

US HISTORY SEM. I READING GUIDE

PART 1: GEOGRAPHY & THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLONIES

The first permanent British colony in the Americas was Jamestown (modern-day Virginia) in 1607. The Pilgrims, seeking religious freedom, founded the Plymouth colony (modern-day Massachusetts) in 1620. The Dutch founded the colony of New Netherland (modern-day Rhode Island to Delaware) and the capital city New Amsterdam (modern-day New York City) in 1625. They paid the Lenape Indians 60 guilders (about \$1,000 today!) for all of Manhattan Island! All of these early colonial settlements were established near coastlines. British ships conquered New Netherland in 1674, and renamed New Amsterdam "New York." The 13 British colonies in America were established.

The 13 British colonies were divided into three geographic sections: New England (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut), the Middle (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware), & the South (Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia). Geography affected each section differently. In the New England colonies, good harbors, abundant forests, rocky soil and a short growing season led to an economy based on small farms, commercial fishing, trade and manufacturing. Good harbors in particular played a critical role in the development of commerce (business) in the north. The New England Colonies are also known for establishing the first American college, Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts in 1636.

Because of fertile land and a long growing season, the Southern colonies developed economies based on agriculture. Plantations (massive farming estates) were built, which would soon lead to importation of African slaves. Surprisingly, the major source of forced labor in the early colonial period was indentured servants from Europe. Indentured servants were young (usually under 21) and from Britain or Germany. They agreed to work for a master for a set term of years (usually 6-7) in order to buy their freedom at the end of their contract term. One-half to two-thirds of all 17th century settlers were indentured servants, whose life spans were short and costs to maintain high.

As indentured servitude declined in the late 1600s, colonists needed a new source of labor. The first ship carrying 19 African slaves was brought to the Jamestown colony in 1619 by Dutch traders. Over the next 246 years (1619-1865), about 12 million African slaves were brought to the Americas, including about 600,000 to the American colonies. The vast majorities were brought to sugar plantations in the Caribbean islands and Brazil, where the life expectancy was short and the slaves had to be constantly replenished. Children born of African slaves were forced into slavery.

Before 1750, westward movement beyond the colonies was limited by the Appalachian Mountains. The Proclamation of 1763 was a document issued by King George II (r. 1760-1820) that forbade (banned) colonists from settling past a line drawn along the Appalachian Mountains (angering many who wanted to move west). The British also issued it to organize their new North American Empire and to stabilize relations with Native North Americans. West of the Proclamation Line was a vast territory of wilderness and Native American territory extending to the Mississippi River. This river has always been a vital (important) waterway because it was used to transport farm goods to markets all along the river. It also provided farmers and merchants in the Ohio River Valley and northern Great Lakes with an outlet to the Gulf of Mexico. At the end of the Revolutionary War with Britain in 1783, the Mississippi River now became the western boundary of the new U.S.A.

Beyond the Mississippi River lies the Great Plains, a vast area of flat, native grasslands. The Great Plains was ideal for farming grain crops. West of the Great Plains lays the Rocky Mountains, a vast area of high elevation and windy, cold climates. The lower areas surrounding the Rockies have a steppe (semi-arid) climate, receiving below-average precipitation, but not as little as a desert. Further west beyond the Rocky Mountains lays arid and hot desert climates in the Southwest. The Pacific Ocean borders the west coast, which has a warm, Mediterranean

climate on the southern coast and a cool, wet climate in the Pacific Northwest. These contrast with the humid (hot and wet) subtropical climates of the Southeast, where the plantation economy based on slavery was created. In New England and the North, a humid continental climate (warm summers/cold winters) existed.

PART 2: MERCANTILISM & COLONIAL ECONOMIC PRACTICES

In the Colonial period (1607-1775), the Triangular Trade was a Trans-Atlantic network between Europe, Africa and the Americas. Manufactured goods like alcohol, weapons, and textiles were brought from Europe to Africa, where they were traded on the West African coast for captured slaves. These slaves were shipped across the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas in a harsh 2-6 month journey called the Middle Passage. Most of these slaves were brought to Spanish, Portuguese, British, Dutch, and French colonies in the Caribbean Island region and South America. Slaves and manufactured goods from Europe/Africa were traded in the Americas for raw materials (natural resources), such as sugar, molasses, flour, fish, meat, tobacco, rice, indigo, and animal furs. The Triangular Trade led to the increased importation of African slaves to the Western Hemisphere.

The main economic policy of the colonial era was mercantilism. Under this philosophy, colonies existed solely for the economic benefit of the mother country. Colonies were supposed to provide their motherlands with raw materials and markets for manufactured goods. The motherland also had the power to forbid their colonies to trade with any other nation besides them. Mercantilism also encouraged nations to have a favorable balance of trade because more value was placed on exporting goods (selling to other nations) than importing goods (buying from other nations).

In reality, however, mercantilism led to a long-term reduction in trade between European nations and caused growing feelings of resentment in the colonies against their European motherlands. The British benefited from their mercantilist relationship with the American colonies by buying raw materials from the colonies and selling them the finished products. American colonists would come to oppose the British system of mercantilism because it placed restrictions on their trading and was used by the British government to deny political representation to the colonists in Britain.

For the colonial period before 1763, however, the British government followed a policy known as salutary neglect. This was the British policy of avoiding strict enforcement of parliamentary laws. Parliament is the bicameral (two-housed) legislative (law-making) body of Britain. It is composed of the House of Lords (upper house of appointed officials) and the House of Commons (lower house of democratically-elected officials). The British Parliament was created in 1215 with the Magna Carta.

Great Britain followed a policy of salutary neglect in order to promote manufacturing in the American colonies and the development of independent colonial trade practices. The British government wanted to avoid intervening in the affairs of the colonies too much in order to encourage them to grow and survive on their own. Robert Walpole, the first prime minister of Great Britain from 1721-42, stated, "If no restrictions were placed on the colonies, they would flourish."

Salutary Neglect led to stable relations between Britain and her 13 American colonies until 1763, when a series of trade restrictions and taxes were passed by Parliament, such as the Stamp Act, Sugar Act, Intolerable Acts and Quebec Act (which extended British control of lands west of the Appalachian Mountains to the Mississippi River). American Colonists grew angry at these acts because they had gotten used to self-rule. American colonists had grown accustomed to governing themselves as sovereign (independent) territories. The colonists came to realize that they were strong enough to challenge British rule in the Americas, and they soon formed a collective identity that considered itself separate from Britain, two key factors that inspired the coming revolution.

The colonists realized that geographic conditions supported different types of economic activities in different regions. In the northern New England colonies, an economy based on manufacturing, small farms and commercial

fishing resulted from the rocky soil, good natural harbors, large amount of coastline and colder climate. The abundance of waterpower in particular (from rivers, lakes and the Atlantic Ocean) helped fuel the development of northern manufacturing centers. The climate and topography of the southern colonies encouraged the development of an economy based on large-scale agriculture. The Southern colonies provided agricultural products that were sold processed in the North and in Europe, but they did this by creating the plantation system based on the importation of African slaves and the brutal expulsion of Native Americans from their lands.

PART 3: LIFE IN THE THIRTEEN COLONIES (1607 – 1775)

The American colonies soon attempted self-government (participation in government by representatives of the people). The House of Burgesses was the first representative lawmaking body for English colonists in North America (A “Burgess” was an elected representative of a borough (district) in the English House of Commons in Parliament). The House of Burgesses met in Jamestown, Virginia from 1619-1776 and was the first step towards creating a democratic republic in the 13 colonies, based on the ideas of the Enlightenment and Greco-Roman culture.

Members of the *Mayflower*, the ship that carried the Pilgrims to Plymouth Colony, signed the *Mayflower Compact* in 1620. The Pilgrims were Puritans, English Calvinist Protestants that wanted to purify the Church of England from all Catholic practices. The *Mayflower Compact* was a contract in which the Pilgrims consented to be governed by a government that they created. It was the first written constitution plan for self-government and majority rule in the colonies. In New England, town meetings were soon held so that people could govern themselves through direct democracy.

The *Fundamental Orders of Connecticut* were written and signed in 1639 by Puritans who had left Massachusetts. It is the first written constitution in the American Colonies, which is why Connecticut is nicknamed “The Constitution State.” The *Fundamental Orders* stated that governments are based on the rights of the individual, governments must protect these rights, and that all free men may elect their representatives with secret, paper ballots. New England town meetings, the *Mayflower Compact*, House of Burgesses, and *Fundamental Orders of Connecticut* were all important early steps towards democracy and representative government in the American colonies. Any democracy must allow citizens to participate in the government (“self-government”).

In 1733, NYC newspaper editor John Peter Zenger was arrested for printing negative articles about the governor of New York in his *New York Weekly Journal*. Zenger was acquitted with the help of lawyer Andrew Hamilton, who argued that printing the truth is never a crime. This case was important because it established the idea of freedom of the press in the 13 colonies. The Albany Plan of Union in 1754 was the first proposal to create a unified government in the 13 colonies, but this plan was rejected because colonial assemblies did not want to give up their individual power.

The French and Indian War (1756-1763) was fought between the colonies of British America and New France over disputed land claims in the Ohio River Valley between the French and British. The French allied with several Indian tribes to fight against the American and British forces. The French and Indian forces were defeated after a bloody and expensive nine-year conflict. As a result, the French ceded almost all of New France to Britain (all land east of the Mississippi River).

After the war, the British government created the Proclamation Line of 1763. The Proclamation Line forbade colonists from settling west of an imaginary borderline drawn down the Appalachian Mountains. This was done to organize Great Britain’s new empire in North America, which had just more than doubled after acquiring so much territory from France in the French and Indian War. The line was also meant to stabilize relations with Native Americans through regulation of trade, settlement and land purchases on the western frontier. The British were

trying to reduce future conflicts with the Indians who had just fought them in the war by rebuilding trust with them.

In the 1760s, Britain raised taxes on the American colonies to pay for the French and Indian War. Britain also put the colonies under even more trade restrictions due to the economic policies of mercantilism. Some American colonists boycotted (refused to buy) products from Britain because they believed in “no taxation without representation,” meaning Britain should not be allowed to tax the colonies if they have no representatives in British Parliament. The colonists claimed that power comes from the consent of the governed (will of the people). When Thomas Paine published his pamphlet *Common Sense* in 1776, dissatisfaction with Britain increased even more. *Common Sense* argued that the American colonies should break away from England and declare independence. It persuaded individuals who were undecided about rebellion against Britain to support American independence. *Common Sense* convinced many colonists that an American Revolution was needed.

PART 4: THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1776 – 1783)

Resentment against Britain had been growing since the end of the French and Indian War in 1763. Britain decided to raise taxes on the colonies to pay for the war effort. British Parliament and King George III believed that the colonies should pay for their military protection, but the colonists argued that they had sacrificed much themselves during the war, including paying for the training and supplies of its’ own soldiers, whom had helped the British defeat the French. The slogan “No taxation without representation” became popular in the 13 colonies. The colonists believed that Parliament had no legal right to tax them since the colonies had no representatives for their interests in England. Colonists argued that taxes without their consent violated their rights.

The Sugar Act (1764) taxed foreign imports of molasses to the colonies and also placed strict trade restrictions on the colonies, forbidding them from trading with nations outside of the British Empire. Under the British economic policy of Mercantilism, colonies were only supposed to benefit their mother countries. American colonists protested against Britain’s mercantilist policies and strict trade restrictions by boycotting (refusing to buy) British imported goods in the colonies. The Quartering Act (1765) required colonists to house British soldiers against their will. The Stamp Act (1765) placed heavy taxes on printed materials in the colonies, such as magazines, newspapers, stamps and even playing cards. The Townshend Acts (1767) placed taxes on tea.

These taxes and acts led to increasing colonial protests against Britain. Boycotts of British goods caused increasing damage to Britain’s economy. In response, the British increased their military presence in the colonies. British troops occupied Boston, Massachusetts, and in 1770, British troops fired into an angry mob after being hit with rocks and snowballs, killing five colonists. The “Boston Massacre” sharply increased anger against Great Britain. In 1773, colonists dressed as Native Americans dumped hundreds of crates of tea from British ships in Boston Harbor in the “Boston Tea Party.” Angered by this, Britain passed the Coercive Acts (1774). Called the Intolerable Acts by American colonists, these acts closed the port of Boston, took away Massachusetts’ power of self-government by allowing King George to appoint all of the colonies government officials. American Patriots (colonists that favored revolution against Britain) set up Committees of Correspondence, which were secret shadow governments that met to unite the colonies against Britain. These committees organized the First Continental Congress, a meeting of delegates from the colonies held in Philadelphia in 1774. Tories (people loyal to Britain) were not allowed in.

The Second Continental Congress met in 1775 and organized Patriot leaders and colonial armies in preparation for war against Britain. It was also here that Thomas Jefferson wrote the *Declaration of Independence*. Signed on July 4th, 1776 (“Independence Day”), this document states the reasons why the American colonies must separate from Britain. Thomas Jefferson borrowed heavily from English Enlightenment philosopher John Locke and his social contract theory of government. This is the idea that governments have an obligation to protect its’ citizens natural rights. Governments have a ‘social contract’ with its’ citizens that holds each side to certain responsibilities. Jefferson adopted the idea that government should be based upon the consent of the governed and that citizens

have the right to overthrow an oppressive government. Jefferson wrote, "All men are created equal" and endowed with the "unalienable rights" of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The *Declaration of Independence*, along with *Common Sense* written by Thomas Paine the same year, convinced many colonists that independence from Britain was necessary and good.

After five years of fighting, the Treaty of Paris was signed in 1783, which recognized the colonies' independence from Britain. Against great odds, the Americans won the revolution against the strongest nation in the world at the time. Geographic factors gave them a strategic advantage over the British army, which had to travel thousands of miles across the Atlantic Ocean with limited supplies to fight in a strange and unfamiliar land against the Patriots' Continental Army, led by general George Washington. Although the British had a larger army, economy and population, they lost to the poorly equipped Continental Army, which also received help from France during the Revolution. Key battle victories at Lexington and Concord, Bunker Hill, Trenton and Saratoga crippled and demoralized the British army. The decisive Battle of Yorktown in 1781 ended the war.

PART 5: THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION & THE 1780s

After the American Revolution ended with Britain's surrender, a group of upper class and highly educated nationalists began the hard task of creating the nation's first united and independent government. The first constitution of the United States was the Articles of Confederation, which was ratified (approved) in 1781 by all 13 colonies, now called "states". A "confederation" is an alliance of independent states in which the states give as much power as they choose to a central government, while keeping the greater part of the power and remaining sovereign (self-governing).

The Articles of Confederation reflected the colonists' fear of a strong central government and the desire of the individual states to protect their powers. The Articles made a weak central government that was designed to prevent tyranny (dictatorships). The colonists wanted to avoid an oppressive central government that could threaten or take away its' citizens rights, as had just happened under the British monarchy of King George III. The central government created under the Articles was intentionally weak and limited. A system was created where the states held most of the power.

There was no single national currency (money system) because the states could also coin money. The Congress could not tax the people directly, but instead could only ask states for funds, which were rarely received. The government lacked an executive (president) to direct operations and unite the states. There was national judiciary (court system), and Congress could raise an army only by requesting troops from the states. It was also difficult to change the Articles because all 13 states had to agree on any future amendment. For all of these reasons, the government created under the Articles of Confederation was unsuccessful at solving most of the young nation's major problems during the 1780s. The founders of the American republic feared a strong central government, but they failed to provide adequate powers to allow the national government to enforce its' laws.

Despite the Articles of Confederation's many weaknesses, it still established the basic framework for the national government of the United States. The central government under the Articles did have some powers. Congress had the power to make treaties, declare war, and receive ambassadors. The national government under the Articles passed two important pieces of legislation (laws) during the 1780s. The Land Ordinance of 1785 was passed to provide an orderly system of development for the Northwest Territory (the unmapped area west of the Appalachian Mountains). The Land Ordinance of 1785 created a rectangular land survey system whereby new townships were divided into 36 equal sections of 1 sq. mile each. Each section could also be subdivided into smaller sections. This system was used so that the central government had an orderly way to sell land to western settlers and control how that land was used and divided.

The Northwest Ordinance of 1787 established guidelines by which new states could equally join the union (nation) with the 13 original states. This ordinance set a precedent (future model) for all western territories by providing a method for the creation and admission of new states to the union. Before this law passed, many of the original 13 states got into disputes with each other over mutually claimed western land. New York and Pennsylvania, for example, both claimed land west of the Appalachian Mountains. Land disputes threatened the sense of unity and cooperation between the states, which was very important to have in the early years of the United States. The Northwest Ordinance of 1787 ended this problem by giving all western land to the federal (central) government. Now, only Congress could claim land in the Northwest Territory and admit new states. In addition, slavery was banned north of the Ohio River. This led to the future controversy over the division of the nation between Northern “free states” and Southern “slave states”.

In 1786, angry debt-stricken farmers in western Massachusetts formed an armed militia (local army) and took over state courts that were collecting debt payments from them. “Shay’s Rebellion” convinced many Americans of the need for a stronger national government because it exposed fundamental weaknesses in the Articles of Confederation and the failure of the central government to govern effectively. It spread fears of a national collapse and mob rule because the central government could not raise an army to put down the rebels due to a lack of funding. Americans realized that if the United States was to last, the Articles of Confederation needed to be replaced.

PART 6: THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION (1787)

Nationalist leaders decided to meet and revise the Articles of Confederation. The Constitutional Convention was held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania from May-June in 1787. Many of the 55 state delegates (representatives) soon realized that an entirely new national government was needed. Some of the most famous delegates were George Washington, James Madison, Benjamin Franklin, and Alexander Hamilton (the “Founding Fathers,” minus Thomas Jefferson and John Adams).

Their ideas were influenced by several past historical events. The *Magna Carta* of 1215, which limited the powers of King John of England, inspired them. So did the Glorious Revolution of England in 1688, which led to the idea of a limited government based on the consent of the governed (will of the people) and the English *Bill of Rights*. The founding fathers were also inspired by the Greco-Roman ideas of republicanism (law-making representatives elected by the people) and democracy (giving citizens the political power to vote). The Enlightenment also inspired them. The ideas of natural rights, separation of powers and the social contract in the writings of John Locke, Voltaire, Montesquieu and Rousseau influenced the Constitutional Convention, just as they had inspired the authors of the *Declaration of Independence* in 1776. Lastly, the town hall meetings in the New England colonies and the House of Burgesses in Virginia also influenced the convention.

The delegates in Philadelphia realized they had many problems to address. Under the Articles of Confederation, Congress lacked power to enforce laws. Likewise, there was no executive officer to carry out Congress’ laws either. Each state coined its’ own money; there was no national currency. There were no national courts, only state courts. Laws had to be approved by 9 of 13 states and all 13 states had to agree to an amendment. Congress could not regulate trade among the states and states, not the national government, had most of the power (a ‘confederacy’). The weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation were highlighted by the almost-successful Shay’s Rebellion of 1786.

Delegates at the Constitutional Convention agreed to increase the powers of the central government. They addressed the economic weaknesses of the Articles by granting Congress the power to levy (charge) and collect taxes and granting Congress sole control over interstate and foreign commerce. Only the national government had the power to coin money. The delegates decided to create an executive branch headed by a President, as well as a judicial branch made up of both federal and state courts. These executive and judicial branches of government joined with Congress (the legislative branch) to form a three-branch system of government.

The *Constitution*, which was passed in 1787 and went into effect in 1789, provided for a national legislature (law-making body), called Congress. A conflict, however, arose at the convention over two proposed plans based on the issue of representation in Congress. The Virginia Plan proposed a bicameral (two-house) legislative branch, with representation based on population. This plan favored larger states with higher populations. The New Jersey Plan proposed a unicameral (one-house) legislative branch with each state getting one equal vote. This plan was favored by smaller states with lower populations. This issue was settled by the Great Compromise, which resolved the issue of representation by creating a bicameral Congress made up of a Senate and a House of Representatives. To address the issue of state population differences, each state would receive equal representation (two senators each) in the Senate and proportionate (based on population) representation in the House. By creating a bicameral legislature with each house's representation based differently, the interests of states with large and small populations were balanced.

Slavery was continued under the *Constitution* because southern states would not agree to a document that banned it. A conflict arose because southern states wanted to count slaves as full persons in order to increase southern representation in Congress and distribution of taxes from the national government (even though slaves weren't allowed to vote). Northern states wanted only the free citizens of each state to count towards Congressional representation and taxation in order to prevent southern states from wielding too much power. The Three-Fifths Compromise solved the problem by counting each slave as 3/5 of a person. This deal increased the South's representation, or votes, in the House of Representatives by 60% and put the problem of slavery off until the future.

PARTS 7, 8, 9: THE CONSTITUTION (1789)

The *Constitution* was passed in 1787 and went into effect in 1789. It is the single most important document on which our current government is based upon, and it is also one of the most famous documents in world history. Its features laid the framework and guidelines to settle almost any future issue, bringing political stability after the failed Articles of Confederation in the 1780s.

The people who supported the ratification of the *Constitution* were called the Federalists. Federalism is defined as the division of power between the central (national) and state governments. An example of federalism in the *Constitution* is that the national government can coin money, but the states cannot. Federalists wanted a strong national government to provide order and political stability. Some national leaders, however, disagreed. The Anti-Federalists opposed the ratification of the *Constitution* because they wanted a weak national government that would not threaten the rights of the people or the powers of the states. They believed the *Constitution* failed to protect the individual rights of citizens adequately and could lead to governmental abuse of power.

A controversy arose between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists over the division of power among different levels of government. Federalist leaders James Madison, Alexander Hamilton and John Jay wrote a series of newspaper articles called the *Federalist Papers* in 1788. These articles helped win public support for ratification of the *Constitution*. The *Federalist Papers* are considered one of the finest statements on government and democracy ever written. The new government took office in 1789. In 1791, Congress acted in response to the concerns of the Anti-Federalists by adopting a Bill of Rights for the *Constitution*. The Bill of Rights was meant to protect citizens' civil liberties (public freedoms) from abuses of power by the national government. The Bill of Rights was added onto the end of *Constitution* as 10 amendments guaranteeing the rights of individuals.

The 1st amendment of the Bill of Rights deals with rights of self-expression. The 1st amendment guarantees freedom of religion, of speech, and of the press, the right to assemble peacefully, and the right to petition the government. The importance of this amendment was highlighted 56 years earlier in the 1735 trial of John Peter Zenger. Zenger was a New York City newspaper editor that was put on trial for printing negative articles about the governor of New York. His case was the first ever to establish the idea of freedom of the press in the 13 Colonies.

The 2nd amendment protects the right to possess firearms. The 3rd amendment declares that the government may not require citizens to house soldiers during peacetime. The 4th amendment protects people from unreasonable searches and seizures without probable cause, further limiting governmental power.

The 5th amendment protects citizens from self-incrimination (testifying against yourself), and double jeopardy (being tried for the same crime twice). The 5th amendment also guarantees due process of law. The 6th amendment guarantees the right to a speedy, public trial, to confront witnesses, and to legal counsel (an attorney). The due process clause of the 5th amendment and the right to an attorney in the 6th amendment were designed to ensure fair treatment for those accused of crimes. The 7th amendment guarantees the right to a trial by jury in most civil cases. The 8th amendment prohibits (bans) excessive bail, fines, and “cruel and unusual” punishments.

The 9th amendment declares that rights not mentioned in the *Constitution* belong to the people. The 9th amendment was meant to protect rights beyond those listed directly in the Constitution. The 10th amendment declares that powers not given to the national government belong to the states or to the people. The 10th amendment was meant to limit the power of the federal government.

Since then, 17 additional amendments have been added, for a total of 27. Between the creation of the Bill of Rights in 1791 and the Civil War in 1861, only two amendments were added. The 11th amendment (1795) granted states immunity from certain lawsuits, while the 12th amendment (1804) provided separate voting for President and Vice President. The Bill of Rights is similar to the *Declaration of Independence* because both support placing limitations on governmental power and stress the importance of safeguarding individual liberties. After fighting a revolution against King George III’s tyranny (oppression), the Anti-Federalists wanted their freedoms absolutely guaranteed.

In the Preamble, or introduction, to the *Constitution*, the framers defined their reasons for writing the document. They were to create a strong national government, ensure a system of justice, create peace at home, provide for the defense of the nation, promote the well being of the people and secure liberty to the people and to future generations. The main idea of the Preamble is that the power of the government comes from the people. This is known as popular sovereignty, which is a basic principle of the *Constitution*. Popular sovereignty is the idea that the source of all power or authority to govern is the people. *Popular* means “of the people,” and *sovereignty* means “supreme power.” This type of government is a democracy, or government by the consent of the governed. The belief in sovereignty of the people shows the powerful influence of the Enlightenment belief in a social contract between citizens and their government, as proposed by Rousseau and John Locke.

Other basic principles of the *Constitution* include limited government, federalism, and separation of powers, checks and balances, and flexibility. Limited government means that governmental powers are clearly defined by the *Constitution*. In this way, the law limits our government. The U.S. *Constitution* (as well as state constitutions) places limits on state and national governments. Federalism means that power is divided between the national and state governments. Under the *Constitution*, certain powers are exclusively given to the national and state governments.

The delegated powers of the national government include the power to maintain an army and navy, declare war, coin money, regulate interstate commerce (trade) and trade with foreign nations, and make all laws necessary for carrying out its’ powers. The delegated powers of states include the power to conduct elections, establish schools, regulate business within a state, establish local governments, regulate marriage, and assume other powers not given to the national government or denied to the states. Concurrent powers (jointly held by both national and state governments) include the power to collect taxes, build roads, borrow money, establish courts, and enforce laws.

Separation of powers means that power to govern is divided between three branches of government; the legislative, executive, and judiciary branches. Power is divided to ensure that no single branch dominates the government. Each branch takes its power directly from the *Constitution*, not from another branch. The legislative branch is composed of a bicameral (two-house) Congress, the Senate and the House of Representatives. Its' main purpose is to make laws. This branch can override Presidential vetoes (rejections), approve treaties, declare war, regulate money and trade, create taxes, provide for defense, and impeach (prosecute) government officials.

The executive branch is made up of the President and Vice President. Its' main purpose is to enforce laws and treaties. The executive branch can veto laws, appoint high officials, conduct foreign policy, recommend bills to Congress, act as Commander in Chief of the military, and report the state of the Union to Congress. The judicial branch is composed of the Supreme Court and federal court system. Its' main purpose is to explain and interpret laws. The judiciary can settle legal disputes between states, settle state and federal disputes, settle disputes between states and foreign countries, hear cases with ambassadors of foreign governments, and settle disputes between individuals and the federal government.

The principle of separation of powers is similar to checks and balances. Checks and balances mean each branch of the national government has ways to check, or control, the other branches. This prevents one branch from becoming too strong or gaining too much power. For example, the President has the power to propose and veto laws, make treaties and appoint federal officials, but Congress can override Presidential vetoes, reject the Presidents' treaties and officials, and impeach the President from office. Likewise, Congress can pass laws and propose new Constitutional amendments, but the Supreme Court can declare laws unconstitutional and void (invalid/illegal).

The President can grant pardons and appoint judges to the Supreme Court, but the Court can decide the President's actions are unconstitutional and interpret the treaties and laws the President agrees to. Enlightenment philosopher Baron de Montesquieu was the first to propose the ideas of separation of powers and checks and balances in his 1748 book *The Spirit of the Laws*. Like him, the authors of the *Constitution* feared a government with unlimited power (tyranny).

The principle of flexibility is the idea that the *Constitution* can meet changing conditions and needs in society. The Elastic Clause (aka Necessary and Proper clause) states that Congress can make all laws "necessary and proper" for carrying out the tasks listed in the *Constitution*. The Elastic Clause is part of the implied powers of the *Constitution*. Implied powers are those not directly stated in writing, but are still assumed to be held regardless. An example of an implied power is the regulation of child labor; this is implied by the delegated power to regulate interstate commerce.

The amendment process was created to allow for changes to be made to the *Constitution* over time. Both Congress and the states must approve all amendments. The so-called "Unwritten Constitution" refers to the powers that are not directly stated in the *Constitution* but have become accepted due to Congressional and Presidential interpretations, actions, customs, and traditions over the years. The unwritten constitution allows for Constitutional change and flexibility. Over time, the Unwritten Constitution has allowed for the creation of the political parties, the committee system in Congress, and the creation of a Presidential cabinet of top advisors to the President. The Unwritten Constitution also provides the Supreme Court with the power of judicial review.

The Supremacy Clause of Article VI of the *Constitution* makes the *Constitution*, federal laws, and treaties superior to state laws. In addition to delegated, implied and concurrent powers, the *Constitution* also provides for reserved powers. Reserved powers are those neither delegated to national government nor denied to the states. Reserved powers also give the states authority over public education, licensing of teachers, marriage and divorce laws, and vehicle/traffic regulations.

Article I of the *Constitution* deals with the legislative (law-making) branch of the federal government. A bicameral (two-house) Congress was created with a Senate and House of Representatives. The Senate was created with two senators per state, while the House of Representatives was created with proportional representation based on each state's population. Originally, senators served 6-year terms were elected by state legislatures, not by the people at all. The 17th amendment (1913) finally provided for the direct election of senators by the citizens of each state. Representatives of the House have always served 2-year terms and been directly elected by the people since 1791.

Each house of Congress has special duties. The Senate acts as jury in cases of impeachment, ratifies treaties with other nations (by a 2/3 vote), and approves Presidential appointments (like Supreme Court judges). The House of Representatives has the powers to select the President if no candidate receives a majority of the electoral vote, can bring impeachment charges, and controls all revenue (money) bills. The House was given power over revenue bills in order to provide citizens with more influence over taxation issues. Once criticism of Congress is the influence of lobbying groups on its decision-making. Lobbying groups, like the National Rifle Association (NRA), can work to elect legislators who support their views. Lobbyists from hundreds of corporations and interests pressure Congress daily and have great influence over the federal government's actions.

Article II of the *Constitution* deals with the executive branch of the federal government. Another key compromise reached at the Constitutional Convention was the method of electing the President. Under the resulting Electoral College System, voters cast their ballots for electors. Those electors cast the actual votes for President and Vice President. Each state was granted as many presidential electors as it had senators plus representatives. A candidate needs a majority of electoral votes to become President, which today means 270 votes. A major criticism of the Electoral College System is that a President may be elected without receiving a majority of the popular vote. This has happened four times before in U.S. history (1824, 1878, 1888, 2000).

The *Constitution* calls for a census, or population counting, to be taken every 10 years. Changes to reflect population shifts are then made in the number of Congressional representatives per state, which in turn affects the Electoral College vote. The President has several roles. As Chief Executive, the President enforces laws and appoints judges. As Chief Diplomat, the President makes treaties with foreign nations. As Commander-in-Chief, the President has broad power over the US military.

**For info on Article III of the Constitution and the Judiciary Branch (federal courts) see Quiz 12 notes*

PART 10: GEORGE WASHINGTON, 1ST PRESIDENT (1789-97)

George Washington is called the "father of his country" for many reasons. Born in Virginia in 1732, Washington was an officer in the French and Indian War and commander-in-chief of the Continental Army during the American Revolution. His leadership in key battles, like the Battles of Trenton and Yorktown, led to the American victory. Washington, unhappy with the weak Articles of Confederation, also presided over the Constitutional Convention that drafted the U.S. *Constitution*.

In 1788 he was elected as the nation's first president as the unanimous choice of the 69 electors. Washington served two terms in office (1789-1797) and set many precedents (examples for future people to follow) for later presidents. Two precedents set during Washington's administration were the creation of the first political parties and a cabinet of advisors for the president. The purpose of the president's cabinet is to offer advice to the president on important issues. Washington's cabinet included a Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Postmaster General, and Attorney General. The two most influential members of Washington's cabinet were Thomas Jefferson (Secretary of State) and Alexander Hamilton (Secretary of the Treasury).

Washington was not a member of any political party and hoped that none would ever be formed. Soon into his administration, however, a conflict between Jefferson and Hamilton led to the nation's first political parties. The Federalist Party, headed by Hamilton, called for a financial plan to bring economic stability to the young government. Hamilton wanted the national government to assume all of the war debts of the states, which had built up during the American Revolution. Hamilton believed paying off the nation's debt would establish financial credit for the nation. He also wanted the USA to have a national bank, which he believed would help the government win the support of the business community, create a sound (stable) currency (money), grant loans, and make financial dealings easier. Hamilton also proposed that the government raise operating revenues through an excise tax on whiskey. Lastly, he called for a protective tariff (tax on imports) to shield the products of the nation's new manufacturing industries from foreign competition.

Led by Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, the Democratic-Republican Party opposed Hamilton's plans. They disliked the idea of a central bank with unlimited power and feared that it would lead to corruption in the government and economy. They believed the bank would give the federal government too much power and favor business over the majority of the population. Jefferson also believed that the creation of a national bank was unconstitutional, since nowhere in the *Constitution* is the power to do that directly stated. As Strict Constructionists, Jefferson and Madison favored a narrow interpretation of the *Constitution*, believing that government can only do those things the document specifically spells out. Hamilton and the Federalists were Loose Constructionists, favoring a freer, more open-minded reading of the *Constitution* that gives the government more wiggle room to act. Washington eventually backed Hamilton's opinion, and the First Bank of the United States was formed. Washington and Congress used the implied powers of the Elastic Clause to defend their creation of a national bank (The "necessary and proper" clause).

The excise tax on whiskey led to the Whiskey Rebellion of 1791. Farmers in western Pennsylvania rebelled against the new excise tax on the grain they used to make whiskey. A rebel army of 500 men, many army veterans, claimed they were fighting for the principles of the American Revolution. Washington called for help from the state militias, and a force of 13,000 men was raised. The rebel army disbanded before the militia arrived. The putdown of the Whiskey Rebellion showed that the new national government had both the strength and ability to put down any resistance to its' laws.

President Washington set another precedent by declaring America's neutrality in foreign affairs. In his Proclamation of Neutrality (1793), Washington declared the U.S. to be neutral (not on any side) in a war between Britain and France. In his Farewell Address (1796), Washington set the tone for future presidents by warning of the danger of political alliances. He also warned against political parties. He urged the USA to follow a policy of isolationism in order to avoid involvement in future wars and protect the young nation's security. Washington believed the new nation needed time to gain economic and military strength, and he wanted to safeguard its' hard-won independence.

PART 11: LOUISIANA PURCHASE, JEFFERSON & MONROE

The 2nd president was John Adams (1797-1801). He is most known for passing the Alien and Sedition Acts (1798). The Alien Act made it more difficult to become a citizen and easier to arrest and deport any non-citizens. The Sedition Act made it easier to arrest a person for criticizing the government. Thomas Jefferson declared the acts dangerous to civil liberties and republican values.

Later as the 3rd president, Thomas Jefferson (1801-1809) is known for completing the Louisiana Purchase in 1803. In this land-for-money deal, the U.S. government paid France \$15 million for the Louisiana territory bordering the United States. France, ruled by Napoleon Bonaparte, needed money to deal with a slave revolt in its' colony of Haiti and a war against Britain. At the time, the Mississippi River was the western frontier (limit of U.S. westward expansion). The Louisiana Purchase doubled the size of the United States and provided many benefits, such as

controlling the port city of New Orleans on the Gulf of Mexico. By ending French control of New Orleans and the Mississippi River, farmers in the Ohio River Valley could now use the Mississippi as a major highway for trade. New Orleans became a major port for American agricultural goods. In addition, the U.S. now gained the geographic region known as the Great Plains, a vast area of flat grasslands in the middle of the continent. The states of Oklahoma, Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, and North and South Dakota make up the Great Plains today. Territory from the states of Louisiana, Minnesota, Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana was also gained in the purchase.

The Louisiana Purchase presented a dilemma (moral problem) for President Jefferson because the power to purchase territory was not specifically stated in the *Constitution*. As a Strict Constructionist, Jefferson always believed that the federal government should only exercise the powers that are directly written in the *Constitution*. In order to complete the Louisiana Purchase, Jefferson needed to apply a loose interpretation of the *Constitution*. Jefferson had to modify his old views and become a Loose Constructionist, like his old enemy Alexander Hamilton. He used the implied powers of the Elastic Clause to argue for the constitutionality of the Louisiana Purchase. Jefferson placed the economic interests of the country over his Strict Constructionist views.

President Jefferson is also known for his Embargo Act (1807), which was seen as a large failure. This act boycotted (restricted) U.S. trade with Britain and France due to their robbing of American ships and Impressment (kidnapping American seamen and forcing them into the other nation's navy). The Embargo Act was meant to force Britain and France to respect American neutrality in their war, but the acts failed to hurt British and French trade. Large protests in New England commercial centers organized against the Embargo Act because it had a negative economic impact on their trade. The Embargo Act was repealed after 15 months and caused European nations to question American strength and unity. The failure of the Embargo Act partially led to the War of 1812 between Britain and the U.S.A. Fought under 4th president James Madison (1809-1817), this is often called the "Second war for independence" because many Americans felt the British government never fully respected the United States as a free nation. The war ended in a draw.

James Monroe (1817-1825) served as the 5th president. His most famous act was the Monroe Doctrine (1823). In this, Monroe declared that European colonization of Latin and South America should end. He also said that European nations should reduce their intervention in the affairs of all nations in the Western Hemisphere (North and South America). President Monroe cautioned that European intervention in the Americas was considered dangerous to the safety of the U.S.A. The Monroe Doctrine warned European nations against intervening in nations near the U.S.

The United States wanted to be the chief power in the Western Hemisphere, and the Monroe Doctrine was a warning to Europe about the U.S.'s intentions. This 'big-brother' philosophy became the foundation of U.S. foreign policy with Latin America for the next 100 years, causing resentment against the United States. James Monroe's foreign policy is similar to his predecessors George Washington and Thomas Jefferson because all three tried to avoid involvement in European political affairs. Washington's Proclamation of Neutrality (1793), Jefferson's Embargo Act (1807) and the Monroe Doctrine (1823) all tried to avoid involvement with European nations.

PART 12: EARLY SUPREME COURT DECISIONS

Article III of the *Constitution* created the Supreme Court. The role of this judicial (legal) branch is to interpret the law. In addition to the national court system, each state has its' own court system. With two court systems – federal and state – the *Constitution* had to define the jurisdiction, or authority, of the federal courts in order to make clear which cases go to federal courts and which to the state courts. The court that has the authority to hear a case is determined by the subject matter and parties involved. Federal courts hear cases with subject matters involving federal laws, treaties, maritime (sea) laws, and interpretations of the *Constitution*. Federal courts have

jurisdiction if cases involve certain parties, or participants in a case. For example, cases involving representatives of foreign governments and states suing other states are tried in federal courts.

The *Constitution* states that in some types of cases, the Supreme Court will have original jurisdiction. This means the Supreme Court will hear the case first and make a decision. In most cases, the Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction. This means that, in a lower court, if the losing side believes the judge made a mistake in applying the law in a case, the case may be appealed to a higher court. The Supreme Court hears only about 150 cases of the nearly 5,000 appealed to it each year. Today, there are nine Supreme Court justices (judges), with positions for life until they choose to retire. The Chief Justice serves as the head of the court. The president appoints all Supreme Court justices, but must get Congress' approval for any chosen nominee.

Since the *Constitution* only established a Supreme Court, Congress passed the Judiciary Act of 1789, which created the rest of the federal court system. The Judiciary Act also had the support of President Washington. The first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court was John Jay (1789-1795). John Rutledge (1795) and Oliver Ellsworth (1796-1800) followed, but it was 4th Chief Justice John Marshall (1801-1835) who had the greatest impact on the early history of the Supreme Court. Serving for over 34 years, Chief Justice John Marshall led the Supreme Court through a series of decisions that strengthened the power of the national government and the authority of the judicial branch. The Supreme Court increased its' powers by expanding the federal supremacy clause of the *Constitution*. Under Chief Justice Marshall, federal laws took full supremacy over state laws.

By far the most important case of the Marshall era was *Marbury v. Madison* (1803). The case resulted from a petition to the Supreme Court by William Marbury, who had been appointed by President John Adams as Justice of the Peace in the District of Columbia (Washington D.C.), but whose commission (legal papers) was not delivered by the new Secretary of State James Madison. The Court found that Madison's refusal to hand over Marbury's commission was illegal, but also ruled that the provision of the Judiciary Act of 1789 that enabled Marbury to bring his claim to the Supreme Court was itself unconstitutional, since it extended the Court's original jurisdiction beyond which Article III of the *Constitution* established. Marbury's petition was therefore denied.

This case established the Supreme Court's most important power, judicial review. Judicial review means the power to declare any law, treaty, or act by congress or the president unconstitutional, meaning in contradiction (violation) of the powers stated in the *Constitution*. In his landmark decision, John Marshall wrote, "It is emphatically the province and duty of the judicial department to say what the law is." This case set a precedent (example for the future) that the *Constitution* would always be considered the "supreme law of the land" after that case. When the Supreme Court gained the power to rule on the constitutionality of a law, the power of the federal government was increased and strengthened at the expense of the states. The establishment of judicial review gave the Supreme Court the final say in all future court cases and debates about laws and treaties.

The case *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819) upheld the constitutionality of the creation of a national bank. This decision strengthened federal supremacy over state law, the use of the Elastic Clause, and national economic interests. In *Gibbons v. Ogden* (1824), the Supreme Court expanded the powers of the national government in the area of commerce (trade) through a broad interpretation of the Congressional power to regulate interstate commerce. The Court used the *Constitution's* commerce clause to rule that the federal government has authority over trade between states.

PART 13: ANDREW JACKSON, HUMAN RIGHTS & IMMIGRATION

Former War of 1812 general Andrew Jackson was elected president in 1828, serving two terms (1829 – 37). Voter participation began to increase starting with Jackson's election in 1828, mainly because many states dropped property requirements for voting. This was "Jacksonian Democracy," an era of greater democracy for the common person. During his terms, the spoils system grew, a system in which elected officials rewarded their supporters

with jobs. President Andrew Jackson claimed that the use of the spoils system increased democracy in the federal government because it allowed larger numbers of citizens to hold office. In reality, President Jackson used the spoils system as a way to reward his supporters with U.S. government jobs based on their loyalty to him.

In 1834, the nation's second two-party system developed with Andrew Jackson's Democratic Party now being opposed by the new Whig Party. This was mainly the result of debates over the creation of a National Bank and tariffs (government taxes on imports). President Jackson began a harsh removal policy towards Native American Indians, forcing them to move west of the Mississippi River. In the 1832 Supreme Court case *Worcester v. Georgia*, Chief Justice John Marshall ruled that Georgia had no authority over Cherokee territory, but Georgia simply ignored the ruling. In 1838 the U.S. army rounded up the Cherokee and forced them to march west in brutal conditions during the Trail of Tears. Thousands died along the journey. Memorials have been erected along the Trail to remember the many injustices committed against the Cherokee, as well as other tribes.

The Women's Rights Movement began in 1848 in upstate New York at the Seneca Falls Convention, where hundreds of women (and men) met to discuss strategies to achieve equal rights for women. Some of the early leaders of the Women's Rights Movement were Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott and Susan B. Anthony. They published the Declaration of Sentiments, which fought against gender discrimination by stating that men and women are created equal. A goal of the Seneca Fall Convention was achieved 72 years later in 1920 when women won national suffrage (voting rights).

From the 1820s – 1850s, the Abolitionist (anti-slavery) Movement gained in scope and popularity. A vast underground railroad of safe houses and secret resting places at homes sympathetic to runaway slaves allowed thousands of African slaves from the south to escape to the northern states, and even to Canada. Harriet Tubman was an ex-slave that made more than 13 additional trips south to help bring other slaves north to freedom, while William Lloyd Garrison helped sway public opinion against slavery with his abolitionist newspaper *The Liberator*. The work of ex-slaves and activists Sojourner Truth and Frederick Douglass also helped inspire growing popular support.

During the 1840s, abolitionists opposed the annexation (addition) of new western territory because they feared the admission of new slave states to the Union, thus tipping the balance in Congress in the South's (slave states') favor. A critical figure in the Abolitionist Movement is author Harriet Beecher Stowe, who wrote her anti-slavery novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* in 1852. It broke sales records and divided the nation further by intensifying Northern dislike of slavery. When Lincoln met Stowe, he famously stated, "So you're the little woman who wrote the book that made this great war!"

During the early 1800s, abundant natural resources, availability of waterpower, and increasing network of transportation led to an Industrial Revolution. A rise in immigration followed from 1800 – 1860, as millions from northern and Western Europe came searching for new jobs created by Industrialization. The U.S. placed very few restrictions on immigration during the early 1800s because the industrial economy was creating new jobs and needed more laborers. From 1848 – 1853, over a million immigrants fled Ireland for the United States due to potato crop failures that led to mass famine (starvation) in the homeland. Many Germans and Scandinavians came as well.

Once in the U.S., Irish immigrants were often harshly treated and discriminated against because they practiced the Roman Catholic religion. Native-born Americans feared economic scarcity (competition for jobs) from growing numbers of immigrants. Nativism, or anti-immigration feelings, grew so strong that a political party, called the Know-Nothing Party, was created solely to restrict immigration. The party elected up to 100 congressmen and performed better in northern states.

PART 14: “MANIFEST DESTINY” & WESTWARD EXPANSION

The completion of the Erie Canal in 1825 allowed western farmers to gain better access to east coast markets. The Erie Canal improved U.S. commerce by linking the Great Lakes (Lake Erie) in the Midwest with New York City on the Atlantic coast. In addition to the Erie Canal, many other canals and national roads were built in the early 19th century, leading to internal improvements in transportation. By the 1860s, the U.S. had thousands of miles of railroads as well, mainly in the industrialized North. Canals, roads & railroads allowed the expansion of trade between Midwestern farmers and eastern merchants by lowering the cost of shipping goods to the Atlantic coast.

The Louisiana Purchase in 1803 focused the U.S. population on westward expansion. Before it, the western boundary was the Mississippi River, but afterwards it was pushed across the Great Plains to the Rocky Mountains. Many citizens began to believe in and encourage ‘Manifest Destiny,’ the 19th century idea that American settlers were destined to expand from the original 13 states on the East Coast all the way across the continent to the Pacific Ocean, regardless of the Native Americans who lived on that land. Every time the U.S. acquired new territory, either through war, treaties or land purchases, the idea of manifest destiny was used to justify all territorial expansion. Manifest destiny was even used to justify westward expansion into lands claimed by other nations, if those lands blocked the United States from reaching the Pacific Ocean. Manifest destiny was used in the 1840s to annex Texas, justify war with Mexico, divide the Oregon territory with Great Britain and push Native Americans further west. The presidencies of John Tyler (1841-45), James K. Polk (1845-49) and Zachary Taylor (1849-50) are most associated with manifest destiny. All of these men had the common goal of fulfilling manifest destiny and expanding the nation at all costs.

The slogan “Fifty-four forty or fight!” was used to rally Americans to fight the British over their Oregon Territory. Fifty-four forty (54°40′) refers to the latitude line that many Americans wanted the Oregon Territory pushed to, which would have almost reached Alaska, owned by Russia at the time. The British countered by offering to set the border at the 42° of latitude. Desperate to avoid a third war in 70 years, President Polk reached a compromise in 1846 to settle the Oregon boundary dispute. The border was set at the 49° parallel, where the U.S./Canadian border still exists today.

President Tyler annexed Texas in 1845, but Mexico still considered it a part of its’ territory, even after the Texas Revolution of 1836. The U.S. government believed that the border of the new state of Texas should be at the Rio Grande River, far south into Mexican territory. Mexico disagreed with this U.S. claim. The Mexican-American War (1846-1848) led to 30,000 troop deaths. Mexico surrendered after U.S. forces captured Mexico City. The 1848 Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which Mexico was forced to sign, led to the Rio Grande River being established as the southern border between the U.S.A. and Mexico. Mexico also ceded (gave up the rights) to the areas of modern-day California, Nevada, Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, as well as parts of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Wyoming. The treaty also gave the U.S. undisputed control of Texas. In return, the U.S. agreed to pay Mexico \$18 million, less than half their initial offer for the same land before the war.

The Spanish colony of Florida had been ceded to the U.S.A. in 1819 for \$5 million as well. The last major territorial acquisition of the contiguous United States (lower 48 states) was the Gadsden Purchase of 1853. In this deal, Mexico agreed to sell additional territory (modern-day Arizona and New Mexico) to the U.S.A. for \$10 million (\$260 million today). The intention of President Franklin Pierce was to use the land as a possible southern railroad route linking the South with the Pacific Coast. Western territories saw a rapid population increase with the “Forty-Niners,” pioneers who migrated west hoping to profit off the discovery of gold and silver in northern California in 1849.

The Homestead Act (1862) was passed to develop the western territories and the Great Plains of the Midwest. This law provided up to 160 acres of free land to western settlers. The Pacific Railway Acts (1862) gave 175 million acres of free land (10% of the whole nation!) to railroad corporations to encourage them to build a transcontinental railroad across the U.S. The railroads then profited by selling most of this land to western

settlers. Both the Homestead Act and the Pacific Railway Act were efforts by the federal government to encourage settlement west of the Mississippi River.

PART 15: THE CIVIL WAR (1861 – 1865)

The American Civil War (1861-65) was between the Union (northern free states) & the Confederacy (southern slave states). Tension over slavery and sectionalism (loyalty to one's region, or section of the country, over loyalty to the country as a whole) between the North and South over the issue of slavery had started way back at the Constitutional Convention in 1787, with the 3/5 Compromise. As the 1800s progressed, Southern slavery expanded because geographic conditions encouraged the development of more and more plantations there. The North became an industrial economy based on manufacturing and fishing. Railroads, roads, canals and improvements in transportation linked the North with the rest of the nation better than the South, which was more isolated.

As manifest destiny drove westward expansion, the issue of slavery hovered over politics. Abolitionists and pro-slavery forces often engaged in battles, both verbal and physical. Popular sovereignty (allowing settlers in new territories to vote on the legalization of slavery) was used to settle the issue of whether newly admitted western states to the Union should be free or slave states. Popular sovereignty was used in the Missouri Compromise (1820), Compromise of 1850 and the Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854). All three were efforts to settle disputes over the spread of slavery to the western territories, but all three caused tensions and sectional conflicts to increase.

The Missouri Compromise set the 36°30' degree of latitude as the boundary for slave and free states, while the Compromise of 1850 admitted California to the Union as a free state, but also outraged Northerners with the Fugitive Slave Act. This law required states to return captured runaway slaves to their original states. The Fugitive Slave Act caused many runaway slaves to travel to Canada instead. The Underground Railroad still existed for slaves, but now it was illegal. Some northern states, such as Vermont, fought the law with nullification, the idea that a state law could nullify (void) a federal law. Southerners were enraged by Northern nullification, which raised the constitutional issue of the balance of power between federal and state governments. The South supported States' rights, saying that states should have the right to secede (leave the Union).

The Supreme Court case *Dred Scott v. Sanford* (1857) ruled that the federal government had no power to regulate slavery in new territories, and that people of African descent, both free and slave, were not protected by the Constitution and we're not U.S. citizens. This ruling increased sectional conflict because it denied Congress the power to regulate slavery in new territories. The Dred Scott ruling fueled anti-slavery feelings in the North. The issues of States' rights and the balance of power between federal and state governments were key issues that led to a rapidly divided nation.

The Kansas-Nebraska Act's use of popular sovereignty caused thousands of pro and anti-slavery citizens from the North and South to rush to the Great Plains, hoping to vote in Kansas and Nebraska on the issue of slavery. During the late 1850s, 60 people died in violent sectional clashes between in those territories, known as 'Bleeding Kansas.' In 1859, abolitionist leader John Brown led a violent raid on a U.S. Army weapons arsenal in Harpers Ferry, Virginia. John Brown hoped to seize weapons, arm slaves, march throughout the South and create a full-scale slave rebellion. Brown was caught, but his attempt to liberate African slaves angered the South. The Dred Scott decision, "Bleeding Kansas" and John Brown all made sectional compromise more difficult.

Abraham Lincoln, from the new Republican Party (founded by anti-slavery activists in 1854) faced Democrat Stephen A. Douglas in the election of 1860. When Lincoln, who was opposed to expanding slavery in new states, won, the path towards civil war was unstoppable. In his first inaugural address, Lincoln stated that his goal for the nation was to preserve the Union (keep the nation together) at all costs. He knew sectional differences threatened to destroy the nation. Right before Lincoln's inauguration, seven Southern states seceded and formed the

independent “Confederacy.” Four more states joined, and the first shots of the U.S. Civil War were fired at Fort Sumter, South Carolina on April 12th, 1861. Four years and 600,000 dead later, the North won due to its’ superior railroad network, higher population, and large amount of factories. The South was limited by their plantation-based agricultural economy. The North experienced rapid economic growth during the Civil War due to an increase in government demand for industrial products.

PART 16: RECONSTRUCTION & THE JIM CROW SOUTH

The Civil War ended with the Battle of Appomattox on 4/9/1865. A major result of the Union’s defeat of the Confederacy was the strengthening of the federal government’s power. The time period from 1865-77 is known as the ‘Reconstruction Era.’ During this era, the federal government aimed to rebuild, or reconstruct, the South after it was politically and economically destroyed during the war. Lincoln’s primary goal was to reintegrate the Southern states back into the Union as quickly as possible. Lincoln wanted to achieve a “just and lasting peace” between the North and South. He rejected harsh punishments for the South and wanted to restore Southern representation to Congress. Lincoln realized that the war left great bitterness and resentment in the South. Sadly, a Southern sympathizing-actor named John Wilkes Booth assassinated Lincoln on 4/14/1865.

Vice President Andrew Johnson took power, intending to continue Lincoln’s policies of forgiveness towards the South. Johnson, however, met trouble from the ‘Radical Republicans’ that controlled Congress and wanted to see the South punished more severely for their actions. The rise of Radical Republicans led to a power struggle between President Johnson and Congress, which led to Johnson’s impeachment (prosecution of an elected official) by Congress for not supporting the Radical Republicans’ plan, which imposed harsh terms on the South. Federal troops from the U.S. army were deployed to restore order to the South, and the Freedman’s Bureau was established to protect the new rights of ex-slaves. The army oversaw and conducted new elections in which freed slaves could vote, while whites that had held power in the Confederacy were denied the vote and banned from running for office. Biracial governments with former slaves were created in the South, and white opposition to Reconstruction in the South led to the rise of hate group the Kl Klux Klan.

Radical Reconstruction was aided by the passage of the 13th, 14th and 15th amendments to the *Constitution*. The 13th amendment abolished slavery in all U.S. states and territories. The 14th amendment guaranteed citizenship to all people, stating, “No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges...of citizens...nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law.” The 14th amendment was necessary after the 1857 ruling in *Dred Scott v. Sanford*, which had stated African-Americans were not U.S. citizens. The 15th amendment prohibits denying any male the right to vote based on his “race, color, or previous condition of servitude” (for example, slavery). The 13th, 14th and 15th amendments, a.k.a. “the Reconstruction Amendments,” all gave new legal and political rights to African Americans.

After the Civil War, the North was politically divided, but the South solidly supported the Democratic Party, due to the Democrats’ hatred of Radical Reconstruction. This is why the region came to be called the ‘Solid South’...they solidly voted for Democratic candidates. Republican plans for Reconstruction changed after the Presidential election of 1876. In an extremely close election, Democrat Samuel Tilden had 250,000 more popular votes than Republican Rutherford B. Hayes, but Hayes won one more Electoral College vote (185-184). Democrats claimed that Tilden was cheated, and the Compromise of 1877 was reached. This deal allowed the northern Hayes to become president, as long as all federal troops were removed the south. Reconstruction was over.

Soon, the new biracial governments in the South were destroyed. Whites regained control and African-Americans’ rights were attacked, first with the Black Codes, which kept wages for former slaves low and allowed police to force vagrants into involuntary labor. Then the ‘Jim Crow Laws’ that were passed created a system of legal segregation between whites and blacks. Poll taxes, literacy tests, and grandfather clauses were adopted in the South to keep African Americans from exercising their right to vote, thereby limiting the effectiveness of the 13th,

14th and 15th amendments. The sharecropping system also developed, which kept former slaves in the South economically dependent on whites by forcing them to remain as cheap labor for white plantations. In the 1896 Supreme Court case *Plessy v. Ferguson*, the court ruled that racial segregation was legal and did not violate the equal protection clause of the 14th amendment. This case is important because it ruled that 'separate but equal' public facilities were legal. Jim Crow laws were now firmly entrenched in Southern states until the 1950s. Everything from schools, restaurants, buses, and even drinking fountains, were now segregated. The Jim Crow south was a land of inequality.

PART 17: THE RISE OF BIG BUSINESS IN THE LATE 1800s

The United States went through a period of industrialization and economic expansion during the late 1800s and early 1900s. Businessmen like JP Morgan, John D. Rockefeller and Andrew Carnegie built business empires that became corporations, while inventors like Alexander Graham Bell, Thomas Edison, the Wright brothers, and Henry Ford created economic growth with their new products. The use of the assembly line allowed Henry Ford to decrease the assembly time and cost to buy one of his new 'automobiles.' One factor that led to industrialization in the United States between 1865 and 1900 was the expansion of railroads. In the late 19th century, the federal government aided the growth of transcontinental railroads by providing free land for laying railroad tracks, such as the Pacific Railway Act (1862). The USA became more interconnected as a result.

Congress raised tariffs (taxes on foreign trade) in the late 1800s to protect American businesses from international competition. Protective tariffs were intended to encourage domestic (home) manufacturing and industrial growth. For this reason, business leaders supported higher tariffs so that their companies had less competition and they could charge higher prices & pay workers less.

Another reason why the US experienced economic growth in the late 1800s was the American belief in laissez-faire Capitalism. Laissez-Faire is the idea that a government should limit its' interference with the economy as much as possible. Industrialists and big business owners used the theory of laissez-faire to argue against the government regulation of their business practices. Big business leaders used pools and trusts, illegal price fixes between businesses that were meant to maximize profits by ending competition. Corporations, like Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company, used them to gain monopolies (total control) over their industries. The Standard Oil Trust was created to control prices and practices in the oil refining business. Smaller businesses were put out of work.

Industrialists used the philosophy of Social Darwinism to justify their actions. Social Darwinism twisted the idea of evolution and "survival of the fittest" and applied it to society. Imperialists used this theory, popularized by Rudyard Kipling's poem *White Man's Burden*, to justify colonizing and oppressing weaker nations in Africa and Asia. Big business leaders used Social Darwinism for their purposes as well. They said that economic success comes to those who are the hardest working and most efficient (productive). If some businesses or workers fail, it's because they were not good enough to compete with other, more efficient businesses or workers in their field.

Social Darwinism justified the greed of laissez-faire Capitalism. Men like Rockefeller, Carnegie and JP Morgan used Social Darwinism to justify their vast (massive) accumulation of great wealth. These men are called "Robber Barons" because of the ruthless business tactics they used against their competitors. To counter the corrupt activities of these powerful businessmen, the federal government passed several laws intended to break up business trusts, pools and monopolies in large corporations. The Interstate Commerce Act (1887), Sherman Antitrust Act (1890), and Clayton Antitrust Act (1914) all intended to increase the federal government's power to regulate business practices. The Supreme Court, however, commonly ruled against the government. The cases of *Wabash, St. Louis & Pacific Railroad v. Illinois* (1886) and *United States v. E.C. Knight Co.* (1895) both limited the power of the federal government to regulate and control big business.

During the late 19th century, business leaders used tactics such as blacklists and yellow-dog contracts to limit worker rights. Yellow-dog contracts forced workers to agree never to join a labor union. Workers formed the first labor unions in the late 1800s in response to poor working conditions and low wages they received. The American Federation of Labor became the nation's most powerful union. They supported "bread and butter" unionism, meaning they wanted to improve working conditions, hours, and wages for workers. Early union leaders include Samuel Gompers, Eugene V. Debs, and John Lewis. Unions organized strikes, such as the Pullman Railcar strike and Homestead Steel strike. These strikes were unsuccessful because the federal government supported big business by sending in troops and police to restore order. Strikers suffered police brutality, death and/or job loss frequently. The Triangle Shirtwaist Company fire of 1911 in NYC drew national attention to the need to protect workers' safety, as 146 poor female workers died.

PART 18: "NEW IMMIGRATION" & THE POPULIST MOVEMENT

By the late 1800s, urbanization (the growth of cities) increased as a result of rapid industrial development. Industrial growth after the Civil War led to a shift from a rural to an urban lifestyle. In these growing cities, tenements and slums (urban housing settlements surrounded by crime, disease and low standards of living) were common. Industrialization also led to the widespread use of child labor in manufacturing centers (factories) as well as other jobs. Terrible working conditions, low pay and abuse from bosses led to strikes and tragedies like the Triangle Shirtwaist Co. Fire.

Political machines formed. These were political organizations that had a 'boss' who commanded a large group of supporters and businesses, which then received rewards for voting for the boss. It is similar to Andrew Jackson's spoils system, where supporters were rewarded with jobs and money. 19th century political machines used bribes to obtain favors, which led to widespread corruption in politics. Tammany Hall, the Democratic Party political machine that dominated New York City politics in the 1870s, was controlled by Boss Tweed. After dominating New York politics, he died in prison after being arrested for corruption, fraud and stealing between 25 – 200 million in taxpayer money. The late 19th century saw an increase in the gap between rich and poor. Author Mark Twain called the late 19th century the "Gilded Age" due to the extremes of wealth and poverty in the USA.

A new period of immigration occurred from 1890-1920. These 'new immigrants' came mainly from southern and eastern Europe, unlike the 'old immigrants' of the early 1800s who came from northern and western Europe. Most new immigrants settled in urban centers of the Northeast, especially New York City. At first, the federal government placed very few restrictions on immigration because industrial businesses needed an increasing supply of labor (workers). Immigration provided business leaders with low-cost workers. Immigration led to a 'melting pot' in America, meaning different immigrants' cultures blended to form a unique new American culture.

As jobs grew scarce (limited), labor unions began to oppose immigration because they believed it took jobs away from US citizens. Congress passed legislation that required literacy tests for immigrants in an attempt to restrict immigration from southern and eastern Europe. The Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) limited the number of Chinese immigrants. The Gentleman's Agreement (1907) between the USA and Japan limited the number of Japanese immigrants. The National Origins Act of 1924 set a quota system to limit immigration from southern and eastern Europe. These are all examples of Nativism (anti-immigrant attitudes). Nativists claimed, "America is for Americans."

In an effort to resolve conflicts with frontier settlers in the 1870s, the federal government forced Native Americans to move west of the Mississippi River. A series of Indian Wars (1860s-1890s) occurred due to the rapid migration of white settlers to the Great Plains. The Indian Wars and westward migration, along with the Homestead Act (1862), the mass killing of buffalo by white settlers, and the transcontinental railroad (1869) all led to the rapid decline of the Plains Indians. Untold numbers died. To make matters worse, the Dawes Act (1887) attempted to force Native Americans to assimilate (blend in) to American culture. Native American culture was disregarded.

The mechanization (growth of machines) of agriculture led to an increase in crop production, but farmers still struggled in the late 1800s/early 1900s. The Granger Movement formed in the late 1800s. This tried to improve conditions for farmers by forcing railroads to lower their rates (prices). Similarly, the Populist movement formed in the late 1800s and helped western farmers fight unjust business practices that reduced the profitability of their farms. The People's Party (Populist Party), reached its' height in the 1890s. They were popular with poor, white cotton farmers in the south and suffering wheat farmers on the Great Plains of the Midwest. The Granger and Populist movements aimed for the government regulation (control) of banks, railroads and business elites (leaders). Populists supported government ownership of the railroads and putting more money in circulation. They wanted a graduated national income tax (tax rates based on income levels). They wanted the free and unlimited coinage of silver, so that farmers could repay their loans. Democratic Presidential candidate William Jennings Bryan adopted many populist ideas, but was defeated in the election of 1900 by Republican businessman William McKinley, who argued that free coinage of silver would reduce the dollar's value. Many of the populists' proposed ideas later became laws.

PART 19: THE PROGRESSIVE ERA (1890s – 1920s)

The 16th amendment (1913) authorized Congress to collect a new federal 'income tax' from states. Urbanization grew rapidly after the 1860s due to increasing industrialization. The year 1920 marked the first time that more citizens lived in urban areas rather than rural ones. In response to the many problems created by industrialization, the Progressive movement formed (1900-1920). The purpose of this movement was to correct the economic and social abuses of industrial society. It was like the Populist Movement because it wanted greater citizen control over the government.

The Progressive movement impacted American life by leading to increased government regulation of business. Progressive Era reforms like the initiative and referendum are considered democratic reforms because they permitted citizens to have a more direct role in lawmaking. In addition, the Progressive reform of the recall election increased citizen participation in the political process. The direct primary now allowed voters to directly choose party candidates to represent their political party in elections. Another reform, the direct election of national senators by citizens, sought to reduce government corruption through a constitutional amendment. The 17th amendment (1913) provided for the election of senators by popular vote. This key reform now made the Senate more responsive to the people. Progressive Era reformers also adopted the old Granger and Populist idea of a graduated national income tax; meaning people who earn more money pay higher tax rates.

The spirit of social reform and democratic change swept the nation during the Progressive Era. People demanded that the federal government in Washington DC regulate business activity to look out for the public interest. Laws led to the creation of the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC), Federal Trade Commission (FTC), and the Food and Drug Administration (FDA). These public 'watchdog' groups investigated and inspected big businesses to ensure that they followed laws, did not abuse their power, and that their products and foods were safe for public consumption.

Social reformers during the Progressive Era were known as "muckrakers." During the early 1900s, muckrakers were the writers, photographers, journalists and activists that exposed the evils in American society. They are known for their efforts to create awareness about social problems. By publishing articles, novels and photos to expose political corruption, poor urban conditions and immoral business activities, they wanted to inspire the general public to call for social change. After novelist Upton Sinclair published *The Jungle* (1906), which exposed the brutal, dirty and unsafe practices of the meat industry, Congress established a system for meat inspection. The federal government passed the Pure Food and Drug Act (1906) and the Meat Inspection Act (1906). These laws represented an increased government commitment to consumer protection and safety.

Ida Tarbell wrote *The History of the Standard Oil Company* (1904), which exposed the monopolistic and corrupt ways of John D. Rockefeller. Her book also influenced the federal government to pass legislation to correct harmful business practices. Jacob Riis was a muckraking social reformer who used photography and journalism to give media attention to the impoverished citizens of New York. His photographs exposed the shameful living conditions in city slums and tenements, especially for immigrants and minorities. In Riis' book, *How the Other Half Lives* (1890), he exposes the social ills and problems of life in city tenements. Dorothea Dix was the first activist for the mentally and physically disabled. Her efforts led to the first compassionate (caring) mental asylums for people.

Margaret Sanger was a birth control activist, sex educator, and nurse. She also founded Planned Parenthood in 1921. Jane Addams might be the most famous Progressive Era reformer. She was a women's suffrage leader, social reformer and world peace activist. Addams founded Hull House in Chicago to serve and educate immigrants and poor people in depressed urban areas. She also fought for the needs of children and public health, and served as a role model for women to help their communities. She was the first American woman to win the Nobel Peace Prize. Even 26th President Theodore Roosevelt felt the call to reform society. The "Square Deal," Roosevelt's reform program, fought to give the American people a square (fair) opportunity in life. He called for the conservation (protection) of natural resources and parks, control over corporations, and consumer protection. He was a 'trustbuster' who fought against business monopolies and social evils.

PART 20: SUFFRAGE, CIVIL RIGHTS & THE FEDERAL RESERVE

The Women's Rights movement begun at the Seneca Falls Convention (1848) increased in size and popularity in the early 1900s. Many social reformers of the Progressive Era fought for women's rights as well. The big issue was suffrage (voting rights). The National American Woman Suffrage Association, founded in 1890, and fought for women's voting rights. Carrie Chapman Catt served as president for 10 years and spread the message of early women's rights leaders like Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony. The NAWSA became the League of Women Voters after 1920. Many western states granted women suffrage before the federal government did. The first state was Wyoming (1890), followed by Colorado (1893), Utah (1896) & Idaho (1896). After decades of protests, marches, arrests and hunger strikes by women, the federal government passed the 19th amendment (1920), which banned voting discrimination based sex. Women's outstanding work replacing men in industrial factories during World War I helped gain national support for universal suffrage.

The Conservation movement fought for environmental protection and rose in popularity in the early 1900s. President Theodore Roosevelt (1901-1909) believed that wilderness areas and their resources should be protected for the public good. Roosevelt saved 5 national parks and 150 national forests. In total, he conserved (protected) over 230 million acres of American land. He wanted to use America's resources wisely, not wastefully. Other conservationists, like John Muir and Gifford Pinchot, educated the masses about the benefits of recycling and environmental protection.

The Temperance movement also grew in popularity during the Progressive Era. The Temperance movement was a social movement that urged for the prohibition (total ban) of alcoholic beverages. Temperance leaders argued that the negative effects of alcohol consumption on family relationships, individual health and ability to save money should lead to restrictions on alcohol. The government passed the 18th amendment (1919), which established national prohibition on the manufacture and sale of alcoholic beverages. During the 1920s, however, the police, courts, and prisons became overwhelmed with alcohol-related crimes related to the new law. Organized crime, like the Italian-American mafia, profited off bootlegging (illegally smuggling alcohol) and police corruption became even worse. In addition, the economy suffered from a lack of alcohol sales. For these reasons, the 21st amendment (1933) repealed (overturned) the 18th amendment, the only time an amendment has ever been repealed by another. It demonstrated that unpopular laws are difficult to enforce.

The spirit of reform during the Progressive Era also inspired leaders to fight for African-American's civil rights. Civil Rights leaders were most concerned with the Supreme Court decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which ruled that "separate but equal" public facilities were constitutionally legal. Now, 'Jim Crow laws' created a system of segregation and disfranchisement (lack of voting rights) for African Americans in the South. Civil Rights leaders, like W.E.B. Du Bois and Ida B. Wells, formed the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) in 1909. Du Bois believed that African Americans should advocate (call for) political rights right away. Booker T. Washington, another rights activist, disagreed with Du Bois. Washington believed that the social problems created by hundreds of years of slavery were too hard to overcome right away. He wanted former slaves to advance themselves slowly in American society by pursuing economic gains through vocational (job skills) training. Washington founded the Tuskegee Institute in 1881, a vocational training institution for African Americans. Du Bois and Washington disagreed about the speed with which full equality of the races should be achieved, but both agreed that African Americans should have increased civil rights. They faced public anger, intimidation and attacks.

To improve the distribution of money and guarantee a supply for the government, President Woodrow Wilson and Congress created the Federal Reserve System in 1913. This is a privately owned bank that supplies the federal government with loans and makes powerful economic decisions. It regulates interest rates, prints the nation's money supply and sets the amount of money in circulation. It is supposed to fight economic problems like inflation, unemployment, and recessions by adjusting the money supply to stimulate consumer spending and economic growth. The Federal Reserve System is similar to Alexander Hamilton's First National Bank (1790) because both wanted to create a sound (reliable) currency (money supply) and economic stability for the US.