis declared martial law – suspended habeas corpus

- A. Confederate Constitution – can't have strong fed. gov't when some states still want to threaten secession
- B. Mobilization and Finance – must have conscription – leads to class conflict – poor serve
 1. Tariffs hard to collect due to blockade – money made through bonds
 2. Prints a lot of money with no value – extreme inflation

C. Impressment Act -- allowing Confederate agents to seize food and property for the war effort, compensating the suppliers with below-market prices

III. Foreign Affairs/Diplomacy

A. South must gain European support

1. South wanted to gain support of Britain which had relied on Southern cotton
2. Britain which had made slavery illegal refused to join the South's side

B. Trent Affair -- Union takes two diplomats off ship for Britain -- looks bad

C. Some Canadians working with South to bomb Northern cities

D. Napoleon III takes opportunity to ignore Monroe Doctrine and take over Mexico

IV. Military strategy

A. "Anaconda Plan" -- to apply constricting pressure on the South

1. Blockade of the South to keep military supplies out
2. Take the Mississippi River to split South into two parts
3. Put constant pressure on Richmond (Confederate capitol in Virginia)

B. Vicksburg -- Union victory led by Ulysses S. Grant that

C. Gettysburg -- Union victory in Penn. that was the turning point in the war as Lee's army never fully recovered

D. Grant takes over as Union commanding general -- fights war of attrition on South constantly attacking and losing huge numbers of soldiers, but with the knowledge that the South could not gain new recruits whereas the North could

E. Sherman's march to the Sea -- Union general who burned everything in his way (including Atlanta) as he marched through the South, which greatly lowered Southern morale to keep fighting, and eventually met with Grant's army to put pressure on Lee

F. Appomattox Courthouse -- site of the signing of the surrender by Lee which ended the war

V. Ending Slavery -- Confiscation Act -- army seizes property of South -- slaves

A. Emancipation Proclamation -- after Antietam -- frees none -- only in seceding states

B. Freedmen's Bureau -- gov't sponsored agency -- goes South to educate blacks

C. Thirteenth Amendment -- frees slaves

VI. Major effects -- slavery banned, secession issue finally ended, industry can now expand

A. Industry/North decides future path of nation -- no longer aristocracy/agrarian

B. Role of Central Government expanded

1. 13th, 14th, 15th Amendments -- first amendments that don't take power away
2. Taxation -- printing currency -- National Banking System
3. Standing army
4. Freedmen's Bureau -- American sponsored welfare program -- precedent

C. Labor Saving Devices -- change occupations -- move to petroleum/coal jobs

1. Labor moves West looking for jobs

D. Women -- took jobs of men -- gov't workers

1. Fighting -- spies, impersonating men
2. Nurses -- Clara Barton -- starts Red Cross later
3. Raised money for cause -- soldiers -- organized bazaars/fairs/made goods to sell
4. National Loyal League (also known as the Woman's National Loyal League) -- was the first national women's political organization, and was formed in 1863 in New York City by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, Angelina Grimké Weld, and Lucy Stone, and other women's rights activists, and their first objective was to lobby for an amendment to the United States Constitution to abolish slavery (helped pass 13th Amendment)

WESTWARD EXPANSION -- MANIFEST DESTINY (Theme #11)

(Early 1700s) -- fur trade competition urges traders to venture west over Appalachians

Treaty of Paris (1763) -- ends the French and Indian War with France ceding its Canadian territories to England who controls North America east of the Mississippi River

Proclamation of 1763 -- British told colonists following French & Indian War that they could not settle in the west (west of Appalachian Mountains) due to the expense of protecting settlers there following the war with France and due to Native American resistance like Pontiac's Rebellion

Land Ordinance of 1785 -- passed by Congress under the Articles of Confederation to provide for the surveying of western lands into 6 mile by 6 mile townships to organize and help sell the land; it also provided for the sale of one portion of the township to help pay for public education

Northwest Ordinance of 1787 -- sets guidelines for settlement on the American frontier, including the prohibition of slavery and a requirement to deal fairly with Indians; set rules for dividing the territory into states (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin)

Daniel Boone -- a pioneer and hunter whose frontier exploits made him one of the first folk heroes of the US; most famous for his exploration and settlement of what is now the U.S. state of Kentucky, which was then beyond the

- All of Theme 11

western borders of the Thirteen Colonies; blazed the Wilderness Road through the Cumberland Gap and into Kentucky (Kentucky admitted as a state in 1792, Tennessee in 1796)

Pacific Coast Trade (1790s-1820s) – ocean travel to west coast allows for trade with outposts there

Speculators (1790s-1810s) – land laws in 1790s required a minimum purchase of 640 acres hoping that a community of farmers would buy land in groups to create towns; instead speculators bought up the land hoping to profit off of it; this land speculation led to the Panic of 1819

Pinckney's Treaty or Treaty of San Lorenzo (1795) – establishes the border between the US and Spanish territories along the Mississippi River and gives US merchants the right to ship goods through New Orleans duty-free

Louisiana Purchase (1803) – purchase of territory west of the Mississippi River from Napoleon of France which nearly doubled the size of the US; sparked a controversy as the strict interpretation President Jefferson agreed to the sale though it was not directly allowed by the Constitution

Lewis and Clark Expedition (1804-1806) – the first overland expedition by the US to the Pacific coast and back led by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark; its goal was to gain an accurate sense of the resources being exchanged in the Louisiana Purchase and laid much of the groundwork for the westward expansion of the US

Robert Livingston and Robert Fulton (1807) – developed the first economically successful steamboat, the *Clermont*, which carried passengers between New York City and Albany, New York, which was able to make the 300 mile trip in 32 hours; they developed a monopoly over steamboat travel on the Hudson River

Zebulon Pike (1807) – explores the Rocky Mountains (Pike's Peak in Colorado bears his name)

John Jacob Astor (1810) – expands the fur trade all the way to the Pacific making him a fortune

War of 1812 – ended British support of Native Americans in the west and ended ongoing territorial disputes with British

Adams-Onís Treaty or Transcontinental Treaty (1819) – US added Florida and set western border with Spain

Santa Fe Trail (1820) – merchants with unsold goods in St. Louis (due to the Panic of 1819) traveled south on the trail to sell goods to Mexicans

Squatters (1820s) – settlers move onto lands belonging by treaty to Native Americans without any ownership rights

Stephan Austin (1823) – leading empresario or land agent who brought American settlers to the Mexican territory of Texas (today's capitol of Texas named after him)

Bureau of Indian Affairs (1824) – created to resolve disputes with western tribes

Erie Canal (1825) – opened up steamboat travel from NYC to Great Lakes bringing large numbers of settlers to the regions along these lakes (most settlers at this time lived near water)

Jedediah Smith (1826) – led 1st party of Americans overland to California; led first wagon train there in 1830

Baltimore & Ohio Railroad or B&O (1830) – begins operations and leads to settlement in west away from waterways and near railroad lines

Indian Removal Act (1830) – passed by Andrew Jackson it moved Native Americans from east of the Mississippi River to west of it in Oklahoma and South Dakota

Pre-emption Act (1830) – grants settlers right to buy 160 acres at \$1.25/acre if they have cultivated it for 12 months

Texas Revolution (1836) – American settlers in Texas fought the Mexican army led by Santa Anna; Battle of the Alamo was the most famous battle due to the death of all of the Texas defenders who faced the tremendously larger Mexican army; Sam Houston led the Texans to victory at the Battle of San Jacinto and became the first President of the Republic of Texas

Webster-Ashburton Treaty (1842) – agreement with the British that set the border between the US and Canada all the way west to the Rocky Mountains (the same border that currently exists there)

Oregon Trail (1843) – opening of the trail that is most famous for bringing wagon trains to the west; John Fremont led the expedition that mapped its route

Annexation of Texas (1844) – the US annexed newly independent Texas into the Union

Manifest Destiny (1845) – term coined by journalist, John L. O'Sullivan; it was the 19th century belief that the US was destined to expand across the North American continent, from the Atlantic seaboard to the Pacific Ocean; it was used by Democrats in the 1840s to justify the war with Mexico; the concept was denounced by Whigs, and fell into disuse after the mid 1850s

Oregon Treaty (1846) – set border between US and Canada to the Pacific coast extending the Webster-Ashburton Treaty line at the 49th parallel latitude

Brigham Young (1845-1847) – led Mormons away from persecution in the east to the remote region of Utah, just beyond the existing borders of the US at the time

Mexican-American War (1846-1848) – fought due to border dispute between Texas and Mexico – Mexico thought the border was the Nueces River, and the US thought the border was further south at the Rio Grande; the war was a clear victory for the US

John Fremont (1846) – brought the US Army force under his command to California to support their small revolution and creation of the Bear Flag Republic; previously mapped the Oregon Trail; later was the first candidate for President of the Republican Party in 1856

Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848) – officially ended the Mexican-American War and gave the US undisputed control of Texas, established the U.S.-Mexican border of the Rio Grande River, and ceded to the US the present-day states of

California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, and Wyoming; in return Mexico received US \$18,250,000

Sutter's Mill (1848) – gold was found there leading to the California Gold Rush in 1849 and the '49ers or miners who rushed there; nearby San Francisco's population swelled from 150 to 50,000 (ultimate boom town)

Compromise of 1850 – along with handling other issues related to slavery, it admitted California into the union just two years after gold was discovered there

Gadsden Purchase (1853) – purchase from Mexico of a small strip of land along current Arizona and New Mexico border for the purpose of building a railroad there to the Pacific

Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854) – organizes those territories and determines that popular sovereignty would be used to decide the issue in the territories as they proceed toward ultimate statehood

Cross-country stage coach (1858) – the first non-stop stage coach from St. Louis arrives in Los Angeles

Comstock Lode (1859) – first large discovery of silver in the US near Virginia City, Nevada created more boom towns and led to an increased supply of it and future arguments over use of silver to back money supply

Pony Express (1860) – mail delivery service first crosses the country from the Midwest to California; it uses short sprints with fresh horses and riders who change horses frequently along the way

Transcontinental telegraph (1861) – first telegraph line that crosses the west to reach California

Homestead Act (1862) – federal law that gave 160 acres of land free to any settler who moved there and improved it for a five year period; helped to greatly increase settlement of the Great Plains

Morrill Land Grant Act (1862) – federal land to be sold in states to raise money for creation of colleges in those states (mostly universities that bear names like "State" or "A&M" such as Iowa State University or Texas A&M University – A&M stands for Agriculture and Mining)

Seward's Folly or Seward's Icebox (1867) – nickname for the Purchase of Alaska; named after the Secretary of State at the time, William Seward; ridiculed the purchase as expensive and for acquiring land that seemed useless; this negative opinion changed with the discovery of gold there in the 1890s and with the discovery of oil there in the next century

First cattle drive from Texas to railroads in Kansas (1867) – to get cattle to eastern markets using the railroads in Kansas; Joseph McCoy opened a market in Abilene to purchase the cattle; most important early route was the Chisholm Trail from Fort Worth, Texas to Abilene, Kansas

Pacific Railroad Act (1862) – with it Congress authorized the construction of the transcontinental railroad and gave 10 square miles of land for every mile of track built to the two construction companies that worked on the project – the Union Pacific which hired civil war veterans and Irish immigrants to build west from Omaha, Nebraska and the Central Pacific which hired Chinese immigrants to build east from Sacramento, California; the two lines met at Promontory Point, Utah in 1869

Wyoming women gain right to vote (1869) – women in this territory permanently gained the right to vote prior to any other territory or state in the Union

"Buffalo Bill" or William Cody (1870) – he along with other buffalo hunters arrive in the Great Plains and begin to slaughter the buffalo for food for railroad workers, to keep the animals off of the tracks, and to deprive the Native Americans there of these animals to get them to vacate territory; Buffalo Bill later became famous for his traveling Wild West shows the glorified life in the west

Joseph Glidden (1874) – gains a patent for barbed wire, which helps farmers on the Great Plains fence in their fields to keep cattle out; barbed wire along with wind mills to pump water from below the ground make the Great Plains habitable for farmers

Desert Land Act (1877) – permits settlers to buy up to 640 acres of land at \$.25/acre in arid areas if they irrigate it

Timber Act (1878) – sold western timberland for \$2.50/acre in 160 acre blocks (land unfit for farming)

Indian Wars (1870s-1880s) – US Army fought tribes in the Great Plains and in the west who refused to go to reservations, which opened up the region for greater settlement

Northern Pacific Railroad completed (1883)

Pearl Harbor (1887) – naval base built through treaty with Hawaii

Oklahoma Land Rush (1889) – last piece of open frontier land was opened for settlement on a specific date; settlers rushed in to claim parcels of land which used to belong to Native American reservations in the region previously known as Indian Territory

Frederick Jackson Turner (1893) – historian who wrote *The Significance of the Frontier in American History*, which described his belief that a key factor in the development of American individualism and democracy was the frontier and western expansion

Klondike Gold Rush (1897) – gold discovered in Alaska and Canada's Yukon Territory led to rush there

U.S. annexes Hawaii (1898)

Arizona becomes a state (1912) – it is admitted as the last of the 48 contiguous states

TRANSPORTATION REVOLUTION (Theme #12)

Clermont (1807) – the first financially successful steamboat created by Robert Livingston and Robert Fulton; it could travel upstream and its route was from NYC to Albany, NY on the Hudson River

National Road (1811) – a highway from Wheeling, Virginia that ultimately went to Vandalia, Illinois that brought settlers by land west of the Appalachian Mountains



American System (1816) – a plan proposed by Henry Clay in Congress that was to fund internal improvements (roads and canals)

Gibbons v. Ogden (1824) – Chief Justice John Marshall ruled that Congress had the constitutional right to break down the Livingston/Fulton steamboat monopoly that was granted by the NY state legislature; Congress had the right to do so as it could regulate the trade from NY to New Jersey

Erie Canal (1825) – canal that connected the Hudson River to Lake Erie in New York which enabled travel from the Atlantic Ocean to the Great Lakes and the Midwest; also started a boom in canal building

Chesapeake & Ohio (1828) – canal that connected the Potomac River (by Washington, DC) to lands west; it never connected all the way to Ohio as the railroads took their business and the company was in debt

Baltimore & Ohio (1828) – railroad that connected east to west that took business away from the canals; led to a boom in railroads and the ability of people to settle away from waterways

Maysville Road Veto (1829) – President Andrew Jackson vetoed the bill that would have provided federal funding for this road; he rationalized that it was only in Kentucky, thus shouldn't be paid for by the federal government

Boston & Worcester (1831) – railroad built to connect Boston to the west; it extended to NY by 1833

Cross-country stage coach (1858) – the first non-stop stage coach from St. Louis arrives in Los Angeles

Pony Express (1860) – mail delivery service first crosses the country from the Midwest to California; it uses short sprints with fresh horses and riders who change horses frequently along the way

Pacific Railroad Act (1862) – with it Congress authorized the construction of the transcontinental railroad and gave 10 square miles of land for every mile of track built to the two construction companies that worked on the project – the

Union Pacific which hired civil war veterans and Irish immigrants to build west from Omaha, Nebraska and the Central Pacific which hired Chinese immigrants to build east from Sacramento, California; the two lines met at Promontory Point, Utah in 1869

George Pullman (1865) – introduced the first sleeping car for passenger train service

George Westinghouse (1868) – invents compressed air locomotive brake that allowed for better braking which means trains could travel faster more safely

Granger Laws (1870s-1880s) – laws passed by states with pressure from the Grange (farmers organizations) that regulated railroad rates; these laws were declared unconstitutional

Munn v. Illinois (1876) – Supreme Court case that allowed states to regulate certain businesses within their borders, including railroads, and is commonly regarded as a milestone in the growth of federal government regulation

Northern Pacific (1883) – a transcontinental railroad that passed through northern states in the west was completed

electric streetcars (1884) – first electric streetcar or trolley system became operational in Cleveland, OH

Wabash v. Illinois (1886) – Supreme Court decision that severely limited the rights of states to control interstate commerce; it led to the creation of the Interstate Commerce Commission; it argued that states couldn't regulate interstate trade, which left the door open for the federal govt. to do so, which it did in the Interstate Commerce Act

Interstate Commerce Act (1887) – set up the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC) which was a regulatory body whose purpose was to regulate railroads (and later trucking) to ensure fair rates, to eliminate rate discrimination, and to regulate other aspects of common carriers

Orville and Wilbur Wright (1903) – successfully flew the first airplane in Kitty Hawk, NC which served as a model for other airplane builders

Elkins Act (1903) – strengthened the ICC by addressing rebates and requiring railroads to publish rates

subway (1904) – first underground street car line or subway became operation in NYC

Hepburn Act (1906) – strengthened the ICC by allowing it to set maximum railroad rates and gave it the power to view the financial records of railroad companies

Henry Ford (1908) – his Ford Motor Company produced the first automobile that was mass produced and affordable for the general public – the Model T; used the assembly line to accomplish this

city bus service (1912) – Cleveland launches the first city bus service

Titanic (1912) – the largest passenger ship ever at the time, this luxury liner sunk after hitting an iceberg

Panama Canal (1914) – its opening was overshadowed by the start of World War I, but it became incredibly important to world shipping connecting the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans

passenger airlines (1920s) – major passenger airlines such as American Airlines, United Airlines, and Pan Am Worldwide Airway were created during this decade

Air Commerce Act (1926) – allowed Federal regulation of air traffic rules; the aviation industry backed the passage of this act, believing that without the government's action to improve safety the commercial potential of the airplane would not be realized

Charles Lindbergh (1927) – completed the first trans-Atlantic non-stop solo flight and became a national hero

General Motors (1927) – began to lead the automobile industry due to its wide range of colors, and the stylish Chevrolet make

Amelia Earhart (1929) – became the first woman to fly across the Atlantic solo; later vanished in a round-the-world trip

Highway Act (1956) – passed by President Eisenhower who saw it as part of our nation's defense plan after seeing the German autobahn during WWII and how effective it was; led to the creation of suburbs and industries and businesses related to driving (trucking, restaurants, motels, etc)

Boeing 707 (1957) – 1st commercially successful passenger jet airliner

Not
on

Periods

↓ 1-5 Test

Sputnik (1957) – Soviet Union launches first satellite which spurred US efforts in education and scientific research to keep up

Yuri Gagarin (1961) – USSR cosmonaut who became the first human in space

John Glenn (1962) – first US astronaut in space

Unsafe at Any Speed (1966) – book by Ralph Nader that proclaimed cars were unsafe and called for federal safety regulations to protect passengers

Boeing 747 (1969) – 1st “jumbo jet” passenger airline

Neil Armstrong (1969) – first astronaut to step foot on the moon along with Buzz Aldrin

Rail Passenger Service Act (1970) – created govt. run Amtrak, reviving passenger rail service in the US

Space Shuttle (1981) – first space shuttle was launched

IMMIGRATION & NATIVISM (Theme #13)

Alien and Sedition Acts (1789)

- Alien Enemies Act – set procedure for determining whether citizens of a hostile country posed a threat
- Alien Friends Act – authorized the president to expel any foreign resident whose activities were considered dangerous
- Naturalization Act – immigrants would have to live in the US for 14 years before becoming citizens

Foreign Conspiracy Against the Liberties of the United States (1835) – written by Samuel Morse of telegraph fame it warned that the despotic nations of Europe were systematically flooding the US with Catholic immigrants as part of a conspiracy to destroy republican institutions

A Plea for the West (1835) – written by Lyman Beecher it warned that Catholics would flood the west and try to dominate the region

Panic of 1837 – the deep depression of this time led Protestants to believe that Catholics were a threat to their jobs and this caused many Protestants to join nativist societies

Potato Famine (1845-1855) – led to large migration of over a million Irish (mostly very poor) to the US who settled mostly in eastern US cities (faced a great deal of anti-Catholic hatred)

German immigrants (1840s-1860s) – arrived in numbers only less than the Irish and settled in large numbers in cities of the Midwest where they remained very clannish and were slow to assimilate

Nativism – name for anti-immigrant sentiment by native-born Americans caused by anti-Catholic feelings, fears over immigrants threatening jobs and keeping wages low, and fears that immigration would have a bad effect on our democratic system

Know Nothings or American Party (1850s) – based political campaigns on nativist or anti-immigrant beliefs

Old Immigrants (before 1890) – mostly from northern and western Europe

New Immigrants (after 1890) – more coming to the US from southern and eastern Europe

push factors – reasons to immigrate to the US based on what one would leave in Europe

- included overpopulation, crop failure, famine, religious persecution, lack of democratic rights, and industrial depression

pull factors – reasons to immigrate to the US based on what could be gained in the US

- included promise of good wages, wide variety of jobs available, democratic rights

ghettos – neighborhoods with people from one ethnic group living there (“Little Italy,” “Chinatown”)

slums – impoverished neighborhoods in cities with crowded tenement housing that were filled with immigrants

chain migration – tendency for immigrants to relocate near friends and family from their original town in their old country (and the encouraging of more from there to come to the US)

creation of public schools in the 1800s to help immigrants assimilate quicker

Chinese Exclusion Act (1880) – placed a 10 year ban on Chinese immigration (which was later extended)

Ellis Island (1892) – immigration processing center for the US located in NY harbor for immigrants from Europe

Immigration Restriction League (1894) – middle-class Americans (particularly from Boston) formed a league that was outraged with the slum life in cities and the effect of immigration

Naturalization Act of 1906 – required immigrants to learn to speak English to become naturalized citizens

“Gentlemen’s Agreement” (1907) – Japan agreed to not allow its citizens to emigrate to the US and in return the US would allow Japanese already here to stay

- Japan agreed to this to avoid a formal law passed like the Chinese Exclusion Act

Angel Island (1910) – immigration processing center for the US located in San Francisco Bay to handle the immigration of Asians (conditions were much worse than in Ellis Island and many were held for months before being admitted and many were deported)

Immigration Act of 1917 – passed over Wilson’s veto, it added to the number of undesirables banned from entering the country, including but not limited to, “idiots,” “feeble-minded persons,” “epileptics,” “insane persons,” alcoholics, “professional beggars,” all persons “mentally or physically defective,” polygamists, and anarchists

- it barred all immigrants over the age of sixteen who were illiterate

Not of
↓ Periods
1-5 Test

- it designated an "Asiatic Barred Zone," a region that included much of eastern Asia and the Pacific Islands from which people could not immigrate (previously, only the Chinese had been excluded from Ozawa v. U.S. (1922) – this case ruled that a Japan-born man who lived most of his life in the US was denied citizenship on the basis that though he was light-skinned he was not "white"
 - to avoid future issues the court defined "white" as Caucasian
 - U.S. v. Bhagat Singh Thind (1923) – a man from India was denied citizenship and the court readjusted its position in the Ozawa case and determined Caucasians were to be admitted from Europe only (anthropologists say that people of northern India were Caucasians, too)
 - Immigration Act of 1924 – limited the number of immigrants who could be admitted from any country to 2% of the number of people from that country who were already living in the US in 1890.
 - 1890 census was used as there weren't many immigrants from southern and eastern Europe yet
 - the part of this law that set up the quotas is known as the National Origins Act 1924
 - also set up tests for citizenship and allowed for literacy and health tests before admission to US
 - Border Patrol (1924) – created to halt or at least slow down illegal immigration from Mexico
 - Sacco-Vanzetti Case (1927) – a case in Mass. where two Italian immigrants were accused of murder and were sentenced to death in a time of strong anti-immigration, anti-Italian, and anti-communist feelings
 - Immigration and Naturalization Service or INS (1933) – this agency was officially formed to handle immigration and was a part of the Dept. of Labor, but was moved to the Dept. of Justice
 - Alien Registration Act (1940) – required all aliens (non-US citizens) within the US to register with the govt. and to receive an Alien Registration Card (which later would be known as "green cards")
 - Magnuson Act (1943) – lifted the barriers to citizenship for most immigrants of Asian origin
 - McCarran Internal Security Act (1950) – a key institution in the era of the Cold War, it tightened alien exclusion and deportation laws and allowing for the detention of dangerous, disloyal, or subversive persons (meaning those thought to be communist) in times of war or "internal security emergency" (passed over a Truman veto)
 - McCarran-Walter Act (1952) – abolished the 1917 Asia Barred Zone and allowed immigrants from Asia into the US based on ethnic quotas (which were much lower than quotas for those from Europe)
 - Immigration Act of 1965 – abolished the national-origin quotas that had been in place in the US since the Immigration Act of 1924, and an annual limitation of visas was established for immigrants from Eastern Hemisphere countries with no more than 20,000 per country (ending the bias against Asian immigrants)
 - Refugee Act (1980) – reformed US immigration law and admitted refugees on systematic basis for humanitarian reasons
 - Immigration Reform and Control Act (1986) – made it illegal to knowingly hire or recruit illegal immigrants and required employers to attest to their employees' immigration status
 - granted amnesty to undocumented immigrants who entered the US before 1982
 - Immigration Act of 1990 – increased the number of legal immigrants allowed into the US each year, and created a lottery program that randomly assigned a number of visas to help immigrants from countries where the US did not often grant visas
 - provided for exceptions to the English testing process required by the Naturalization Act of 1906
 - California Proposition 187 (1994) – a California state petition that was passed but overturned by a federal court which was to deny schooling and medical care for illegal immigrants (particularly Mexicans)
 - Patriot Act (2001) – provided US govt. the power to combat terrorism, and enhances the discretion of law enforcement and immigration authorities in detaining and deporting immigrants suspected of terrorism-related acts
 - Department of Homeland Security (2001) – created to protect the US from terrorism, it also took in the INS as part of its efforts to control immigration and created a new agency to handle immigration
- NATIVE AMERICANS TO INDIAN WARS (THEME #14)** *All of Theme 14*
- Battle of Lake Champlain (1609) – Founder of New France Samuel de Champlain assisted Huron in a skirmish against Mohawks and set the groundwork for future French and British NA alliances
- Anglo-Powhatan Wars:
- 1st Anglo Powhatan War (1610-1614) – early Virginia colony barely survived this war
 - 2nd Anglo-Powhatan War (1622-1632) – Virginia again nearly loses, and Virginia Company goes bankrupt in the process leaving James I to take the colony as a royal colony
 - 3rd Anglo-Powhatan War (1644-1646) – led by Opechancanough the Powhatans (upset over further encroachment on their lands) kill 500 of 800 colonists before being defeated
- Kieft's War (1645) – Dutch after treating NAs well and purchasing Manhattan in 1626, now turn on them and wipe out New Netherlands tribes

Pequot War (1637) – rapidly expanding colonist took over Connecticut river valley taking NA land (after surrounding and burning a Pequot village killing hundreds)

“praying towns” (1640s) – after Massachusetts passes laws prohibiting NAs from practicing their own religions and after repeated attempts by colonists to convert them, with their numbers dwindling due to disease (90% dead) many NAs were forced to cede their land and move to these reservations led by English missionaries

Beaver Wars (1648-1657) – Iroquois disrupt fur trade for French and their NA allies

King Philip’s War (1675-1676) – Metacom (known as King Philip) attacked 52 of New England’s 90 towns killing cattle, burning houses and killing 5% of the colonists population

- English win with help of opposing tribes, and as Metacom’s forces dwindling to disease
- Ended major NA resistance in New England

Bacon’s Rebellion (1675-1676) – poor western Virginia farmers led by Nathaniel Bacon take out their frustrations against neighboring tribes (despite the fact these tribes had peacefully stayed on the lands reserved for them) against the wishes of Virginia Governor Berkeley

- when these first attacks were so popular the Governor conceded and a war of extermination waged in the west
- when Berkeley changed his mind, Bacon’s followers turned on him and burned the capitol

Covenant Chain (late 1600s) – Iroquois Confederacy and many colonies enacted treaties

- these treaties allowed the Iroquois to help the colonies subjugate tribes whose lands the English wanted thus sparing Iroquois land and allowing them to maintain their strength

Pueblo Revolt (1680) – Popé and Pueblos fed up with Spanish missionaries and rule rebel and drive them out of New Mexico for 10 years (and Spanish never resumed the same level of control)

Grand Settlement (1701) – Iroquois Confederacy nearly destroyed as it bore the brunt of the fighting in King William’s War between British and French

- two treaties between the Iroquois Confederacy and the French and their NA allies became known as the Grand Settlement and allowed the Iroquois to build their strength back up

Tuscaroras (1711-1713) – tribe in North Carolina that attacked a white settlement that encroached on their lands; colonists responded by enlisting aid from South Carolina and its NA allies and wiped out 1/5 of their pop. Before they surrendered and migrated north (joining the Iroquois Confederacy)

Yamasees (1715) – NA tribe in South Carolina that helped against the Tuscaroras, but now attacked English settlements encroaching on their lands; now South Carolina enlisted the Cherokee and to help them crush this rebellion

Walking Purchase (1737) – Delaware cede land to Penn. (this treaty in sharp contrast to early fair treatment of NAs by Penn.)

Albany Plan (1754) – delegates from colonies meet to discuss defense and NA affairs

French & Indian War (1754-1760) – NAs fought on both sides, with British and its allies winning

Pontiac’s Rebellion (1763) – Pontiac and his followers sacked 8 British forts near Great Lakes and overwhelmed those at Pittsburgh and Detroit (kept fighting after losing French allies)

Proclamation of 1763 – British recognized NA land west of the proclamation line (roughly equal to Appalachian Mountains (to prevent more costly conflicts with tribes there)

Revolutionary War – NAs supported British as they saw the colonists as more expansionist

Fort Stanwix Treaty (1784) – Iroquois lost over ½ of their land in New York and Penn.

Fort McIntosh Treaty (1785) – Delaware tribal leaders forced to recognize American sovereignty over their lands (treaty opposed by many NAs as those who signed it lacked the authority)

Fort Finney Treaty (1786) – Shawnees forced to recognize American sovereignty over their lands (treaty opposed by many NAs as those who signed it lacked the authority)

Land Ordinance of 1785/Northwest Ordinance of 1787 – set up Northwest Territory for settlement

Non-Intercourse Act (1790) – federal govt. to regulate treaties and trade with NAs

Creeks – NA tribe allied with the Spanish in the South that fought American settlement in Georgia and Alabama, but ultimately were removed west

- Treaty of New York (1790) – temporary treaty with Creeks that preserved Creek territory, but allowed Georgia settlers on their land to stay

Battle of Fallen Timbers (1794) – US forces led by General Wayne attack and defeat Shawnees

- results in British leaving Fort Miami and Ohio being open for American settlement

Louisiana Purchase (1803) – France sold this land to US, leading to eventual American settlement there

Battle of Tippecanoe (1811) – Tecumseh’s confederation of tribes suffered this major loss while he was away, won by William Henry Harrison, which opened up Indiana to white settlement

Tecumseh continued to fight and led NAs against US in War of 1812

National Road (1811-1838) – settlers streamed west by this road through the Appalachians

War of 1812 – partly caused because British were supplying western NAs with weapons, this war was won by US and led to the withdrawal of British from west (depriving NAs of an ally and leading to further western settlement by Americans)

Transcontinental Treaty (Adams-Onís Treaty) (1819) – set western borders of US with Spain and gave US Florida (thus depriving NAs in Florida protection of Spanish)

Office of Indian Affairs (1826) – became an executive branch office separate from the Dept. of War which used to handle Indian Affairs (oversaw all treaties and other relations)

Black Hawk's War (1830-1832) – a revolt led by a Sac and Fox chief, Black Hawk, who resisted removal from Illinois and then was chased through Wisconsin to the Mississippi River where his people were slaughtered (allowed settlers into Wisconsin and Illinois without resistance)

Indian Removal Act (1830) – Pres. Jackson's law that allowed him to move tribes east of the Mississippi (particularly in the south) to lands acquired in the Louisiana Purchase

- this land they were sent to became Indian Territory (Oklahoma)

Cherokees:

- Cherokee Nation v. Georgia (1831) – case where Cherokee asked for won governed nation but Supreme Court said no
- Worcester v. Georgia (1832) – John Marshall ruled the Cherokee were a “distinct” political community entitled to federal protection from tampering by Georgia (Jackson ignored this and pursued their removal)
- Treaty of New Echota (1835) – signed by minor Cherokee chiefs ceding Cherokee lands
- Trail of Tears (1838) – forced movement of Cherokees from Georgia to Oklahoma where nearly half of the 16,000 Cherokees died on the way

Seminole Wars (1850s) -- sporadic NA resistance in Florida even after it became a state in 1845

Homestead Act (1862) – gave settlers 150 acres of land on the plains if they lived there for 5 years

- encouraged greater settlement on and near NA lands

Sand Creek Massacre (1864) – as some Cheyennes had attacked a nearby mining village in Colorado, a militia was sent out to attack them but didn't find them

- instead they found a peaceful Cheyenne tribe at Sand Creek led by Chief Black Kettle who were settled where the govt. told them to while waiting to go to reservation
- the militia attacked them and massacred them (men, women, and children)
- led to more fighting on the plains as taking the peaceful approach not working either

Buffalo Bill (William Cody) – in the 1860s he was a famous buffalo hunter on the plains during the massive kills to clear the way for railroads

- later he started Wild West shows that added to the myth of the old west

Treaty of Fort Laramie (1867) – scattered bands of Sioux in the northern plains agreed to move to a Great Sioux Reservation in the western part of South Dakota

Medicine Lodge Treaty (1867) – in the southern plains Kiowas, Cheyenne, Arapahos, and Comanche signed it and pledged to live in Oklahoma

Transcontinental Railroad (1869) – Pacific RR Act of 1862 led to its being built

- linked the nation and encouraged greater settlement of the west (in conflict with NA lands)

Board of Indian Commissioners (1869) – Christian reformers pushed Congress to create this org. to reform the reservation system (their agents also failed to make positive changes)

Colonel Gorge Armstrong Custer – in 1874 led an expedition of US soldiers to the Black Hills (on Great Sioux Reservation lands) that was to find a site for a new fort but actually was to determine if there was gold there (lands reserved for Sioux), and there was

Red River War (1874-1875) – defiant NAs in southern plains upset over American settlements raided into Texas; US soldiers slaughtered over 100 of them and sent many to reservations in Florida

- ended NA resistance in the southern plains

Battle of Little Big Horn (1876) -- after negotiations to buy the Black Hills from the Sioux broke down, Custer was sent in to force Sioux not on reservation to go back on it

- Sitting Bull's warriors killed all 209 of Custer's soldiers
- last NA victory in the Indian Wars, led to more US soldiers being sent west

Chief Joseph – leader of the Nez Perce who refused to take his people on to a reservation

- instead he led 800 of them in 1877 toward Canada on a 1,700 mile trek fighting 2,000 US soldiers the whole way
- out of food and in freezing conditions he finally surrendered (40 miles from Canada)
- “From where the sun now stands, I will fight no more forever.”

Sitting Bull – after the Battle of Little Bighorn he led his people to Canada, but without buffalo to hunt they ran out of food and provisions and surrendered in 1881

- to help raise money for his people he appeared briefly in Buffalo Bill's Wild West shows

- he was shot by reservation guards during his arrest as they feared he would use his influence to support the Ghost Dance movement

Century of Dishonor (1881) – written by Helen Hunt Jackson it was an account of the history of treaties made by the US with NAs and how they were broken

Women's National Indian Rights Association (1883) founded to oppose violations of NA treaties

Geronimo – leader of Apache resistance to American settlement in the southwest (AZ and NM)

- finally surrendered in 1886 and sent to a reservation in Florida

Dawes Act or Dawes Severalty Act (1887) – designed to reform the reservations and “Americanize”

NAs by dividing up reservations into plots for individual NAs to farm

- didn't work as they were given poor land and supplies, and they didn't know how to farm
- whites took advantage of the NAs and purchased much of the land away from them
- the law also tried to set up schools to teach young NAs about American society

Ghost Dance – a religious movement brought to prominence on reservations by a prophet known as Wovoka that featured a ritualistic dance and the belief that the warriors of the past would return to restore the Sioux to their original dominance on the Great Plains

Wounded Knee (1890) – Ghost Dance rituals frightened soldiers (2 weeks after Sitting Bull was killed) and after a shot was fired on a South Dakota reservation while 340 starving and freezing Sioux were being rounded up, the soldiers opened fire and killed over 300 of them

- last incident of the Indian Wars

Phoenix Indian School (1891) – military-style, off reservation boarding school in Arizona for young NAs to “Americanize” them so they could assimilate

WOMEN'S RIGHTS (beginning to right to vote) – THEME #15

Anne Hutchinson (1636) – challenged the teachings of the Puritan leaders of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, is tried for heresy and banished; she and her family move to Rhode Island

Daughters of Liberty (1765) – organization formed for women as an adjunct to the Sons of Liberty, they supported boycotts of British goods and experimented to find substitutes for taxed goods such as tea and sugar in support of (non-consumption)

New Jersey women vote (1776-1807) – New Jersey only restricted suffrage based on a minimum possession of cash or property during these years; the law was revised to exclude them in 1807

Republican Motherhood (1780s) – centered on the belief that children should be raised to uphold the ideals of republicanism, making them the ideal citizens of the new nation; it also meant a new and important role for women, especially regarding civic duty and education, but it did not soon lead to the vote for women

Separate Spheres (early 1800s) – idea that women and men were equal, but that they operated in separate spheres; women were kept in the house and dealt with moral and family issues, while men were more important in the workforce and in politics

Women Abolitionists (early 1800s) – many prominent women's rights activists began their political careers involved in anti-slavery movements; their restrictions as women in having a political voice eventually helped many to decide to devote more energy to women's rights than abolition; they notable include the Grimké Sisters, Lucretia Mott, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucy Stone, and Susan B. Anthony

Seneca Falls Convention (1848) – organized by Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott, the first women's rights convention is held in Seneca Falls, New York whose delegates sign a Declaration of Sentiments, which outlines grievances and sets the agenda for the women's rights movement (calling for equal treatment of women and men under the law and voting rights for women)

Liberty Party (1848) – though mostly seen as an abolitionist party it also included giving women the right to vote in its Presidential election platform; its candidate that year, Gerrit Smith, was a first cousin of Elizabeth Cady Stanton

National Women's Rights Convention (1850) – first such convention, it takes place in Worcester, Mass., attracting more than 1,000 participants; other national conventions are held yearly (except for 1857) through 1860

Woman's National Loyal League (1863) – was the first national women's political organization formed by women's rights activists like Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, Angelina Grimké Weld, and Lucy Stone; its first objective was to lobby for an amendment to the Constitution to abolish slavery and helped get the 13th Amendment passed

National Woman Suffrage Association (1869) – formed by Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton with the primary goal to achieve voting rights for women by means of a Congressional amendment to the Constitution; opposed the 15th Amendment which gave African-Americans the right to vote unless it also included women

American Woman Suffrage Association (1869) – founded by Lucy Stone and others; this group focuses exclusively on gaining voting rights for women through amendments to individual state constitutions

The territory of Wyoming passes the first women's suffrage law (1869); the following year, women begin serving on juries in the territory

U.S. v. Susan B. Anthony (1873) – Anthony was arrested by a U.S. Deputy Marshal for voting in the 1872 Presidential Election and was convicted 7 months later. She presented stirring and eloquent arguments that the recently adopted 14th Amendment, which guaranteed to “All persons born or naturalized in the US . . . are citizens of the US and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of

citizens of the US; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." The privileges of citizenship, which contained no gender qualification, gave women the constitutional right to vote in federal elections. The sentence was a \$100 fine, which she refused to pay and the govt. never tried to collect.

Minor v. Happersett (1875) – the Supreme Court of Missouri upheld the Missouri law preventing women from voting saying that the limitation of suffrage to male citizens was not an infringement of Minor's rights under the 14th Amendment; the US Supreme Court affirmed and upheld the lower court's ruling on the basis that historically "citizen" and "eligible voter" have not been synonymous; since the US Constitution did not provide suffrage for women, the 14th Amendment did not confer that right

Cult of Domesticity (late 1800s) – a Victorian era view on morality and culture; according to its ideals women were supposed to embody perfect virtue in all senses – they were put in the center of the domestic sphere and were expected to fulfill the roles of a calm and nurturing mother, a loving and faithful wife, and a passive, delicate, and virtuous creature

Women's Colleges (late 1800s) – colleges like Mount Holyoke, Vassar, Wellesley and Smith, and Bryn Mawr were some of these early women's colleges founded during the Victorian era, which originally prepared women for motherhood, marriage, and Christian service (before eventually expanding their curriculum and degree programs to allow women to enter other job fields)

Women's Christian Temperance Union (1879) – started by Francis Willard to show that the "cult of domesticity" could expand its female virtues to do good outside of the "separate spheres;" argued that drinking by men devastated the home, and that women should be politically active to protect the home from its influence

National American Woman Suffrage Association or NAWSA (1890) – the National Women Suffrage Association and the American Women Suffrage Association merge to form NAWSA, which wages state-by-state campaigns to obtain voting rights for women

State's granting women the vote: Colorado (1893); Utah and Idaho (1896); Washington state (1910); California (1911); Oregon, Kansas, Arizona (1912); Alaska and Illinois (1913); Montana and Nevada (1914); New York (1917); Michigan, South Dakota, and Oklahoma (1918)

National Association of Colored Women (1896) – organization formed to bring together more than 100 black women's clubs

Women and Economics (1898) – book by Charlotte Perkins Gilman that had the central argument, "the economic independence and specialization of women as essential to the improvement of marriage, motherhood, domestic industry, and racial improvement;" the book came out in the 1890's which was a period with a woman's movement seeking the vote and other reforms, and women were "entering the work force in swelling numbers, seeking new opportunities, and shaping new definitions of themselves"

National Women's Trade Union League or WTUL (1903) – is established to advocate for improved wages and working conditions for women

National Women's Party (1913) formed by Alice Paul and Lucy Burns and originally called the Congressional Union, it worked toward the passage of a federal amendment to give women the vote; its members picket the White House (including during WWI) and practice other forms of civil disobedience; hunger strikes in jail by its members put pressure on President Wilson to support an amendment for women to vote

National Birth Control League (1915) – formed by Mary Ware Dennett, lobbied for contraceptives to be freely available; later became the Voluntary Parenthood Association

Margaret Sanger – opens the first U.S. birth-control clinic in Brooklyn, N.Y. in 1916; although the clinic is shut down 10 days later and she is arrested, she eventually wins support through the courts and opens another clinic in New York City in 1923

Jeannette Rankin (1916) – was the first woman to be elected to the US House of Representatives and the first female member of the Congress; a lifelong pacifist, she voted against the entry of the US into both World War I and World War II, the only member of Congress to vote against the latter

Federal Woman Suffrage Amendment (1919) – originally written by Susan B. Anthony and introduced in Congress in 1878, is passed by the House of Representatives and the Senate; it is then sent to the states for ratification

Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor (1920) – is formed to collect information about women in the workforce and safeguard good working conditions for women

19th Amendment to the Constitution (1920) – granted women the right to vote

RECONSTRUCTION AND CIVIL RIGHTS TO WWI (Theme #16)

Black Codes – until the defeat of the Confederacy they allowed segregation, African Americans couldn't buy or sell land, be on a jury, testify against whites, inter-marry, leave the plantation, learn to read, etc.

Emancipation Proclamation – Lincoln's call to free slaves held in Confederate territory during the war

Freedmen's Bureau – begun during the Civil War, it gave food, medical care, jobs, to former slaves, and tried to protect their rights as laborers, settle disputes, etc.

- its work expanded during Reconstruction when it also built schools and helped blacks gain land

13th Amendment – (1865) ratified near end of the Civil War, it made slavery illegal in the US

Not
on
Periods
1-5 Test

Reconstruction – name for the overall program to “reconstruct” the US by readmitting Southern states

Lincoln's Reconstruction Plan – 10% sign oath and create new state govt.

Radical Republicans – the members of the Republican Party that came to dominate Congress who believed in a more demanding plan for the admitting of Southern states
- led by Thaddeus Stevens and Charles Sumner

Wade-Davis Bill – Radical Republican plan that required 50% to sign oath, emancipation guaranteed, and provide a military governor for southern states (Lincoln pocket vetoed the bill)

John Wilkes Booth – assassinates Lincoln

Andrew Johnson – moderate from Tennessee (southerner) who replaces Lincoln as President

Presidential Reconstruction – Johnson surprised Congress and follows 10% plan and some states reentered
- State constitutions only have to 1) repeal secession, 2) repudiate debts, 3) ratify 13th Amend.
- Johnson pardoned many aristocratic Southern leaders

Andrew Johnson “Sir Veto” starts vetoing Radical Republican Congress laws
- 1866 election veto-proofs Congress – they now have 2/3 to overrule

Civil Rights Act of 1866 – passed over veto, gave African Americans the same civil rights as other citizens

14th Amendment – (1866) made all people born in the US citizens and protected them from govt. actions (but not actions of private citizens), and threatens to take away seats in Congress if any state refuses black voting rights, and says former Confederate leaders can't run for state or nat. govt.

Reconstruction Act of 1867 – (sometimes known as “Military Reconstruction”)
- radical plan that invalidated state govts. that were formed under the Lincoln and Johnson plans
- only Tennessee was deemed OK by this law
- 5 Military Districts run by Union General + 20,000 soldiers – Supreme Court allows
- only blacks and whites not disqualified by the 14th Amend. Could vote on new delegates who would write a new state constitution which had to approve the 13th Amend.

Tenure of Office Act – Senate approval before any Presidential firings impeachment

Johnson impeached after firing Secretary of War Stanton – he was spying for Radical Republicans
- he was barely acquitted on the charges by the Senate

15th Amendment – (1878) prohibited the denial of suffrage because of race, color, or previous condition of servitude

carpetbaggers – northern Republicans who went to the South seeking wealth and power there

scalawags – predominantly poor Southern whites who sought to profit from Republican rule in the South

Ku Klux Klan – a secret organization created in the South that became a terror movement against blacks (prevented them from voting, enforced segregation, lynched many) which became a violent arm of the Democratic Party there

Enforcement Acts – (1870-1871) three separate laws provided for protection of black voters, federal supervision of Southern elections, and set sanctions against those who impeded black suffrage

sharecropping – land management system that developed in South during Reconstruction where white landowners subdivided large plantations into smaller farms which were rented to freedmen (former slaves) in which half of the annual crop was the rent payment

Grantism – war hero Ulysses S. Grant became the Republican candidate for president in 1868 and 1872
- many scandals plagued his presidency, though Grant was not personally involved
- Credit Mobilier scandal – Grant's vice-president Schuyler Colfax was linked to a fraudulent construction company that skimmed the profits of the Union Pacific Railroad

Amnesty Act – (1872) federal law that removed voting restrictions and office-holding disqualification against most of the secessionists who rebelled in the Civil War, except for some 500 military leaders of the Confederacy

Ex Parte Milligan – (1866) Supreme Court case that said that military courts could not try civilians in areas remote from war which made it difficult to enforce reconstruction laws in the South

Slaughterhouse Cases – (1873) chipped away at the 14th Amendment by declaring that it protected the rights of national citizens, but didn't protect their rights as citizens of states

- thus some issues like the one in this case over a business monopoly in New Orleans slaughterhouses fell out of the jurisdiction of the federal govt.
- the implications of this ruling were then later applied to issues involving civil rights

Redemption – term used by white Southerners to refer to the reversion of the U.S. South to conservative Democratic Party rule after the period of Reconstruction

Grandfather clause – passed by Southern states which created new restrictions on voter registration that allowed men to vote, based on their having ancestors who had the right to vote before the Civil War – effectively preventing black men from voting

Jim Crow laws – state and local laws in the United States enacted between 1876 and 1965 that mandated de jure segregation in all public facilities, with a "separate but equal" status for black Americans and members of other non-white racial groups

Civil Rights Act of 1875 – guaranteed same treatment in public accommodations regardless of race

Election of 1876 – ends Reconstruction as the close presidential election between Rutherford B. Hayes (Republican) and Samuel Tilden (Democrat) was decided in the House of Reps. (democrats agree to swing election to Hayes if federal troops are withdrawn from the South)

Results of Radical Reconstruction

Benefits – Blacks in South AND North can now vote

- New Southern constitutions written
- Black participation in Congress – 14 black Congressmen, 2 black senators
- Improved Southern infrastructure – schools, public works, property rights for women

Negatives

- Fails because most Northerners stop caring about helping former slaves
- US beliefs in personal property, self-govt., state control conflict with Reconstruction

Civil Rights Cases – (1883) Supreme Court declares Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional stating federal govt. couldn't outlaw discrimination by private individuals

buffalo soldiers – originally were members of the U.S. 10th Cavalry Regiment, formed in 1866 at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. (the nickname was given by the Native American tribes they fought)

- the first peacetime all-black regiments in the regular U.S. Army

exodusters – (1879-1880) African Americans who fled the South for Kansas after the end of Reconstruction - racial oppression and rumors of the reinstitution of slavery led many freedmen to move

- many settled in Kansas because of its fame as the land of the abolitionist John Brown and because Kansas was reputed to be more progressive and tolerant than most others
- they mostly became farmers when they arrived there

National Colored Farmers Alliance – formed in the 1880s when both black and white farmers faced great difficulties due to the rising price of farming and their decreasing profits

- the Southern Farmers' alliance did not allow black farmers to join so a group of black farmers decided to organize their own alliance.

Ida Wells-Barnett – black newswriter from Memphis who wrote about lynchings of African Americans

- she was forced to move to Chicago in the North for her safety and later became involved in the women's rights movement

Frederick Douglass – former slave who wrote about his experiences as a slave and his escape who became a civil rights leader in the North during and after Reconstruction and called for full equality

Plessy v. Ferguson – Supreme Court upheld a state law allowing segregated railroad cars

- the case that declared "separate but equal" segregated facilities for different races were legal

Booker T. Washington – civil rights leader from the South who argued that blacks should lift themselves up economically before asking for full political rights

- founded Tuskegee Institute (black college)
- wrote *Up From Slavery* about his experiences trying to rise from poverty through hard work

Following the Color Line – muckraker Ray Stannard Baker documented racism in this 1908 book

W.E.B. DuBois – civil rights leader from the North who earned a PhD from Harvard in history

- called for full political rights immediately and racial equality
- wrote *Souls of Black Folks* in 1903 which rejected Booker T. Washington's call for patience

Niagara Movement – (1909) based on a conference on sustained resistance to racism, which then met annually and formed the NAACP (partially led by DuBois)

N.O.
on
periods
1-5
Test

NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People) – (1909) legally challenged racism and discrimination through court cases (most famous to be *Brown v. Board of Ed.*)

Birth of a Nation – (1912) one of the earliest feature full-length movies, it disparaged blacks and glorified the KKK

ragtime – music style that was originated in 1880s by black musicians in the saloons of the South and Midwest which was for the soul purpose of entertaining

- it combined the rhythms and harmonies of traditional songs sung by African Americans with marching band musical structures
- became a popular sensation in the 1890s with composers like Scott Joplin
- playful, catchy, and sensual music that was in direct opposition to the Victorian social conventions (spread a slight amount of rebellion against Victorian culture)

INDUSTRIALIZATION – SAMUEL SLATER TO HENRY FORD (THEME #17)

Non-Importation (1760s) – prior to Revolutionary War this led to need for more manufacturing in the US (likewise during the war with trade cut off from Britain)

- women spun their own cotton at home

Household Industry – after the war farm families expanded their incomes by turning cloth into clothing or leather into shoes by working at home

Samuel Slater (1790) – English textile worker who memorized the plans for a mill and came to the US and established a cotton-spinning mill in Rhode Island (contracting the weaving to women working in their homes)

1st private banks founded in 1790s

Eli Whitney – better known for the cotton gin, he won a govt. contract in 1798 to make 10,000 muskets by 1800, which was nearly impossible

- used unskilled workers to make interchangeable parts that could be used in any of the muskets
- he missed the deadline by 10 years, but interchangeable parts would be key to future industrial production

Embargo Act (1808) – prior to the War of 1812 this act cut off trade and encouraged manufacturing

Causes of Manufacturing --

- tariffs created that protected American manufacturing from foreign competition
- transportation revolution brought eastern manufacturers closer to markets in west and south
- swift-flowing rivers in New England allowed for water powered mills
- growth of population in rural areas led to surplus of workers, lack of enough land

Francis Cabot Lowell – developed a textile mill after visiting England in 1811 and learning about their machines

- formed the Boston Manufacturing Company that built many mills in Massachusetts
- Lowell mills spun thread and wove the thread into cloth
- “Lowell girls” – he hired young unmarried women who could protect their reputations as they were given a curfew, required to attend church, and had to live in approved company housing
 - o Many men moved west looking for land leaving an excess workforce of women

Trade Unions – formed for male skilled artisans in cities like New York and Philadelphia in the 1820s

American System (1840s) – nickname Europeans gave to the American concept of interchangeable parts

- advantages included:
 - ability to repair just the part broken on a machine not the whole thing
 - machine tools necessary for making interchangeable parts allowed for new inventions to quickly be mass produced and brought to market
 - this speed to market led to more investors in hopes of large profits

Samuel Morse (1844) – transmitted the first telegraph message bringing quick communication to businesses

Railroads (1840s – 1850s) – development of them throughout the area east of the Mississippi

- allowed for quick freight transportation of raw materials and products
- Railroads became the nation’s first “big business”
- Securities of all the greatest railroad companies traded at the NY Stock Exchange in 1850s turning NY into the nation’s investment center

Edwin Drake (1859) – drilled the first successful oil well in Titusville, Penn.

- oil replaced animal tallow for lubrication of machines, and kerosene for lights

Civil War (1860-1864) -- hurt industries that relied on business with South, but greatly benefited those that produced goods for the war (clothing, guns) and for the railroads

- war also stimulated demand for the mechanical reaper (invented by Cyrus McCormick in 1834) as farm laborers off to war
- workers wages remained low despite huge inflation of prices for goods
- South’s industrial growth during the war offset by its destruction near the end of the war

6 Dominating Features of Manufacturing after the Civil War

- cheap energy source (large coal deposits)
- technological innovations (in transportation, communication, and in factory machines)
- large number of available workers (from farms, immigrants)
- competition between firms to cut costs and prices (drive to eliminate competition and create monopolies)
- relentless drop in prices (in relation to rising prices in other areas and due to lowering of production costs)
- failure of the money supply to keep pace with productivity (drove up interest rates and restricted the available credit)

Southern industrialization – still lagging behind in industrialization due to lack of cities, illiteracy, and northern control of most markets and industries already

Gustavus Swift (1860s) – developed the refrigerated railroad car which allowed him to slaughter cattle in Chicago and ship the beef to eastern markets

Isaac Singer (1860s) – invented the first mass-produced sewing machine and created the Singer Sewing Machine Company

Christopher Sholes (1868) – Milwaukeean who invented the first practical typewriter

- in 1872 invented the QWERTY keyboard still in use today

Jay Gould – ran the Union Pacific Railroad which helped complete the 1st transcontinental RR in 1869

- urged federal govt. to provide free land to companies like his that built RRs
- seen as a robber baron for his great wealth and control of the industry (bought out many RRs)

Alexander Graham Bell (1876) – invented the telephone

Railroads pioneered practices of modern corporations (1870s-1880s) – became model for other businesses

- issuance of stock to meet huge capital needs
- separation of ownership from management
- creation of national distribution and marketing systems (set standard time)
- formation of new organizational and management structures (for example they created elaborate accounting systems which could predict future profits to help them set rates)

ICC / Interstate Commerce Act (1887) – established to oversee the practices of interstate railroads after the

Supreme Court weakened “Granger laws” in *Wabash v. Illinois* case

- banned monopolistic activity like pooling rebates and higher short-distance rates

Andrew Carnegie – poor Scottish immigrant who began in the RR business as a telegraph operator before moving up; built his own steel mill in early 1870s

- produced better steel using the Bessemer process (the strengthening of steel by shooting a blast of air through molten iron to burn off the carbon and impurities)
- cost-analysis allowed him to reduce production costs
- priced competition out of business
- vertical integration – controlling all aspects of manufacturing from extracting raw materials to selling the finished goods (Carnegie bought iron and coal mines as well as railroads)

John D. Rockefeller – became head of the Standard Oil Co. in 1873 and used vertical integration to ship oil

- drove out competition with lower prices
- 1882 he created the Standard Oil Trust (trust – an umbrella corporation that owned the stocks of all the companies in an industry allowing them to legally eliminate competition with each other)
- horizontal integration – achieved through merging competing oil companies into one system

Sherman Antitrust Act (1890) – passed to outlaw trusts and any other monopolies that fixed prices in restraint of trade and set fines for violators and jail sentences

- was ineffective as it did not clearly define terms such as “trust” and “restraint of trade”

U.S. v. E.C. Knight Company (1895) – Supreme Court case that ruled that the Knight Co. which owned 90% of the U.S. sugar refineries was not operating interstate commerce (despite its large distribution network) and the case was thrown out

- made the Sherman Antitrust Act even more difficult to enforce

Thomas Edison – inventor who created the first modern research laboratory for inventions at Menlo Park, New Jersey (later research labs by Kodak, DuPont, etc. were modeled after it)

- among the inventions attributed to him are the light bulb, microphone, storage battery, motion-picture projector (all of which greatly changed the world)
- formed the General Electric Company in 1892 to protect his patents
- G.E. and another company Westinghouse agreed to exchange patents under a joint Board of Patent Control (allowed these two huge companies a huge advantage over rivals)

Advertising and Marketing

- Quaker Oats – created cereals and baking mixes as a way to sell excess flour at a time when wheat production had grown dramatically and wheat and flour prices were dropping
- Ivory Soap – used a catchy slogan like “99 and 44/100ths percent pure”
- James Duke – operator of the tobacco trust his company marketed cigarettes to children by using trading cards, prizes, and testimonials to convert them to become lifelong smokers

Not on
↓ Periods
1-5 Test

- his industry's use of cigarette rolling machines allowed them to be mass produced cheaply
- George Eastman - created the Eastman-Kodak Company, which developed (no pun intended) a paper-based photographic film which made photography affordable and accessible to average Americans
- also profited off the development of this photographic film into pictures
- J.P. Morgan (1901) - steel company owner and financier who bought out Carnegie and combining Carnegie's steel company with his he created U.S. Steel - the nation's first \$1 billion company
- Northern Securities Co. v. U.S. (1904) - the Supreme Court upholds antitrust suit against this railroad conglomerate
- Hepburn Act (1906) - empowered the ICC to set maximum RR rates and to examine RR company records
- Elkins Act (1910) - further strengthened the ICC
- Federal Trade Commission (1914) - which is designed to regulate business conglomeration
- Clayton Antitrust Act (1914) - strengthens the original Sherman Anti-trust Act of 1890 by prohibiting exclusive sales contracts, predatory pricing, rebates, inter-corporate stock holdings, and interlocking directorates in corporations capitalized at \$1 million or more
- restricts the use of the injunction against labor, and it legalizes peaceful strikes, picketing, and boycotts
- Henry Ford - Ford Motor Company
- Model T introduced in 1908 - first automobile affordable to average Americans
- Use of assembly line allowed for quick training of unskilled workers, and mass production at a low cost
- in 1914 raised its basic wage from \$2.40 for a 9 hour day to \$5 for an 8 hour day

URBANIZATION - CITIES, POLITICS, & REFORM (Theme #18)

- Growth of cities (late 1800s) - cities grew dramatically at this time, which energized manufacturing and production, strained city services, generated terrible housing and sanitation problems, brought immigrant groups in conflict with native-born Americans over jobs, power, and influence, and accentuated class differences
- slums - a run-down area of a city characterized by substandard housing, dirty run-down conditions, and poor sanitation
- tenement houses - a run-down apartment house barely meeting minimal standards; usually were row houses that once housed richer families that were divided into one-room apartments during the industrial age so that families could live in one room
- ghettoes - ethnic enclaves in American cities, where immigrants from one nation would all live close together where they could continue to share the common bonds of their native cultures while they assimilated into the culture of this country; they were normally in industrial cities
- Frederick Law Olmsted - was an American journalist, landscape designer, and father of American landscape architecture; he was famous for designing many well-known urban parks, including Central Park in New York City to provide a natural refuge away from life in dirty industrial cities
- Victorian code - a distillation of the moral views of people living at the time of Queen Victoria's reign in Great Britain (1837 - 1901) and of the moral climate of Great Britain throughout the 19th century in general; Victorian morality can describe any set of values that espouse sexual restraint, low tolerance of crime and a strict social code of conduct; practiced by the rich in America and aspired to by many in the middle class as a sign of social upward mobility
- The American Woman's Home (1869) - by sisters Catherine Beecher and Harriet Beecher Stowe it is remarkable for both its philosophy and its practicality; a pioneering work of scientific kitchen planning, the book's recommendation for specific work areas, built-in cupboards and shelves, and continuous work surfaces are ideals that, while new at the time, are taken for granted today; the work presupposes a servantless home and teaches the homemaker basic skills on how to cope with such inventions as stoves and refrigerators, as well as providing information on healthful food and drink, care of the sick, and care of the home
- Cult of Domesticity (late 1800s) - a Victorian era view on morality and culture; according to its ideals women were supposed to embody perfect virtue in all senses - they were put in the center of the domestic sphere and were expected to fulfill the roles of a calm and nurturing mother, a loving and faithful wife, and a passive, delicate, and virtuous creature
- Rowland Macy (1858) - an American businessman who founded the department store chain "Macy's" which first opened in New York City; it is the best example of the department store that took business from neighborhood stores; became possible with the advent of the streetcar; made shopping an enjoyable experience during the Gilded Age
- 5th Avenue - a major thoroughfare in the center of the borough of Manhattan in New York City; along part of it is one of the premier shopping streets in the world; it serves as a symbol of wealthy New York and symbolized the spending of the rich during the Gilded Age
- Marshall Field (1881) - founder of Marshall Field and Company, the Chicago-based department stores; equivalent of Macy's in New York
- electric streetcars (1884) - first electric streetcar or trolley system became operational in Cleveland, Ohio; allowed city dwellers to live further from work, and led to department stores

Not on Periods 1-5 Test
↓

- political machines – a political organization that controls enough votes to maintain political and administrative control of its community; the rapid growth of cities in the 19th century created huge problems for city governments, which were often poorly organized and unable to provide services; enterprising politicians were able to win support by offering favors, including patronage jobs and housing, in exchange for votes; they resulted in massive corruption
- political boss – a person who wields the power over a particular political region or constituency and run political machines; bosses may dictate voting patterns, control appointments, and wield considerable influence in other political processes; they do not necessarily hold public office
- William "Boss" Tweed – an American politician most famous for his leadership of Tammany Hall, the Democratic Party political machine that played a major role in the politics of 19th century New York; at the height of his influence, Tweed was the third-largest landowner in New York City; in 1858, Tweed became the boss of Tammany Hall; Tweed was convicted for stealing between \$40 million and \$200 million from New York City taxpayers through political corruption
- Thomas Nast – a German-born American caricaturist and editorial/political cartoonist who is considered to be the "Father of the American Cartoon"; his drawings were instrumental in the downfall of Boss Tweed, the powerful Tammany Hall leader
- NY Children's Aid Society (1853) – founded by Charles Loring Brace, it established dormitories, reading rooms, and workshops where boys could learn practical skills; it also helped sweep orphans off the streets in slum neighborhoods and shipped them to live with farm families in the country
- YMCA (1851) – originating in Great Britain, the Young Men's Christian Association provided housing and wholesome recreation for country boys who had migrated to the city and tried to incorporate in those living their Protestant morals
- YWCA – Young Women's Christian Association provided housing and a day nursery for young women and their children and tried to incorporate in those living their Protestant morals
- Salvation Army (1880) – like the YMCA it originated in Great Britain; its stated mission is to perform evangelical, social and charitable work and bring the Christian message to the poor, destitute and hungry by meeting both their physical and spiritual needs
- Social Gospel Movement – a Protestant Christian intellectual movement that was most prominent in the late 19th century and early 20th century; the movement applied Christian ethics to social problems, especially justice, inequality, liquor, crime, racial tensions, slums, bad hygiene, child labor, weak labor unions, poor schools, and the danger of war
- settlement houses – located in poor urban areas, in which volunteer middle-class "settlement workers" would live, hoping to share knowledge and culture with, and alleviate the poverty of, their low-income neighbors; provided services such as help finding jobs, education, day care, and health care
- Jane Addams (1889) – co-founded Hull House in Chicago, the first settlement house in the US
- Florence Kelley – worked at Hull House in Chicago, then served as Chief Factory Inspector for the state of Illinois and helped secure passage of an Illinois law prohibiting child labor and limiting working hours for women, and also became general secretary of the National Consumers' League
- 8 hour workday movement – movement in response to industrial production in large factories which transformed working life and imposed long hours and poor working conditions; with working conditions unregulated, the health, welfare and morale of working people suffered; the working day could range from 10 to 16 hours for six days a week; in 1868, Congress passed an eight-hour law for federal employees, which was also of limited effectiveness
- Joseph Pulitzer – a Hungarian-American publisher best known for posthumously establishing the Pulitzer Prizes and for originating yellow journalism along with William Randolph Hearst; purchased the *New York World* and oversaw its growth in circulation by adding popular features to the newspaper like sports sections and cartoons and adding human-interest and sensationalist stories
- vaudeville – one of the most popular types of entertainment in North America for several decades; it was a theatrical genre of variety entertainment from the early 1880s until the early 1930s; each performance was made up of a series of separate, unrelated acts grouped together on a common bill; its often low brow humor appealed to urban masses
- ragtime – an original musical genre which enjoyed its peak popularity between 1897 and 1918; its main characteristic trait is its syncopated, or "ragged", rhythm; it began as dance music in the red-light districts of American cities such as St. Louis and New Orleans years before being published as popular sheet music for piano; popular with urban audiences until jazz took over in the 1920s
- Coney Island – is a peninsula (formerly an island) in southernmost Brooklyn, New York City with a beach on the Atlantic Ocean and home of amusement parks that reached peak popularity for urban dwellers in the early 20th century
- Mark Twain – an American author and humorist. Twain is noted for his novels *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1884), which has been called "the Great American Novel", and *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1876); a master at rendering colloquial speech and helped to create and popularize a

distinctive American literature built on American themes and language which was popular with common audiences

- Women's Christian Temperance Union (1879) - started by Francis Willard to show that the "cult of domesticity" could expand its female virtues to do good outside of the "separate spheres;" argued that drinking by men devastated the home, and that women should be politically active to protect the home from its influence
- William Torrey Harris - he was superintendent of schools in St. Louis from 1868 to 1880, and established America's first permanent public kindergarten in 1873; he is best-known for his emphasis on heavy discipline in his schools to help train students to ultimately become workers in the industrial age; however, he also made changes that led to the expansion of the public school curriculum to make the high school an essential institution to the individual and to include art, music, scientific and manual studies, and was also largely responsible for encouraging all public schools to acquire a library
- King James Bible - Protestant Bible used in most public schools in the late 1800s; Catholics were opposed to its use and schools' failure to observe saints' days; helped lead to the establishment of Catholic parochial (private) schools
- Jacob Riis - a Danish American social reformer, muckraking journalist and social documentary photographer. He is known for his dedication to using his photographic and journalistic talents to help the impoverished in New York City, which was the subject of most of his prolific writings and photography; How the Other Half Lives, subtitled "Studies among the Tenements of New York", was published in 1890 showing the deep urban poverty that existed during the Gilded Age
- Anti-Saloon League - leading organization lobbying for Prohibition in the early 20th century and was strongest in the South and rural North, drawing heavy support from Protestant ministers and their congregations, it became the most powerful prohibition lobby, pushing aside its older competitors like the Woman's Christian Temperance Union
- The Theory of the Leisure Class - (1899) book by Thorstein Veblen that satirized the lives of the rich "captains of industry" and their "conspicuous consumption" which flaunted their wealth and angered the poorer classes
- Gospel of Wealth (1889) - an essay written by Andrew Carnegie in that described the responsibility of philanthropy by the new upper class of self-made rich; the central thesis of Carnegie's essay was the peril of allowing large sums of money to be passed into the hands of persons or organizations ill-equipped to cope with them; as a result, the wealthy entrepreneur must assume the responsibility of distributing his fortune in a way that it will be put to good use
- Shame of the Cities - (1904) muckraking book written by Lincoln Steffens that sought to expose public corruption in many major cities, and his goal was to provoke public outcry and thus promote reform
- muckrakers - authors who wrote for newspapers and magazines who exposed corruption in government and industry, and problems in society, which helped lead to related progressive reforms to address these problems
- Daniel Burnham - an American architect and urban planner; he was the Director of Works for the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago and designed several famous buildings, including the Flatiron Building in New York City and Union Station in Washington, DC
- Mann Act (1910) - a US law which prohibits white slavery and the interstate transport of females for "immoral purposes"; its primary stated intent was to address prostitution, immorality, and human trafficking; could only attack prostitution at interstate (not within or intrastate) level
- Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire (1911) - one of the largest industrial disasters in the history of the city of New York, causing the death of 146 garment workers, almost all of them women, who either died from the fire or jumped from the fatal height; (it was the worst workplace disaster in New York City until September 11, 2001); the fire led to legislation requiring improved factory safety standards and helped spur the growth of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, which fought for better and safer working conditions for sweatshop workers in that industry
- Dayton Flood (1913) - massive flood that claimed 300 lives and left large areas of the city in ruins, led this Ohio city to adopt the city-manager system of municipal government
- city-manager system - substituted professional managers and administrators chosen by city-wide elections, for the mayors and aldermen elected ward by ward; these professionals were to be above politics and would make more cost-efficient decisions

LABOR MOVEMENT (THEME #19)

- Interchangeable parts (1800) - first introduced then by gun-maker Eli Whitney led to more unskilled laborers in industry (replacing gunsmith artisans)
- Trade Unions (1820s) - formed for male skilled artisans in cities like New York and Philadelphia in the attempt to protect artisans from the swelling of unskilled laborers in every industry
- Lowell mill strike (1834) - 800 Lowell mill women quit work to protest a wage reduction
- another strike of nearly 2000 women took place there in 1836

On Periods
1-5 Test

1st General Strike in US (1835) – Philadelphia coal haulers strike for a 10 hour workday led to skilled and unskilled workers in other industries striking as well

Panic of 1837 – caused Protestant workers to join nativist societies as they feared competition from immigrant laborers (particularly Irish Catholics) during this economic depression

- labor unions grew during this time period for industrial workers

Commonwealth v. Hunt (1842) – Mass. Supreme Court ruled that labor unions were not illegal monopolies that restrained trade

- case had little immediate impact as only 1% of workers in unions and owners fired union leaders and replaced them with immigrant workers
- unions gave up calls for a 10 hour workday at a time the typical worker worked 12-14 hours
- workers wages remained low despite huge inflation of prices for goods

Civil War (1860-1864) – workers wages remained low despite huge inflation of prices for goods, which led to formation of many more unions during the war (protests for wage increases seen as unpatriotic however)

Eight Hour Day Movement – called for 8 hours of work, 8 hours of sleep, and 8 hours for personal affairs

National Labor Union (1866) – national labor union founded by William Sylvis that backed the 8 hour day

- movement, restrictions on immigration, creation of a federal Dept. of Labor
- allowed women, and allowed black workers in separate unions
- NLU collapsed after the death of Sylvis

Knights of Labor (1869) – replaced the NLU as the major national labor union; it was set up by its founder Uriah Stephens as a secret society modeled after the Masonic Order and invited all wage earners in

- demanded equal pay for women, end to child labor and convict labor, and called for cooperative employee/employer ownership of mines and factories
- membership took off in the 1880s after Terence Powderly replaced Stephens as leader
- Powderly opposed strikes, and called for temperance
- Knights allowed women, and had segregated southern unions

Mother Jones – an Irish born labor organizer for the Knights of Labor (women made up 10% of the union's Membership), she also led child workers in 1903 in demanding a 55 hour work week

Pennsylvania Coal Miners Strike (1874) – striking coal miners were fired and evicted from their homes

B&O Railroad Strike (1877) – wage reduction led to RR strike which spread across the nation and turned violent

- President Hayes called in federal troops to end the strike and the violence
- led to anti-union sentiment across the nation

yellow dog contracts – contracts that companies forced workers to sign in which workers promised to not join a union and not to strike

- these became popular following the B&O strike

Bonsack cigarette-rolling machine (1880) – replaced skilled laborers in the tobacco industry

- also changed cigarettes from being a luxury item to an inexpensive mass-producible product

Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) – law that ended Chinese immigration backed by labor unions

Wabash Strike (1883-1884) – after Jay Gould fired union members to get rid of the Knights of Labor from his

- Wabash Railroad workers walked off the job and the Knights of Labor encouraged other RR workers not to handle Wabash RR cars

- Gould met with Powderly and he ended his campaign against the Knights and the strike ended

Haymarket Square Incident (1886) – Chicago police shot 4 strikers at the McCormick Harvester plant

- the next day a workers rally was held in Chicago and a bomb blew up by police (killing 7) who then opened fire on the crowd (killing 4)
- 8 men were arrested and executed for the bombing despite a lack of evidence against them
- led to anti-union sentiments in the nation and a major decrease in membership in the Knights of Labor

American Federation of Labor (1886) – craft unions left the Knights of Labor and formed their own federation

- AFL leader Samuel Gompers thought that to stand up to corporations the bargaining power of skilled laborers like those in the AFL craft unions (as they are not so easily replaced) would have to use their bargaining power
- AFL demanded an 8 hour workday, employers liability for work related injuries, and safety laws

NY Garment Workers Strike (1890) – after a 7 month strike they won the right to unionize and have a closed shop (meaning with only union workers in it) and all scab workers (strikebreakers) were fired

Homestead Strike (1892) – managers cut wages at this Pennsylvania steel plant owned by Carnegie and locked out workers to destroy their union

- workers broke into the plant and fired upon Pinkerton security forces hired to keep them out and forced them out of town after the Pinkertons surrendered
- Governor of Penn. sent in National Guard to end the strike and the union power at the plant was crushed

Pullman Strike (1894) – in the Depression of 1893 wages were lowered and the rents in the company towns were not lowered, causing the workers to go on strike

- led by Eugene V. Debs, the strikers halted RR traffic in Chicago (RR hub of Midwest) as they refused to move Pullman cars

Not on
Periods
1-5 Test

- ownership called in strikebreakers and then asked the federal govt. to intervene as the strike was interrupting US mail service
- President Cleveland called in federal troops to end the strike and Debs was arrested

In re Debs case (1895) – Supreme Court upheld the use of injunctions to stop strikes by labor unions and upheld the conviction of Eugene V. Debs

Erdman Act (1898) – provided for arbitration for disputes between the interstate railroads and their workers organized into unions, and prohibiting a railroad company from demanding that a worker not join a union as a condition for employment

By 1900 still only 5% of nation's work force in unions

Socialist Party of America formed (1900) – ran Eugene V. Debs as their candidate in several presidential elections

- advocated democratically passed reforms that would back public ownership of factories, utilities, RRs, and communications systems
- Victor Berger – leader of Milwaukee's German socialists, became mayor of Milwaukee and later was elected to the House of Reps. but was not allowed to take his seat during WWI

United Mine Workers Strike (1902) – this miners strike was ended when President Theodore Roosevelt arbitrated the dispute and a compromise on wage increases and hours was reached

- This was the 1st time that the federal govt. played a middle role and did not take the side of owners over the workers
- this set the precedent for federal mediation of labor disputes

Industrial Workers of the World / IWW (1905) – international industrial union founded in Chicago by socialists and radical trade unionists by leaders such as Eugene V. Debs

- differed from other unions as they refused to sign contracts to protect right to strike

Danbury Hatters' Case (1908) – Supreme Court forbade unions from organizing boycotts in support of strikes

Muller v. Oregon (1908) – Supreme Court upholds Oregon law setting maximum hours for female laundry workers

Triangle Shirtwaist Company fire (1911) – 141 women workers were killed in this fire as the doors to the factory were locked to keep them in, and there were no fire escapes, fire drills or sprinklers

- led to city laws passed regulating factories and protecting workers with safety laws

Ford Motor Company (1914) – raised its basic wage from \$2.40 for a 9 hour day to \$5 for an 8 hour day

Keating-Owen Act (1916) – bans products manufactured by child labor from interstate commerce

Worker's Compensation insurance (1916) – gained by federal workers

Eight-Hour Act (1916) – President Wilson signs the Adamson Eight-Hour Act, mandating an eight-hour day standard for most railroad workers

National War Labor Board (1918) – its purpose was to arbitrate disputes between workers and employers

- reinstituted during WWII – it set up an arbitration tribunal in labor-management dispute cases, preventing work stoppages which might hinder the war effort, and administered wage control in national industries such as automobiles, shipping, railways, airlines, telegraph lines, and mining

Boston Police Strike (1919) – violence and looting broke out after city police went on strike; it was put down by Gov. Calvin Coolidge with state militia

Child Labor Amendment (1924) – only 28 of 36 states needed ratified it

Committee for Industrial Organization (1935) – formed to expand industrial unionism

National Labor Relations Act (1935) – designed to curtail work stoppages, strikes and general labor strife, which were viewed as harmful to the U.S. economy and to the nation's general well-being

- extends many rights to workers who wish to form, join or support unions

United Auto Workers (1937) – sit down strike led to General Motors recognizing their union

Fair Labor Standards Act (1938) – bans child labor and sets up the 40 hour work week (went into effect in 1940)

Supreme Court declares sit-down strikes illegal (1939) – unions turned to "slow-down" strikes after this

"maintenance-of-membership" rule (1941) – a rule of the National War Labor Board during WWII that

automatically enrolled new workers in wartime industries into unions and required workers to maintain their union membership throughout the life of their contracts

- helped raise union membership
- done with union guarantees not to strike during the war and to not increase pay more than 15%
- in lieu of pay increases unions negotiated unprecedented fringe benefits including paid vacations, health insurance, and pensions

United Mine Workers strikes (1943) – led by union leader John L. Lewis coal mine workers gained pay increases

- backlash led to states passing law that limited union power (and led to Smith-Connally Act)

Smith-Connally War Labor Disputes Act (1943) – passed over FDR's veto, it empowered the president to take over any facility where strikes interrupted war production

Taft-Hartley Act (1947) – passed over Truman's veto it greatly reduced the powers of unions

- it listed "unfair labor practices" on the part of unions to the such as jurisdictional strikes, wildcat strikes, solidarity or political strikes, secondary boycotts, "common sites" picketing, closed shops, and monetary donations by unions to federal political campaigns

AFL-CIO (1955) – merger of the nation's two largest unions

Equal Pay Act (1963) – prohibit discrimination on account of sex in the payment of wages by employers

Cesar Chavez (1970) – his union, the United Farm Workers forced California grape growers to sign an agreement after a 5 year strike and boycotts

Federal Air Traffic Controllers Strike (1981) – a nationwide strike that was halted by a back-to-work order by President Reagan (those who defied the order were fired)

FARMING: AMERICAN REVOLUTION to WWI (Thème #20)

18th century – Oxen and horses for power, crude wooden plows, all sowing by hand, cultivating by hoe, hay and grain cutting with sickle, and threshing with flail

Land Ordinance of 1785 – passed by Congress under the Articles of Confederation to provide for the surveying of western lands into 6 mile by 6 mile townships to organize and help sell the land; it also provided for the sale of one portion of the township to help pay for public education

cotton gin (1793) – invented by Eli Whitney; helped make cotton growing more profitable at a time when slavery was slowly dying out, thus entrenching it in the south

Charles Newbold (1797) – patented first cast-iron plow

Speculators (1790s-1810s) – land laws in 1790s required a minimum purchase of 640 acres hoping that a community of farmers would buy land in groups to create towns; instead speculators bought up the land hoping to profit off of it; this land speculation led to the Panic of 1819

Pinckney's Treaty or Treaty of San Lorenzo (1795) – establishes the border between the US and Spanish territories along the Mississippi River and gives US merchants the right to ship goods through New Orleans duty-free

Jethro Wood (1819) – patented iron plow with interchangeable parts

Squatters (1820s) – settlers move onto lands belonging by treaty to Native Americans without any ownership rights

Pacific Railroad Act (1862) – with it Congress authorized the construction of the transcontinental railroad; opened new markets for farmers in the west

Homestead Act (1862) – federal law that gave 160 acres of land free to any settler who moved there and improved it for a five year period; helped to greatly increase settlement of the Great Plains

Morrill Land Grant Act (1862) – federal land to be sold in states to raise money for creation of colleges in those states (mostly universities that that bear names like "State" or "A&M" such as Iowa State University or Texas A&M University – A&M stands for Agriculture and Mining)

First cattle drive from Texas to railroads in Kansas (1867) – to get cattle to eastern markets using the railroads in Kansas; Joseph McCoy opened a market in Abilene to purchase the cattle; most important early route was the Chisholm Trail from Fort Worth, Texas to Abilene, Kansas

Cyrus McCormick (1834) – an American inventor who patented the mechanical reaper for harvesting grain; founder of the McCormick Harvesting Machine Company

John Deere (1837) – an American blacksmith and manufacturer who founded Deere & Company— one of the largest agricultural and construction equipment manufacturers in the world; invented the first commercially successful steel plow in 1837

grain elevator (1842) – buildings or complexes of buildings for storage and shipment of grain; first developed in Buffalo, NY; elevate the grain so it can be put into ships or railroad storage cars

wind mill (1854) – first self-governing windmill perfected which allows for the pumping of water from the below ground water table; in 1870s deep-well drilling combined with power generated from wind mill helped make farming on Great Plains possible

mason jars (1858) – a glass jar used in canning to preserve food; they were invented and patented by John L. Mason; in home canning, food is packed into the jar, and the steel lid is placed on top of the jar with the integral rubber seal resting on the rim of the jar; the band is screwed loosely over the lid, which will allow air and steam to escape; the jar is heat-sterilized in boiling water

crop-lien system – a credit system that became widely used by farmers in the South from the 1860s to the 1920s; after the Civil War, farmers in the South had little cash and this system was a way for farmers to get credit before the planting season by borrowing against the value for anticipated harvests; local merchants provided food and supplies all year long on credit; it led to a cycle of debt for Southern farmers that left them tied to the land; this credit system was used by land owners, sharecroppers and tenant farmers

sharecropping – system of agriculture in which a landowner allows a tenant to use the land in return for a share of the crop produced on the land (e.g., 50% of the crop); after the Civil War it came to be an economic arrangement that largely maintained the status quo between black and white through legal means, but did provide a way for freed African Americans to provide for themselves

Bureau of Agriculture (1862) – Abraham Lincoln established it for the purpose of facilitating foreign botanical exploration and domestic crop improvement

steam tractors (1868) – first ones tried out then; led to the end of use of horses and cattle

Not on Periods 1-5 Test

Grange movement – the National Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry was founded by Oliver Kelley; it was a fraternal organization complete with its own secret rituals; local affiliates were known as "granges" and the members as "grangers"; in its early years, the Grange was devoted to educational events and social gatherings; following the Panic of 1873, the Grange spread rapidly throughout the farm belt, since farmers in all areas were plagued by low prices for their products, growing indebtedness and discriminatory treatment by the railroads; these concerns helped to transform the Grange into a political force; during the 1870s, the Grangers advocated programs such as the following:

- Cooperative purchasing ventures as a means to obtain lower prices on farm equipment and supplies
- Pooling of savings as an alternative to dependence on corrupt banks, an early form of credit union
- Cooperative grain elevators to hold non-perishable crops until the optimal times to sell
- An abortive effort to manufacture farm equipment; this venture depleted the Granger organization's funds and was instrumental in its decline

Granger Laws (1870s-1880s) – laws passed by states with pressure from the Grange (farmers organizations) that regulated railroad rates; these laws were declared unconstitutional

Joseph Glidden (1874) – gains a patent for barbed wire, which helps farmers on the Great Plains fence in their fields to keep cattle out; barbed wire along with wind mills to pump water from below the ground make the Great Plains habitable for farmers; led to end of the open range grazing on the plains and the end of the long drive

Desert Land Act (1877) – permits settlers to buy up to 640 acres of land at \$.25/acre in arid areas if they irrigate it

Indian Wars (1870s-1880s) – US Army fought tribes in the Great Plains and in the west who refused to go to reservations, which opened up the region for greater settlement

silos (1870s) – structure for storing bulk materials; they are used in agriculture to store grain or fermented feed known as silage

Bonanza farms – very large farms performing large-scale operations, mostly growing and harvesting wheat; they were made possible by a number of factors including: the efficient new farming machinery of the 1870s, the cheap abundant land available during that time period, the growth of eastern markets in the U.S., and the completion of most major railroads; most bonanza farms were owned by companies and run like factories, with professional managers; the first ones were located in the Dakota Territory and Minnesota in the mid-1870s; they were located close to the Northern Pacific Railroad which transported their wheat to market

Munn v. Illinois (1876) – Supreme Court case that allowed states to regulate certain businesses within their borders, including railroads, and is commonly regarded as a milestone in the growth of federal government regulation

Alliance Movement (1880s) – an organized agrarian economic movement amongst US farmers; one of its goals was to end the adverse effects of the crop-lien system on farmers after the Civil War; it was designed to promote higher commodity prices through collective action by groups of individual farmers; the movement was strongest in the South and was widely popular before it was destroyed by the power of the commodity brokers

Charles Macune – a leader of the Farmers Alliance and editor of its theoretical publication the *National Economist*; he formulated the subtreasury plan which maintained the integrity of the Alliance and addressed the tight credit which caused the failure of its cooperative warehouses; a Democrat, Macune opposed both the formation of the People's Party and the bi-metalism which served as the basis of the 1896 fusion of the Democratic and Populist parties

Wabash v. Illinois (1886) – Supreme Court decision that severely limited the rights of states to control interstate commerce; it led to the creation of the Interstate Commerce Commission; it argued that states couldn't regulate interstate trade, which left the door open for the federal govt. to do so, which it did in the Interstate Commerce Act

Interstate Commerce Act (1887) – set up the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC) which was a regulatory body whose purpose was to regulate railroads (and later trucking) to ensure fair rates, to eliminate rate discrimination, and to regulate other aspects of common carriers

Populist Party (1892) – alliance movement members came together to form this political party; shared many of the same beliefs of the alliances but wanted to be more involved in national politics; wanted to lower prices of railroad shipping for farmers, government control of railroads, opposed the gold standard and supported free silver to counter the deflation of agricultural prices, graduated income tax, direct election of US Senators, 8 hour workday, and civil service reform; lost power when tied to free silver movement and the Democratic Party in the 1896 Presidential Election loss

1890's - Agriculture became increasingly mechanized and commercialized with emphasis on cash crop farming on the Great Plains

Elkins Act (1903) – strengthened the ICC by addressing rebates and requiring railroads to publish rates

Hepburn Act (1906) – strengthened the ICC by allowing it to set maximum railroad rates and gave it the power to view the financial records of railroad companies

Hatch Act (1887) – transformed the Bureau of Agriculture into the U.S. Department of Agriculture, adding the secretary of Agriculture to the president's cabinet in the process

John Froelich (1892) – developed the first gasoline powered tractor

Pure Food and Drug Act (1906) – forbade the manufacture, sale, or transportation of adulterated food products and poisonous patent medicines; required that contents of drugs be placed on their labels; called for enforced milk pasteurization and enacted an inspection system for foods sold via interstate commerce; call for passage of this law tied to muckraking journalism such as *The Jungle* by Upton Sinclair; led to the creation of the Food and Drug Administration (FDA)