

**Archdiocese of Philadelphia**

# **SOCIAL STUDIES**

## **Grade 8**



**2004**

# **Archdiocese of Philadelphia**

## **Elementary Social Studies Curriculum Committee**

### **Mission Statement**

The mission of the Elementary Social Studies Curriculum

of the Archdiocese of Philadelphia

is the development of Catholic citizens

who will uphold democratic principles

and serve the Church, the nation, and the world

within the framework of Gospel values.

## **Social Studies**

The leading national organization in the field, the National Council for the Social Studies, adopted this definition of social studies in 1992.

*Social studies is the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, social studies provides coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and natural sciences. The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world.*

(“Minutes of the 36th Delegate Assembly,” 1993)

## Scope and Sequence

In 1989 the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Scope and Sequence identified the scope and sequence common in many school districts throughout the United States. The scope and sequence reflect an “expanding environments” approach to social studies.

The Elementary Social Studies Curriculum Committee used the NCSS Scope and Sequence as the basis for its own pattern. The following *Scope and Sequence* forms the Elementary Social Studies Curriculum.

Kindergarten	Awareness of Self in a Social Setting (Early Childhood Guidelines)
Grade 1	The Individual in Primary and Social Groups - Understanding School and Family Life
Grade 2	Meeting Basic Needs in Nearby Social Groups - The Neighborhood
Grade 3	Sharing Earth and Space with Others - The Community
Grade 4	Interdisciplinary Study of the Local Region - Pennsylvania
Grade 5	The Western Hemisphere - The United States and Its Close Neighbors
Grade 6	The Eastern Hemisphere - Representative World Regions
Grade 7	Building a Strong and Free Nation: BC-1853 The United States (Early American Civilizations through Manifest Destiny)
Grade 8	Building a Strong and Free Nation: 1850-1960 The United States (Road to the Civil War to the New Frontier)

*In guidelines which include multiple grades, a repeated topic indicates that a topic is introduced in its first appearance and reinforced in subsequent appearances.*

# **Ten Thematic Strands in Social Studies**

The Ten Thematic Strands in Social Studies are designed to be woven throughout the curriculum at all grade levels. The Elementary Social Studies Curriculum seeks to develop these ten strands throughout the scope of the program.

## **I. Culture**

Anthropology explores likenesses and differences between and among peoples in geography and history as well as through multicultural studies.

## **II. Time, Continuity, and Change**

History opens students to knowledge, skills, and values in exploring their own past and our collective past.

## **III. People, Places, and Environments**

Geography allows students to investigate the world through the five themes of Location, Place, Interactions, Movement, and Regions.

## **IV. Individual Development and Identity**

Psychology and anthropology help students discover about themselves individually and as a society.

## **V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions**

Sociology, anthropology, history and political science guide students to learn about their relationship with society's institutions.

## **VI. Power, Authority, and Governance**

Political science, history, law, and other areas inform students about the development, structures, and functions of rule and law.

## **VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption**

Economic concepts and issues assist students in understanding their roles as producers and consumers in the world.

## **VIII. Science, Technology, and Society**

Connecting science and technology in the world with history and the social sciences is important in the life of every student.

## **IX. Global Connections**

Interdependence is a key attribute in the world of every student, and this theme supports this understanding.

## **X. Civic Ideals and Practices**

The role of civic competence is critical to the social studies and society as developed through this theme.

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**The narratives before each section are meant to be a teacher resource tool. They are not to be duplicated for student use, but used as a reference point for the teacher to build upon.**

## **Unit I**

### **Civil War and Reconstruction**

#### **Objectives**

Upon completion of this unit, the student will be able to:

1. Review the origins and growth of slavery in the United States.
2. Explain the events which widened the gap between slave and free states.
3. Identify the immediate causes of the Civil War.
4. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the North and the South at the beginning of the war.
5. Explain how the Civil War affected life in the North and in the South, socially and economically.
6. Analyze key events and outcomes of the Civil War.
7. Explain the role Congress played in the reconstruction of the South.
8. Describe efforts to inhibit the freedmen's rights.
9. Explain the Compromise of 1877 and the end of Reconstruction.

#### **Outline**

- I. Civil War and Reconstruction
  - A. Road to Civil War
  - B. Civil War
  - C. Reconstruction

## A. Road to the Civil War

With the end of the Mexican War and the addition of the Mexican Cession to the United States, the issue of slavery in the territories was revived. Southerners hoped to make slave states out of lands taken from Mexico, while Northerners wanted slavery banned in all the new western territories. Again, the country would turn to compromise to solve the differences, but only after many heated debates.

Since the passing of the Missouri Compromise in 1820, territories in the Louisiana Territory had been entering the Union according to the terms set down by that compromise. In 1848, there were fifteen slave states and fifteen free states while the growing population in the North had tilted the balance of power in the House of Representatives toward the free states. Southerners feared that if the free states gained control of the Senate, Congress would abolish slavery. Southern leaders reasoned, therefore, that their best defense was to extend slavery into the new territories.

When California asked to be admitted as a free state, the dispute over slavery heated up. Congress was forced again into the Compromise of 1850.

The peace resulting from this compromise was brief. During the 1850s, tensions increased between the North and South. The 1852 publication of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* turned many Northerners against slavery. The Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854 led to violence in Kansas. In 1857 the Supreme Court ruled in the *Dred Scott* decision that the Constitution did not apply to African Americans. Two years later, a radical abolitionist named John Brown tried to start a slave revolt at Harpers Ferry, Virginia. Southerners were appalled at Brown's actions while the Northerners applauded his actions.

To Southerners, the final insult was the election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860. Lincoln

was viewed as a strong opponent to slavery; however, he was more a free-soiler than an abolitionist. Southern radicals saw no choice but to secede from the Union. Led by South Carolina, eventually ten other southern states joined the newly formed country, the Confederate States of America. The southern states justified their secession on the basis of states' rights; the states had voluntarily joined the Union, and therefore had the right to leave the Union, if they so chose.

In April, 1861, Confederate forces attacked the Union-held Fort Sumter, thereby beginning the Civil War. Any attempt to heal the breach ended, and both sides prepared for combat.

- A. Road to the Civil War
  - 1. Status Of The New States
    - A. Missouri Compromise Of 1820
    - B. Wilmot Proviso – 1846
    - C. Free Soil Party – 1848
    - D. Compromise Of 1850
    - E. Kansas-Nebraska Act – 1854
  - 2. Overview Of Slavery In The United States
    - A. Life Of The Slave
    - B. Protests Against Slavery
      - (1) Slave Rebellions
      - (2) Abolitionism
    - C. Underground Railroad
  - 3. Responses To Slavery
    - A. *Uncle Tom's Cabin* - 1852
    - B. *Dred Scott* Decision - 1857
    - C. Lincoln-Douglass Debates – 1858
    - D. John Brown's Raid – 1859

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

John Brown  
James Buchanan  
Henry Clay  
Frederick Douglass  
Stephen Douglas  
John C. Fremont  
Millard Fillmore  
William Lloyd Garrison  
Abraham Lincoln  
Franklin Pierce  
Dred Scott  
Harriet Beecher Stowe  
Roger B. Taney  
Sojourner Truth  
Harriet Tubman  
Nat Turner

### Terms

“Bleeding Kansas”  
border ruffians  
Fugitive Slave Act  
“King Cotton”  
*The Liberator*  
popular sovereignty  
Republican Party  
sectionalism  
segregation  
states’ rights

### Chronology

1820	Missouri Compromise
1831	Slave revolt by Nat Turner First publication of <i>The Liberator</i>
1850	Compromise of 1850/Statehood of California Fugitive Slave Act
1852	<i>Uncle Tom’s Cabin</i> published
1854	Kansas-Nebraska Act
1856	Election of James Buchanan
1857	<i>Dred Scott</i> decision
1858	Lincoln-Douglas debates
1859	John Brown’s raid

## **B. The Civil War**

By early 1861, both the North and the South were preparing for war. Militias were called up, troops were trained, and everyone prepared for a “great adventure”. Few believed that the war would last more than a few months. Both sides believed that their cause was just and victory would be theirs in the end. Few could foresee the destruction and carnage that this war would bring.

The United States of America and the Confederate States of America had strong advantages and disadvantages as the war began. The North had more people, better transportation, and greater wealth and industry. It did, however, lack good military leaders and a firm commitment to the conflict. The South had the advantage of fighting a defensive war, better military leadership, commitment to a cause in which it firmly believed, and shorter supply lines. However, the South lacked the capital to finance the war and the resources to sustain it.

In the early years of the war, the South held its own in the East but lost ground in the West. The Union’s naval blockade of the South hurt the Confederacy, and Union victories at Shiloh and the capture of Nashville and New Orleans weakened the South. The turning point of the war came in July, 1863, when Union forces triumphed at Gettysburg and the capture of Vicksburg gave the North control of the Mississippi.

Led by Ulysses S. Grant, Union forces invaded the South, hammering away at Robert E. Lee and his ever-weakening forces. Although successful in battles, the South was losing ground as each victory further depleted their manpower and resources. The South finally surrendered at Appomattox Courthouse, Virginia, on April 9, 1865.

The war had been a terrible experience for both sides. Modern warfare techniques caused huge numbers of casualties and horrendous destruction. It also changed the attitude of Americans toward their country. People now accepted the notion that the nation as a whole was far more important than the individual states that formed it. The war helped the federal government expand as it took on greater responsibility for the welfare of its citizens, e.g., federal income tax monies funded the transcontinental railroad and the settlement of western lands. This growth in federal power would continue long after the war ended.

The war aided the growth of several post-war industries - petroleum, steel, food processing, manufacturing, and finance. This growth would continue into the next century, bringing the United States great prosperity. The South, defeated and occupied by Union forces, faced an uncertain future. The nation's next task was to rebuild the South physically, economically, and politically and bring about reconciliation.

- B. The Civil War (1861 – 1865)
  - 1. Immediate Causes
    - A. Election of 1860
    - B. Secession of South Carolina – 1860
    - C. Firing on Fort Sumter – April 12, 1861
  - 2. Formation of The Confederate States of America
  - 3. Strengths and Weaknesses of Both The North And The South
  - 4. Major Military Campaigns
    - A. First Battle of Bull Run (Manassas – July 1861)
    - B. Battle of Antietam – September 1862
    - C. Sherman's March To The Sea – 1864
  - 5. Emancipation Proclamation – 1863
  - 6. Turning Points of The War
    - A. Battle of Gettysburg – July 1863
    - B. Battle of Vicksburg – July 1863
  - 7. Gettysburg Address – 1863
  - 8. Economic And Social Life During The War
  - 9. African American Involvement In The War
  - 10. Surrender At Appomattox Court House – 1895
  - 11. Outcome Of The War

## Additional identifications

### Persons

Clara Barton  
John Bell  
John Breckinridge  
Jefferson Davis  
Dorothea Dix  
Stephen Douglas  
Ulysses S. Grant  
Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson  
Robert E. Lee  
Abraham Lincoln  
George Meade  
George McClellan  
William T. Sherman

### Places

Atlanta, GA  
Petersburg, VA  
Richmond, VA  
Savannah, GA

### Terms

Army of the Potomac  
Army of Northern VA  
blockade  
blockade runner  
border states  
Confederate States of  
    America  
conscription  
Copperheads  
Crittenden Plan  
emancipate  
54<sup>th</sup> Massachusetts  
    Regiment  
*habeas corpus*  
ironclad  
“march to the sea”  
*Monitor v. Merrimack*  
Pickett’s Charge  
secession  
total war

### Chronology

1860 Election of Abraham Lincoln  
1860 Secession of South Carolina  
1861 Formation of the Confederate States  
1861 Firing on Fort Sumter  
1861 First Battle of Bull Run  
1862 Battle of Antietam  
1863 Emancipation Proclamation  
1863 Battles of Gettysburg and Vicksburg  
1863 Gettysburg Address  
1864 Reelection of Abraham Lincoln  
1865 Surrender at Appomattox Court House

### **C. Reconstruction**

When the Civil War ended in 1865, the United States faced the huge challenge of rebuilding the battle-ravaged South. This period in American history, known as Reconstruction, lasted from 1865 to 1877.

In his second inaugural address, President Lincoln promised to reunify the nation, “with malice toward none, with charity for all”. Lincoln’s plan called for a swift reentry into the Union for the southern states. However, with Lincoln’s assassination, the tone of Reconstruction changed. Despite Andrew Johnson’s efforts, the Radical Republicans took control of Reconstruction and insisted on retribution from the South. The Radicals believed that Confederate officials and military leaders should be punished for their crimes against the Union.

President Johnson did not wait long to make it clear that he did not approve of the Radical position of wreaking vengeance and humiliation on the South. Johnson adopted Lincoln’s Ten-Percent Plan as his basic policy. According to Johnson’s guidelines, southern states rebuilt new state governments that closely resembled the old ones. Some states flatly refused to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment abolishing slavery. Many states elected former Confederate officials to new posts in state and national governments. Johnson believed that Reconstruction was the job of the President, not Congress. He offered amnesty to most white southerners and promised to return their property if they followed his guidelines.

Conditions in the South began to resemble pre-Civil War conditions. Southern states passed “black codes” which limited the freedom of former slaves. They passed local ordinances to prevent freed slaves from voting and generally inhibited the acceptance of freedmen into southern society. Because of such laws and actions, many people in the North suspected that white southerners were trying to bring back the “Old South.”

When Congress met in December, 1865, its members refused to seat the newly elected representatives and senators from the South. Under the Constitution, Congress has the power to decide whether or not its members are qualified to hold office. Congress decided to set up a committee to study conditions in the South and decide whether the southern states should be re-admitted. By taking such action, Congress let the President know that it intended to play a pivotal role in Reconstruction.

Radical Republicans had long urged the ending of slavery, and they now called for full and equal citizenship for freedmen. In 1867, Congress imposed strict military rule in the South, passed the Fourteenth Amendment when the Civil Rights Act of 1866 was vetoed by the President, and literally took control of rebuilding the South. President Johnson fought against many of these efforts during Radical Reconstruction, and the conflict soon brought Johnson and Congress to a showdown. When Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act, Johnson tested the law’s constitutionality by replacing Edwin Stanton, Secretary of War, with Ulysses S. Grant. The House voted to impeach the President, and the case moved to the Senate for trial where President Johnson was acquitted by a single vote. President Johnson served the rest of his term but had lost most of his political influence.

Reconstruction continued in the South with claims of corruption, government mismanagement, and continued racial discrimination in all phases of southern society. The freed slaves, as they tried to enter society, were faced with political and economic inequality as well. Many were forced into sharecropping and could barely afford to feed their families. They lost what little political power they had gained at the beginning of Reconstruction and became more restricted with the emergence of Jim Crow Laws and black codes.

When Ulysses S. Grant was elected president in 1868, he took a strong stand in favor of Radical Reconstruction and the rights of African Americans. At first he aggressively fought violence in the South against the freedmen and Republican governments. Slowly, national support for Radical policies began to weaken. By the end of his first term, Grant had lost interest in sending soldiers into the South to protect Republicans and African Americans.

Charges of scandalous behavior in the Grant administration also drew the public's attention away from the problems of Reconstruction. The potentially inexperienced Grant chose people to advise him who took advantage of their position for their own economic gain. Although he was not personally involved in any of the schemes, his administration's reputation was tarnished and many of his trusted advisors resigned in disgrace.

The scandals during the Grant administration hurt the Republican party, which had already lost most of its power in the South. In the election of 1876, the Republicans chose Rutherford B. Hayes and the Democrats picked Samuel Tilden. Tilden won the popular vote, but a question arose about the electoral vote. A congressional commission awarded the twenty votes in question to Hayes; and in order for that recommendation to be

accepted, Congress reached a compromise. The Democrats agreed to accept Hayes as president; in return, the Republicans agreed to remove federal soldiers from the South. The Compromise of 1877 was an agreement between the Republicans and Democrats that spelled the end of Reconstruction.

- C. Reconstruction (1865 – 1867)
  - 1. assassination of Abraham Lincoln – 1865
  - 2. plans for Reconstruction
    - a. Ten Percent Plan
    - b. Wade-Davis Plan
    - c. Andrew Johnson's Plan
  - 3. Congressional Reconstruction
    - a. Five military districts
    - b. Freedmen's Bureau
    - c. Reconstruction Act – 1867
  - 4. Controversy in Andrew Johnson's Administration
    - a. Radical Republicans
    - b. Tenure of Office Act - 1867
    - c. impeachment
  - 5. Civil Rights Act – 1866
  - 6. Amendments to the Constitution
  - 7. African American participation
  - 8. Southern politics
    - a. Carpetbaggers
    - B. Scalawags
    - C. Ku Klux Klan
    - D. Black Codes
  - 9. Administration of Ulysses S. Grant
  - 10. Election of 1876
  - 11. Compromise of 1877 – end of Reconstruction

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

John Wilkes Booth  
Blanche K. Bruce  
Henry Winter Davis  
Rutherford B. Hayes  
Andrew Johnson  
Hiram Revels  
Edwin M. Stanton  
Thaddeus Stevens  
Charles Sumner  
Samuel Tilden  
Benjamin Wade

### Terms

amnesty  
economic depression  
Fifteenth Amendment  
Fourteenth Amendment  
grandfather clause  
Jim Crow laws  
literacy test  
Panic of 1873  
*Plessy v. Ferguson*  
poll tax  
segregation  
sharecropping  
Thirteenth Amendment

### Chronology

1865      Assassination of Abraham Lincoln  
1865      Thirteenth Amendment  
1866      Ku Klux Klan formed  
1867      Reconstruction Act  
1867      Tenure of Office Act  
1868      Impeachment of Andrew Johnson  
1868      Fourteenth Amendment  
1868      Election of Ulysses Grant  
1870      Fifteenth Amendment  
1872      Reelection of Ulysses S. Grant  
1876      Election of 1876  
1877      Compromise of 1877

## **Unit II**

### **Economic and Social Change**

#### **Objectives**

Upon completion of this unit, the student will be able to:

- 1. Identify the main factors that stimulated American economic growth.**
- 2. Understand how growth in the United States involved exploitation of the Native Americans.**
- 3. Analyze how the mining, cattle, and agricultural industries contributed to growth.**
- 4. Explain how the expansion and improvement of the railroad was an integral factor in growth.**
- 5. Discuss the effect improved technology had on economic growth.**
- 6. Compare the expansion of industry and labor organizations.**
- 7. List the effects of immigration and rural migration on urban America.**
- 8. Demonstrate how ethnic America changed the face of American culture in areas of education, the arts, and entertainment.**
- 9. Investigate and evaluate the reforms in government, business, labor, and society.**

#### **Outline**

- II. Economic and Social Change**
  - A. Western Frontier Challenges**
  - B. Growth of Industry**
  - C. Becoming an Urban Nation**
  - D. Progressive Era**

## **A. Western Frontier Challenges**

After the Civil War, settlers were drawn to the West by stories of gold and silver strikes, offers of free and fertile land, and tales of adventure and opportunity. Hundreds of men, women, and children packed up their belongings and headed west into the unknown lands occupied by Native Americans. These pioneers faced great hardships and dangers as they attempted to settle the western frontier. As the cattle, mining, and railroad industries developed, the Native Americans faced even greater conflicts which would eventually lead to an end to their culture and way of life.

New discoveries of gold and silver brought miners to the frontier. Mining booms occurred in Colorado, Nevada, Montana, South Dakota, New Mexico, and Arizona. Each find brought miners and settlers to the area, contributing to the growth of towns and cities.

The large sweep of open land also attracted ranchers to the frontier. The Great Plains were well suited to raising cattle, and ranchers generally settled around military posts or mining towns. Moving cattle to market was costly and slow until the advent of the railroad. In the late 1860s, cattle were brought north from Texas to Abilene, Kansas, a rail center, and were shipped east for sale in the cities. By the late 1870s, cattle raising had become a big business. However, as more people invested their money in cattle, more animals were bred than the land could support which led to over-grazing. Trouble developed between the large and small cattle owners and the cattle and sheep owners. There was also trouble between the ranchers and the farmers. Before long, violent range wars broke out in the West. Ranchers built fences to keep settlers out, and settlers cut the fences to reach water supplies. Settlers built fences to keep the herds from trampling their

crops, and ranchers cut them to graze their herds. Coupled with two severe winters that killed thousands of animals, open-range cattle raising ended.

The coming of many settlers led to conflict with the Native Americans. Nearly 200,000 Indians lived on the Great Plains, most of whom were nomadic hunters. They depended on the buffalo for survival. The buffalo provided them with food, clothing, housing, and fuel. The Plains Indians followed the herds of buffalo over large areas of land which they believed belonged to everyone. However, the treaties of the 1850s between the government and certain tribes had set boundaries on Indian hunting grounds. As more and more settlers moved into the West, the treaties were broken and the open land was taken. When the white settlers began to kill the buffalo for sport, the number available to the Native Americans became drastically reduced.

As the settlers poured into the West, the government agents forced Indians off their land. The Indians reacted by attacking the white settlers. The warfare grew bitter as the U.S. Army retaliated. The Indian conflicts convinced the government that new policies were needed and it was decreed that the Plains people would be herded onto reservations. Some Indian leaders agreed to the demands, but many did not; and the wars continued. Fierce battles were fought with the Sioux in the Dakotas, the Nez Perce near the Canadian border, and the Apaches in Arizona. In the end, the Native Americans were soundly defeated, and they were forced to search for a way to live with dignity in a world they had not created.

Transportation became the key to western development. Farmers, ranchers, and miners all needed to ship their products to the teeming markets of the East. The nation needed a vast transportation network, but by the 1860s, the rail lines were still fragmented.

There were no railroads west of the Mississippi, and the existing rail lines did not have a standard gauge, making shipping by rail slow and tedious. In 1862 the government stepped in and offered railroad companies land in the West as an incentive to build a transcontinental line. Congress also agreed to lend money to the companies for every mile of track laid.

In 1863 crews began laying track. The Central Pacific, which had recruited Chinese laborers, started in California and worked eastward, while the Union Pacific started in Nebraska and worked westward. There were many obstacles for both crews to overcome, including mountains, weather, and workers' complaints. On May 10, 1869, a symbolic gold spike was driven into the ground at Promontory Point, Utah, and the transcontinental railroad was complete.

The western frontier was gradually disappearing; the last major land rush occurred in central Oklahoma in 1889, which had been designated as Indian Territory by the federal government. However, pressured by settlers eager for land, the government bought back the land from the Indians. Homesteaders poured into Oklahoma; by 1890, the Bureau of Census announced that the frontier was officially closed.

## A. Western Frontier Challenges

### 1. Mining industry

- a. Comstock Lode – 1858
- b. Life in a mining town
- c. Transcontinental railroad – 1869

### 2. ranching and farming

- a. Cattle ranchers and life on the range
- B. Effect of railroad on cattle industry
- C. Farm life on the Plains
- D. Farm legislation and organizations

### 3. Native American struggles

- A. Challenge to traditional life of Native Americans
- B. Government policy towards Native Americans
- C. Last resistance from Native Americans

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

William Jennings Bryan  
Chief Black Kettle  
Chief Crazy Horse  
Chief Joseph  
Chief Sitting Bull  
J. M. Chivington  
Grover Cleveland  
William Cody  
Henry Comstock  
George Armstrong Custer  
John Deere  
Geronimo  
Helen Hunt Jackson  
William McKinley  
Leland Stanford

### Places

Abilene, Kansas  
Black Hills  
Bozeman Trail  
Chisholm Trail  
Goodnight-Loving Trail  
Great Plains  
Indian Territory  
Little Bighorn, MT  
Oklahoma Territory  
Omaha, Nebraska  
Promontory Point, UT  
Sand Creek, CO  
Virginia City, NV  
Wounded Knee, SD

### Terms

barbed wire  
boomers  
boomtown  
buffalo  
Cattle Kingdom  
Colorado Gold Rush  
cooperatives  
dry farming  
“Exoduster”  
free silver  
Ghost Dance  
ghost town  
gold standard  
Grange  
homestead  
law of supply and demand  
lode  
long drives  
“Long Walk”  
open range  
ore  
Populist Party  
reservation  
sodbuster  
subsidy  
vaquero  
vigilante

### Chronology

1851 Treaty of Fort Laramie  
1862 Homestead Act  
1867 Indian Peace Commission established  
1869 Transcontinental Railroad completed  
1876 Battle of Little Bighorn  
1886 End of cattle boom  
1887 Dawes Act  
1889 Oklahoma Land Rush  
1890 Closing of the frontier  
1890 Battle of Wounded Knee  
1892 Populist Party founded  
1896 William Jennings Bryan’s “Cross of Gold” speech

## **B. Growth of Industry**

In the years between 1860 and 1900, the state of the economy of the United States began to change. Industrialization, which had begun in the early 1800s, accelerated, and the number and size of businesses increased. By 1900 certain large industries emerged and became vital to the American economy. Oil, railroads, meat packing, iron and steel all contributed to this period known as the "Age of Big Business".

Several factors contributed to this surge, and at no other time had these things been present to make economic growth possible. These factors included an abundance of natural resources, an increased labor supply, the appearance of new inventions, and a good supply of American capital.

There were a number of other reasons for the growth of American industry. In the second half of the nineteenth century, American cities grew rapidly. As cities grew, large amounts of industrial goods were needed for construction. As the population grew, all kinds of manufactured goods were needed. American industry also grew because the government set very few rules concerning the conduct of business. Laissez-faire became the government's policy toward Big Business. In fact, government often aided business growth through land grants and loans. This unregulated growth of business led to many problems in the market place. Unfair business practices led to the formation of trusts and monopolies which interfered with fair competition and a free marketplace. Workers of all types were affected by the growth of Big Business. With profit being the bottom line, companies paid workers very little and provided no type of safety provisions in the

workplace. Because of the growing immigrant population, workers, who were exploited for the sake of profit, could be replaced easily.

Industrial growth affected the lives of most American workers. There was an improvement in the standard of living of many of the workers; but as industry grew and profit became the prize, working conditions became very unsafe and extremely unpleasant.

Reformers called for labor unions, but the early unions had little bargaining power. These efforts to organize were also hindered by labor unrest and the public distrust of unions.

The United States became the world's leading industrial nation during the "Age of Big Business". The rise of Big Business, however, created a new set of problems for Americans. By the end of the nineteenth century, public opinion was divided about the economy. While the government believed that the economic system worked best when left alone, farmers, workers and other groups believed that government regulation was needed to control Big Business and insure justice for everyone. As the twentieth century dawned, more and more people began to speak out for reform.

## B. Growth of Industry

### 1. Railroads

- a. Improved technology
- b. Railroad barons
- c. Competition

### 2. Inventions

- a. Communication
- b. Transportation
- c. Other inventions

### 3. Growth of corporations

- a. Oil and steel industries
- b. Government regulations

### 4. Industrial workers

- a. Working conditions
- b. Labor organizations
- c. Labor disputes

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

Alexander Graham Bell  
Andrew Carnegie  
Eugene B. Debs  
Thomas Edison  
Cyrus Field  
Henry Ford  
Samuel Gompers  
James J. Hill  
Elias Howe  
Collis P. Huntington  
Eli H. Janney  
Mary Harris Jones  
J. Pierpoint Morgan  
Samuel Morse  
Terence V. Powderly  
George M. Pullman  
John D. Rockefeller  
Gustavus Swift  
Cornelius Vanderbilt  
George Westinghouse  
Orville and Wilbur Wright

### Chronology

1859	first oil well
1869	Knights of Labor
1876	Centennial Exhibition
1879	invention of light bulb
1881	American Federation of Labor
1886	Haymarket Square Riot
1887	Interstate Commerce Act
1890	Sherman Antitrust Act
1892	Homestead Strike
1894	Pullman Strike
1903	first flight
1908	Model T Ford

### Places

Detroit, MI  
Homestead, PA  
Kitty Hawk, NC  
Menlo Park, NJ  
Titusville, PA

### Terms

American Federation of Labor  
assembly line  
Bessemer Steel Process  
booms  
busts  
captains of industry  
collective bargaining  
consolidation  
corporation  
depression  
dividend  
horizontal integration  
injunction  
International Ladies'  
    Garment Workers  
    Union (ILGWU)  
Knights of Labor  
labor unions  
mass production  
merger  
monopoly  
panic  
philanthropy  
rebate  
robber baron  
shareholder  
standard gauge  
standard time  
stock  
strikebreakers  
sweatshop  
time zones  
trade unions  
Triangle Shirtwaist  
Company fire  
trust  
vertical integration

### **C. Becoming an Urban Nation**

By the early 1900s, industrialization brought great change to the United States. The rise of industry led to the rapid growth of cities. Americans were able to seek more opportunities than ever before in the expanding industries and growing cities.

The growth of population in the cities occurred for several reasons. Many Americans left their farms and country life to find work in the new factories, mills, and offices of the cities. African Americans from the rural South began migrating to the cities to find better jobs and improve their lives. At the same time, the “new immigrants” from southern and eastern Europe settled in the cities of the Northeast and Midwest in search of a better life for themselves and their families. The cities offered jobs, entertainment, and education.

As more and more people poured into the cities, American cities found it impossible to meet the needs of the rapidly growing population. More housing was needed for the newcomers, and much of the housing that was provided was often unsafe, unhealthy, and crowded. Overcrowding in the cities led to a rise in the crime rate. Poorly trained and sometimes corrupt police officers were not always able to keep the peace. Environmental problems, such as pollution and water, were present as well. City governments were unable to remedy the problems because leaders knew little about city planning. What little resources that were available were usually under the control of corrupt political machines who cared little about city problems.

As the nation’s economy and cities grew, so did interest in public education. By 1900 many states had compulsory education laws. The increased interest in education was matched by a growing amount of time spent at leisure. The use of domestic and

industrial labor-saving inventions made it possible for people to have more leisure time. The time was spent engaged in playing and watching sports, listening to popular music, and reading newspapers, magazines and novels.

Thousands of immigrants poured into the United States at the turn of the century. The United States was seen as a land of opportunity, and the immigrants brought with them the culture and customs of their homelands which changed the way Americans lived, ate, worked, and played.

## C. Becoming an urban nation

### 1. Immigrants

- a. Southern and eastern Europe
- b. Conditions that forced them to emigrate
- c. Assimilation into American society
- d. Opposition to immigration
- e. Contributions of immigrants to American culture

### 2. Rural migration

- a. Reasons for movement
- b. Growth of cities

### 3. Changing culture

- a. Education
- b. Literature
- c. Art/music
- d. Entertainment
- e. Sports

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

Jane Addams  
Horatio Alger  
Stephen Crane  
John Dewey  
Thomas Eakins  
William Randolph Hearst  
Scott Joplin  
Emma Lazarus  
Elisha Otis  
Joseph Pulitzer  
Frederick Remington  
Jacob Riis  
John Philip Sousa  
Louis Sullivan  
Henry Tanner  
Mark Twain  
Booker T. Washington  
James Whistler

### Places

Angel Island, CA  
Ellis Island, NY  
Hull House, Chicago, IL

### Terms

Brooklyn Bridge  
cable car  
ethnic group  
Gilded Age  
land-grant college  
Meat Inspection Act  
nativist  
prohibitionist  
Pure Food & Drug Act  
ragtime  
realism  
Salvation Army  
settlement house  
skyscraper  
slums  
steerage  
subway  
tenement  
vaudeville  
yellow journalism  
YMCA  
YWCA

### Chronology

1862	Morrill Act
1879	Salvation Army
1881	Tuskegee Institute founded
1882	Chinese Exclusion Act
1886	Statue of Liberty

## D. Progressive Era

The rapid growth of American industries and cities that began in the late 1800s continued into the early 1900s. This growth changed many aspects of American life. Although some of the changes were good for the country, many of the changes also caused huge problems that called for reform.

During this period, a group of writers called the *muckrakers* began to write magazine articles and books about the country's problems. Their goal was to call attention to the poor working and living conditions facing many Americans, particularly in the cities. They exposed the wrongdoings of business owners and politicians, unsafe work places and child labor, and generally criticized the quality of life most Americans were forced to embrace.

Because of the muckrakers, Americans learned about the ever-mounting problems in the country. Soon a growing number of people began to call for reform. A group of these reformers, the Progressives, were not one unified group but a number of different groups who worked for a variety of reforms. Some worked on the local level trying to improve working conditions in the cities, while others backed new state laws, and still others called for national reforms.

Farmers were producing more than ever before. Because of new inventions and new agricultural techniques, crop production nearly tripled. However, farm prices continued to drop because of the increased production and foreign competition. As farm prices dropped, farming costs continued to rise, and farmers of the Midwest, the Great Plains, and the South found themselves deeply in debt. Most farmers blamed the eastern banks and the railroads for their indebtedness. The banks held their farm mortgages, and railroads charged outrageous

rates to both store and transport their crops. The farmers' problems were addressed through the National Grange Movement. Originally a social group, the Grange attempted to help the farmers solve many of the problems that they all shared. The Grange organized the farmers into cooperatives which tried to keep farming prices low and regulate shipping rates.

After the election of 1890, farmers and industrial laborers united to form a new party, the Populist (People's) Party. The Populists called for many government reforms that would return power to the citizens. Populists favored direct election of U.S. senators, initiative, referendum, and recall. They also favored government regulation of Big Business and a graduated income tax. The Populists ran candidates in the national election and while they garnered over one million votes, they were not strong enough to elect a third-party candidate to the presidency.

As problems in the factories increased, workers realized that they were no longer able to solve labor disputes with management on a personal level. As business grew, so did labor problems. Workers soon realized that they needed more power to bargain with factory owners. National labor unions began to form, led first by skilled workers. Soon unions opened their membership to all workers. Union leaders called for reform in the workplace, including shorter work weeks, shorter working hours, minimum wages, and safety in the workplace. Union leaders used both negotiation and strike to settle labor disputes. Some disputes grew violent, and the violence turned many people against organized labor and caused the unions to lose power. In the late 1800s, the American Federation of Labor was formed by Samuel Gompers. Composed of skilled workers who belonged to national trade unions, the AFL did not seek to change society. Its goal was to gain better working conditions for workers on a

national level. The AFL, with its strong organization, was able to successfully unite workers and Progressives to work for labor reform.

Religious leaders also became reform-minded in the late 1800s. By recognizing the problems of the poor, churches began to reach out in the neighborhoods of the large cities. Settlement houses were also founded at this time. These were places where people in the poorest areas could go to receive medical care, to get help in finding jobs, and to learn English. The settlement houses could be found in most of the large industrial cities, the most famous of which was Hull House founded by Jane Addams in Chicago.

Women also worked for reform. They carried on the fight for more rights, especially the right to vote, improved working conditions, equal pay, and temperance.

For most African Americans, these years did not bring improvement. Their condition in the South deteriorated as Jim Crow laws, poll taxes, and literacy tests limited or prevented them from voting. Despite setbacks, the newly-organized NAACP worked for racial equality and demanded the end to laws that denied equal rights to African Americans.

As the problems grew, many Americans worked to improve life within the country. Politically, they worked to pass laws to limit the power of Big Business and improve the lot of the American workers. Socially, reformers worked to ease conditions in the city slums and improve the quality of American life. Many just wanted to end the injustices they saw in the country and return some of the power to the citizens.

## D. Progressive era

### 1. Reform

#### A. Politics

- (1) political machines
- (2) spoils system

#### B. Women

- (1) women's roles in society
- (2) suffrage
- (3) labor
- (4) temperance movement

#### C. Minorities

- (1) discrimination against religious and ethnic groups
- (2) struggle to improve conditions

### 2. Muckrakers

### 3. Government regulations

#### A. Corporations

#### B. Transportation

#### C. Tariffs

### 4. Progressive presidents

#### A. Theodore Roosevelt

- (1) supporter of business regulations
- (2) supporter of labor
- (3) conservation of open lands

#### B. William Howard Taft

- (1) safety standards
- (2) income tax

#### C. Woodrow Wilson

- (1) government control of business
- (2) regulation of banks

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

Susan B. Anthony  
Mother Frances Cabrini  
George Washington Carver  
Carrie Chapman Catt  
W.E.B. DuBois  
Robert LaFollette  
William McKinley  
Cary Nation  
Alice Paul  
Upton Sinclair  
Elizabeth Cady Stanton  
Lincoln Steffens  
Ida Tarbell  
Mary Church Terrell  
William M. Tweed  
Ida B. Wells

### Terms

Sixteenth Amendment  
Seventeenth Amendment  
Eighteenth Amendment  
Nineteenth Amendment  
barrio  
Bull Moose Party  
civil service  
direct primary  
Federal Reserve Act  
initiative  
Ku Klux Klan  
NAACP  
NAWSA  
patronage  
Pendleton Civil Service Act  
primary election  
prohibition  
recall  
referendum  
secret ballot  
Sherman Antitrust Act  
socialist  
trust  
trustbuster  
Wisconsin Idea

### Chronology

1905 U.S. Forest Service established  
1906 Meat Inspection Act  
Pure Food and Drug Act  
1913 Federal Reserve Act  
1914 Federal Trade Commission  
Clayton Antitrust Act

## **Unit III**

### **Emergence as a World Power**

#### **Objectives**

Upon completion of this unit, the student will be able to:

- 1. Understand the role of the United States in world imperialism in the nineteenth century.**
- 2. Analyze the relationship of U. S. policies of trade expansion, naval build-up, and territorial acquisition.**
- 3. Identify the lands acquired by the United States between 1867 and 1917.**
- 4. Explain why events in Cuba led Americans to call for war with Spain.**
- 5. Discuss the reasons the United States entered World War I.**
- 6. Describe the American contribution to the Allied war effort.**
- 7. Analyze the consequences of the Treaty of Versailles.**

#### **Outline**

- III. Emergence as a World Power**
  - A. Imperialism**
  - B. Spanish-American War**
  - C. World War I**

## **A. Imperialism**

The United States had been an expanding nation throughout its early history. The desire to fulfill its manifest destiny carried the American people from the eastern seaboard to the Pacific Ocean. During the 1800s, America concentrated on domestic problems and issues. Americans were living through the changes of industrialization, urbanization, fighting a civil war, and settling the frontier areas of the West. However, by the end of the 1800s, Americans began to feel the need to expand again, this time to find new markets to increase their wealth, new lands to spread their democratic ideas, and new ports to refuel ships. European nations had been establishing colonies for centuries and the United States decided to join the race.

Most Americans came to approve of the idea of American imperialism. Economic and military interests and a belief in Social Darwinism contributed to the Age of Imperialism.

In the decades, after the Civil War, the United States showed an interest in islands in the Pacific, considered by Americans to be valuable as naval bases or refueling stations. In 1867, the United States divided Midway and Samoa with Germany. In the same year, 1867, the United States purchased Alaska from Russia for \$7.2 million. "Seward's Folly" later proved to be a great bargain.

Christian missionaries had traveled to the Hawaiian Islands in the early 1800s to convert the native population. Their descendants became sugar planters, who later dominated the Hawaiian economy. Queen Liliuokalani, leader of Hawaii, believed that the planters had too much influence and wanted to limit their power. The planters staged a revolt, overthrew the queen, and set up their own government. In 1893, they

petitioned the United States Congress to annex Hawaii. President Harrison gave his approval and sent a treaty to the Senate. But before the Senate could act, Grover Cleveland became president. He did not approve of the planters' revolt and withdrew the treaty. Hawaii did not become a part of the United States until 1898 during the Spanish-American War, and did not enter the Union until 1959.

In 1899, John Hay, Secretary of State, asked the major European nations and Japan to agree to an "Open Door Policy" in China, allowing each nation to trade in the others' spheres of influence. This policy stated that no nation could interfere with commercial and transportation rights within the realm or "sphere of influence". Spheres of influence were areas where certain countries had control of trade in that particular section. The Boxer Rebellion in 1900 persuaded the other nations to accept Hay's proposal. Because American interest in the Pacific had expanded, every shipping access to the region became vital. A canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans was proposed to be built across the Isthmus of Panama. Colombia controlled Panama and was unwilling to give up this land. President Roosevelt sent the U.S. Navy to support a revolution against Colombia. The new nation of Panama was created in 1903, and it granted the United States a ten-mile wide strip of land called the Canal Zone to construct the waterway. Building the canal proved to be extremely difficult. Mountainous terrain, mosquito-infested swamps, and disgruntled laborers all worked against construction. Finally in 1914, the canal was completed at a cost of \$352 million.

American business interests continued to grow in Latin America after the completion of the canal. As economic interests grew so did American concerns about political stability

in the region. Instability, they feared, might tempt European nations to intervene in the region and take advantage of the chaos.

Theodore Roosevelt made it clear from the start of his presidency that the United States would remain the dominant power in the Western Hemisphere. He made sure that the European powers knew that he would use his “Big Stick” policy to prevent foreign intervention in Latin and South America. In 1904 he added the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine which authorized the United States to intervene militarily in Latin America’s domestic affairs when they believed that such action was necessary to insure stability.

Roosevelt’s successor, William H. Taft, used “Dollar Diplomacy” and urged American business men to invest heavily in Latin America, promising to send in the military if their economic interests were threatened. Woodrow Wilson succeeded Taft and promised to change American foreign policy. Rather than use force and economic pressure, he proposed using friendship, fair play, and the ideals of democracy to protect American interests abroad. Ultimately, he was forced to send troops into nations in the Caribbean and Mexico to insure American economic safety.

In the early years of the 1900s, the United States had grown to a world power. Its possessions in the Pacific and Caribbean contributed to its growing economic wealth and political responsibility to keep the Western Hemisphere free from European intervention. Americans had traditionally avoided getting involved with European problems, but as America grew in stature on the world stage, avoiding problems elsewhere in the world was becoming more and more difficult.

## A. Imperialism

1. Trade with Japan
  - A. Commodore Matthew Perry – 1853
  - B. Treaty of Kanagawa – 1854
  
2. Purchase of Alaska – 1867
  - A. Seward's Folly
  - B. Discovery of gold and oil
  - C. Statehood – 1959
  
3. Acquisition of Midway Islands – 1867
  
4. Naval build-up – 1883
  
5. Annexation of Hawaii – 1898
  - A. American domination of sugar trade
  - B. Tariff revisions – 1890
  - C. Overthrow of Queen Liliuokalani – 1893
  - D. Republic of Hawaii – 1894
  - E. Annexation by United States – 1898
  - F. Statehood – 1959
  
6. Acquisition of the Samoan Islands and Wake Island – 1899
  
7. Open Door Policy in China – 1899
  - A. "spheres of influence"
  - B. Boxer Rebellion – 1900
  
8. Panama Canal
  - A. Links Atlantic and Pacific Oceans
  - B. Negotiations with Colombia
  - C. Revolution in Panama
  - D. Building of canal: 1904 – 1914
  - E. Transfer of control to Panama – 2000
  
9. Foreign policy
  - A. Theodore Roosevelt
    - (1) "big stick diplomacy"
    - (2) Roosevelt Corollary – 1904
    - (3) Great White Fleet – 1907
  - B. William Howard Taft  
"dollar diplomacy"
  - C. Woodrow Wilson  
"moral diplomacy" in Mexico
  
10. Purchase of Virgin Islands – 1917

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

Phillipe Bunau-Varilla  
Venustiano Carranza  
Grover Cleveland  
George W. Goethals  
William Gorgas  
John Hay  
Benjamin Harrison  
Victoriano Huerta  
Francisco Madera  
William McKinley  
William Seward  
John Stevens  
Francisco "Pancho" Villa

### Terms

empire  
expansionism  
Hay-Pauncefote Treaty  
isolationism  
isthmus  
locks  
McKinley Tarriff  
"Seward's Ice Box"

### Chronology

1889 Pan-American Union established  
1890 Alfred Thayer Mahan published *The Influence of Sea Power Upon History*  
1900 Hawaii becomes a United States territory  
1907 Great White Fleet begins voyage  
1914 Panama Canal opened

## **B. Spanish-American War**

By the 1890s the United States had emerged as the leading industrial country in the world. Because American economic interests had spread throughout the world, the United States became more involved in foreign affairs. To protect their business investments, Americans began to follow international events very closely. Trouble in Cuba, one of the last Spanish colonies left in the Western Hemisphere, caused Americans to pay particular attention.

Cubans, eager to be free of Spanish rule, revolted in 1868. This war lasted for ten years, but the Spanish put down the revolt and retained power in Cuba. In 1895, the Cubans revolted again, and Spain reacted harshly. A Spanish general, Valeriano Weyler, was particularly cruel in his treatment of Cubans. Thousands of Cubans were forced into detention camps where they were tortured, starved, and medically neglected. Many Cubans died of hunger and disease.

Newspapers reported the events taking place in Cuba daily. As the shocking tales of Spanish cruelty emerged, two newspapers in particular, William Randolph Hearst's *Journal* and Joseph Pulitzer's *World* used yellow journalism to compete with each other. The newspaper reports about conditions in Cuba upset many Americans who began to sympathize with the Cuban rebels.

The U.S. battleship, *Maine*, was ordered to Havana harbor in 1898. Although the U.S. government officially claimed that the trip was a friendly visit, privately the ship was ordered to protect American business interests in Cuba. On February 15, 1898, the *Maine* exploded and sank. More than 250 crew members died. No one knew for sure who was

responsible, but “yellow journalists” ran headlines that blamed the Spaniards. In April, President McKinley asked the U.S. Congress for a declaration of war against Spain.

The actual fighting of the Spanish-American War was done in the Philippines, Cuba, and Puerto Rico, all possessions of Spain. By August, 1898, an armistice was signed. In October, 1898, representatives of the United States and Spain met in Paris to negotiate a treaty. Cuba was to become an independent republic under the protection of the United States. Puerto Rico and Guam were given to the United States by Spain as war reparation, and the Philippines were sold to the United States for \$20 million. The United States Senate ratified the treaty on February 6, 1899.

The Spanish-American War greatly changed the position of the United States in world affairs. Because of the war, America was now a world power with an overseas empire to protect.

- B. Spanish-American war – 1898
  - 1. Tensions in Cuba
    - A. Cuba's struggle for independence
    - B. Yellow journalism
    - C. Sinking of the *Maine* – february 1898
  - 2. Declaration of war – April 1898
    - A. Fighting in the Philippines
      - (1) Battle Of Manila Bay
      - (2) Emilio Aguinaldo and filipino rebels
    - B. War in Cuba
      - (1) rough Riders
      - (2) Battle of San Juan Hill
      - (3) Battle for Santiago
    - C. Occupation of Puerto Rico
  - 3. Treaty of Paris – 1898
    - A. Spanish empire dissolved
    - B. Cuban independence from Spain
    - C. U.s. acquisition of Puerto Rico and Guam
    - D. Purchase of the Philippine islands
  - 4. Anti-imperialists
  - 5. Revolt in Philippines led by Emilio Aguinaldo

### **C. World War I**

When “the great war” broke out in Europe in 1914, the official U.S. policy was to remain neutral. Americans had no quarrel with Germany or Austria-Hungary, and they maintained a good trade relationship with both countries. Between 1914 and 1917, however, Americans were spending much of their time on problems brought on by the war in Europe, and it became increasingly more difficult to maintain neutrality. The European conflict had four major underlying causes: imperialism, nationalism, militarism, and secret alliances.

A single action, the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, and his wife by a Serbian national was the immediate spark which started World War I. The European countries divided into two major camps. The Central Powers included Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire. The Allies were composed of Serbia, Russia, France, Great Britain, Italy, and seven other countries.

France and Germany had long been enemies. By the time the war started, Germany planned to march through the neutral country of Belgium and crush the French force from behind. When Germany marched into Belgium, Great Britain declared war on Germany and rushed to France’s aid.

The stand of neutrality taken by the United States became increasingly more difficult for Americans to support. Divided loyalties caused Americans to take sides. Many sided with Allies because of their close ties to Great Britain and France. For the most part, Americans sided along ethnic lines. Claiming neutrality, the United States traded with the

Allies and the Central Powers. The British Navy, however, blockaded German ports and so most of American trade was with the Allies. The Allies used another tool, propaganda, to win the Americans over to their side, portraying the Germans as cold and cruel.

Trench warfare led to a long drawn-out war. Machine guns, tanks, and airplanes were all used for the first time. These new weapons were responsible for high casualties and tremendous destruction at battle sites. In September, 1914, the Germans introduced U-boats or submarines. They engaged these ships in naval warfare against trade ships in international waters.

On May 7, 1915, a German submarine sank a British passenger liner, *Lusitania*, killing 1198 people. Of the passengers who died, 128 were Americans. Americans were outraged and President Wilson sent Germany a strong protest. Because Germany did not want to break off relations with the United States, it promised to stop attacking passenger ships without warning by signing the Sussex Pledge.

Despite Wilson's campaign claim, "He kept us out of war," Germany's violation of the Sussex Pledge brought the United States close to war. The March 1917 Zimmermann telegram led Americans to call for war against Germany. On April 2, 1917, President Wilson asked Congress for a declaration of war.

To finance the war, Congress passed the Liberty Loan Act and the War Revenue Act. Industry and agriculture were also affected by the war. Production in both fields was increased to meet the needs of the military. The public contributed by abstaining from wheat and meat on certain days of the week. Drives were held to collect cans, corset stays, and any other material that could be recycled by the troops.

In May 1917, Congress passed the Selective Service Act setting up a draft for all men between the ages of 21 and 30. Supplies and troops were transported to Europe in convoy systems.

In June 1917, the American Expeditionary Force arrived in France under the leadership of General John Pershing. In November 1917, the Bolshevik revolution overthrew Czar Nicholas II of Russia. Russia signed a separate peace treaty, the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, with Germany in March 1918.

The AEF fought in the Battles of Chateau-Thierry, Belleau Woods, the Second Battle of the Marne, and Meuse-Argonne. The success of these attacks convinced the Germans that they could not win the war; on November 11, 1918, they signed an armistice.

In January 1918, President Wilson issued the Fourteen Points, in which he addressed the causes of the war. The fourteenth point called for the countries of the world to unite and form a League of Nations to work and preserve peace in the world. The Germans believed the peace treaty would be based on the Fourteen Points.

President Wilson went to Paris for the peace talks and met with representatives from the Allied Powers. The European leaders had come to the conference to punish Germany, and they refused to accept Wilson's peace plan. However, the League of Nations became part of the treaty of Versailles. The Germans were shocked at the terms of the treaty because the treaty stated that Germany alone was responsible for the war and was to pay the Allies a huge sum of money in reparations. Germany also had to agree to a total disarmament and return all territory gained through imperialistic expansion.

There was much opposition to the treaty in the U.S. Senate. Led by Republican Henry Cabot Lodge from Massachusetts, the senators argued against the League of

Nations, fearing that the United States would be drawn into foreign wars to protect other countries. The President decided to take that fight for the treaty to the people but suffered a massive stroke. In 1921, the United States signed a separate treaty with the Central Powers; the Treaty of Versailles was never ratified by the U.S. Senate, and the United States never joined the League of Nations.

## C. World War I

### 1. Events in Europe

#### A. Causes of tension

- (1) nationalism
- (2) imperialism
- (3) militarism
- (4) alliances
  - (a) Triple Alliance
  - (B) Triple Entente

#### B. Outbreak of war

- (1) Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand
- (2) Declaration of War Against Serbia By Austria-Hungary – July 1914

### 2. War in Europe

- A. Allied powers
- B. Central powers
- C. Battles of the Marne, Verdun and The Somme
- D. Trench warfare
- E. New weapons
- F. Russian revolution – 1917
- G. Treaty of brest-litovsk – march 1918

### 3. America's road to war

- A. Official policy of neutrality
- B. Allied propaganda
- C. Trade with allies
- D. Re-election of Woodrow Wilson - "he kept us out of war."
- E. German submarine warfare
  - Sinking of the *Lusitania*
- F. Zimmermann telegram
- G. U.S. declaration of war against Germany – April 6, 1917

### 4. The home front

- A. Selective Service Act -1917
- B. Financing war
  - (1) liberty bonds
  - (2) increased taxes
- C. Producing supplies
  - (1) Food Administration – Herbert Hoover
  - (2) War Industries Board – Bernard Baruch
- D. Support For The War
  - Committee On Public Information – George Creel

- E. Dissent
    - (1) Women's Peace Party – 1915
    - (2) the Espionage Act – 1917
    - (3) the Sabotage And Sedition Acts – 1918
  - F. The great migration
5. The fighting front
- A. American expeditionary force
    - General JohnJ. Pershing
  - B. Convoy system
  - C. Major battles
    - (1) Chateau-Thierry
    - (2) Belleau Wood
    - (3) Second Battle Of The Marne
    - (4) Argonne Forest
  - D. Armistice – November 11, 1918
6. Peace negotiations
- A. Wilson's fourteen points –January 1918
  - b. Peace conference
    - (1) Central powers not represented
    - (2) Big Four
      - (A) Woodrow Wilson
      - (B) David Lloyd George
      - (C) Georges Clemenceau
      - (D) Vittorio Orlando
    - (3) Allied disagreement
  - C. Treaty of versailles – 1919
    - (1) effects on Germany
      - (a) reparations
      - (b) war guilt clause
      - (c) disarmament
      - (d) loss of territory
    - (2) creation of new nations
    - (3) League Of Nations
7. U.S. response to the Treaty of Versailles
- A. Senate debate
    - Reservations of Henry Cabot Lodge
  - B. President Wilson's reaction
  - C. Senate rejection of the treaty – 1919
  - D. U.s. signs separate treaties with central powers – 1921

Additional identifications

**Persons**

Ferdinand Foch  
Czar Nicholas II  
Vladimir Lenin  
Gavrilo Princip  
Jeannette Rankin  
Baron von Richthofen  
Eddie Rickenbacker  
Kaiser Wilhelm II

**Places**

Sarajevo, Bosnia

**Terms**

draft  
isolationism  
*Lusitania*  
pacifist  
self-determination  
socialist  
terrorist  
U-boats  
zeppelin

## **Unit IV**

### **Roaring Twenties, the Great Depression, and the New Deal**

#### **Objectives**

**Upon completion of this unit, the students will be able to:**

- 1. Identify the forms of unrest that characterized the intolerance of the 1920s.**
- 2. Define the Eighteenth, Nineteenth, and Twenty-first Amendments.**
- 3. Explain the Republican Party's politics of "normalcy" in the 1920s.**
- 4. Explain the Prohibition Movement and the reason it failed.**
- 5. Distinguish between immigration laws before and after 1921.**
- 6. Explain how the American way of life changed during the 1920s.**
- 7. Explain the impact of the automobile on the American way of life.**
- 8. Describe the economic changes and conditions which resulted in the stock market crash of October 1929.**
- 9. Describe how the Great Depression developed after the stock market crash by identifying its effects in the economy.**
- 10. Explain the measures President Hoover took in his attempts to improve conditions.**
- 11. Describe the conditions which created a "dust bowl" in the Southern Great Plains.**
- 12. Identify New Deal legislation and evaluate its successes, failures, and criticisms.**

## **Outline**

- IV. Roaring Twenties, the Great Depression, and the New Deal**
  - A. Roaring Twenties**
  - B. The Great Depression**
  - C. The New Deal**

## **A. Roaring Twenties**

After the end of World War I, Americans attempted to withdraw from the world stage and focus their attention on domestic issues. During the war, the United States had changed. Returning war veterans found a different homecoming from the one they expected. There were changes in society that brought new attitudes, new lifestyles, and new technologies. Popular culture emerged such as movies, radio, jazz, and spectator sports. However, the post-war period was also marked by a spirit of intolerance. The Ku Klux Klan was revived in 1915. Racial and labor unrest, the Red Scare, and the Sacco-Vanzetti and Scopes trials further demonstrated the desire of Americans to return to the past. After twenty years of reform and war, most Americans were ready for the change and embraced the new attitudes of the “Roaring Twenties.”

In the election of 1920, Republican candidate, Warren G. Harding called for a “return to normalcy.” His promise of normalcy appealed to most voters, and he won the election by a landslide. To lift the economic burden of taxes and regulations from the shoulders of Americans, Harding chose a pro-business cabinet with Andrew Mellon and Herbert Hoover among them. However, he also chose a number of unqualified, corrupt men who had been friends of his in Ohio. The “Ohio Gang” used their positions to make money illegally, and their actions wrecked the Harding presidency. The worst scandal was the Teapot Dome Scandal that involved Secretary of the Interior Albert Fall. Harding learned of the widespread corruption, took ill, and died.

Vice President Calvin Coolidge became president and moved quickly to clean up the scandals. His efforts were successful, and he was elected in 1924. Under the Coolidge

administration, business prospered both in the United States and the world. Coolidge believed in laissez-faire and isolationism. He signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact in 1928 with eleven other nations, pledging not to make war against one another except in self-defense.

During both Harding and Coolidge's administrations, government regulations in industry were kept to a minimum and business flourished. Technological improvements such as the automobile and household electrical appliances gave Americans greater mobility and more free time to spend the growing national wealth. Americans attended movies, organized sporting events, and listened to the radio in their spare time. These events spread the latest ideas about fashion and lifestyles and fostered new American heroes such as Babe Ruth and Charles Lindbergh.

The most significant change in American life during the 1920s was the role of women at home and in society. The symbol of the 1920s American woman was the flapper. The prosperity of the 1920s opened new job opportunities for women. Labor-saving appliances and convenience foods freed women to pursue higher education and professional jobs. Because of the Nineteenth Amendment, women were allowed to vote for the first time in 1920. Political gains for women were slow, but some did run for office, and a few were elected to state legislatures.

The 1920s also brought major changes to the lives of many African Americans. In the early 1900s, many African Americans moved north to find better jobs and escape the racism and discrimination of the South. Discrimination in jobs and housing against African Americans caused major racial tension in the northern cities that led to many race riots. The NAACP tried to safeguard the constitutional rights of African Americans, but it was unable to get Congress to pass legislation to help African Americans fight against

discrimination.

As the African Americans migrated from the South, they brought with them new ideas and a new kind of music called jazz. Soon there was a burst of cultural activity known as the Harlem Renaissance. However, many African Americans turned to Marcus Garvey and the Universal Negro Improvement Association's "back to Africa movement."

In the election of 1928, Herbert Hoover became the Republican candidate for president. His opponent was a Democrat, Albert E. Smith, the four-term governor of New York. Smith was the first Roman Catholic to run for president as a major-party candidate. Hoover won the election. The Republican victory reflected the belief that the nation's economy was reasonably healthy.

## A. Roaring Twenties

1. Racial unrest and fear of radicalism
  - (a) revival of Ku Klux Klan – 1915
  - (b) Red Scare
  - (c) Sacco-Vanzetti trial – 1921
  - (d) Scopes trial – 1925
  - (e) labor unrest
  
2. Election of 1920
  - (a) James Cox and Franklin Delano Roosevelt (D)
  - (b) Warren Harding and Calvin Coolidge (R) – “return to normalcy”
  
3. Harding Administration 1921-1923
  - (a) Ohio Gang
  - (b) Teapot Dome Scandal
  - (c) Harding’s death
  
4. Coolidge Administration 1923 -1929
  - (a) domestic policy – supported businesses
  - (b) foreign policy – limited role in world affairs
  - (c) booming economy of the 1920s
    - (1) technological improvements
    - (2) the automobile age
    - (3) stock market investment
      - (i) increased prices of stocks
      - (ii) speculation
      - (iii) buying “on margin”
  
5. Changes in American way of life
  - (a) role of women
    - (1) flappers
    - (2) Nineteenth Amendment
  - (b) entertainment
    - (1) movies
    - (2) radio
    - (3) sports
    - (4) jazz
    - (5) literature
  - (c) Harlem Renaissance
  - (d) cultural tension
    - (1) Prohibition
      - (i) Eighteenth Amendment
      - (ii) Twenty-first Amendment

- (2) Marcus Garvey and the Universal Negro Improvement Association (UNIA)
    - (3) Nativism
  - (e) the airplane
    - (1) Charles Lindbergh
    - (2) Amelia Earhart
  - (f) “progressive education” of John Dewey
6. Seeking a lasting peace
- (a) Washington Disarmament Conference – 1921
  - (b) Kellogg-Briand Pact – 1928
7. Election of 1928
- (a) Herbert Hoover (R)
  - (b) Alfred E. Smith (D)
    - (i) first Catholic presidential candidate
    - (ii) Ku Klux Klan’s role in election
8. Herbert Hoover’s Administration
- (a) crash of market – October 1929
  - (b) world-wide depression

## Additional Identifications

### **Persons**

William Jennings Bryan  
Charlie Chaplin  
Clarence Darrow  
Albert B. Fall  
Miriam Ferguson  
F. Scott Fitzgerald  
George Herman "Babe" Ruth  
Langston Hughes  
Nellie Tayloe Ross  
Bessie Smith  
Rudolph Valentino

### **Terms**

anarchists  
assembly line  
capitalism  
deportation  
expatriates  
gross national product  
immigration  
installment buying  
Palmer raids  
quota system  
recession  
*Spirit of St. Louis*  
"talkies"

### **Chronology**

1915 Revival of Ku Klux Klan  
1917 Russian Revolution  
1919 Eighteenth Amendment ratified  
1920 Election of Warren Harding  
1920 Nineteenth Amendment ratified  
1921 Washington Disarmament Conference  
1921 Sacco and Vanzetti trial  
1923 Calvin Coolidge becomes president  
1924 Election of Calvin Coolidge  
1925 Scopes trial  
1928 Election of Herbert Hoover  
1928 Kellogg-Briand Pact  
1929 October 29 – Stock Market Crash  
1933 Twenty-First Amendment ratified

## **B. The Great Depression**

In the late 1920s, the economy began to show signs of faltering. The growing wealth of the richest Americans hid the economic struggle of the majority of the people, and the government failed to recognize or ignored the signs of impending disaster in both industry and agriculture. Believing that the nation's economy was essentially stable, Republican president, Herbert Hoover, rejected a Democratic proposal to help the floundering farmers. As World War I ended, their prosperity was in decline because of increased production and low prices.

In addition, not all industrial workers enjoyed the prosperity of the 1920s. Factories were making more products than they could sell. Also, the high tariff closed foreign markets to American industries. As a result, goods began to stockpile in warehouses and businesses began failing, throwing thousands into unemployment.

Because many people did not have enough cash to buy products, they began to use the installment plan. As the unemployment rate continued to rise, many found that they could not meet monthly payments, including mortgage payments.

Believing that the nation's economy was reasonably healthy, many people continued to speculate in the stock market, often buying stocks on margin. When stock prices began to fall in 1929, a flood of orders to sell led to a stock market crash, and the nation headed into a deep economic depression. Banks, which had invested heavily in the stock market, failed.

With less money and credit available, consumers bought less than before. Because fewer goods were being bought, industries began to produce less. Before long, fewer

workers were needed, and more Americans lost their jobs. By the early 1930s, unemployment had risen to 25%. Thousands of Americans, unable to meet their mortgage payments, lost their homes or their farms. Large numbers of the unemployed formed breadlines waiting for food, or they ate in soup kitchens.

The ripple effect of the stock market crash was felt worldwide. The countries of Europe could not depend on American credit and trade, which led to a severe decline in world trade.

Despite the bad economic news and the deepening depression, President Hoover, like many Americans, felt that the economy was sound and would soon improve. He encouraged private charities and city, state, and local agencies to provide public relief rather than place the burden on the federal government. Finally, he asked Congress to create the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to help bolster banks and businesses, but it was too little too late.

In July, 1932, thousands of World War I veterans marched on Washington, D.C. demanding payment of a bonus promised for 1945. The Bonus Army built shacks and camped out in tents around the Capitol. When Congress refused to pay them, many went home; about 2000 remained in the tent city and refused to leave. The army, led by Douglas MacArthur, was sent to disperse them. In the melee that followed, several Bonus Army members were killed, and the veterans finally dispersed. Public opinion was strong against Hoover. In the upcoming election of 1932 voters showed their displeasure with him by electing his Democratic opponent, Franklin D. Roosevelt from New York, by a wide margin. In his campaign, FDR had promised a "New Deal" for all Americans.

## B. The Great Depression

### 1. Causes

- a. Uneven distribution of wealth
- b. Low farm prices
- c. Lack of growth in pay of industrial workers
- d. Overproduction
- e. Installment-plan buying
- f. Speculation in stock market
- g. Buying stocks “on margin”
- h. Stock market crash –October 29, 1929

### 2. Effects

- a. unemployment
  - (1) 25% by 1933
  - (2) higher among African Americans and minorities
- b. foreclosures on mortgages
  - (1) Hoovervilles
  - (2) migration
- c. failures of banks and businesses
- d. depression world-wide
  - (1) debts by European nations unpaid
  - (2) no sales of American goods abroad

### 3. Herbert Hoover and the Depression

- a. attitude toward direct federal aid
- b. aid to businesses – Reconstruction Finance Corporation, 1932
- c. encouragement of private relief agencies, city and state aid
- d. lower taxes and public works projects
- e. Bonus Army, 1932

### 4. “dust bowl”

- a. Great Plains
- b. “Okies”

### 5. Election of 1932

- a. Herbert Hoover (R)
- B. Franklin D. Roosevelt (D)

Additional Identifications

**Persons**

Dwight D. Eisenhower  
Douglas MacArthur  
John Steinbeck

**Terms**

Hooverisms

**Chronology**

1932      Bonus Army  
            Election of FDR

### **C. The New Deal**

One of the first problems President Roosevelt faced was the banking crisis. By 1932, more than 5000 banks had shut their doors. To stem the tide, Roosevelt and Congress passed the Emergency Banking Act. President Roosevelt launched many pieces of major legislation, among which were the distribution of economic relief, creation of new jobs for the unemployed through federal works projects, and federal agencies to help stimulate and manage agricultural and industrial production.

Not all Americans were happy with the actions of FDR's first "Hundred Days." Some felt that the new programs were not strong enough. Conservatives saw the new laws as a threat to free enterprise and too much government interference in the daily lives of Americans. The Supreme Court even disagreed with Roosevelt and struck down many of the newly enacted measures. Roosevelt responded by launching a second hundred days of legislative reform. The results were very impressive as the Congress passed the Works Progress Administration, the Wagner Act, and the Social Security Act.

Still angered by the Court rulings, FDR presented a plan to overhaul the federal court system by adding six new members to the Supreme. Critics accused him of "court packing," and before Congress could rule on his proposal, he backed down.

To add to the economic problems of the Depression, the southern Great Plains experienced a drought in the 1930s. The "Dust Bowl" created an additional economic hardship for the farmers of that region.

The New Deal did not end the Depression, but it did bring relief to millions of Americans who had been suffering through tough economic times. More importantly, it

saved the American system of government. For the first time, Americans were able to get help from the federal government to ease some of their burdens. Before the Depression ended however, the New Deal came to a sudden halt as events in the world turned America's attention away from domestic issues and focused it on events in Europe. By 1939, war had broken out in Europe and, the United States found itself trying to avoid another world war.

## C. The New Deal

1. FDR's First Administration
  - a. March 5, 1933 – "...the only thing we have to fear is fear itself."
  - b. cabinet and advisors
    - (1) Harry Hopkins
    - (2) Frances Perkins
    - (3) Harold Ickes
    - (4) "brain trust"
    - (5) "black cabinet"
  
2. The New Deal
  - a. Emergency Banking Relief Act – 1933
  - b. "Hundred Days"
    - (1) relief, recovery, and reform
    - (2) alphabet soup
  
3. Defense of New Deal
  - a. FDR's optimism – "fireside chats"
  - b. restored confidence of American people
  - c. relieved some unemployment and poverty
  - d. added safeguards to economic system
  
4. Critics and criticism of New Deal
  - a. Huey Long – "share our wealth"
  - b. Francis Townsend – pension for older people
  - c. Father Charles Coughlin
  - d. industry – "New Deal = socialism"
  - e. Supreme Court and the New Deal
  
5. Second New Deal
  - a. Revenue Act of 1935
  - b. Social Security Act – 1935
  - c. National Labor Relations Act (Wagner Act of 1935)
  
6. Second term of FDR
  - a. FDR defeated Alfred Landon
  - b. African Americans voted Democratic for the first time
  - c. court packing scheme
  - d. Roosevelt recession
  - e. loss of support in Congress

## Additional Identifications

### **Persons**

Mary McLeod Bethune  
John L. Lewis  
Eleanor Roosevelt  
Robert Weaver

### **Terms**

Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC)  
Federal Deposit Insurance Corp. (FDIC)  
National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA)  
Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA)  
Works Progress Administration (WPA)

### **Chronology**

1933      New Deal  
1935      National Labor Relations Act  
1936      Election of FDR – second term

## **Unit V**

### **World War II**

#### **Objectives**

**Upon completion of this unit, the student will be able to:**

- 1. Chart the rise of totalitarian governments in the world.**
- 2. List the series of aggressive moves by totalitarian nations that led to World War II.**
- 3. Describe the transition of the United States from neutrality to involvement in the war.**
- 4. Describe the effects of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.**
- 5. Analyze the key events and aftermath of World War II.**
- 6. Describe the impact of World War II on the home front.**
- 7. Explain how Allied forces halted the advances of Axis forces in Europe and North Africa.**
- 8. Identify what is meant by the Holocaust and describe its effect on European Jews.**
- 9. Identify major naval battles fought by the United States against Japan in the Pacific Ocean.**
- 10. Explain important decisions made by Allied leaders at wartime conferences.**

#### **Outline**

##### **V. World War II**

- A. U. S. Response to World Dictatorships**
- B. World War II**
- C. Diplomacy**
- D. Aftermath to World War II**

## **A. U. S. Response to World Dictatorships**

During the Great Depression, the U.S. government and the American people were consumed with economic problems. However, the Depression was worldwide, and many foreign countries were in a similar situation to the United States.

In Italy, Germany and Japan, new leaders came to power, all dictators. In Italy, Benito Mussolini and the Fascist party tried to restore the glory of ancient Rome by establishing an empire in Africa. When Italian forces invaded Ethiopia in 1935, the League of Nations was powerless to stop them. In Germany, Adolph Hitler and the Nazi party gained control of the government and defied the terms of the Versailles Treaty. Anti-Semitic legislation resulted in millions of Jews being sent to concentration camps. Japan had also become a military dictatorship. In 1931 Japan invaded Manchuria, and in 1937 Japan began a war against China, taking over large areas of land and many major Chinese cities. Through a series of Neutrality Acts, the United States tried to remain isolated from the conflict.

Alarmed by the actions of Germany, Japan, and Italy, President Roosevelt moved to bring the country into agreements with the Allies. In 1941 the Lend-Lease Act was passed to give aid to Great Britain. In the same year, President Roosevelt met with Winston Churchill and drew up the Atlantic Charter, pledging to bring about a lasting peace once the Axis Powers had been destroyed.

## A. U. S. Response to World Dictatorships

### 1. World Dictatorships

#### a. Germany

- (1) Nazism
- (2) violations of the Treaty of Versailles
- (3) anti-Semitism
- (4) Munich Conference – 1938

#### b. Italy

- (1) Fascism
- (2) invasion of Ethiopia and annexation of Albania

#### c. Japan

- (1) invasion of China
- (2) Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis – 1940

#### d. Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

- (1) Communism
- (2) Soviet-German Non-Aggression Pact – 1939

### 2. U.S. Response

- a. isolationism
- b. neutrality acts of 1930s
- c. Manhattan Project
- d. Lend-Lease Act – 1941
- e. Atlantic Charter – 1941
- f. economic sanctions against Japan

## **B. World War II**

By the fall of 1939, Nazi Germany had militarized the Rhineland and taken Austria in violation of the Treaty of Versailles. Czechoslovakia had been occupied by Nazi forces in pieces. When the Nazis used *blitzkrieg* against Poland on September 1, Great Britain and France went to the aid of Poland by declaring war on Germany. World War II had begun.

By June 1940, the Nazis had swept across western Europe, occupying Denmark, Norway, Belgium, the Netherlands, and France. In August 1940, the Battle of Britain began. In 1940, the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis was formed.

The Japanese, meanwhile, were determined to keep the United States from interfering with their plans for expansion. On December 7, 1941, Japanese air and naval forces launched a surprise attack against the naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. More than 2000 soldiers and sailors were killed. The next day President Roosevelt asked for a declaration of war on Japan.

In 1942, Allied forces launched an attack against the Germans and Italians from northern Africa. The Battle of El Alamein prevented the Germans from taking the Suez Canal. Victories in later battles allowed the Allies to launch an invasion from north Africa into southern Europe. The Allies took Sicily in the summer of 1943. In June 1944, Rome was liberated by the Allies.

The Soviet Union had joined the Allies when Hitler, violating the terms of the 1939 Soviet-German Non-Aggression Pact, invaded their country in June, 1941. The Soviets pressed the Allies to launch a second front in western Europe.

At the same time the Allies were fighting in Italy, they were also planning an invasion of France, named Operation Overlord. Allied forces in southern England would cross the English Channel and land on the coast of France in an area called Normandy. The invasion, led by General Eisenhower, was the largest amphibious operation of the war. On June 6, 1944, D Day, American, British, and Canadian troops landed on the beaches and caught the Germans somewhat by surprise. Despite heavy casualties, Allied forces broke through German defenses; by the end of August, the Allies had liberated Paris.

In December, 1944, Germany made one last try to avoid defeat. In the Battle of the Bulge, Hitler threw the whole force of the German army against the Allies. However, after weeks of fighting, Germany was defeated and the Allies were able to cross the Rhine into Germany. Germany surrendered on May 7, 1945. The Allies declared May 8 V-E Day.

The Allies were shocked when they came upon the concentration camps as they marched through Germany. They found that thousands of European Jews and others deemed undesirable by Hitler had been murdered in gas chambers and cremated in ovens. This mass murder of six million European Jews is known as the Holocaust.

After Pearl Harbor, a quick string of Japanese victories in the Pacific disheartened American forces. The bombing of Tokyo and victories in the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway boosted American morale. The strategy of island-hopping, capturing key islands on the way to Japan, allowed the United States to have a base from which to invade Japan. When the islands of Iwo Jima and Okinawa were captured in 1945, an invasion of Japan became a possibility. However, by this time, the United States had perfected the atomic bomb. The first was dropped on Hiroshima on August 6, 1945; the

second was dropped on Nagasaki on August 9, 1945. The Japanese government agreed to surrender, and August 15, 1945 was proclaimed V-J Day.

Even before Pearl Harbor, the government had begun mobilizing troops for war. Thousands of young men were drafted under the Selective Service Act. Women also served in noncombatant jobs making maps, operating radios, driving ambulances, and working in offices and hospitals. In 1942, the Office of Price Administration (OPA) began rationing certain goods such as sugar, coffee, gasoline and fuel oil. The War Production Board was also set up to make sure that war industries received the supplies they needed to manufacture the goods needed to support our troops.

The government also had to find ways to finance the war. To pay for the war, the government increased taxes and held a series of bond rallies much like those of World War I. These measures brought in millions of dollars.

The success of the Axis countries in the early stage of the war led to problems for Japanese-Americans who lived on the west coast. Because of Pearl Harbor, many Americans were afraid that Japanese Americans would help the Japanese if Japan attacked the mainland of the United States. In February 1942, President Roosevelt ordered 110,000 people of Japanese descent moved from their homes to relocation centers in California, Arizona, Wyoming, Utah, Arkansas, and Idaho. They had to sell all of their belongings and go to the camps. Many were American citizens and had proved to be loyal to the United States. During the war more than 17,000 Japanese-Americans fought for the United States, and many were decorated for their courage and bravery.

The United States emerged from World War II as the leading military and economic power in the world. However, as years passed, the United States would have to learn how to handle its stature as a super power. With the new stature would come many challenges and responsibilities.

## B. World War II

1. *Blitzkrieg* by Germany against Poland – 1939
2. Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor – 1941
  - a. declaration of war against Japan – December 8, 1941
  - b. declaration of war against United States by Axis – December 11, 1941
3. War in northern Africa
4. War in Europe
  - a. Battle of Britain – 1940
  - b. Nazi invasion of Soviet Union – 1941
  - c. D-Day – June 6, 1944
  - d. Battle of the Bulge – 1944
  - e. V-E Day – May 8, 1945
5. The Holocaust
6. War in the Pacific
  - a. the Philippines
  - b. Battle of Coral Sea
  - c. Battle of Midway – 1942
  - d. island hopping
  - e. atomic bombs – Hiroshima and Nagasaki
  - f. V-J Day – August 15, 1945
7. American home front
  - a. Selective Training and Service Act – 1940
  - b. women's service units
  - c. rationing
  - d. wartime government agencies
  - e. financing the war
  - f. internment camps for Japanese Americans

### **C. Diplomacy**

The Allies had met many times over a period of years to plan for both war and peace. President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and other Allied leaders and foreign ministers took part in the conferences.

At the Casablanca (Morocco) Conference in January, 1943, Roosevelt and Churchill concluded that war would continue until the Axis surrendered unconditionally. In November, 1943, Roosevelt and Churchill met the Nationalist defender of China, Chiang-Kai-Shek, at Cairo, Egypt, and promised him that any territory the Japanese had taken from China would be returned. At the Teheran (Iran) conference in November of 1943, the “Big Three” met for the first time. Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin issued a joint statement declaring that they were working together not only for victory in the war but also for peace in the postwar era.

During the late summer and fall of 1944, representatives from the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China met at Dumbarton Oaks, near Washington, D.C. There they drew up plans that would later serve as the basis for the charter of the United Nations to be formed after the war to replace the League of Nations.

Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin met again in February, 1945, in the Soviet Union at Yalta. Here they agreed that the eastern European nations that had been held under German control should hold elections after the war to form new governments. They also decided to meet later to draw up the charter of the United Nations.

Despite the sudden death of President Roosevelt in April, 1945, the plans to create the United Nations went forward . On April 25, 1945, two hundred representatives from

forty-six nations met in San Francisco and completed the draft of the Charter of the United Nations.

In August, 1945, President Truman, Stalin and Clement Attlee (who had replaced Churchill) met in Potsdam, Germany, and called upon Japan to surrender. They also announced plans for the occupation and demilitarization of Japan and Germany.

The results of these meetings culminated in the creation of the United Nations, and the first meeting of the Assembly was held in London on January 10, 1946. This body would be entrusted with maintenance of international peace and security and would be empowered to take enforcement action for this purpose.

### C. Diplomacy

1. Casablanca, Morocco – January 1943
2. Quebec, Canada – August 1943
3. Cairo, Egypt – November 1943
4. Teheran, Iran – November 1943
5. Dumbarton Oaks, Washington, DC – August 1944
6. Yalta, U.S.S.R. – February 1945
7. San Francisco, CA – June 1945
8. Potsdam, Germany – July 1945

#### **D. Aftermath of World War II**

The Allies cooperated to establish peace and order in the postwar world. Their biggest problem was how to handle Germany and Japan in the aftermath of the war.

The Allies were committed to ridding Germany of the Nazi Party. In 1945, the International Military Tribunal was set up in Nuremberg, Germany to bring to trial Nazi leaders who were guilty of war crimes. The Germans were given fair trials under the proper international judicial process. Twelve defendants were sentenced to death for their participation in the prosecution of the war under Hitler. Many lesser officials were also tried and given lesser jail sentences.

A number of Japanese were also tried and sentenced by an international tribunal. Premier Hideki Tojo was sentenced to death and hanged, and many Japanese military officers were tried and given prison sentences.

According to the terms reached at Potsdam, Germany was to be divided into four zones assigned to the military forces of United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and France. The four powers were to decide how to unify the country's government.

Japan was not divided into zones, but occupied by American troops. General Douglas MacArthur, the commander of the troops, also governed the country. Under his leadership, a new constitution was written that made Japan a democracy and gave women political and legal rights for the first time in that country's history. In 1951, the United States signed a treaty with Japan ending American occupation but keeping military bases there.

During diplomatic negotiations during World War II, the United Nations was created as a world-wide peace-keeping organization. The charter, signed on June 26, 1945, laid out the general plan for the United Nations. The charter called for a General Assembly with representatives from the member countries who would each have only one vote to decide U.N. policy. It also set up a Security Council composed of fifteen members to decide military, political, and diplomatic disputes. The charter also set up four other parts of the organization. The Economic and Social Council would deal with questions of human welfare and rights. The International Court of Justice would hear cases brought to it by member countries. The Trusteeship Council would take charge of trust territories. The Secretariat, headed by the Secretary-General, would handle the organization's day-to-day business. In 1946, the United Nations set up its headquarters in New York City and began its difficult challenge of keeping peace in the world.

The United States, Great Britain, and France soon realized that the U.S.S.R. did not plan on keeping promises made at Yalta and Potsdam. It seemed that the Soviets wanted to spread communism in all directions by forming satellite nations, all controlled by the Soviet Union. British Prime Minister Churchill warned that the Soviets were putting up an "iron curtain" between Soviet-occupied Eastern Europe and the western world.

In 1948, the Jewish state, Israel, was formed out of part of Palestine. However, most of the people in Palestine were Arabs, and they and the surrounding Arab countries resented the presence of the Jews. Fighting immediately broke out when neighboring Arab nations attacked Israel. U. S. support for Israel angered the Arabs.

After World War II, the countries of the world existed in an uneasy peace. Problems in the Middle East, Eastern Europe, and China challenged the fledgling United Nations daily. The United States, as a super power, found itself embroiled in world conflict and unrest that would only prove to lead to very turbulent times.

#### D. Aftermath of World War II

1. War trials
  - a. Nuremberg, Germany
  - b. International Military Tribunal for the Far East
2. Allied occupation of Germany
3. U. S. occupation of Japan
4. The United Nations
5. “iron curtain”
6. Creation of the state of Israel

#### Additional Identifications

##### **Persons**

Neville Chamberlain  
Winston Churchill  
Albert Einstein  
Dwight D. Eisenhower  
Francisco Franco  
Emperor Hirohito  
Adolph Hitler Maximilian  
Kolbe Douglas MacArthur  
Benito Mussolini  
Robert Oppenheimer  
Erwin Rommel  
Rosie the Riveter  
Eleanor Roosevelt  
Franklin Delano Roosevelt  
Joseph Stalin  
Hideki Tojo  
Harry Truman

##### **Places**

Sudetenland,  
Czechoslovakia  
Normandy, France

##### **Terms**

anti-Semitism  
appeasement  
“arsenal for democracy”  
concentration camp  
Four Freedoms  
General Assembly  
genocide  
Operation Overlord  
Secretariat  
Security Council  
Tuskegee Airmen  
victory gardens  
WACs  
war bonds  
WASPs  
WAVEs

## **Chronology**

1932	Election of Franklin D. Roosevelt
1935 and 1937	Neutrality Acts
1936	Re-election of Franklin D. Roosevelt
1938	Munich Conference
August 1939	Soviet-German Non-Aggression Pact
September 1, 1939	Nazi invasion of Poland
1940	Selective Training and Service Act
	Battle of Britain
	Re-election of Franklin D. Roosevelt
March 1941	Lend-Lease Act
August 1941	Atlantic Charter
December 7, 1941	Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor
May 1942	Battle of the Coral Sea
June 1942	Battle of Midway
June 6, 1944	D-Day
November 1944	Re-election of Franklin D. Roosevelt
December 1944	Battle of the Bulge
April 12, 1945	Death of Franklin Delano Roosevelt
May 8, 1945	V-E Day
July 1945	Potsdam Conference
August 6, 1945	Atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima, Japan
August 9, 1945	Atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki, Japan
August 15, 1945	V-J Day
1947	Creation of state of Israel

## Unit VI

### Postwar United States to 1960

#### Objectives

Upon completion of this unit, the student will be able to:

1. Describe the origins and the course of the Cold War.
2. Explain how the United States fought communism through its foreign policy.
3. Discuss President Harry Truman's Fair Deal, his plan of domestic reforms.
4. Explain the significance of the Korean War.
5. Demonstrate how McCarthyism became the Red Scare of the 1950s.
6. Explain President Dwight Eisenhower's "middle-of-the-road" approach to domestic policies.
7. Identify the causes and effects of the prosperity of the 1950s.
8. Describe the civil rights movement of the 1950s.
9. Demonstrate the impact of *Sputnik* on the U. S. space program.

#### Outline

- IV. Postwar United States to 1960
  - A. The Cold War
  - B. Domestic Issues

## **A. The Cold War**

The United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union had joined together as the Allied Powers to fight in World War II. During the war these countries met and agreed upon certain conditions that would exist in the post-war era. When the war ended, however, cooperation among these countries began to break down. The western powers feared Soviet expansion and the spread of communism while the Soviets feared the spread of democracy in the war-torn Eastern European countries. Soon the growing conflict between the western powers and the Soviet Union led to a cold war, a war with no actual battles but a constant build-up of tensions that could possibly result in military action.

At the conference at Yalta, the Allies agreed to allow free elections in the German controlled countries of Eastern Europe. However, when the Soviets liberated these countries, they set up puppet communist governments under the control of Moscow. It seemed that the Soviets were trying to spread communism into all the corners of the earth. This alarmed American leaders, and President Truman issued the Truman Doctrine in 1947 which stated that the United States would aid countries in danger of Communist takeover. To help restore Europe's devastated economy and to stop the spread of communism, the United States also approved the Marshall Plan, conceived by the Secretary of State George Marshall. It provided aid to all European countries, including the Soviet Union, to rebuild their industry and economy destroyed by World War II. The Soviet Union refused the aid and pressured other countries to follow.

Germany became the chief point of contention between the western powers and the Soviet Union. Germany had been divided into four zones after the war, each zone controlled by one of the Allies. The western powers were slowly guiding the Germans

toward a self-governing, economically strong German state, but the Soviets wanted to keep control over their zone.

In June 1948, the situation boiled over when the western powers tried to set up a new government in West Germany. The Soviets insisted that this violated the Potsdam agreement and refused to cooperate. On June 24<sup>th</sup>, they began a tight blockade of all the land and water routes into the city of Berlin, located in the Soviet zone. Berlin had also been divided into four zones of occupation by the Allies, and the Soviets hoped that the blockade would force the Allies out of the city. To circumvent this blockade, the western powers organized an airlift and flew all supplies into the city. The airlift was successful, and the Soviets lifted the blockade. In 1949 two separate governments were set up in Germany. The capital of West Germany became Bonn while East Germany kept its capital in East Berlin.

The western powers, alarmed by the events in Berlin, signed a mutual defense pact which established the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). They wanted this organization to provide a strong defense against the Soviet Union. They also agreed to support the United Nations to settle differences peacefully. Later, the Soviet Union and Eastern European nations formed the Warsaw Pact and agreed to similar terms.

There was also trouble brewing in the Far East, especially China. China had emerged from World War II a divided country. The Nationalist Party under Chiang Kai-shek headed the government while at the same time the Chinese communist party, led by Mao Zedong, controlled nearly one-fourth of the country's population. Although they had fought together against the Japanese, the civil war continued after the war. The communists,

supported by the Soviet Union, succeeded in driving the Nationalists, aided by the United States, onto the island of Formosa (Taiwan). Consequently, in 1949, the People's Republic of China was set up on the mainland of China under Mao Zedong. The United States refused to recognize this government and continued to support Chiang Kai-shek as the legitimate ruler of China. The United States blocked Mao's government from representing China at the United Nations, and this confrontation further heightened the growing tension between the United States and the Soviet Union.

East-West relations were strained further with the conflict in Korea. After World War II, American and Soviet troops moved into Japanese-occupied Korea and divided it into two zones at the thirty-eighth parallel. North Korea was controlled by the Soviet Union, and South Korea was occupied by the United States. In 1948, each zone set up its own government. The southern zone, the Republic of Korea, formed a representative government while the North, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, formed a communist government. On June 25, 1950, the North Korean Army, trained and supplied by the Soviet Union, crossed the thirty-eighth parallel and invaded South Korea. The United States sent General Douglas MacArthur and American and United Nations troops to aid the South Koreans. The Chinese entered the war at the battle at Yalu River. General MacArthur wanted to attack China. President Truman vetoed this plan because he did not want to risk nuclear war with Soviet Union. He replaced General MacArthur with General Matthew Ridgway. With North Korean troops back behind the thirty-eighth parallel, the Soviet Union proposed a cease fire. In July 1953, an armistice was signed and communist expansion into South Korea was halted.

In order to protect itself from the threat of communist oppression, the United States

realized that conventional forces were not enough to defend the free world from war. Both the United States and the Soviet Union began to amass a stockpile of nuclear weapons, and both funded extensive research into the development and production of nuclear arms. In this atmosphere, the threat of the Cold War turning into nuclear war was ever present.

By the middle of the 1950s, the Cold War had spread to the Middle East. After World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union remained interested in this area because of the extensive supplies of oil. Tensions between the two increased when both countries sought the support of Egypt, a powerful Arab state. Supplied by the Soviet Union, Egypt built up its armed forces in order to destroy Israel. Long a supporter of Israel, the United States refused to sell arms to Egypt and cancelled a dam building project there.

In 1956, Egypt took control of the Suez Canal, angering both Great Britain and France who used the canal for trade. When Israel attacked Egypt in 1956, because of the Arab raids, Great Britain and France also attacked. Although the United States and Israel were allies, the United States decided not to enter the fighting and took the matter before the United Nations. The countries agreed to withdraw from Egypt.

President Eisenhower, like President Truman before him, believed it was important to stop the spread of communism into Southeast Asia. In 1954, John Foster Dulles, Secretary of State, put forth the domino theory which held that the small countries of southeast Asia were like dominoes – if one fell to communism, so would all the others. American interest was mostly focused on Vietnam which had been part of French Indochina before the war. After the war, the French were defeated by the Vietminh, a communist group led by Ho Chi Minh. Their goal was to set up an independent communist state in Vietnam.

The 1954 Geneva Accords divided Vietnam at the seventeenth parallel. A communist government would control the North. In 1956, elections would be held to unite the country under one government. The United States and the South Vietnamese refused to sign the Geneva Accords, believing that this arrangement favored the Soviet Union and communism.

The United States also wanted to prevent the spread of communism in Latin America and the countries of the Caribbean. In the late 1950s, a civil war erupted in Cuba over control of the government. In 1959, Fidel Castro seized power from Fulgencio Batista, who had been the dictator in Cuba from 1933. The United States immediately recognized Cuba's government and hoped for good relations with that country, but Castro quickly set up a communist government and aligned himself with the Soviet Union. The United States cut off trade with Cuba and ended diplomatic relations with Castro's government.

A change in the Cold War occurred in 1955 when President Eisenhower met with the Soviet Premier and other world leaders in Geneva at a summit conference. The world leaders discussed many problems that had plagued the world since the end of World War II. While no agreements were reached, the willingness of the leaders to work together renewed hope for peace. Because of the summit, tensions eased between the United States and the Soviet Union for the first time since the end of the war, and plans were made to meet again at a second summit conference in Paris in 1960.

Just before the summit could begin, an American U-2 was shot down by the Soviets inside the Soviet Union. The plane had been photographing Soviet military bases. At first, President Eisenhower denied that the plane had been on a spy mission, but when the captured pilot, Francis Gary Powers, confessed to taking pictures of military facilities,

Eisenhower admitted that he had authorized the flight. At the summit in Paris, Nikita Khrushchev, the Soviet Premier, demanded that the United States apologize. When Eisenhower refused this demand, the Paris summit collapsed.

Although Eisenhower continued to try to promote world peace, tensions continued. Because of nuclear weapons and the development of long-range missiles, the United States realized that it had to continue to contain Soviet influence throughout the world.

## A. The Cold War

1. Soviet expansion in Eastern Europe
  - a. "Iron curtain"
  - b. the Truman Doctrine
  - c. the Marshall Plan
  - d. the Berlin Blockade and the Berlin Airlift
  - e. North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)
  - f. the Warsaw Pact
2. Civil war in China
  - a. Chinese communists, led by Mao Zedong
  - b. Chinese Nationalists, led by Chiang Kai-shek
3. Korean War 1950-1953
  - a. Causes
  - b. Fighting the war - Pusan and Inchon - September 1950
  - c. China's involvement
  - d. results
4. Arms race between United States and U.S.S.R.
5. Hungarian revolt
6. Suez Canal crisis
7. Southeast Asia
  - a. domino theory
  - b. Vietnam
    - (1) war between France and Vietnam
    - (2) Geneva Accords
8. Space race between United States and U.S.S.R.
9. Revolution in Cuba
10. Geneva Summit
11. U-2 incident

## Additional Identifications

### Persons

Fulgencio Batista  
Fidel Castro  
Chiang Kai-shek  
John Foster Dulles  
Dwight (“Ike”) Eisenhower  
Ho Chi Minh  
Nikita Khrushchev  
Mao Zedong  
Douglas MacArthur  
George Marshall  
Richard Nixon  
Francis Gary Powers  
Matthew Ridgway  
Adlai Stevenson  
Harry Truman

### Places

Berlin, Germany  
Federal Republic of Germany  
(West Germany)  
German Democratic Republic  
(East Germany)  
Geneva, Switzerland

### Terms

brinkmanship  
containment  
demilitarized zone (DMZ)  
Eisenhower Doctrine  
seventeenth parallel  
Southeast Asia Treaty  
Organization  
(SEATO)  
*Sputnik*  
thirty-eighth parallel

### Chronology

1946 Winston Churchill’s “iron curtain” speech  
1947 Truman Doctrine  
1948 Marshall Plan  
Berlin Blockade  
Election of Harry Truman  
1948-1949 Berlin Airlift  
1949 NATO  
Victory of Chinese Communists  
1950-1953 Korean War  
1951 General Douglas MacArthur fired  
1954 Geneva Accords  
Eisenhower Doctrine  
SEATO  
1955 Geneva Summit  
Warsaw Pact  
1956 Suez Canal Crisis  
Hungarian Revolution  
1957 *Sputnik*  
1959 Revolution in Cuba  
1960 U-2 Incident

## **B. Domestic Issues**

During the postwar years, the United States faced difficult problems at home as well as abroad. The country needed to adjust to peace time socially, economically and politically. As the spread of communism threatened the post-war world, it also threatened the United States domestically.

World War II saved the American economy by pulling it out of the Depression. As the country moved from war to peace, the government had to make decisions regarding the military and industry. To help returning veterans, the Readjustment Act of 1944, the G.I.Bill, was passed. Under this act, the government granted money to former servicemen to go to college, open businesses, or receive further job training. Industry also needed to change over to peace time production. Former war factories were sold to private industry and converted to producing consumer goods again.

Americans were also eager to spend money. However, goods were scarce and prices began to rise, despite government controls. Inflation set in; wages, not as high as prices, caused the cost of living to rise. Rising prices led to a demand for higher wages; in the first few years after the war, many strikes took place. The strikes led to demand for stronger government controls over labor, and in 1947, the Taft-Hartley Act was passed. This act outlawed closed shops and gave the President the power to call for an eighty-day cooling off period when a strike threatened the country's welfare. The act alarmed labor unions because they feared that workers would not join organized labor unions. However, the fear was unwarranted, and labor union membership grew steadily.

After his victory over Thomas Dewey in 1948, President Truman set forth a broad

plan of reform known as the Fair Deal. It called for new programs in education, healthcare, and housing. Truman also wanted to extend Social Security and stop discrimination in employment. Republicans and southern Democrats joined together to defeat much of the Fair Deal legislation. However, advances were made in low-income housing and Social Security.

After twenty years, the Republicans returned to the White House with the election of Dwight D. Eisenhower to the presidency in 1952. As Eisenhower assumed office, a fear of communism at home was sweeping the nation. Many acts were passed to defend the United States from communist infiltration and to determine if government workers were communists.

Concern grew in the early 1950s when Senator Joseph McCarthy of Wisconsin charged that there were communists in the State Department and in the U.S. Army. In 1954, a Senate committee was formed to hear McCarthy's charges against the army. Millions of Americans watched the televised hearings, but McCarthy had little or no evidence to back up his charges and was unable to provide proof. Americans were angered by the hostile way McCarthy treated the witnesses, and public opinion turned against him. He lost all of his public support, and the Senate voted to condemn his actions.

During the 1950s, the issues of civil rights came to the foreground, and there were important events which furthered African Americans' quest for equal rights. In 1954, the Supreme Court struck down the "separate but equal" concept in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*. As a consequence, the desegregation of public schools was ordered, angering southern leaders. In 1957, Governor Orval E. Faubus of Arkansas used the National Guard to keep African American students from entering Central High School in

Little Rock. President Eisenhower backed the Court's order by sending federal troops to escort African American students into the school

In December 1955, in Montgomery, Alabama, Rosa Parks, an African American woman, refused to give up her seat on a bus to a white man. Parks was arrested; in protest, a bus boycott, lasting one year, was organized by Reverend Martin Luther King. The boycott lasted for one full year. Finally, the Supreme Court ruled that the Montgomery law, which segregated seating on buses, was unconstitutional.

Congress also acted to secure equal rights for African Americans. To end restrictions on voting, it passed the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1960. These acts outlawed denying African Americans their right to vote, and they also set penalties for acts of terrorism to intimidate African Americans from voting.

After his re-election in 1956, Eisenhower continued many of the programs of the New Deal and the Fair Deal. The economy was booming, and the United States was enjoying prosperity at last. Another thing that was growing was the population because of the sharp increase in the birth rate after the war. Returning war veterans married and had families, causing a baby boom. The population increased by twenty million people over a ten-year period.

Because of new technology and greater prosperity, Americans enjoyed many popular pastimes in the 1950s. Television, developed in the '30s, became available to the general public and quickly became the main source of entertainment. The most popular of the early television programs were quiz shows, variety shows, soap operas, comedies, and sporting events.

In the 1950s a new form of music came into its own called rock 'n' roll. It grew out

of jazz, rhythm and blues, country-western, and “pop” ballads, and was very popular with young people. In literature, a group of writers emerged known as the “Beat Movement.” “Beatniks,” as they were called, spoke out against traditional family life and middle class values. They stressed, instead, individual freedoms and dressed and spoke in a distinctive style.

As cities became more crowded in the ‘50s, many Americans began moving to the suburbs. In this move, people hoped to escape high taxes and crime rates and find better schools for their children. Suburban residents moved into housing developments surrounded by shopping centers, and many commuted to the cities to work. To provide easy transportation for military forces in case of attack and to aid the commuter, Congress passed the Federal Highway Act of 1956. This act would link the nation’s major cities and was scheduled for completion by 1990.

Americans began to think about space exploration in 1957 when the Soviet Union announced the successful launching of a satellite called *Sputnik I*. In 1958, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) was set up to direct the American space program. In 1958, the United States launched its first successful satellite called *Explorer I*, and America entered the space race.

The fifties decade ended with the addition of the states of Alaska and Hawaii. Much had changed in this country since the turn of the century. Americans had weathered two wars, a depression, reform, and finally growth and prosperity. They looked with hope to the future as they elected John F. Kennedy to the presidency.

## B. Domestic Issues

1. Demobilization and reconversion
2. Postwar economy
  - a. GI Bill of Rights (Servicemen's Readjustment Act) – 1944
  - b. inflation
  - c. labor unrest
3. Fair Deal
4. Taft-Hartley Act – 1947
5. Election of 1948 (four candidates)
6. Reintroduction of Fair Deal
7. Civil rights
  - a. *Brown v. Board of Education* 1954
  - b. Montgomery Bus Boycott – 1955
  - c. Southern Christian Leadership Conference – 1957
  - d. Integration in Little Rock, Arkansas – 1957
  - e. Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1960
8. McCarthyism – Red Scare of the 1950s
9. Elections of 1952 and 1956
10. Eisenhower Administration
  - a. prosperity
  - b. baby boom
  - c. polio vaccine
  - d. new American culture
    - (1) television
    - (2) rock 'n' roll
    - (3) the beat generation
    - (4) suburbs
    - (5) computers
  - e. Creation of Department of Health, Education, and Welfare – 1953
  - f. Federal Highway Act – 1956
  - g. National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)
  - h. Statehood for Alaska and Hawaii – 1959
11. Election of 1960

## Additional Identifications

### **People**

Thomas Dewey  
Dwight Eisenhower  
Orval Faubus  
Oveta Culp Hobby  
John F. Kennedy  
Martin Luther King, Jr.  
Thurgood Marshall  
Joseph McCarthy  
National Aeronautics and  
Space Administration  
Richard Nixon  
Rosa Parks  
Ethel and Julius Rosenberg  
Jonas Salk  
Adlai Stevenson  
Harry Truman  
Strom Thurmond  
Henry Wallace  
Earl Warren

### **Places**

Montgomery, Alabama  
Little Rock, Arkansas

### **Terms**

closed shop  
computers  
desegregation  
Dixiecrats  
*Explorer I*  
Progressive Party

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