

US History Semester 1 Final Ch 2.4 & 3-5 Summaries

Chapter 2.4 The Reconstruction Era

During the Civil War, politicians in the North debated how to bring the South back into the Union. President Lincoln had a moderate plan for Reconstruction. He helped create the Freedmen's Bureau to aid freed slaves and meet the South's immediate needs. On April 14, 1865, Lincoln was assassinated. Vice President Andrew Johnson became President.

Johnson wanted southerners to both swear allegiance to the United States and accept the Thirteenth Amendment, which ended slavery. Radical Republicans wanted full rights for African Americans. Johnson and the Radical Republicans clashed repeatedly. In 1868, Congress began impeachment proceedings against Johnson. Although he kept his office, Johnson was not reelected.

Radical Republicans divided the South into five military districts. States had to give African American men the right to vote in order to be readmitted to the Union. In 1868, Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment. This amendment guaranteed full citizenship status and rights to every person born in the United States. In 1870, Congress passed the Fifteenth Amendment, which guaranteed male citizens the right to vote.

Many black and white farmers began working under a system called sharecropping. Landowners advanced sharecroppers the materials to plant a crop. At harvest, the sharecroppers had to pay back a share of the crop's value. Meanwhile, organized secret societies, such as the Ku Klux Klan, used terror and violence to keep African Americans from voting.

Republican Rutherford B. Hayes won the disputed presidential election in 1876. He agreed to withdraw federal troops from the South, ending Reconstruction. The nation was reunited and the South was being rebuilt, but Reconstruction was not completely successful. Voting rights were taken away from African Americans. Segregation, or legal separation of the races, became the law in all southern states.

Chapter 3 Industrial America

Chapter 3.1 The Triumph of Industry

Near the end of the nineteenth century, coal and steel production grew rapidly. Railroads were expanding. Inventions, like the light bulb developed by Thomas Alva Edison, helped the economy. There were many reasons for the growth. The nation had lots of coal and oil. Millions of immigrants came from Europe and Asia to fill the labor market. Government policies helped businesses grow. This growth gave many people better living conditions. Cities grew larger. Transportation and communication improved.

At this time, large corporations dominated American business. These corporations and their owners built huge fortunes. John D. Rockefeller gained control of the oil industry. Andrew Carnegie grew rich from the sale of his steel business. Industrialists established trusts, combinations of corporations. Small businesses complained about monopolies. Monopolies occur when one corporation controls an entire industry.

Carnegie and others created explanations to defend their business methods and their wealth. Social Darwinism stated that life was a struggle in which only the fittest survived. Carnegie developed a doctrine called the Gospel of Wealth.

He wanted those who had wealth to share their riches to improve society.

In contrast to rich owners, factory workers worked long hours for very low pay. They had no health benefits and no vacation time. To improve their conditions, workers formed unions. The Knights of Labor wanted broad social reforms. The American Federation of Labor (AFL) focused on improving wages, working hours, and working conditions.

Workers and big business often engaged in violent clashes. The Haymarket Riot in Chicago and a nationwide strike against the railroad companies required government intervention to control the violence.

Chapter 3.2 Immigration & Urbanization

There were two great waves of immigration in the United States. One was during the 1840s and 1850s and another between 1880 and 1920. Immigrants came to the United States to find work and for the promise of political and religious freedom. They contributed to American culture in many ways.

Starting in 1892, most immigrants from Europe first landed at Ellis Island, just outside New York City. Government clerks asked the immigrants a series of questions. If authorities believed the newcomers posed a risk to public health, they would demand that the immigrants return to Europe. From the early 1850s to 1882, hundreds of thousands of Chinese immigrants came to the West Coast. From 1910 to 1940, most Asian immigrants arrived at Angel Island in San Francisco Bay. They experienced much harsher conditions than those immigrants arriving at Ellis Island. Some waited months or even years before they were allowed into the United States.

Both foreign-born immigrants and American-born farmers moved to the cities. New forms of transportation made possible the first suburbs. These were residential areas around the cities. Poorer residents lived in densely populated urban ghettos, or areas where one ethnic or racial group dominates. One of the biggest problems facing urban dwellers was overcrowding. Multistory buildings were subdivided into many homes, often housing twenty families each. These buildings were called tenements.

Industrialization and urbanization gave rise to a growing middle class. Industries needed skilled white-collar workers, such as engineers, accountants, and attorneys. Big businesses hired salesclerks to sell their goods. They hired managers to supervise their workers. These workers had enough money to purchase items that in the past only the elite could afford. The growing middle class supported higher education and the arts.

Chapter 3.3 The South & West Transformed

After the Civil War, southerners developed a new mixed economy. Textile mills were built, the timber industry expanded, and railway construction boomed. With all the advances, problems persisted. Lack of capital meant heavy borrowing from northern bankers. African Americans were slowly stripped of the political and civil rights they had gained after the Civil War. The sharecropping system brought hardships. Landowners

gave the sharecropper a place to live, seeds, and tools, in exchange for a share of the harvested crop. Landowners and merchants often cheated sharecroppers.

The end of the war also unleashed a huge wave of migration to the West. Even before large numbers of farmers and ranchers migrated west, hunters had already started to undermine the Native Americans' way of life by decimating the great buffalo herds that roamed the Plains.

In the post-Civil War period, the federal government forced the Plains Indians to move to reservations, or public land specifically reserved for them. Although some Native Americans moved to reservations without a fight, others decided to defend their land. The Battle of Little Bighorn and the retreat of the Nez Percé tribe are examples of Native American resistance.

The United States enacted the Dawes Act in 1887, which sought to prompt Native Americans to assimilate, or to be absorbed into the main culture of American society through land ownership and the opportunity to become citizens. The act failed to achieve its goal.

In the middle decades of the 1800s, the discovery of gold and silver attracted miners to the West in hopes of making a fortune. Farmers and ranchers came to the West in hopes of owning their own land. The transcontinental railroad opened the West to economic development.

At the end of the Civil War, approximately 5 million head of cattle roamed freely in Texas. These cattle, along with the demand for meat back east, led to the great cattle drives. Beginning in the late 1870s, cattlemen began raising steers on the northern plains where the herds could feed on the open range—a vast area of grassland owned by the federal government—and then they could ship the steers from nearby railroads without the difficulty of the long drive.

Chapter 3.4 The Gilded Age

The period during the late nineteenth century is often referred to as the Gilded Age, implying that under the glittery, or gilded, surface of prosperity lurked troubling issues. One issue that troubled the nation was the persistence of racial inequality. The southern states passed laws that separated blacks and whites. These laws were known as Jim Crow laws. During this same period, Mexican Americans struggled to keep their lands in the Southwest. Asian immigrants, especially the Chinese, faced discrimination, too. Women experienced both gains and setbacks during the Gilded Age. The fight to gain a women's suffrage amendment stalled, but educational opportunities for women grew.

Corruption plagued government during this period. Graft, or bribery and corruption, touched many aspects of public life. After a federal employee assassinated President James Garfield, the Pendleton Act was passed. This law created a civil service system for the federal government. Individuals who wanted to work for the government were required to take an exam and were then given a job based on their performance on the exam. Both Republicans and Democrats favored a monetary policy called the gold standard.

Farmers faced complex problems. The prices paid for crops declined significantly. At the same time, farmers built up debts that they found difficult to repay. Government monetary policies contributed to both of these trends. Farmers formed various political organizations to address their problems. Farmers from the South and the West formed the People's Party, or the Populist Party.

William Jennings Bryan was the Democratic and Populist candidate for the presidency in 1896. In one of the hardest fought campaigns in American history, he fought for the American farmer and denounced Republican monetary policies, namely the gold standard. Bryan failed to win a state outside of the South and the West. As a result, William McKinley, the Republican candidate, won the presidency. Yet, the Populist movement had an impact on the political system. A number of Populist proposals, such as the graduated income tax and the direct election of senators, later became law.

Chapter 4 The Progressive Era (1890-1920)

Chapter 4.1 The Drive for Reform

Industrialization, urbanization, and immigration brought many benefits to America, but they also produced challenging social problems. A movement called Progressivism arose in the 1890s to tackle these problems. Journalists whose stories dramatized the need for reform were called muckrakers. One leading muckraker was Lincoln Steffens, a magazine editor who published stories about political corruption. Another was Jacob Riis, a photographer whose pictures revealed life in urban slums. Novelist Frank Norris showed how the Southern Pacific Railroad kept a stranglehold on California farmers in *The Octopus*. Upton Sinclair's novel *The Jungle* revealed the unsafe and unsanitary conditions of Chicago meatpacking plants. The work of the muckrakers increased popular support for Progressivism and helped the Progressives bring about reforms. Laws were passed to end child labor and break up monopolies and trusts. After a fire at a garment factory killed nearly 150 workers, Progressives were able to get laws passed to protect worker safety.

Many reformers thought that Christianity should be the basis of social reform. These followers of the Social Gospel believed that society would improve if people followed the Bible's teachings about charity and justice. One form of charity was the settlement house, which offered services for the poor such as child care and classes in English. Hull House in Chicago was a famous settlement house founded by Jane Addams. Her work inspired others to help solve the problems of the urban poor by becoming social workers.

In order to reform politics and remove corrupt governments, Progressives pushed for a number of new laws. Dynamic leaders such as Governor Robert La Follette of Wisconsin created tools to limit the power of political bosses and business interests. Reformers created the direct primary so citizens, not political bosses, could select nominees for upcoming elections. The initiative gave people the power to put a proposed new law directly on the ballot. The referendum allowed citizens to approve or reject laws passed by a legislature. The recall gave voters the power to remove elected officials from office before their terms ended. These reforms brought about by Progressives continue to affect society today.

Chapter 4.2 Women Make Progress

In the early 1900s, a growing number of women sought to do more than fulfill their roles as wives and mothers. Many went to college to prepare for careers in teaching and nursing. Women had already won a shorter workday, but reformers saw the need for more changes. Florence Kelley believed that unfair prices for household goods hurt women and their families, so she helped found the National Consumers League (NCL). The

NCL labeled products made in safe workplaces. The NCL also asked the government to improve food and workplace safety and assist the unemployed.

Women also sought changes in the home. With the temperance movement, led by the Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU), women tried to reduce or end the consumption of alcohol. Members of the WCTU blamed alcohol for some men's abuse and neglect of their families. Margaret Sanger sought a different change. She thought that family life and women's health would improve if mothers had fewer children. Sanger opened the nation's first birth-control clinic. Ida B. Wells established the National Association of Colored Women, which helped African American families by providing childcare and education.

One of Progressivism's boldest goals was suffrage—the right to vote—for women. This fight was started in the 1860s but was reenergized by Carrie Chapman Catt in the 1890s. Catt toured the country encouraging women to join the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA). This group lobbied Congress for the right to vote and used the referendum process to try to get women the vote in individual states. By 1918, this strategy had helped women get the vote in several states. Alice Paul was more vocal in her efforts. In 1917, she formed the National Woman's Party (NWP), which staged protest marches and hunger strikes and even picketed the White House to demand the right to vote. When the United States entered World War I in 1917, the NAWSA supported the war effort. Its actions and those of the NWP convinced a growing number of legislators to support a woman suffrage amendment. This reform became official in 1920 as the Nineteenth Amendment. Women finally had the right to vote for President.

Chapter 4.3 The Struggle Against Discrimination

The Progressive Era was not so progressive for nonwhite and immigrant Americans. Most Progressives were white Anglo-Saxon Protestant reformers who were indifferent or hostile to minorities.

Settlement houses and other civic groups played a big role in the Americanization efforts of many Progressives. Americanization occurred when Progressives encouraged everyone to follow white, middle-class ways of life.

Many Progressives shared the same prejudices against non-whites as other Americans. They agreed with so-called scientific theories that said that dark-skinned peoples had less intelligence than whites. They also supported segregation, or separation of the races, and laws to limit minority voting.

African American reformers responded in different ways to formal segregation and discrimination. For example, Booker T. Washington told blacks that the best way to win their rights was to be patient and to earn the respect of white Americans. W.E.B. Du Bois, on the other hand, said that blacks should demand immediately all the rights guaranteed by the Constitution.

W.E.B. Du Bois was a member of the Niagara Movement, a group that called for rapid progress and more education for blacks. After a race riot broke out in Illinois, its members joined with white reformers to form the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). The NAACP planned to use the court system to fight for the civil rights of African Americans, including the right to vote. The efforts of the

NAACP mostly helped middle-class blacks, but the Urban League focused on poorer urban workers. It helped families buy clothes and books and helped factory workers and maids find jobs.

African Americans were not alone in seeking their rights. Individuals and organizations of diverse ethnic groups spoke out against injustice and created self-help agencies. Jews in New York City formed the Anti-Defamation League to defend themselves against verbal attacks and false statements. Mexican Americans in several states formed mutualistas, groups that gave loans and provided legal assistance to the poor.

Chapter 4.4 Roosevelt's Square Deal

Theodore Roosevelt was a war hero, seasoned politician, and a dedicated reformer when he became President in 1901. He quickly pushed Congress to approve the Square Deal, a program of reform aimed at stopping the wealthy and powerful from dominating small business owners and the poor. Roosevelt used the power of the federal government to take on big business, breaking up trusts he considered abusive. In 1906, Roosevelt convinced Congress to pass the Hepburn Act, which limited what railroads could charge for shipping. This helped farmers in the West who had been at the mercy of the railroads.

After reading Upton Sinclair's novel *The Jungle*, Roosevelt pushed Congress to pass the Meat Inspection Act. This law gave the government power to inspect meat and meat-processing plants to ensure the meat was safe to eat. The Pure Food and Drug Act banned interstate shipment of impure food and the mislabeling of food and drugs.

Roosevelt loved nature, and he respected naturalist John Muir, whose efforts had led to the creation of Yosemite National Park. Following Muir's advice, Roosevelt put millions of acres of forests under federal control. However, he did not agree with Muir that it should all remain untouched. Like the head of the Division of Forestry, Gifford Pinchot, Roosevelt believed in the "rational use" of forests. The forests would be protected as future sources of lumber. To help settle fights over sources of water in the West, Roosevelt pushed for passage of the National Reclamation Act. That law gave the government power to build and manage dams and to control where and how water was used.

After two terms in office, Roosevelt wanted William Howard Taft to follow him because Taft shared his belief in regulating businesses. However, Taft did not follow the course Roosevelt had set, and Roosevelt became disappointed and, later, angry. He began to speak out against Taft, promoting what he called New Nationalism, a program to restore the government's trustbusting power. As another election neared, the Taft-Roosevelt battle split the Republican Party. A group of Progressives created the Progressive Party and nominated Roosevelt as its candidate for President.

Chapter 4.5 Wilson's New Freedom

During the 1912 election, Roosevelt and Taft split the Republican Party vote, allowing Democrat Woodrow Wilson to win the election. Wilson was an intellectual man from Virginia who had taught college as a professor before becoming governor of New Jersey. Like Roosevelt, Wilson was a reformer who thought government should play an active role in the economy. He shaped his ideas into a three-part program he called the New Freedom.

First, Wilson tried to prevent manufacturers from charging unfairly high prices. He cut tariffs on imported goods, which made foreign goods more competitive in the United States and forced U.S. producers to charge fair prices. He also pushed for creation of an income tax, which the Sixteenth Amendment gave Congress the power to do. This tax more than made up for the money the government lost by lowering tariffs.

Second, Wilson pushed Congress to pass the Federal Reserve Act. This law gave the government authority to supervise banks by placing national banks under the control of a Federal Reserve Board. Regional banks were then set up to hold reserve funds from commercial banks. The Federal Reserve also set the interest rate that banks pay to borrow money from other banks. This system ensured that no one person or bank had too much control over the economy.

Third, Wilson made sure that trusts did not behave unfairly. He persuaded Congress to create the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) to monitor business practices and watch out for false advertising and dishonest labeling. Congress also passed the Clayton Antitrust Act, which strengthened earlier antitrust laws by spelling out which business activities were illegal. The act helped workers by protecting labor unions from being attacked as trusts.

Progressivism had a major impact on the nation. Political reforms expanded the power of voters. Economic reforms enabled the government to regulate corporations and banks in the interest of the public. Consumer protections gave the public confidence that the products they bought were not harmful. The government also began to manage natural resources all over the nation.

Chapter 5 Am Emerging World Power

Chapter 5.1 The Roots of Imperialism

During the late 1800s, the United States began to acquire influence and territory outside of its continental borders. It pursued a policy of imperialism, or the use of economic, political, and military control over weaker territories. Many imperialist nations wanted colonies to serve as extractive economies. Raw materials would be removed from these colonies and sent to the home country. In America there was a surplus of goods. American industrialists would benefit because they could sell their commodities in new colonial markets around the world.

Alfred T. Mahan, a historian and officer in the United States Navy, called upon the government to build a large navy in order to protect American interests around the world. To justify imperialism, many imperialists used ideas of racial, national, and cultural superiority. One of these ideas was Social Darwinism, the belief that life is a competitive struggle and that some races are superior to others and more fit to rule. Historian Frederick J. Turner wrote that America needed a large amount of unsettled land to succeed. Some Americans felt that the nation should expand into foreign lands.

In 1853, Commodore Matthew Perry sailed a large naval force to Japan. Perry won the Japanese emperor's favor by showering him with lavish gifts. Within a year, Japan agreed to trade with the United States. In 1867, Secretary of State William Seward bought Alaska from Russia. The purchase almost doubled the size of the United States and provided timber, oil, and other natural resources. In Latin

America, U.S. businessmen sought to expand their trade and investments, which expanded the U.S. sphere of influence.

The Hawaiian Islands had been economically linked to the United States for almost a century. American sugar planters owned much of the Hawaiian land. They used their influence to exclude many Hawaiians from the voting process. Queen Liliuokalani, the ruler of Hawaii, tried to limit the political power of the white minority. In 1893, the planters overthrew the queen and set up a new government. The United States annexed Hawaii in 1898. The United States was abandoning isolationism and emerging as a new power on the global stage.

Chapter 5.2 The Spanish-American War

At the end of the nineteenth century, tensions were rising between Spain and its colony in Cuba. Cuban patriot José Martí launched a war for independence from Spain in 1895. Many Americans supported the Cubans, whose struggle for freedom and democracy reminded Americans of their own struggle for independence.

Newspaper publishers Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst heightened the public's dislike of the Spanish government. Their publications, known as the Yellow Press, pushed for war with Spain by printing exaggerated stories of Spanish atrocities. In February 1898, Hearst's *New York Journal* published a letter written by Spain's ambassador, which called McKinley a weak and stupid politician. The letter fueled American jingoism, or aggressive nationalism. Soon after, the American battleship *Maine* exploded in Havana harbor. The Yellow Press promptly accused Spain of blowing up the battleship. In April 1898, the U.S. Congress declared war on Spain, beginning the Spanish-American War.

In the Spanish-held Philippines, Commodore George Dewey quickly destroyed a large part of the Spanish fleet. While Dewey was defeating the Spanish navy, Filipino nationalists led by Emilio Aguinaldo were defeating the Spanish army. In August, Spanish troops surrendered to the United States.

Meanwhile, American troops landed in Cuba in June 1898. Although the troops were poorly trained, wore unsuitable uniforms, and carried old, obsolete weapons, they were successful. Spanish forces in Cuba surrendered to the United States. Future President Theodore Roosevelt organized a force known as the Rough Riders.

Joined by African American soldiers from the Ninth and Tenth Cavalry regiments, the Rough Riders played a key role in the war.

In December 1898, Spain and the United States signed the Treaty of Paris, officially ending the Spanish-American War. Spain gave up control of Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Pacific island of Guam. It also sold the Philippines to the United States. While many were happy with America's expanded role in world affairs, some Americans argued that imperialism was unjust and un-American. The Spanish-American War marked a turning point in the history of American foreign policy.

Chapter 5.3 The US & East Asia

During the Spanish-American War, Filipino nationalist Emilio Aguinaldo viewed America as an ally in the Filipino struggle for independence. However, when the United States kept possession of the Philippines

after the war, Aguinaldo grew disillusioned. He helped organize an insurrection, or rebellion, against U.S. rule.

The Filipino insurgents relied on guerrilla warfare tactics, including surprise raids and hit-and-run attacks. In turn, the U.S. military used extraordinary measures to crush the rebellion. The war in the Philippines highlighted the rigors of fighting against guerrilla insurgents. Nearly 5,000 Americans and 200,000 Filipinos were killed in the fighting.

The United States also wanted to increase trade with China. By 1899, Britain, France, Germany, and Russia had carved China into distinct spheres of influence, or zones. Because the United States did not have a zone, this system of privileged access to Chinese markets threatened to limit American trade. U.S. Secretary of State John Hay made it clear that America demanded equal trade access.

In May 1900, a Chinese nationalist group launched the Boxer Rebellion in objection to the presence of foreigners. As the rebellion engulfed China, Secretary of State Hay reasserted America's Open Door Policy, which stated that the United States wanted free trade, not colonies, in China. A multinational force of European, American, and Japanese troops put down the uprising.

In 1905, President Roosevelt negotiated an end to the Russo-Japanese War. The President's intervention displayed America's growing role in world affairs. However, in 1906, the segregation of Japanese children in San Francisco schools drew Japan's immediate wrath. President Roosevelt negotiated a "Gentlemen's Agreement" with Japan to ease the tension.

While Roosevelt used diplomacy with Japan, he also promoted military preparedness to protect U.S. interests in Asia. In 1907, Roosevelt sent a force of navy ships, known as the Great White Fleet, on a cruise around the world to demonstrate America's increased military power.

Chapter 5.4 The US & Latin America

After the Spanish-American War, the United States assumed control of Puerto Rico and Cuba. In 1900, the U.S. Congress passed the Foraker Act, which established a civil government in Puerto Rico. Later, in 1917, Puerto Ricans gained more citizenship rights and greater control over their own legislature.

Before the United States Army withdrew from Cuba in 1902, Congress forced Cuba to add the Platt Amendment to its constitution. The amendment restricted the rights of newly independent Cubans, gave the United States the right to intervene in Cuba, and made Cuba a protectorate of the United States.

After assuming the presidency, Theodore Roosevelt promoted "big stick" diplomacy, which relied on a strong U.S. military to achieve America's goals. Roosevelt used this forceful approach to intimidate Colombia and gain control over the "Canal Zone" in Panama. America then built the Panama Canal, a waterway that connected the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

In 1904, President Roosevelt announced the Roosevelt Corollary, which updated the Monroe Doctrine for an age of economic imperialism. The policy stated that the United States would serve as the policing power in Latin America and would restore order when necessary. Many Latin Americans resented America's role as the hemisphere's police force.

President William Howard Taft shared Roosevelt's basic foreign policy objectives. However, Taft stressed "dollar diplomacy," which aimed to increase American investments throughout Central America and the Caribbean. In 1913, President Woodrow Wilson, who had criticized imperialism, promoted his policy of "moral diplomacy." Wilson promised that America would work to promote "human rights, national integrity, and opportunity."

Although he intended to take U.S. policy in a different direction, President Wilson nevertheless used the military on a number of occasions. During the Mexican Revolution, Wilson sent marines to help Venustiano Carranza, a reformer, to assume the presidency. Wilson also sent troops to capture Francisco "Pancho" Villa, whose raid into New Mexico left 18 Americans dead. America's triumph over Spain and U.S. actions in Asia and Latin America demonstrated that America had emerged as a global power.