European Exploration and the Colonial Period

**Treaty of Tordesillas** - In 1493, at Spain’s urging, the pope drew a “Line of Demarcation” dividing the new world into 2 parts—that east of the line for Portugal and west for Spain. Because this line tended to be favorable to Spain, and because Portugal had a stronger navy, the 2 countries worked out the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494), by which the line was moved further west.

**Balboa**—crossed the isthmus of Panama
**Cortes**—led expedition against Aztecs in Mexico.
**Seven Cities of Gold**—fable created by Vaca. In response to his story, the Spanish sent expeditions to explore the interior of North America
**Soto**—led expedition looking for the cities of gold. Discovered the Mississippi River.
**Coronado**—led an expedition from Mexico.

**Encomienda system**—Spain administered its new holdings as an autocratic, rigidly controlled empire in which everything was the parent country. As population pressures were low in 16th-century Spain, only about 200,000 Spaniards came to America during that time. To deal with the consequent labor shortages, the Spanish developed a system of large manors with Indian slaves ruthlessly managed for the benefit of the conquistadores. As the Indian population began to die from overwork and disease, Spaniards began to import African slaves to supply their labor needs.

**John Cabot**—searched under the sponsorship of the king of England for a Northwest Passage
**Cartier**—mounted 3 expeditions in the area of the St. Lawrence River, which he believed was the
**Sir Walter Raleigh**—turned his attention to the southern part of the American coastline, which he named Virginia. A group of 114 men, women, and children landed there in July 1587. The colony was mysteriously deserted. After this failure, Raleigh was forced by financial constraints to abandon his attempts to colonize Virginia.

The Plymouth Company, in 1607, attempted to plant a colony in Maine, but after winter the colonists became discouraged and returned to Britain. Thereafter the Plymouth Company folded. The Virginia Company of London, in 1607, sent out an expedition of 3 ships with 104 men to plant a colony near the Chesapeake Bay.

**Jamestown**—Virginia Company of London, in 1607, sent out an expedition of 3 ships with 104 men to plant a colony near the Chesapeake Bay; it became the first permanent English settlement in North America. During its early years, the majority of settlers died of starvation, diseases, and hostile action by Indians. The entire colony was owned by the Virginia Company of London, and all members shared the profits regardless of how much or little they worked. Many of the settlers were gentlemen and others were simply unambitious and thus had little desire to work. Furthermore, the settlers had come with the ambition of finding gold rather than working for their survival.

**John Smith**—led the colony of Jamestown from 1608-09 and kept it from collapsing.
**John Rolfe**—discovered that a superior strain of tobacco could be grown in Virginia. His discovery gave Virginia a major cash crop.
Indenture system—created by the Virginia Company to promote the immigration of England’s poor. A poor worker’s passage to America was paid for by an American planter who in exchange was indentured to work for a specified number of years. The system was open to abuse and often led to the mistreatment of indentured workers.

House of Burgesses—the first representative assembly in America.

Samuel de Champlain—established a trading post in Quebec in 1608, from which the rest of New France eventually spread. Throughout its history, New France was handicapped by an inadequate population and lack of support from its parent country.

Dutch West India Company—the joint-stock company that ran the colonies of the New Netherlands.

Patroon system—organized by the Dutch to encourage farming. It created large landed estates that would be given to wealthy men who transported at least 50 families to the New Netherlands. These families would then be tenant farmers on the estates of the patroon who transported them. As Holland’s home economy was healthy, few Dutch felt desperate enough to take up such unattractive terms.

Separatists—a religious group in England who felt that the Church of England was beyond saving. Led by William Bradford, they left for America in 1620. Upon accidentally landing in Massachusetts, they created the Mayflower Compact, establishing a foundation for orderly government based on the consent of the governed.

Massachusetts Bay Colony—created by Puritans who wanted to establish a community in America. The charter that created the Massachusetts Bay Company didn’t specify where the company’s headquarters should be located. Taking advantage of this omission, the Puritans made their headquarters in the colony itself. The government of MA developed to include a governor and representative assembly selected by adult male church members.

Roger Williams—a Puritan preacher who was asked to leave the colony when his activities became disruptive. To avoid having to return to England he founded the settlement of Providence, which was soon populated by his followers.

Anne Hutchinson—openly taught things contrary to Puritan doctrine. She claimed to have special revelations from God superseding the Bible. She founded Portsmouth with her followers.

Rhode Island—in 1644 Roger Williams secured from Parliament a charter combining Providence with Portsmouth. Through Williams’ influence the colony granted religious toleration. It tended to be populated by exiles and troublemakers who were not welcome in other colonies. It suffered constant political turmoil.

Connecticut—founded by Puritans who had slight religious disagreements with the leadership of MA. Its constitution, Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, provided for a representative government. It later grew to include the area of New Haven, founded by John Davenport.

Thomas Hooker—founded Hartford, CT, in 1636.

New Hampshire—settled as an overflow from MA. Remained economically dependent on MA.

Maryland—granted to Lord Baltimore as the first proprietary colony in 1632. It was designed to be a refuge for English Catholics, though more Protestants than Catholics came. To protect the
Catholic minority, Cecilius Calvert approved an Act of Religious Toleration, guaranteeing political rights to all Christians. Calvert also allowed a representative assembly.

**The Carolinas**—created as a reward for 8 noblemen who had helped Charles II regain the English crown. The proprietors came up with an elaborate plan for an hierarchical, almost feudal, society. They grew slowly. North Carolina developed as an overflow from VA with similar economic and cultural features. South Carolina was settled by English planters from Barbados, who brought their black slaves with them.

**Navigation Acts**—the foundation of England’s worldwide commercial system and some of the most important pieces of legislation during the colonial period. They were intended as weapons in England’s ongoing struggle against Holland. The system created by the Navigation Acts stipulated that trade with the colonies could only be carried out on American ships made in Britain or America and with at least 75% British or American crews. When certain “enumerated” goods were shipped from an American port, they were to go only to a British or American port. Almost nothing could be imported by the colonies without going through Britain first. The acts transferred wealth from America to England by increasing the prices Americans had to pay for British goods and lowering the prices Americans gained for goods they had produced.

**Nathaniel Bacon**—an impoverished nobleman who came to VA and failed to gain admittance to governor Berkeley’s inner circle. He began to oppose Berkeley and came to head a faction of like-minded people. In 1676 disagreement over Indian policy brought the matter to the point of armed conflict. Bacon and his men burned Jamestown. The British government responded by increasing royal control.

**Half-Way Covenant**—provided a half-way church membership for the children of members of the Puritan church. Those who embraced the covenant felt that in an increasingly materialistic society it would at least keep church membership alive and might preserve its influence in society.

**Dominion of New England**—in 1684 the MA charter was revoked in retaliation for that colony’s evasion of the Navigation Acts. King James advocated going even further, wanting to create a unified government for all of New England, New York, and New Jersey. This was to be called the Dominion of New England, and the fact that it would abolish representative assemblies and facilitate the imposition of the Church of England on Puritan New England made it more appealing to James. The charter of MA was restored in 1691 after numerous colonial uprisings.

**Salem Witch Trials**—in 1692 MA was shaken by an unusual incident in which several young girls in Salem Village claimed to be tormented by the occult activities of their neighbors. Before the trials could be stopped by the interventions of Puritan ministers such as Cotton Mather, some 20 people had been killed.

**Pennsylvania**—founded as a refuge for Quakers by William Penn. Penn advertised his colony widely in Europe, offering generous terms on land, and guaranteed a representative assembly and full religious freedom. He maintained peaceful relations with the Indians.

**Quakers**—held many controversial religious beliefs. They believed that all people had an “inner light” which allowed them to commune directly with God. They believed that human institutions
were unnecessary and placed little importance on the Bible. They were also pacifists and declined to show customary deference for those considered their social superiors.

**Delaware**—originally part of PN.

**Molasses Act of 1733**—would have been disastrous for New England merchants. Disaster was averted by the customs agents declining to enforce the act stringently.

**Wars for Empire**—between 1689 and 1763 Britain and its American colonies fought a series of 4 years with Spain, France, and France’s Indian allies, in part to determine who would dominate North America. The first war involved no battles in America. The second war brought America 2 years of sporadic fighting against France and Spain. It was ended by the Treaty of Utrecht, which gave Britain more territorial gains and trade advantages. In the last 2 wars American troops played an active role, accompanying the British on several important missions.

**Georgia**—with the constant warfare between competing powers in mind, Britain decided to form a buffer colony between South Carolina and Florida. A group of British philanthropists obtained a charter for such a colony in 1732 that would be populated the poor who could not make a living in Britain. The philanthropist trustees made elaborate and detailed rules to mold the new colony’s society as they felt best. As a result, relatively few settlers came.

**The Enlightenment**—characterized by rationalism, the belief that all human reason was adequate to solve all of mankind’s problems and much less faith was needed in the central role of God as an active force in the universe.

**John Locke**—a major force in the English Enlightenment. He strove to find in the social and political world the sort of natural laws that had been discovered in the physical realm. He held that such natural laws included the right to life, liberty, and property; that to secure these rights people submit to government; and that governments which abuse these rights may be overthrown. His writings were highly influential in America.

**The Great Awakening**—consisted of a series of religious revivals occurring throughout the colonies from the 1720s to 1740s. Preachers such as Jonathan Edwards and Gilbert Tennent proclaimed a message of personal repentance and faith in Jesus for salvation from the otherwise certain eternity of hell. It had several important results. America’s religious community came to be divided between “Old Lights,” who rejected the great Awakening, and “New Lights,” who accepted—and sometimes suffered prosecution. A number of schools were founded specifically for the training of New Light ministers. It also fostered a greater sense of readiness to lay the claims of established authority alongside a fixed standard and to reject any claims it found wanting.

**French and Indian War**—the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle provided little more than a breathing space before the next imperial and European war. France and Britain continued to struggle for domination of the Ohio River Valley and western PN. British authorities ordered colonial governors to resist this. George Washington was sent to western PN to request that the French leave. When they refused, Washington was sent in 1754 with 200 militiamen to expel them. The war these operations generated spread to Europe. While Washington skirmished with the French in western PN, delegates of 7 colonies met in NY to discuss common plans for defense. Benjamin Franklin proposed a plan for an intercolonial government.
Under the leadership of William Pitt, Britain had by 1760 taken Quebec and Montreal and virtually liquidated the French empire in North America. By the Treaty of Paris in 1763, Britain gained all of Canada and parts of the US east of the Mississippi river. France lost all of its North America holdings. Americans at the end of the French and Indian war felt proud to be part of the victorious British Empire.

The American Revolution (1763-1787)

**Writs of Assistance**—British officials felt contemptuous of Americans and were eager to increase imperial control over them beyond anything that had previously been attempted. This drive to gain new authority over the colonies led directly to American independence. The Writs of Assistance themselves were general search warrants issued to help royal officials stop evasion of Britain’s mercantilist trade reforms.

**Grenville**—strongly anti-American prime minister who attempted to solve the problem of the national debt incurred during the war by taxing the colonies. Of related concern was the cost of defending the American frontier, recently the scene of a bloody uprising led by Ottawa chief Pontiac. Grenville created a comprehensive program to deal with these problems. He sent the royal navy in to prevent smuggling and enforce the Navigation Acts. He also issued the **Proclamation of 1763**, forbidding white settlement west of the Appalachians, in hopes of keeping the Indians happy and the settlers easier to control.

**Sugar Act**—aimed at raising revenue by taxes on goods imported by the Americans. It halved the duties imposed by the Molasses Act but was intended to raise revenue rather than control trade/it was strictly enforced.

**Quartering Act**—required the colonies in which British troops were stationed to pay for their maintenance. Americans had never before been required to support a standing army in their midst.

**Currency Act of 1764**—forbade colonial attempts to issue currency not redeemable in gold or silver, making it more difficult for Americans to avoid the constant drain of money that Britain’s mercantilist policies were designed to create in the colonies.

**Stamp Act**—imposed a direct tax on the colonies for the first time. The act required Americans to purchase revenue stamps on newspapers and legal documents and would have created an impossible drain on hard currency in the colonies. Patrick Henry denounced the act and antipathy was prevalent in MA.

**Stamp Act Congress**—instigated by James Otis. It passed moderate resolutions against the act, asserting that Americans could not be taxed without their consent, given by their representatives. They pointed out that Americans were not, and because of their location, could not be represented by Parliament and concluded by calling for the repeal of the both the Stamp and Sugar Acts. The congress showed that the colonies could work together and gave political leaders in the various colonies a chance to become acquainted with one another.

**Declaratory Act**—passed in return for the repeal of the Stamp Act. It claimed that Britain had the right to tax the colonies for any reason.
Townshend Acts—included the use of admiralty courts to try those accused of violations, the use of writs of assistance, and paying of customs officials out of the fines they levied. American reaction was initially slow.

**Massachusetts Circular Letter**—urged colonial legislators to pass petitions calling on Parliament to repeal the Townshend Acts. British authorities ordered that if the letter was not withdrawn, the MA legislature would be dissolved and new elections held. They forbade the other colonial legislatures to take up the matter, and they also sent 4 regiments of troops to Boston to prevent intimidation of royal officers.

**Tea Act of 1773**—in desperate financial condition, partially because the Americans were buying smuggled Dutch Tea rather than the taxed British product, the British East India Company sought and obtained from Parliament concessions allowing it to ship tea directly to the colonies rather than only by way of Britain. The result was that East India Company tea, even with the tax, was cheaper than smuggled Dutch tea. The colonists would thus, it was hoped, buy the tea, tax and all, thereby accepting Parliament’s right to tax them. Americans, however, resisted the cheaper tea and people tried to keep the taxes from being collected.

**Boston Tea Party**—Pro-British governor Thomas Hutchinson forced a confrontation by ordering royal navy vessels to prevent the tea ships from leaving the harbor. After 20 days this would result in the cargoes being sold at auction and the tax paid. The night before the time was to expire, Bostonians boarded the ship and threw the tea into the harbor.

**Coercive Acts**—the British response to the Boston Tea Party

**Boston Port Act**—closed to port of Boston to all trade until local citizens would agree to pay for the lost tea.

**Massachusetts Government Act**—greatly increased the power of the MA royal governor at the expense of the legislature.

**Administration of Justice Act**—provided that royal officials accused of crimes in MA could be tried elsewhere.

**Quartering Act**—allowed the new governor to quarter his troops anywhere, including occupied private homes.

**Quebec Act**—extended the province of Quebec to the Ohio River, established Catholicism as Quebec’s official religion, and set up for Quebec a government without a representative assembly. For Americans this was a denial of the hopes and expectations of westward expansion for which they had fought the French and Indian war. New Englanders especially saw it as a threat to their colonies.

**First Continental Congress**—called in response to the Coercive Acts and met in Sep 1774. It petitioned parliament for relief but also passed the Suffolk Resolves, denouncing the acts and calling for strict nonimportation and rigorous preparation of local militia companies in case Britain should resort to military force.

**Lexington and Concord**—General Gage was given orders to provoke any sort of confrontation that would allow him to turn British military might loose on the Americans. He decided on a reconnaissance-in-force to find and destroy a reported stockpile of colonial arms and ammunition at Concord. Their movement was detected and news was spread throughout the countryside. At
the village of Lexington, Captain Parker awaited the British. The British continued on to Concord to discover that nearly all of the military supplies they had expected to find had already been moved and began to retreat toward Boston. Open warfare began.

**Bunker Hill**—in May 1775, 3 more British generals arrived in Boston urging Gage to further aggressive action. The following month the Americans tightened the noose around Boston by fortifying Breed’s Hill, from which they could bombard Boston. The British determined to remove by a frontal attack that would demonstrate their power. After the bloodiest battle of the war, the British gained little and remained bottled in Boston.

**The Second Continental Congress**—divided into 2 main factions. One was composed mostly of New Englanders and leaned towards declaring independence from Britain. The other drew its strength primarily from the middle colonies and was not yet ready to go so far. It was led by John Dickinson. Congress took action to deal with the difficult situation facing the colonies. It adopted a “Declaration of the Causes and Necessity for Taking up Arms” and the “Olive Branch Petition,” pleading with King George III to intercede and restore peace.

**Prohibitory Act**—declared the colonies to be in rebellion and no longer under the protection of the King. The act encouraged many to join the assault against British rule.

**Thomas Paine**—published a pamphlet called Common Sense, calling for immediate independence. It became immediately popular.

**Saratoga**—a strong American victory that convinced the French to join the war openly.

**Valley Forge**—the location where American troops spent a winter drilling to become a more professional fighting force under the leadership of Baron von Steuben.

**Yorktown**—the location of Cornwallis’ surrender

**Treaty of Paris of 1783**—the US was recognized as an independent nation by the major European powers; its western boundary was set as the Mississippi river; its southern boundary was set at 31 north latitude; Britain retained Canada but had to surrender Florida to Spain; private British creditors would be free to collect any debts owned by all US citizens; and Congress was recommended that the states restore confiscated loyalist property.

**Articles of Confederation**—preserved the sovereignty of the states and created a weak national government. They provided for a unicameral Congress in which each state would have one vote. Executive authority would be vested in a committee of 13, one member for each state. In order to amend the Articles, the unanimous consent of all the states was required. The Articles of Confederation government was entitled to make treaties, determine the amount of troops and money each state should contribute to the war effort, settle disputes between states, admit new states, and borrow money. It was not empowered to levy taxes, raise troops, or regulate commerce.

Ratification of the articles was delayed by a disagreement over the future status of the lands that lay west of the original 13 states. Some states held extensive claims to these lands based on their original colonial charters, and same states refused ratification until these claims were relinquished.
Trans-Appalachian West—for many Americans, this area represented an opportunity to escape the economic hard times that followed the end of the war. The settlement of Kentucky and Tennessee increased the pressure for the opening of lands north of the Ohio River.  
**Land Ordinance of 1784**—provided for territorial government and an orderly system by which each territory could progress to full statehood.  
**Land Ordinance of 1785**—provided for the orderly surveying and the tribution of land in townships six miles square.  
**Northwest Ordinance of 1787**—provided a bill of rights for settlement and forbad slavery north of the Ohio River.  
**Jay-Gardoqui Negotiations**—in 1784 Jay began negotiations with Spanish minister Gardoqui for a treaty that would have granted lucrative commercial privileges in exchange for US acceptance of Spain’s closure of the MI river as an outlet for agricultural goods of the rapidly growing settlements in KT and TN. When Jay reported this to Congress in 1786, the West and South were outraged.  
**Shay’s Rebellion**—economic hard times coupled with high taxes intended to pay off the state’s war debt drove western MA farmers to desperation. Led by war veteran Daniel Shays, they shut down courts to prevent judges from seizing property or condemning people to debtors’ prison for failing to pay their taxes. The unrest created a disproportionate amount of panic in the rest of the union. Many came to feel that a stronger government was needed to control such violent public outbursts.  

**The United States Constitution (1785-1789)**  
**Constitutional Convention**—the delegates shared a basic belief in the innate selfishness of man, which must be kept from abusing the power of government. For this purpose the document that they finally produced contained many checks and balances designed to prevent the government, or any one branch of the government, from gaining too much power.  
**Virginia Plan**—called for an executive branch and two houses of Congress, each based on population. Created by Madison and presented by Edmond Randolph. This plan was eventually adopted for further discussion.  
**New Jersey Plan**—called for the continuation of a unicameral legislature with equal representation for the states as well as sharply increased powers for the national government. This plan was favored by small states.  
**The Great Compromise**—created a president, a senate with all states represented equally, and a house of representatives with representation determined by size. Proposed by Franklin.  
**Three-Fifths Compromise**—a backhanded way of addressing the issue of slavery. Each slave would count for 3/5 of a person when determining state population, but slavery itself was never explicitly mentioned in the constitution. The federal government was prohibited from stopping the import of slaves prior to 1808.  
**Federalists**—those who favored the passing of the constitution. They were effective in explaining the convention and the document it produced. The Federalist Papers, written by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, expounded the constitution and demonstrated how it was designed to prevent
the abuse of power from any direction. They received their strongest support from the business and financial groups in the commercial centers of the Northeast and in the port cities of the South.

**The New Nation (1789-1824)**

**Bill of Rights**—12 amendments were drafted which embodied the guarantees of personal liberties, most of which had traditionally been enjoyed by English citizens. Ten of these were ratified by the states by 1791, and they became the Bill of Rights. The first nine spelled out specific guarantees of personal freedoms, and the 10th reserved to states all those powers not specifically withheld, or granted to the federal government. This last was a concession to those who feared the potential of the central government to usurp the sovereignty of the individual states.

**Judiciary Act of 1789**—provided for a Supreme Court and invested it with the power to rule on the constitutional validity of state laws. A system of district courts was established to serve as courts of original jurisdiction.

**Hamilton**—proposed the funding of a national debt at face value, federal assumption of state debts, and the establishment of a national bank. In his “Report on Manufactures” he proposed an extensive program for federal stimulation of industrial development, through subsidies and tax incentives. The money to fund these programs, proposed Hamilton, would come from an excise tax on distillers and from tariffs on imports. Many rejected Hamilton’s proposal because it would benefit speculators who had bought up state and confederation obligations at depressed prices. They opposed the tax program because it would fall primarily on small farmers. They saw Hamilton’s entire program as enriching a small elite group at the expanse of the common citizen.

**Jefferson, Madison, and the Republicans**—held the view that any action not specifically permitted in the constitution was thereby prohibited. They opposed the establishment of a national bank on this view of government. Their strength lay primarily in the rural and frontier areas of the South and West.

**Proclamation of Neutrality**—the US response to the outbreak of war in France. American merchants traded with both sides, though the most lucrative business was carried on with the French West Indies. This brought retaliation by the British.

**Jay’s Treaty**—attempted to settle the conflict at sea, as well as to curtail English agitation of their Indian allies on the western borders. The agreement settled few of the issues and merely bought time for the new nation. Jay was criticized for his efforts.

**Treaty with Spain**—the Spanish opened the Mississippi river to American traffic, including the right to the city of New Orleans, and recognized the 31st parallel at the northern boundary of Florida.

**Treaty of Greenville**—ended a series of fighting with Indian tribes over border conflicts and cleared the Ohio territory of Indian tribes.

**Whiskey Rebellion**—western farmers refused to pay the excise tax on whiskey which formed the backbone of Hamilton’s revenue program. When a group of PN farmers terrorized the tax
collectors, Washington set out the militia to put down the rebellion, thus strengthening the credibility of the young government.

**XYZ Affair**—a 3 man delegation was sent to France in 1798 to persuade the French to stop harassing American shipping. When they were solicited for a bribe by 3 subordinates of the French minister Talleyrand, they refused, and their report of this event returned home. Public feelings against the French ran high.

**Alien Act**—raised new hurdles in the path of immigrants trying to obtain citizenship

**Sedition Act**—widened the powers of the Adams administration to muzzle newspaper critics.

**Election of 1800**—Jefferson and Burr received the same number of electoral votes, so the selection went to the House of Representatives. Hamilton threw his support to Jefferson.

**Jeffersonian Era**—Thomas Jefferson and his Republican followers envisioned a society in vivid contrast to that of Hamilton and the Federalists. They dreamed of a nation of independent farmers, living under a central government that exercised a minimum of control over their lives and merely served to protect their individual liberties.

**Marbury v. Madison**—William Marbury, one of Adams’ “midnight appointments” sued Madison to force delivery of his commission of justice of the peace. John Marshall refused to rule, claiming that the law which gave the Supreme Court jurisdiction over such matters had exceeded the constitutional grant of powers and was thus unconstitutional. Marshall thus asserted the power of judicial review over federal legislation.

**Louisiana Purchase**—Napoleon had obtained the old French trans-Mississippi territory from Spain by political pressure. Jefferson set a delegation to Paris to try and buy New Orleans, lest the new French officials try to block it to American traffic. Napoleon’s defeat in Santo Domingo persuaded him that LA could not be exploited and was now subject to potential American incursions. So he offered to sell the entire territory to the US. The American delegation accepted the offer in 1803, even though they had no more authority to buy New Orleans. Jefferson’s stand on the strict interpretation of the Constitution would not permit him to purchase land without Congressional approval. But he believed that his treaty making powers included the authority to buy the land.

**Essex Junto**—some New England saw the Western expansion as a threat to their position in the Union, and they tried to organize a secessionist movement. They courted Aaron Burr’s support by offering him to back him in a bid for the governorship of New York.

**Embargo Act of 1807**—Jefferson drafted a law prohibiting American ships from leaving port for any foreign destination, thus avoiding contact with vessels of belligerents. The result was economic depression, particularly in the Northeast.

**Non-Intercourse Act**—opened trade to all nations except France and Britain. When it expired in 1810, it was replaced by Macon’s Bill No.2, which gave the president power to prohibit trade with any nation that violated neutrality.

**War of 1812**—the Indian tribes of the Northwest and the Mississippi Valley were resentful of the government’s policy of pressured removal to the West, and the British authorities in Canada were exploiting their discontent by encouraging border raids against the American settlements.
The Shawnee chief Tecumseh set out to unite the Mississippi Valley tribes and reestablish Indian dominance in the Old Northwest. On November 11, 1811, General Harrison destroyed Tecumseh’s village on Tippecanoe Creek and dashed his hopes for an Indian confederacy. Southern frontiersmen coveted Spanish Florida, which included the southern ranges of AL, MI, and LA. They resented Spanish support of Indian depredations against the borderlands, and since Spain was Britain’s ally, they saw Britain as the background cause of their problems. The Congress of 1811 contained a strong pro-war group called the War Hawks, led by Clay and Calhoun. They began agitating for war with the British.

Andrew Jackson led a force of frontier militia into AL in pursuit of Creek Indians who had massacred the white inhabitants of Fort Mims. The most serious British threat came at the port of New Orleans. A powerful force was sent there to close the MI river, but Jackson defeated it.

**Treaty of Ghent**—with the European wars ended, the major causes for the dispute with Britain had ceased to be important, so both sides were eager for peace. The treaty provided for the acceptance of the status quo at the beginning of the hostilities and so both sides restored their wartime conquests to each other.

**Hartford Convention**—the Federalists had become increasingly a minority party. They opposed the war. They met in Hartford and drafted a set of resolutions suggesting nullification if their interests were not protected against the growing influence of the south and west. After the Battle of New Orleans they ceased to be a powerful political force.

**Rush-Bagot Treaty**—an agreement between the US and Britain to stop maintaining armed fleets on the Great Lakes.

**Adams-Onis Treaty**—Spain had decided to sell the remainder of the Florida territory to the Americans before they took it away. Under this agreement, the Spanish surrendered all their claims to the territory and drew the boundary of Mexico all the way to the Pacific. The US in exchange agreed to assume $5 million in debts owed to American merchants.

**The Monroe Doctrine**—in 1810, national revolutions began in Latin America. British and American leaders feared that the new European governments would try to restore the former New World colonies to their royal owners. In Dec 1823, President Monroe made a statement that the American hemisphere was “not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.”

**Depression of 1819**—inventories of British manufactured goods had built up during the war, and English merchants began to dump their products on the American markets at cut-rate prices. American manufacturers suffered from this influx of imports. The US Bank tried to stop the inflationary spiral by tightening credit, and a sharp business slump resulted. This depression was most severe in the newly expanding West, partly because of its economic dependency, partly because of heavy speculation in western lands.

**Fletcher v. Peck**—the Georgia legislature had issued extensive land grants in a shady deal with the Yazoo land company. A subsequent legislative session repealed that action because of the corruption that had attended the original grant. The Court decided that the original action by the Georgia Assembly had constituted a valid contract which could not be broken regardless of the
corruption which had followed. This was the first time a state law was voided on the grounds that it violated a principle of the Constitution.

**Dartmouth College v. Woodward**—the quarrel between the president and the trustees of the NH college became a political issue when the Republicans backed the president and the Federalists supported the trustees. The president tried to change Dartmouth from a private to public institution by having its charter revoked. The Court ruled that the charter constituted a contract, and thus could not be arbitrarily changed without the consent of both parties. The result of this decision was to severely limit the power of state governments to control the corporation, which was the emerging form of business organization.

**McCulloch v. Maryland**—Maryland had tried to levy a tax on the Baltimore branch of the Bank of the US, and to protect the competitive position of its own state banks. Marshall’s ruling declared that no state has the right to control an agency of the federal government.

**Gibbons v. Ogden**—NY had granted a monopoly to Ogden to operate a steamboat between NY and NJ. Gibbons obtained a Congressional permit to operate a steamboat line in the same waters. When Ogden sued to maintain his monopoly, the NY courts ruled in his favor. Gibbons’ appeal went to the Supreme Court. Marshall ruled that commerce included navigation, and that only Congress has the right to regulate commerce among states.

**The Missouri Compromise**—since Senate membership was evenly divided between slave-holding and free states in 1819, the admission of a new state was going to give a voting advantage to either the north or the south.

As the debate dragged on, the northern territory of MA applied for statehood as Maine. Clay formed a package that both sides could accept. The 2 admissions were combined, with Maine coming in free and Missouri as a slave state. To make the package palatable for the House, a provision was added to prohibit slavery in the remainder of the LA Purchase.

**The Cotton Kingdom**—the new lands in the southwest proved ideal for the production of cotton. Eli Whitney’s invention of the cotton gin solved the problem of separating the seeds from the fibers, and the cotton boom was under way. The growing market for food and work animals in the cotton south provided the opportunity for the new western farmers to specialize in those items and further stimulated the westward movement.

**National Road**—built with federal funds and linked the Potomac and Ohio Rivers.

**Erie Canal**—linked the Hudson to Lake Erie. Completed in 1825 and became the first and most successful example of an artificial waterway. Canals were the first development projects to receive large amounts of public funding.

**Samuel Slater**—built the first successful cotton-spinning mill in America.

**Eli Whitney**—developed interchangeable parts, helping to spread the growth of mass-productions operations.

**Corporations**—had limited liability and the potential for raising and utilizing large amounts of capital. By the 1830s, most states had enacted general laws for incorporating.

**Lowell System**—young women were hired from the surrounding countryside, brought to towns and housed in dormitories in the mill towns. They were paid low wages for hard work in poor conditions, but they only worked for a short time. Popular in New England.
Washington Irving—best known American writer of his time. He excelled in the telling of folk tales and local color stories.


Mason Weems—wrote Life of Washington.

Second Great Awakening—the reaction to the trend toward rationalism, the decline in church membership, and the lack of piety, was a renewal of personal, heart-felt evangelicalism. Began in 1801 at Cane Ridge, KT. As the revival spread, its characteristics became more uniform—an emphasis on personal salvation, an emotional response to God’s grace, an individualistic faith. Women took a major part in the movement. Blacks were also heavily involved, and the individualistic emphasis created unrest among their ranks, particularly in the south. The revival produced strong nationalistic overtones.

Jacksonian Democracy and Westward Expansion (1824-1850)

Election of 1824—most states had already eliminated the property qualifications for voting before the campaigns for this election began. Free blacks were excluded from the polls across the South, and in most of the Northern states. National elections had never attracted much enthusiasm until 1824. Legislative caucuses had made the presidential nominations and kept the ruling cliques in power by excluding the voters from the process. Because no candidate received a majority of the votes, the top 3 candidates were voted on by the House. Clay gave his support to Adams, who in turn made Clay secretary of state. The supporters of Jackson called this a “corrupt bargain.”

American System—developed by Henry Clay. Called for a high tariff on imports to finance internal improvements and a national bank.

John Quincy Adams—pushed for an active federal government in areas like internal improvements and Native American affairs. These policies proved unpopular in an age of increasing sectional jealousies and conflicts over states’ rights.

Nullification Crisis—in 1824, Congress passed a new tariff bill which was originally supported by Southern congressmen in order to embarrass the administration. The finished bill included higher import duties for many goods which were purchased by southern planters, so they bitterly denounced it as the ‘Tariff of Abominations.’

Calhoun responded by writing the “South Carolina Exposition and Protest,” which outlined his theory that a federal law which was deemed harmful to the interests of an individual state could be declared null and void within that state by a convention of the people. Thus, a state holding a minority position could ignore a law enacted by the majority which they considered unconstitutional.

National Republicans—Adams’ supporters.

Democratic Republicans—Jackson’s supporters.

Andrew Jackson—popular with the common man. He expressed his conviction that government operations could be performed by untrained, common folk, and he threatened the dismissal of large members of government employees, to replace them with his supporters—“spoils system.” He vetoed the Maysville Road because it would require a federal subsidy but would exist only
within the boundaries of a single state. He relied on an informal group called the “Kitchen Cabinet” he supported the authority of the states against the national government, but he drew the line at state nullification. He advocated a strong union of sovereign states.

**Indian Removal Act**—provided for federal enforcement of the movement of Indian tribes to west of the MI river.

**Trail of Tears**—a forced march of thousands of Cherokees to the west.

**Webster-Hayne Debate**—Hayes made a speech in support of cheap land and he used Calhoun’s anti-tariff arguments to support his position. He referred to the possibility of nullification. Webster’s replies moved the debate from the issue of land policy to the nature of the Union and states’ rights within it. He argued for the Union as indissoluble and sovereign over the individual states.

**Ordinance of Nullification**—created by Calhoun in response to the Tariff of 1832. Customs officials were ordered to stop collecting the duties at the port of Charleston. Jackson’s response was to obtain a Force Bill from congress, which empowered him to use federal troops to enforce the collection of the taxes. At the same time, he offered a gradual reduction in the levels of the duties.

**Bank Controversy**—Jackson freely voiced his antagonism towards the bank and his intention to destroy it. Clay and Webster promoted a bill to recharter the bank, even though it did not expire until 1836. They feared that Jackson would gain support over time and could kill the bank as a parting shot as he retired. Jackson vetoed the bill. His first move was to remove the federal government’s desposits from Biddle’s vaults and distribute the funds to various state and local banks, called “pet banks.” The result was a financial depression.

**Panic of 1837**—when Biddle was forced to relent through pressure from business interests, the economy immediately rebounded. With credit policies relaxed, inflation began to pick up. The government contributed to this expansion by offering millions of acres of western land for sale to settlers at low prices.

In 1836, Jackson ordered a distribution of surplus funds and thus helped to further fuel the inflationary rise in prices. Jackson tried to correct this with the Specie Circular, which required payment for public land in hard money. Depression quickly followed.

**Martin Van Buren**—helped foster the political machine system. Persuaded congress to establish an Independent Treasury to handle government funds.

**Party System**—the age of Jackson was the beginning of the modern party system. Popular politics, based on emotional appeal, became the accepted style. The practice of meeting in mass conventions to nominate candidates for office was established during the Jackson years. Jackson, more than any other president before him, used his office to dominate his party and the government to such an extent that he was called “King Andrew” by his critics.

**Democrats**—opposed big government and the requirements of modernization: urbanization and industrialism. Their support came from the working classes, small merchants, and small farmers. Generally favored the use of force to expand American borders.

**Whigs**—promoted government participation in commercial and industrial development, the encouragement of banking and corporations, and a cautious approach to westward expansion.
Their support came from Northern business and manufacturing interests, and from large southern planters. Calhoun, Clay, and Webster dominated the Whig party during these early decades of the 19th century. They were united primarily by their dislike of Jackson. Feared expansion. The party began to break down after the election of 1852. Partially this was a result of the issue of slavery, which tended to divide the party along north-south lines. It may also have been due to the Nativist movement.

**Ante-Bellum Culture**—the American people in 1840 found themselves living in an era of transition and instability. The society was changing and traditional values were being challenged. The responses to this uncertainty were 2 fold: a movement toward reform and a rising of desire for order and control.

**Romanticism**—held a belief in the innate goodness of man, thus in his improvability. This movement had its roots in turn of the century Europe, and it emphasized the emotions and feelings over rationality. It appeared as a reaction against the excesses of the Enlightenment which had put strong emphasis on reason.

**Hudson River School**—a group of landscape painters who portrayed the awesomeness of nature in America.

**Transcendentalism**—began in Concord, Ma. The basic objective of these thinkers was to transcend the bounds of the intellect and to strive for emotional understanding, to attain unity with God, without the help of the institutionalized church, which they saw as reactionary and stifling to self-expression. Spawned a great deal of interest in remaking society in more humane forms.

**Brook Farm**—a transcendental commune in Ma. Closed due to inability to remain financially viable.

**New Harmony**—founded by Robert Owen, but failed after 2 years. He attacked religion, marriage, and the institution of private property.

**Nashoba**—established by Francis Wright as a communal haven for freed slaves.

**Oneida**—community in NY based on free love and open marriages

**Shakers**—directed by Mother Ann Lee. The communities were socialist experiments which practiced celibacy, sexual equality, and social discipline. They were known for their emotional dances.

**Mormons**—Joseph Smith received the “sacred” writings in NY in 1830, and organized the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints. They were not popular with their neighbors, primarily because of polygamy, and so were forced to move. In 1847 the group was led by Brigham Young to Salt Lake City. They established a highly organized, centrally controlled church, which provided security and order for the faithful. They held a strong belief in human perfectibility.

**Charles Finney**—part of the Protestant Revival movement. His “social gospel” offered salvation to all.

**Temperance**—the American Society for Promotion of Temperance was organized in 1826. It was strongly supported by Protestants, but just as strongly opposed by Catholic immigrants.

**Dorothea Dix**—led the fight for better treatment for the mentally ill.
Seneca Falls—a NY meeting in 1848. Created a “Declaration of Sentiments and Resolutions” that was the first beginning of the modern feminist movement. The Grimke sisters, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and Harriet Beecher Stowe were active in these early days. The movement was linked with that of the abolitionists, but suffered because it was considered to be of secondary importance.

Abolition—the early anti-slavery movement was benign, advocating only the purchase and transportation of slaves to free states in Africa. There were frequent outbursts of anti-abolition violence in the 1830s. The movement split into 2 wings: Garrison’s followers, and the moderates who favored “moral suasion” and petitions to Congress.

American Colonization Society—organized in 1817 and established the colony of Liberia in 1830.

William Lloyd Garrison—began to advocate total and immediate emancipation, thus giving new life to the movement. He founded the New England Anti-Slavery Society in 1832, and the American Antislavery Society in 1833.

Liberty Party—the first national anti-slavery party. They supported “free soil,” or the non-expansion of slavery into new western territories.

Population Changes—the new west was the fastest growing area of the country. Birth rates began to drop after 1800, more rapidly in the cities than in the rural areas. Some of the reasons were economic: children were becoming liabilities rather than assets. The new “cult of domesticity” reflected a shift in family responsibilities. Father was out of the home working, and the burden of child rearing fell more heavily on the mother. Primitive birth control methods were used, and abortion was becoming common enough that several states passed laws restricting it.

Immigration—the influx of immigrants had slowed during the conflicts with France and England, but the flow increased between 1815 and 1837, when the economic downturn again reduced their numbers. Thus the overall rise in population during these years was more to incoming foreigners than to natural increase. Most of the newcomers were from Britain, Germany, and southern Ireland. The Germans usually fared best, because they brought more money and skills. Discrimination was common in the job market, especially against Catholics.

Urbanization—the rapid growth of urban areas was not matched by the growth of services. Rapid growth helped to produce a wave of violence in the cities.

Women’s Rights—women were treated as minors before the law. Her property became her husband’s with marriage. Political activity was limited to the formation of associations in support of various pious causes. Professional employment was largely limited to schoolteaching. The women’s rights movement focused on social and legal discrimination.

Black Rights—their lives were restricted by prejudice and Jim Crowe laws that separated the races. Black citizens organized separate churches and fraternal orders. The economic security of the free blacks was constantly threatened by the newly-arrived immigrants.

Growth of Industry—by 1850, the value of industrial output had surpassed that of agricultural production. The northeastern states led the way in this movement. Farm and industry reinforced each other and developed simultaneously. As more urban workers became dependent on food
grown by others, the potential profits of farming increased. Many of the technological
developments and inventions were applied to farm machinery, which in turn enabled farmers to
produce more food more cheaply for urban workers.

**Unions**—the growth of the factory system was accompanied by the growth of the corporate form
of business ownership, which in turn further separated the owners from the workers. One result
was the organization of worker groups to fight for benefits. The influx of immigrants who were
willing to work for low wages helped to spur the drive for unions, and in turn their numbers
helped to weaken the bargaining powers of union members.

**New Market Economy**—these developments not only made large-scale production possible—
they also shifted the major emphasis from corn to small grain production, and made farming for
the international market feasible, which in turn made the western farmer dependent on economic
forces over which he had no control. This dependence produced the rising demand for
government provision of free land and the agricultural colleges which later were provided by the
Homestead and Morrill bills during the Civil War.

**Planter Class**—owners of large farms who also owned 50 or more slaves were a small minority
of the southern population. ¾ of white southerners owned no slaves. But the minority of slave
owners exercised political and economic power far beyond what their numbers would indicate.
They became a class to which all others paid deference, and they dominated the political and
social life of their region.

**Yeoman farmers**—the largest group of southern whites was the independent small farmers who
worked their land with their family. Their major crop was corn.

**Slavery**—as the necessary concomitant of this expanding plantation system, the “peculiar
institution” of black slavery fastened itself upon the southern people, even as it isolated them
from the rest of the world.

The utilization of slave labor varied according to the region and the size of the growing unit. The
large plantations growing cotton, sugar, and tobacco used the gang system, in which white
overseers directed black drivers, who supervised large groups of workers in the field, all
performing the same operation. On smaller farms slaves were given specific tasks.

In southern cities, slaves lived fairly independent lives and many were able to purchase their
freedom. As the 19th century progressed, these people were increasingly seen as a bad model and
a threat to the institution, and so urban slavery practically disappeared.

The most significant demographic shift in these decades was the movement of blacks from the
Old South to the new Southwest. Although the importation of slaves had been outlawed in 1808,
they continued to be smuggled in until the 1850s. the import ban kept the price and encouraged
the continuation of internal trade.

Harsh slave codes were comprehensive in their restriction of individual freedom, but they were
unevenly applied. Many refused to work hard or found ways to sabotage machinery or crops.
There was an underground system of ridicule toward the masters.

Violent reaction to repression was not uncommon. Gabriel Prosser, Denmark Vesey, and Nat
Turner all plotted or led uprisings of blacks. Rumors of such uprisings kept whites in a state of
constant apprehension. Many tried to run away, many with the help of the Underground Railroad.
A rich culture was developed within the confines of the system, and included distinctive patterns of language, music, and religion.

**Southern Economy/Manufacturing**—the southern states saw considerable development in the 1820s and 1830s in textiles and iron production and in flour milling. Even so, most of the goods made at these plants were for plantation consumption or export. The businessmen of the south worked primarily with the needs and products of the plantation and the factors of New Orleans and Charleston had to serve as bankers and insurance brokers as well as the agents for the planters. An organized network of commerce never developed in the south. Because most of the planter's capital was tied up in land and slaves, there was little left to invest in commerce or manufacturing.

James B.D. DeBow—advocated commercial development and agricultural diversification.

Nat Turner—revolted in 1832. The effect of his action was a debate in the Virginia legislature that squelched any move towards emancipation.

Gag rule—forbade any discussion on the question of slavery on the floor of the House. Remained in effect until 1844.

Concurrent majority—an idea created by Calhoun. He advocated a dual presidency that would ensure a south independent of northern dominance, and forever keep majority rule at bay.

Adams-Onis Treaty—set the northern boundary of Spanish possessions near the present border of CA. created in 1819.

Oregon—occupied jointly by Britain and the US since 1818. In the 1830s American missionaries followed the traders and trappers to Oregon country, and began to publicize the richness and beauty of the land. The result was “Oregon Fever” of the 1840s. Its statehood was a major topic in the election of 1844. Democrats called for complete US ownership. However, Polk had little desire to fight Britain for land that he considered unsuitable for agriculture and slavery.

Oregon Treaty—the existing US-Canada border east of the Rockies was extended westward, thus securing Puget Sound and the shared use of the Strait of Juan de Fuca for the US. 1846.

Texas—Texas had been a state in the Republic of Mexico since 1822, following the Mexican revolution against Spanish control. The US had offered to buy the territory at the time, since it had renounced its claim to the area in the Adams-Onis agreement of 1819. The new Mexican government refused to sell, but began to invite immigration from the north by offering land grants to Americans. They needed to increase the population of the area and to produce revenue for the government. The Americans responded in great numbers. The Mexican officials saw their power base eroding as the foreigners flooded in, and so they moved to tighten control, through restrictions on new immigration, and through tax increases. The Texans responded in 1836 by proclaiming independence and establishing a new republic. The Mexican dictator Santa Anna annihilated the Texan garrisons at the Alamo and at Goliad. He was later defeated at Sa Jacinto. Houston immediately asked the American government for recognition and annexation, but Jackson feared the revival of the slavery issue and war with Mexico, so he did nothing. When Van Buren followed suit, the new republic sought foreign recognition and support, which European nations provided, hoping to create a counterbalance to rising American power and
influence in the southwest. To excite American jealousy, Texas president Sam Houston made a
show of negotiating for closer relations with GB. Southerners feared that Britain, which opposed
slavery, would bring about its abolition in TX and use it as a base from which to undermine
slavery in the American south.
Calhoun negotiated an annexation treaty with TX, which was rejected.
New Mexico—had encouraged American immigration. American settlements sprung up around
the Santa Fe trail.
California—traders and whalers, then merchants, arrived to set up stores and developed a brisk
trade. Since the MI Compromise had established the northern limits for slavery at the 36 30
parallel, most of this territory lay in the potential slave-holding domain, and many of the settlers
had carried their bondsmen with them.
Tyler—took over after Harrison’s death. He rejected the entire Whig program of a national bank,
high protective tariffs, and federally funded internal improvements. He was officially expelled
from the party and made the target of the first serious impeachment attempt. In opposition to
Tyler over the next few years, the Whigs, under the leadership of Clay, transformed themselves
from a loose grouping of diverse factions to a coherent political party with an elaborate
organization.
Preemption Act—allowed settlers who had squatted on unsurveyed federal lands first chance to
buy the land once it was put on the market.
Webster-Ashburton Treaty—conflicting claims along the Canada-Maine boundary were
compromised. The British expressed regret for destruction of the Caroline, an American ship that
had carried supplies to Canadian rebels. The British promised to avoid “officious interference” in
freeing slaves. Both countries agreed to cooperate in patrolling the African coast to prevent slave
smuggling. Helped to create an atmosphere of compromise in British-US relations.
Polk—supported annexation of TX and OR. He was a staunch Jacksonian who opposed
protective tariffs and a national bank. He also opposed the national debt and reestablished Van
Buren’s Independent Sub-Treasury system.
Walker Tariff—a low, revenue-only tariff to avoid former protective tariffs.
Mexican War (causes)—for some time American interest had been growing in the far western
lands then held by Mexico. Since the 1820s Americans had been trading with Santa Fe and other
Mexican settlements on the Rio Grande and the Santa Fe Trail. This trade aroused American
interest in the area. American trappers had explored the mountains of the Far West, opening new
trails and discovering fertile lands. At the same time whaling ships had carried on a thriving trade
with the Mexican settlements on the coast of CA. Beginning in 1841, American settlers came
over land to CA by means of the CA Trail.
The steady flow of American pioneers into Mexican-held areas of the Far West led to conflicting
territorial desires and was thus an underlying cause of the Mexican war. Other causes were:
Mexico’s ineffective government was unable to protect the lives and property of American
citizens in Mexico during the country’s frequent and recurring revolutions and repeatedly
deprecated to pay American claims for damages.
Mexico had not reconciled itself to the loss of TX and considered its annexation a hostile act.
The southern boundary of TX was disputed. Mexican suspicions had been aroused regarding US designs on CA when, in 1842, a US naval force under Thomas Catsby Jones had seized the province in the mistaken belief that war had broken out between the US and Mexico. Mexican politicians had so inflamed the Mexican people against the US that no Mexican leader could afford to take the risk of appearing to make concessions to the US for fear of being overthrown. Though Mexico broke diplomatic ties with the US as soon as TX’s admission to the Union, there still seemed to be some hope of a peaceful settlement. In the fall of 1845 Polk sent John Slidell to Mexico City with a proposal for a peaceful settlement of the differences between the 2 countries. Slidell was empowered to cancel the damage claims and pay $5 million for the disputed land in southern TX. Nothing came from these attempts at negotiation. Polk then sent troops into the disputed region.

The Mexican War—Americans were sharply divided about the war. Some favored it because they felt Mexico had provoked the war or because they felt it was the destiny of America to spread the blessings of freedom to oppressed people. Others opposed the war. Some, primarily Polk’s political enemies the Whigs, accused the president of having provoked it. Others, generally northern abolitionists, saw in the war the work of a vast conspiracy of Southern slaveholders greedy for more territory.

Bear Flag Revolt—American settlers in CA, aided by an army exploring party under Fremont, revolted against Mexico. The conquest of CA was completed by the Battle of San Gabriel. Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo—ended the Mexican war. Mexico ceded to the US territory Polk had originally sought to buy for the payment of $15 million and the assumption of $3.25 million in American citizen’s claims against the Mexican government. Many, including Polk, felt that the treaty was too generous. The war brought to the surface serious political issues that threatened to divide the country, particularly the question of slavery in the new territories.

Sectional Conflict and the Causes of the Civil War (1850-1860)

Wilmot Proviso—stipulated that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude would exist in territory acquired from Mexico. It aroused intense sectional feelings. Southerners, who had supported the war, felt that they were being treated unfairly. Northerners felt they saw their worst suspicions confirmed by southerners’ furious opposition to the Proviso.

Popular Sovereignty—created by Cass and Douglas. It held that residents of each territory should be permitted to decide for themselves whether or not to allow slavery.

Conscience Whigs—formed during the election of 1848. Their party was called the Free Soil Party, since it stood for keeping the soil of new western territories free of slavery.

Compromise of 1850—President Taylor opposed the further spread of slavery. Hoping to sidestep the dangerously divisive issue of slavery in the territories, he encouraged CA as well as the rest of the Mexican Cession to organize and seek admission directly as states, bypassing the territorial stage. This made southerners furious because they saw it as a backdoor implementation
of the Wilmot Proviso. They were also growing increasingly alarmed at what was becoming the minority status of their section within the country. Henry Clay attempted to compromise the various matters of contention between north and south. He proposed an 8 part package deal that he hoped would appeal to both sides.

For the north, the package contained these aspects: CA would be admitted as a free state; the land dispute between TX and NM would go to NM; NM and UT territories would not be specifically reserved for slavery, but its status there would be decided by popular sovereignty; and the slave trade would be abolished in DC. For the south, the package had: a tougher Fugitive Slave Act; the federal government would pay TXs’ pre-annexation debt; Congress would declare that it did not have jurisdiction over the interstate slave trade; and Congress would promise not to abolish slavery itself in DC.

The opponents of the Compromise were many and powerful and ranged from President Taylor, who demanded the admission of CA without reference to slavery, to Northern extremists who didn’t want to risk the spread of slavery. Pierce and “Young America”—Americans turned their attention to railroads, cotton, clipper ships, and commerce. President Pierce expressed the nation’s hope that a new era of sectional peace was beginning. He sought to distract the nation’s attention from the slavery issue to an aggressive program of foreign economic and territorial expansion called “Young America”

Reciprocity Treaty—opened Canada to US trade
Gadsden Purchase—a strip of land along the Gila River. The purpose of this purchase was to provide a good route for a trans-continental railroad across the southern part of the country.
Ostend Manifesto—urged military seizure of Cuba should Spain refuse to sell it to the US.
American/Know-Nothing Party—grew out of alarm on the part of native-born Americans and the rising tide of German and Irish immigration during the late 1840s and early 1850s. They were anti-foreign and anti-Catholic. It surged briefly to be the country’s second-largest party by 1855 but faded due to the ineptness of its leaders and the growing urgency of the slavery question, which was coming to overshadow other issues. Led to the collapse of the 2 party system.
Fugitive Slave Law—enraged northerners. Under its provisions blacks living in the North and claimed by slave catchers were denied trial and many other protections. All US citizens were required to aid in the capture and return of escaped slaves. Several riots erupted as a result of the attempts to enforce it. Many northerners who had not previously taken an interest in the slavery issue now became opponents of slavery as a result of having its injustices forced on them. Southerners saw northern resistance to the law as proof that the north was determined to tamper with the institution of slavery.
Kansas-Nebraska Act—Douglas hoped that organizing the territories of Kansas and Nebraska would facilitate the building of a trans-continental railroad on a central route. He was asked to include in his bill an explicit repeal of the MI Compromise and a provision that the status of slavery would be decided by popular sovereignty. The bill was opposed by most northern democrats and a majority of the remaining Whigs.

It aroused opposition in the north, where the rejection of the MI Compromise was seen as a breaking of a solemn agreement. It hastened the disintegration of the Whig Party and divided the
Democratic party. In the north, many democrats left the party and were joined by former Whigs and Know-Nothings in the Republican party. The new party included diverse elements whose sole unifying principle was the firm belief that slavery should be banned from all the nation’s territories, confined to the states where it already existed, and allowed to spread no further.

**Bleeding Kansas**—north and south began competing to see which could send the greatest number to swing the Kansas elections. Northerners formed the New England Emigrant Aid Company to promote the settling of anti-slavery men in Kansas, and Southerners responded. Despite these efforts the majority of Kansas settlers were Midwesterners who were generally opposed to the spread of slavery but were more concerned with finding good farmland than deciding the national debate over slavery.

Despite this large anti-slavery majority, large-scale election fraud, especially on the part of the “border ruffians” who crossed into Kansas on election day to vote, a pro-slavery government was created. Free-soil Kansans responded by denouncing the pro-slavery government as illegitimate and forming their own free soil government. Kansas now had two rival governments, each claiming to be the only lawful one.

Both sides began arming themselves and soon the territory was being referred to as “Bleeding Kansas” as full-scale war erupted.

**Dred Scott**—the justices were initially inclined to believe that Scott, as a slave, was not a citizen and could not sue in court. Buchanan, however, urged the justices to go further and attempt to settle the whole slavery issue once and for all, thus removing it from the realm of politics. Under the guidance of conservative judge Taney, the court attempted to read the extreme southern position on slavery into the Constitution, ruling not only that Scott had no standing to sue in federal court, but also that temporary residence in a free state did not make a slave free, and that the MI Compromise had been unconstitutional all along because Congress did not have the authority to exclude slavery from any territory whatsoever. Nor did territorial governments, which were considered to receive their power from Congress, have the right to prohibit slavery. The Dred Scott only made the slavery debate worse. Southerners were encouraged to take an extreme position and refuse compromise, while anti-slavery northerners became more convinced than ever that there was a pro-slavery conspiracy controlling all branches of government, and expressed an unwillingness to accept the Court’s dictate as final.

**Lecompton Constitution**—created by the pro-slavery government in Kansas. It allowed slavery. To obtain a pretense of popular approval for this constitution the convention provided for a referendum in which the voters were to be given a choice only to prohibit the entry of additional slaves into the state. Free-soilers boycotted the referendum, and the result was a constitution that put no restrictions on slavery.

Eager to appease the south, and equally eager to suppress anti-slavery agitation in the north, Buchanan backed the constitution. Kansas voters later turned down the constitution, choosing to remain a territory rather than become a slave state.

**Panic of 1857**—several years of overspeculation in railroads and lands, faulty banking practices, and an interruption in the flow of European capital into American investments as a result of the Crimean war were the primary causes of the panic. The north blamed the panic on low tariffs,
while the south saw it as proof of the superiority of the southern economy in general and slavery in particular.

**Freeport Doctrine**—Douglas’ response to Lincoln’s challenge to reconcile the Dred Scott decision with popular sovereignty. He claimed that people of any territory could exclude slavery simply by declining to pass any of the special laws that slave jurisdictions usually passed for their protection. This doctrine hardened the opposition of southerners already angered by his anti-Lecompton stand.

**John Brown’s Raid**—October 16, 1859, John Brown led 18 followers in seizing the federal arsenal at Harper’s Ferry, taking hostages, and endeavoring to incite a slave uprising. Brown, supported and bankrolled by several prominent Northern abolitionists, planned to arm local slaves and then spread his uprising across the south. The north considered him a martyr and increased fear in the south.

**Secession Crisis**—Lincoln had declared that he would not hurt slavery where it already existed, but many southerners didn’t believe him. They also feared further raids and their pride felt injured by the election of a president for whom no southern state had voted. On December 20, 1860, South Carolina declared itself out of the union. Other states followed. Representatives of the seceded states met in Montgomery in Feb 1861 and declared themselves to be the Confederate States of America. They elected Jefferson Davis as president. They also adopted their own constitution which specifically recognized slavery and the right to move slaves from one state to another was guaranteed. Protective tariffs were prohibited, the president was to serve for a single 6 year term, the president was given the right to veto individual items within an appropriations bill, and state sovereignty was recognized.

**The Civil War and Reconstruction (1860-1877)**

**North**—the north had a predominance of the wealth and was thus better able to finance the war. It was vastly superior in industry and thus capable of producing the needed war materials. Had the advantage of 3-1 manpower and received large amounts of immigrants during the war. They retained control of the Navy and had a superior system of railroads. The union armies were not as well structured and led by inferior generals.

**South**—a primarily agricultural society. Over 1/3 of their population was slaves, who they would not use as soldiers. The south was vast in size, making it difficult to conquer, and needed only to defend itself. Its troops would also be fighting on their own ground.

**Bull Run**—the Union was forced to retreat. It demonstrated the unpreparedness and inexperience of both sides and that the war would be long and hard and that greater efforts would be required.

**Anaconda Plan**—created by Winfield Scott and designed to squeeze the life out of the confederacy by instituting a naval blockade and stopping trade with Europe, a campaign to take the Mississippi river, thereby splitting the south in 2, and the taking of several strategic points then waiting for pro-Union sentiment in the south to overthrow the secessionists.

**The Home Front**—the war on the home front dealt with the problems of maintaining public morale, supplying the armies of the held, and resolving constitutional questions regarding authority and the ability of the representative governments to deal with crises.
Keeping the people happy was made more difficult by the imposing of conscription in order to obtain adequate manpower for the huge armies that would be needed to crush the South. Especially hated by many working class Northerners was the provision of the conscription act that allowed a drafted individual to avoid service by a hiring a substitute or paying. In the South, some people objected to conscription on the grounds of state’s rights. A provision of the southern conscription act allowing one man to stay home as overseer for every 20 slaves led the none slave holding whites who made up most of the southern population to grumble that they were suffering unfair treatment.

To finance the northern part of the war, high tariffs and an income tax were resorted to. In the south, excise and income taxes were levied and some small loans were obtained in Europe, yet the southern congress still felt compelled to issue paper money in such quantities that it became virtually worthless. That, and the scarcity of almost everything created by the war and its disruption of the economy, led to high prices. The confederate government responded to the inflation it created by imposing taxes and impressment, the seizing of livestock, and produce, etc. by Confederate agents in return for payment according to an artificially set schedule of prices. Since payment was in worthless inflated currency, this amounted to confiscation and soon resulted in goods of all sorts becoming even scarcer than otherwise when a Confederate impressment agent was known to be in the neighborhood.

To deal with the emergency of succession, Lincoln stretched the presidential powers to the limit. To quell the threat of secession of Maryland, he suspended the writ of habeas corpus and imprisoned numerous suspected secessionists without charges or trial. “Greenbacks”—an unbacked flat currency that fared better than the southern paper money because of greater confidence in Northern victory.

- **National Banking Act**—created to facilitate the financing of the war through credit expansion. Passed in 1863.
- **Homestead Act**—granted 160 acres of government land free of charge to any person who would farm it for at least 5 years.
- **Morrill Land Grant Act**—offered large amounts of the federal government’s land to states that would establish “agricultural and mechanical” colleges. Many of the nation’s large state universities were founded in later years under the provisions of this act.
- **Copperheads**—northerners who opposed the war and denounced Lincoln as a tyrant. They remained in the minority.
- **Emancipation Proclamation**—by mid-1862, Lincoln, under pressure from radical elements of his own party and hoping to create a favorable impression of foreign public opinion, determined to issue the Emancipation Proclamation. It declared as free slaves in areas that were rebelling. It was announced after the northern victory at the Battle of Antietam.
- **Freedman’s Bureau**—provided food, clothing, and education, and generally looked after the interests of former slaves.
- **Ten Percent Plan**—stipulated that southerners, except for high-ranking rebel officials, could take an oath promising future loyalty to the union and acceptance of the end of slavery. When the number of those who had taken this oath within any one state reached 10% of the number who
had registered to vote in 1860, a loyal state government could be formed. Only those who had taken the oath could vote or participate in the new government. **Radical Republicans**—believed that Lincoln’s plan did not adequately punish the south, restructure Southern society, and boost the political prospects of the Republican party. **Wade-Davis Bill**—a majority of the number who had been alive and registered to vote in 1860 would have to swear an oath stating that they were now loyal and had never been disloyal. Created by the Radical Republicans in congress. **Johnson**—followed Lincoln’s policies very carefully. Made states accept the 13th amendment, repudiation of confederate debts, and renunciations of secession. He also recommended that the vote be given to blacks. He vetoed the Civil Rights Act and an extension of the Freedman’s Bureau, claiming that they were unconstitutional. **Black Codes**—imposed various restrictions on the freedom of former slaves **“Steward’s Folly”**—Steward purchased Alaska from Russia. It was urged that purchasing Alaska would reward the Russians for their friendly stance toward the US government during the Civil War. **14th Amendment**—defined citizenship and forbade states to deny various rights to citizens, reduced the representation in Congress of states that did not allow blacks to vote, forbade the paying of confederate debt, and made former Confederates ineligible to hold public office. **Military Reconstruction Act**—divided the south into 5 military districts to be ruled by military governors with almost dictatorial powers. **Army Act**—reduced the president’s control of the army. **Tenure of Office Act**—forbid Johnson to dismiss Cabinet members without the Senate’s permission. **Radical Reconstruction**—platform created by Radical Republicans at the 1868 election. **carpetbaggers**—northerners who came to the south to participate in Reconstruction governments **scalawags**—southerners who supported Reconstruction **Grant**—former union general who became president. His administration was rocked by many scandals. Most of the economic problems the country faced during Grant’s administration were caused by the necessary readjustments from a wartime back to a peacetime economy. The central economic question was deflation versus inflation, or whether to retire the unbacked paper money printed to meet wartime needs, to print more. Economic conservatives, creditors, and business interests generally favored retirement of the greenbacks and an early return to the gold standard. Debtors, who had looked forward to paying off their obligations in depreciated paper money, favored a continuation of currency inflation through the use of more greenbacks. Grant’s policy was to let the Greenbacks float until they were on par with gold and could then be retired without economic dislocation. **“Black Friday” Scandal**—Jim Fiske and Jay Gould schemed to corner the gold market. To further their design, they got Grant’s brother in law to persuade the president that stopping government gold sales would be good for farmers. Many businessmen were ruined as the price of gold was bid up.
Credit Mobilier Scandal—officials at the Union Pacific Railroad used a dummy construction company to skim off millions of dollars of the subsidies the government was paying the Union Pacific for building a transcontinental railroad.

The “Salary Grab Act”—congress voted a 100% pay raise for the president and 50% raise for itself and made both retroactive 2 years.

Panic of 1873—brought on by the overexpansive tendencies of railroad builders and businessmen during the immediate post war boom and triggered by economic downturns in Europe and the failure of Jay Cooke and Company, a major American financial firm. The financial hardship brought on by the Panic led to a clamor for the printing of more greenbacks.

Whiskey Ring Fraud—distillers and treasury officials conspired to defraud the government of large amounts of money from the excise tax on whiskey.

Liberal Republicans—discontentment within republican ranks with regard to some of the earlier scandals as well as with the Radicals’ vindictive Reconstruction policies led a faction of the party to separate and constitute itself as the Liberal Republicans. Besides opposing corruption and favoring sectional harmony, the Liberal Republicans favored hard money and a laissez-faire approach to economic issues.

Specie Resumption Act—called for the resumption of specie payments in 1879.

Compromise of 1877—Hayes promised to show consideration for Southern interests, end Reconstruction, and withdraw the remaining federal troops from the south in exchange for democratic acquiescence to his election.

Industrialism, War, and the Progressive Era (1877-1912)

Stalwarts—led by Roscoe Conkling. They favored the old system of political patronage.

Half Breeds—led by James Blaine. They pushed for civil service reform and merit appointments to government posts.

Pendleton Act—established open competitive examinations for civil service positions.

Greenback-Labor Party—tried to promote the inflation of farm prices and the cooperative marketing of agricultural produce. They advocated public regulation and control of private enterprises such as railroads in the common interest of more equitable competition.

New South—by 1880, Northern capital erected the modern textile industry in the New South by bringing factories to the cotton fields.

Social Darwinism—many industrial leaders used the doctrines associated with the “Gospel of Wealth” to justify the unequal distribution of natural wealth. Self-justification by the wealthy was based on the notion that God had granted wealth as he had given grace from material and spiritual salvation to a select few. These few, according to William Sumner, relied heavily on the survival of the fittest philosophy associated with Charles Darwin.

National Labor Union—had a membership of 600,000 but failed to withstand the impact of economic adversity.

Knights of Labor—managed to open its membership to not only white American workers, but immigrants, women, and African-Americans as well. They eventually went under in 1886 in the wake of the bloody Haymarket Riot in Chicago.
National Grange—during the Civil War, many farmers had over-expanded their operations, purchased more land and machinery, and gone heavily into debt. When the relatively high wartime agricultural prices collapsed in the decades after the war, farmers worked collectively to promote currency inflation, higher farm prices, silver and gold bimetallism, debt relief, cooperative farm marketing ventures, and regulation of monopolies and railroads by the federal and state governments. They called for the federal government to address their grievances.

Social Gospel—Jane Addams and Washington Gladden urged the creation of settlement houses and better health and education services to accommodate new immigrants. New religions also appeared, such as the Salvation Army and the Church of Christian Science.


Women’s Christian Temperance Movement—prohibitionist women’s political organization.

New imperialism—aimed at finding markets for surplus industrial production, access to needed raw materials, and opportunities for overseas investment during a time of domestic economic depression. The US preferred market expansion without the political liability of military occupation.

Pan Americanism—James Blain advocated the creation of an International Bureau of American Republics to promote a customs union of trade and political stability for the Western Hemisphere. The Bureau evolved into the Pan American Union in 1910 and the Organization of American States in 1948. Blaine opposed US military intervention in the hemisphere. He was concerned with international trade, political stability, and excessive militarism in Latin America.

Interoceanic Canal Commission—recommended a Nicaraguan route for a canal to link the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

Mugwumps—Independent Republicans who supported civil service reform.

Interstate Commerce Act—popular resentment of railroad abuses such as price fixing, kickbacks, and discriminatory freight rates created demands for state regulation of the railway industry. The act was passed to oversee fair and just railway rates, prohibit rebates, end discriminatory practices, and require annual reports and financial statements.

American Federation of Labor—confronted by big business, Samuel Gompers and Adolph Strasser put together a combination of national craft unions to represent the material interests of labor in the matter of wages, hours, and safety conditions. The federation’s philosophy was pragmatic and not directly influenced by the dogmatic Marxism of European labor movements. Although militant in its use of the strike and its demand for collective bargaining in labor contracts with large corporations, it did not intend violent revolution or political radicalism.

Scientific Management—Frederick Taylor introduced modern concepts of industrial engineering, plant management, and time and motion studies. This gave rise to efficiency experts and a separate class of managers in industrial manufacturing. Workers felt that it robbed them of their autonomy.

Joseph Pulitzer—first publisher to reach a mass audience selling New York World.

Literary Realism—novelists explored social problems such as crime and political corruption, urban ghetto life, class conflict, and the environment.
Force Bill—senate objections kept congress from protecting African-American voters in the south through federal supervision of state elections

Dependent Pensions Act—congress granted service pensions to Union veterans and their dependents for the first time

Sherman Anti-Trust Act—corporate monopolies which controlled whole industries were subject to federal prosecution if they were found to be combinations or conspiracies in restraint of trade. Although supported by smaller businesses, labor unions, and farm associations, the Sherman Anti-Trust Act was in time interpreted by the Supreme Court to apply to labor unions and farmer’s corporatives as much as large corporations.

Sherman Silver Purchase Act—Pro-silver interests passed legislation authorizing Congress to buy 4.5 million ounces of silver each month at market prices, and issue Treasury notes redeemable in gold and silver. This act created inflation and lowered gold reserves. After the economic panic of 1893, Cleveland tried to limit the outflow of gold reserves by asking Congress to repeal the Act which had provided for notes redemptive in either gold or silver. The democratic party split over the issue.

McKinley Tariff—this compromise protective tariff promised by the republicans in 1888, and introduced by William McKinley was passed and extended to industrial and agricultural goods. The act also included reciprocal trade provisions that allowed the president to retaliate against nations that discriminated against US products, and reward states that opened their markets to American goods. Subsequent price increases led to a popular backlash.

Dwight Moody—introduced Urban revivalism comparable to earlier rural movements among Protestants denominations.

Mahan—argued that control of the seas was the means to world power.

Populist Party—called for the enactment of a program espoused by agrarians, but also for a coalition with urban workers and the middle class. Specific goals were the coinage of silver to gold at a ratio of 16 to 1; federal loans to farmers; a graduated income tax; postal savings banks; public ownership of railroads, telephone and telegraph systems; prohibition of alien land ownership; immigration restriction; a ban on private armies used by corporations to break up strikes; a 8-hour workday; a single 6 year term for president, and direct election of senators; the right of initiative and referendum; and the use of a secret ballot. They wanted to reform the system from within, creating a fairer distribution of wealth.

William Jennings Bryan—the democratic and populist nominee in the election of 1896. He ran on a platform of free coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1; condemnation of monopolies, protective tariffs and anti-union court injunctions; criticism of the Supreme Court’s removal of a graduated income tax from the Wilson-Gorman tariff bill. He delivered a famous speech in which he said people must not be “crucified on a cross of gold.”

Homestead Strike—iron and steel workers went on strike in PN against the Carnegie Steel Company to protest salary reductions. He employed strike-breaking Pinkerton security guards.

Depression of 1893—the primary causes were the dramatic growth of the federal deficit; withdrawal of british investments from the American market and the outward transfer of gold; loss of business confidence. 20% of the workforce was eventually unemployed.
March of the Unemployed—Jacob Coxey led a march on Washington of hundreds of unemployed workers asking for government worker relief programs. The leaders were arrested.

Pullman Strike—Eugene Debs’ American Railway Union struck the Pullman Palace Car Co. in Chicago over wage cuts and job losses. Cleveland broke the strike with the use of federal troops.

Wilson-Gorman Tariff—this protective tariff did little to promote overseas trade as a way to ease the depression. A provision amended to create a gradual income tax was struck down by the Supreme Court.

Dingley Tariff—raised protection to new highs for certain commodities.

Anti-Saloon League—formed in 1893. Women were especially concerned about the increase of drunkenness during the depression.

William Stead—predicted that America productivity and economic strength would propel the US to the forefront of world leadership in the 20th century.

The economy 1897-1902—war with Spain provided the impetus for economic recovery. President Roosevelt promised a “square deal” for all American farmers, workers, consumers, and businessmen. Progressive economic reform was geared to the rejuvenation of free enterprise capitalism following the 1893 depression, and the destruction of illegal monopolies.

War with Spain (1898)—eastern and midwestern cities tended to favor the war and benefit from it. northeastern financial centers were more cautious about war until March 1898, and questioned the financial gains of wartime production at the expense of peacetime expansion and product/market development.

Loss of markets, threats to Americans in Cuba, and the inability of both Spain and Cuba to resolve the Cuban revolution either by force or diplomacy led to McKinley’s request of Congress for a declaration of war. On March 27, McKinley asked Spain to call an armistice, accept American mediation to end the war, and end the use of concentration camps in Cuba. When Spain refused to comply, McKinley asked Congress to declare war. The objective of war was to establish Cuban independence.

The US military was not prepared for a large-scale confrontation. Many people died from disease.

After the US defeated Spain, it was faced with the issue of what to do with its captured territories. A major public debate ensued with critics of land acquisition forming the Anti-Imperialist League. Many people in both camps favored US economic expansion, but had difficulty with the idea that a democracy would actually accept colonies and overseas armies of occupations.

Treaty of Paris—secured Cuban independence, the ceding of the Philippines, Puerto Rico and Guam to the US, and the payment of $20 million to Spain for the Philippines.

Federal Bankruptcy Act—provided for mediation by the chair of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the commissioner of the Bureau of Labor in unresolved railroad labor controversies.

Currency Act—The US standardized the amount of gold in the dollar. A separate gold reserve was set apart from other general funds, and government bonds were sold to maintain the reserve.
DeLome Letter and USS Maine—Spanish minister de Lome criticized McKinley. Shortly afterward the ship the USS Maine exploded in Havana harbor. The popular demand for war with Spain grew significantly.

John Hay—called for an open door policy with China.

Platt Amendment—provided that Cuba become a virtual protectorate of the US. Cuba could not make with a foreign state impairing its independence or contract an excessive public debt. It was required to allow the US to preserve order on the island and lease a naval base for 99 years.

Hay-Pauncefote Treaty—abrogated an earlier agreement to build jointly an isthmian canal. The US was free unilaterally to construct, fortify, and maintain a canal that would be open to all ships.

Insular Case—the supreme court decided that constitutional rights did not extend to territorial possessions. Congress had the right to administer each island possession without constitutional restraint. Inhabitants of those possessions did have the same rights as American citizens.

Roosevelt—did much to create a bipartisan coalition of liberal reformers whose objective was to restrain corporate monopoly and promote economic competition at home and abroad. He won the support of enlightened business leaders, the middle class, consumers, and urban and rural workers with his promise of a “square deal” for all.

Roosevelt’s anti-trust policy—pledged strict enforcement of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act to break up illegal monopolies and regulate large corporations for the public good through honest federal government administration.

Hepburn Act—membership of the Interstate Commerce Commission was increased from 5 to 7. The ICC could set its own freight rates, had its regulatory power extended over pipelines, bridges, and express companies, and was empowered to require a uniform system of accounting by regulated transportation companies. This act and the Elkins Act gave teeth to the original interstate Commerce Act of 1887.

Pure Food and Drug Act—prohibited the manufacture, sale, and transportation of adulterated or poorly labeled foods and drugs in accordance with consumer demands.

Meat Inspection Act—provided for federal and sanitary regulations and inspections in meat packing facilities. Inspired by Upton Sinclair’s the Jungle.

Immunity of Witness Act—corporate officials could no longer make a plea of immunity to avoid testifying in cases dealing with their corporation’s illegal activities.

Department of Commerce and Labor—a new cabinet position was created to address the concerns of business and labor. Within the department, the Bureau of Corporations was empowered to investigate and report on the illegal activities of corporations.

Coal Strike—roosevelt interceded with government mediation to bring about negotiations between the United Mine Workers union and the anthracite mine owners after a bitter strike over wages, safety conditions and union recognition. This was the first time that the government intervened in a labor dispute without automatically siding with management.

Panic of 1907—occurred partially as a result of questionable bank speculation, a lack of flexible monetary and credit policies, and a conservative gold standard. This event called attention to the need for banking reform which would lead to the Federal Reserve System in 1913.
Panama Canal—roosevelt used executive power to engineer the separation of Panama from Columbia, and the recognition of Panama as a independent country. The Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty of 1903 granted the US control of the canal zone in Panama.

Roosevelt Corollary—the US reserved the right to intervene in the internal affairs of Latin American nations to keep European powers from using military force to collect debts in the western hemisphere.

Rio de Janeiro Conference—Elihu Root attempted to de-emphasize US military and political intervention in order to promote political goodwill, economic development, trade, and finances in Latin America. Roosevelt was moving away from the “big stick” policy and towards “dollar diplomacy.”

Taft-Katsura Memo—the US and Japan pledged to maintain the Open Door principles in China. Japan recognized American control over the Philippines and the US granted a Japanese protectorate over Korea.

Gentlemen’s Agreement—after numerous incidents of racial discrimination against Japanese in CA, Japan agreed to limit the emigration of unskilled Japanese workers to the US.

Great White Fleet—in order to show American strength to Japan and China, Roosevelt sent the great white naval fleet to Asian ports.

Taft—tried to continue Roosevelt’s trust busting policies and reconcile the old guard conservatives and young progressive reformers in the Republican Party. He was largely unable to heal the party over such rifts as tariff reform, conservation, and the almost dictatorial power held by the reactionary Republican speaker, Joseph Cannon.

Anti-Cannon Crusade—in 1910, republican progressives joined with Democrats to strip Speaker Cannon of his power to appoint the Committee on Rules and serve on it himself. Critical of Cannon, Taft failed to align himself with the progressives.

Ballinger-Pinchot Dispute—progressives backed Pinchot, chief of the US Forest Service, in his charge that the conservative Secretary of the Interior, Ballinger, was giving away the nation’s natural resources to private cooperate interests. A congressional investigatory committee found that Ballinger had done nothing illegal, but did act in a manner contrary to the government’s environmental policies. Taft supported Ballinger through the controversy.

16th Amendment—created a graduated income tax.

Mann-Elins Act—extended the regulatory function of the Interstate Commerce Commission over cable and wireless companies, and telephone and telegraph lines; gave the ICC power to begin its own court proceedings and suspend questionable rates; and set up a separate but temporary commerce court to handle rate dispute cases.

Election of 1912—president Taft’s inability to maintain party harmony led Roosevelt to return to national politics. He and his supporters formed the Progressive Party.

New Nationalism—called for stricter regulation on large corporations, creation of a tariff commission, women’s suffrage, minimum wage benefits, direct election of senators, initiative, referendum and recall, presidential primaries, and prohibition of child labor. Roosevelt also called for a Federal Trade Commission to regulate the broader economy, a stronger executive, and more government planning.
New Freedom—Wilson’s campaign program. It was based on progressive programs similar to those in the progressive and republican parties. Wilson, however, did not agree with Roosevelt on the issue of big business. Wilson called for breaking up large corporations rather than just regulating them. He also favored independence for the Philippines, and the exemption from prosecution of labor unions under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. He supported lower tariffs, a graduated income tax, banking reform, and direct election of senators. He was skeptical of big business and big government.

Underwood Simmons Act—lowered tariffs. An income tax was also created

17th Amendment—direct election of senators

Federal Reserve Banking System—provided regulation and flexibility to monetary policy

Federal Trade Commission—investigated unfair business practices

Clayton Anti-Trust Act—improved on the Sherman Act and protected labor unions and farm cooperatives from prosecution

Keating-Owen Act—protected children in the work force

Federal Farm Loan Act—credit reform for agriculture

National Monetary Commission—recommended what later became the basis for the Federal Reserve System in 1913 with a secure Treasury reserve and branch banks to add and subtract currency from the monetary supply to accommodate the needs of the economy.

Payne-Aldrich Tariff—originally intended to lower the tariff, but turned into a protective measure by senate amendments. Progressive reformers felt betrayed by special interests opposed to consumer-price concerns.

Postal Savings Banks—certain US post offices were authorized to receive deposits and pay interest

Niagara Movement—founded by WEB DuBois. Called for federal legislation to protect racial equality, and full rights of citizenship.

International Workers of the World—promoted violence in revolution. It organized effective strikes in the textile industry in 1912, and among a few western mining groups, but generally had little appeal to the average American worker. After the Red Scare of 1919, the government worked to smash the IWW and deport many of its immigrant leaders and members.

Dollar Diplomacy—president Taft sought to avoid military intervention, especially in Latin America, by replacing “big stick” policies with “dollar diplomacy” in the expectation that American financial investments would encourage economic, social, and political stability. This idea proved an illusion as investments never really filtered though all levels of Latin American societies, nor did such investments generate democratic reforms.

Lodge Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine—when a Japanese syndicate moved to purchase large tracts of land in Mexico’s Lower CA, Lodge introduced a resolution to block the Japanese investment. The Corollary went further to exclude non-European powers from the western hemisphere under the Monroe Doctrine.

Bryan’s Arbitration Treaties—William Jennings Bryan continued the policies of Roosevelt and Taft to promote arbitration of disputes in Latin America and elsewhere.
Root-Takahira Agreement—reiterated the status quo in Asia established by the US and Japan by the Taft-Katsura Memo.

Wilson and World War I

Federal Reserve Act—following the Panic of 1907, it was generally agreed that there was need for more stability in the banking industry and for a currency supply which would expand and contract to meet business needs.

3 points of view on the subject developed. Most republicans backed the proposal of a commission for a large central bank controlled by private banks. Bryanite democrats, pointing to the Wall Street influence exposed by the 1913 Pujo Committee investigation of the money trust, wanted a reserve system and currency owned and controlled by the government. Conservative democrats favored a decentralized system privately owned and controlled but free from Wall Street.

The bill which passed was a compromise measure. The law divided the nation into 12 region with a Federal Reserve bank in each region. Commercial banks in the region owned the Federal Reserve bank by purchasing stock equal to 6% of their capital and surplus, and elected the directors of the bank. National banks were required to join the system, and state banks were invited to join. The Federal Reserve Banks held the gold reserves of their members. Federal Reserve Banks loaned money to member banks by rediscounting their commercial and agricultural paper, and the notes of indebtedness of businesses and farmers to the member banks were held as collateral. This allowed the Federal Reserve to control interest rates by raising or lowering the discount rate.

The money loaned to the member banks was in the form of a new currency, Federal Reserve Notes, which was backed 60% by commercial paper and 40% gold. This currency was designed to expand and contract with the volume of business activity and borrowing.

The Federal Reserve System serviced the financial needs of the federal government. The system was supervised and policy was set by a national Federal Reserve Board.

The Clayton Anti-Trust Act of 1914—this law supplemented and interpreted the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890. Under its provisions, stock ownership by a corporation in a competing was prohibited. Interlocking directories of competing corporations were prohibited. Price discrimination and exclusive contracts which reduced competition were prohibited. Officers of corporations could not be held personally responsible for violations of antitrust laws. Labor unions and agricultural organizations were not to be considered combinations or conspiracies in restraint of trade.

Federal Trade Commission Act of 1914—prohibited all unfair trade practices without defining them, and created a commission of Eve members appointed by the president. The commission was empowered to issue cease and desist orders to corporations to stop actions considered to be in restraint of trade, and to bring suit in the courts if the orders were not obeyed. Firms could also contest the orders in court.
Federal Farm Loan Act of 1916—divided the country into 12 regions and established a Federal Land Bank in each region. Funded primarily with federal money, the banks made farm mortgage loans at reasonable interest rates.

Child Labor Act of 1916—forbade shipment in interstate commerce of products whose production had involved the labor of children. The legislation was especially significant because it was the first time that Congress regulated labor within a state using the interstate commerce power.

Adamson Act of 1916—mandated an 8 hour day for workers on interstate railroads with time and a half for overtime and a maximum of 16 hours a shift.

Kerr-McGillicuddy Act of 1916—initiated a program of workman’s compensation for federal employees.

American Neutrality—when WWI broke out in Europe, Wilson issued a proclamation of neutrality. Despite that action, the US drifted towards closer ties with the Allies, especially Britain and France. While many Americans were sympathetic with the Central Powers, the majority hoped for an Allied victory. Although British naval power effectively prevented America trade with the Central Powers, the US limited itself to formal diplomatic protests. The US became a major supplier of Allied munitions, food, and raw materials.

Submarine Crisis of 1915—the Germans began the use of submarines in 1915, announced a submarine blockade of Allies, and began to attack unarmed British passenger ships in the Atlantic. Wilson insisted to the Germans that Americans had a right as neutrals to travel safely on such ships, and that international law required a war ship to arrange for the safe removal of passengers before attacking such a ship. After the sinking of the Arabic, the Germans gave the “Arabic pledge” to stop attacks on unarmed passenger ships.

Gore-McLemore Resolution—during the latter part of 1915 the British began to arm their merchant ships. Many Americans thought it in the interest of the US neutrality that Americans not travel on the vessels of belligerents. In 1916 the Gore-McLemore Resolution to prohibit American travel on armed ships or on ships carrying munitions was introduced in Congress, but was defeated in both houses.

Sussex Pledge—Germany agreed to cease surprise submarine attacks on shipping. Germany agreed, but threatened to resume submarine warfare if the British did not stop their violations of international law.

Declaration of War rationale—Wilson believed that the Zimmerman telegram showed that the Germans were not trustworthy and would eventually go to war against the US. He also felt that armed neutrality could not be adequately protect American shipping. The democratic government established in Russia after the revolution in March 1917 also proved more acceptable as an ally than the Tsarist government. He was convinced that the US could hasten the end of the war and insure for itself a major role in designing a lasting peace.

Council of National Defense—established in 1916 before American entry into the war to coordinate industrial mobilization, but it had little authority.

War Industries Board—controlled raw materials, production, prices, and labor relations. The military forces refused to cooperate with the civilian agency in purchasing their supplies. It
allocated raw materials, standardized manufactured products, instituted strict production and purchasing controls, and paid high prices to businesses for their products.

**Lever Act of 1917**—gave the president broad control over the production, price, and distribution of food and fuel.

**Food Administration**—fixed food prices to encourage production and encouraged food conservation.

**Fuel Administration**—concerned primarily with coal production and conservation because coal was the predominant fuel of the time and was in short supply during the winter of 1917-18. Conservation was encouraged.

**United States Railroad Administration**—took over and operated all the railroads in the nation as one system. The government paid the owners rent for the use of their lines, improved tracks and equipment, and made the railroad system more efficient.

**War Labor Board**—heard labor disputes, prohibited strikes, but also encouraged higher wages, the 8 hour day, and unionization.

**Revenue Act of 1918**—imposed a personal income tax of 6% on incomes up to $4000, and 12% on incomes above that amount.

**Committee on Public Information**—established a system of voluntary censorship of the press, and organized paid and volunteer writers, lecturers, artists, and other professionals in a propaganda campaign to build support for the America cause as an idealistic crusade, and to portray the Germans as hostile and beastial. The CPI set up volunteer Liberty Leagues in every community, and urged their members, and citizens at large, to spy on their neighbors, especially those with foreign names, and to report any suspicious words or actions to the justice department. As a result of the activities of the CPI and the vigilante groups, German language instruction and German music were banned in many areas.

**Espionage Act of 1917**—provided for fines and imprisonment for persons who made false statements which aided the enemy, incited rebellion in the military, or obstructed recruitment or the draft. Printed matter advocating treason or insurrection could be excluded from the mails.

**Sedition Act of 1918**—forbade any criticism of the government, flag, or uniform, even if there were not detrimental consequences, and expanded the mail exclusion.

**Prohibition**—proponents of prohibition stressed the need for military personnel to be sober and the need to conserve grain for food, and depicted the hated German as disgusting beer drinkers.

**14 Points**—from the time of the American entry into the war, Wilson had maintained that the war would make the world safe for democracy. He insisted that there should be peace without victory. The first 5 points called for open rather than secret peace treaties, freedom of the seas, free trade, arms reduction, and a fair adjustment of colonial claims. The next 8 points were concerned with the national aspirations of various European peoples and the adjustment of boundaries. The 14th point called for an association of nations to preserve the peace. In the US, many people opposed the peace plan that risked American involvement in another European war.

**Versailles Treaty**—the League of Nations was formed, implementing the point which Wilson considered the most important. Germany was held responsible for causing the war, and required to agree to pay the Allies for all civilian damage and veterans’ costs; the German army and navy
were limited to tiny defensive forces; and the Rhine bank was declared a military free zone forever and occupied by the French for 15 years. New nations were formed based on the idea of self-determination for all nationalities. German colonies were made mandates of the League of Nations.

In the senate, a group of republican ‘irreconcilables’ thought that the US should not be a member of the League of Nations under any circumstance. Other groups were willing to accept the treaty with some changes. The main objection centered on section X. The leader of the opposition was Henry Cabot Lodge.

Demobilization—members of the armed forces were rapidly discharged. Congress provided for wounded veterans through a system of veteran’s hospitals under the Veteran’s Bureau, and funded relief, especially food supplies, for Europe. The wartime agencies for the control of the economy were soon disbanded.

**Esch-Cummings Act of 1920**—returned the railroads to private ownership and operation. It did extend Interstate Commerce Commission control over their rates and financial affairs, and allowed supervised pooling.

**18th Amendment**—prohibited liquor.

**19th Amendment**—woman suffrage. The first election this applied for was 1920.

**Postwar Economy**—despite fear of unemployment with the return of veterans to labor force and the end of war purchases, the American economy boomed during 1919 and the first half of 1920. Consumers had money from high wages during the war, and the European demand for American food and manufactured products continued for some months after the war. The demand for goods resulted in rapid inflation.

**Strikes**—unions were encouraged by the gains they had made during the war and thought they had the support of public opinion. However, the Communist Revolution in Russia in 1917 soon inspired in many Americans a fear of violence and revolution by workers.

**The Red Scare**—Americans feared the spread of Russian communism to the US, and many interpreted the widespread strikes of 1919 as communist-inspired and the beginning of the revolution. Bombs sent through the mail to prominent government and business leaders in April 1919 seemed to confirm their fears.

**Palmer Raids**—Palmer was one of the targets of the anonymous bombers in the spring of 1919. He was also an aspirant for the Democratic nomination for president in 1920, and he realized that many Americans saw the threat of a communist revolution as a grave danger. In November 1919 Palmer’s agents arrested almost 700 people. On Jan 2, 1920, Justice Department agents, local police, and vigilantes arrested 4000 people accused of being communists.

**Race Riots of 1919**—during the war about .5 million blacks had migrated from the south to industrial cities, mostly in the north and Midwest, to find employment. After the war, white hostility based on competition for lower-paid jobs and black encroachment into neighborhoods led to race riots in 25 cities. The Chicago riot was the worst.

**The Roaring Twenties and Economic Collapse (1920-1929)**
Flaming youth—emphasized sexual promiscuity and drinking, as well as new forms of dancing. The automobile, by giving people mobility and privacy, was generally considered to have contributed to sexual license.

Flappers—young women who were independent, assertive, and promiscuous.

Margaret Sanger—promoted birth control to urban women.

Marcus Garvey—founded the Universal Negro Improvement Association in 1914. He advocated black racial pride and separatism rather than integration, and a return of blacks to Africa. Some of his ideas alienated the older black organizations. He developed a large following among southern blacks. He urged his followers to buy only from blacks, and founded a chain of businesses. He sold stock for the Black Star Steamship Line, which would take migrants to Africa. His legacy was an emphasis on black pride and self-respect.

Smith-Hughes Act of 1917—provided federal funding for agricultural and technical studies.

Klu Klux Klan—its purpose was to intimidate blacks, who were experiencing an apparent rise in status during WWI. It remained small until 1920 when 2 advertising experts, Clark and Tyler, were hired by the leadership. They used modern advertising to recruit members, charged an initiation fee, and made additional money through the sale of regalia and emblems. The largest concentrations of members were in the south, the southwest, the Midwest, CA, and OR. They seemed to appeal most to the lower middle class men in towns and small cities. They opposed blacks and Catholics, Jews and immigrants. It also attacked bootleggers, drunkards, gamblers, and adulterers for violating moral standards. The Klan began to decline after 1925 when it was hit by scandals, especially the murder conviction of David Stephenson. The main reason for its decline was the staunch opposition of editors, politicians, and other public figures who exposed its lawlessness and terrorism.

Emergency Quota Act—limited immigration by nation to 3% of the number of foreign-born persons from that nation in the US in 1910. It severely limited the immigration of Italians, Greeks, Poles, and eastern European Jews.

National Origins Act—set the quotas at 2% of the number of foreign-born persons of that nationality in the US in 1890, excluded all Asians, and imposed an annual maximum of 164,000.

Volstead Act—enforced the 18th Amendment. Enforcement was reasonably effective in some rural southern and Midwestern states that had been dry before the amendment. In urban areas where both foreign-born and native citizens often believed that their liberty had been infringed upon, neither the public nor their elected officials were interested in enforcement.

Speakeasies—secret bars opened by bootleggers.

Al Capone—the most famous of the bootlegging gangsters.

Scopes Trial—fundamentalist Protestants, under the leadership of William Jennings Bryan, began a campaign in 1921 to prohibit the teaching of evolution in schools. The idea was popular in the south. In 1925 the TN legislature passed a law that forbade any teacher in the state’s schools or colleges to teach evolution. The American Civil Liberties Union recruited John Thomas Scopes to be a test case by breaking the law. He was defended by Clarence Darrow. The trial attracted national attention through the newspaper and radio coverage. The judge refused to allow expert testimony. Both sides claimed a moral victory.
Sacco and Vanzetti—Italian immigrants and anarchists who were tried for murder. There was much protest in the US and Europe that they had not received a fair trial.

Harding—pardoned Eugene Debs for his conviction under the Espionage Act. He persuaded US Steel to give workers the 8 hour day. His economic philosophy was conservative. Several of his friends whom he appointed to office became involved in major financial scandals.

Andrew Mellon—believed in low taxes and government economy to free the rich from “oppressive” taxes and thus encourage investment.

Revenue Acts of 1921 and 1924—cut the minimum tax rates to 50% and then to 40%. Taxes in lower brackets were also reduced, but inheritance and corporate income taxes were retained.

Fordeny-McCumber Tariff—Mellon sought substantial increases in the tariffs, but there was a compromise with the farm bloc. The tariff imposed high rates on farm products and protected such infant industries as rayon, china, toys, and chemicals. Most other items received moderate protection. The president could raise or lower the rates on the recommendation of the Tariff Commission.

Budget and Accounting Act of 1921—the federal government had a unified budget for the first time. The law also provided for a director of the budget to assist in its preparation, and a comptroller general to audit government accounts.

Teapot Dome Scandal—secretary of the Interior Albert Fall in 1921 secured the transfer of several naval oil reserves to his jurisdiction. In 1922 he secretly leased reserves at Teapot Dome to Harry Sinclair of Monmouth Oil and at Elk Hills in CA to Edward Dohemy of Pan-American Petroleum.

Robert LaFollette—formed a new Progressive Party with support from Midwest farm groups, socialists, and the American Federation of Labor. The platform attacked monopolies and called for the nationalization of railroads, the direct election of the president, and other reforms.

Calvin Coolidge—provided no presidential leadership.

McNary-Haugen Bill—the government would buy and resell in the domestic market a commodity such as wheat at the world price plus the tariff. The surplus would be sold abroad at the world price, and the difference made up by an equalization fee on all farmers in proportion to the amount of the commodity they had sold. When farm conditions did not improve, the idea was incorporated in the McNary-Haugen Bill, which passed Congress in 1927, but was vetoed by Coolidge.

Revenue Act of 1926—Mellon’s tax policies were finally implemented by the Revenue Act of 1926, which reduced the basic income tax, cut the surtax, abolished the gift tax, and cut the estate tax in half.

The Washington Conference—a series of pacts that maintained a ratio of naval tonnage, China’s open door policy, and the mutual respect of possessions in the Pacific.

Dawes Plan—designed to help Germany repay its debts. American banks made loans to Germany.

Kellogg-Briand Pact—renounced war as an instrument of national policy. There were no enforcement provisions.
Hoover—believed that an associative economic system with voluntary cooperation of business and government would enable the US to abolish poverty through continued economic growth.

The Great Depression and the New Deal (1929-1941)

**Agricultural Marketing Act**—created the Federal Farm Board with a revolving fund to lend the agricultural cooperatives to buy the commodities such as wheat and cotton, and hold them for higher prices.

**Hawley-Smoot Tariff**—raised duties agricultural and manufactured imports. It did nothing of significance to improve the economy.

**Voluntarism**—hoover believed that voluntary cooperation would enable the country to weather the depression. He urged business leaders to avoid layoffs of workers and wage cuts, and he secured no-strike pledges from labor leaders. He urged all citizens to contribute to charities to help alleviate the suffering.

**Reconstruction Finance Corporation**—could borrow for loans to railroads, banks, and other financial institutions. It prevented the failure of basic firms on which many other elements of the economy depended, but was criticized by such as relief for the rich.

**Federal Home Loan Bank Act**—injected capital into newly created home loan banks so that loans could be made to building and loan associations, saving banks, and insurance companies to help them avoid foreclosures on homes.

**Bonus Army**—unemployed veterans who went to Washington to lobby Congress for immediate payment of the bonus which had approved in 1926. Hoover eventually had to order the army to remove them.

**Farm Holiday Association**—called for a farm strike in August 1932. They urged farmers not to take their products to market in an effort to raise farm prices.

**Franklin Roosevelt**—created the New Deal.

**21st Amendment**—repealed prohibition.

**Emergency Banking Relief Act**—provided additional funds for banks from the RFC and Federal Reserve, allowed the Treasury to open sound banks after 10 days and to merge unsound ones, and forbade the hoarding or export of gold.

**Banking Act of 1933/Glass-Steagall Act**—established the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation to insure individual deposits in commercial banks, and separated commercial banking from the more speculative activity of investment banking.

**Home Owners Loan Corporation**—had authority to borrow money to refinance home mortgages and thus prevent foreclosures.

**Securities and Exchange Commission**—supervised stock exchanges and punished fraud in securities trading.

**Federal Housing Administration**—insured long term, low interest mortgages for home construction and repair.

**Federal Emergency Relief Act**—appropriated $500 million for aid to the poor to be distributed by state and local governments. Half of the funds were to be distributed on a one to 3 matching
basis with the states. It also established the Federal Emergency Relief Administration under Harry Hopkins.

**Civilian Conservation Corps**—enrolled young men from families on relief to go to camps where they worked on flood control, soil conservation, and forest projects under the direction of the War Department.

**Public Works Administration**—gave money to state and local governments for building projects such as schools, highways, and hospitals.

**Agricultural Adjustment Act**—created the Agricultural Adjustment Administration. It sought to return farm prices to parity with those of 1909 to 1914. Farmers agreed to reduce production of principal farm commodities and were paid a subsidy in return. The money came from a tax on the processing of the commodities. Farm prices increased, but tenants and sharecroppers were hurt when owners took land out of cultivation.

**Federal Loan Farm Act**—consolidated all farm credit programs into the Farm Credit Administration to make low-interest loans for farm mortgages and other agricultural purposes.

**Frazier-Lemke Farm Bankruptcy Act of 1934**—allowed farmers to defer foreclosure on their land while they obtained new financing, and helped them to recover property already lost.

**National Industrial Recovery Act**—sought to stabilize the economy by preventing extreme competition, labor-management conflicts, and over production. A board composed of industrial and labor leaders in each industry drew up a code for that industry which set minimum prices, minimum wages, maximum work hours, production limits, and quotas. Antitrust laws were temporarily suspended. This approach was based on the idea of many economists of the time.

**Section 7a**—gave workers the right to join unions and to bargain collectively.

**National Recovery Administration**—created to enforce the law and generate public enthusiasm for it.

**Tennessee Valley Authority**—built dams to stop flooding and soil erosion, improve navigation, and generate hydroelectric power. It also made nitrates for fertilizer, conducted demonstration projects for farmers, engaged in reforestation, and attempted to rehabilitate the whole area.

**American Liberty League**—formed in 1934 by conservatives to defend business interests and promote the open shop.

**Old Age Revolving Pension Plan**—advanced by Francis Townshend. The plan proposed that every retired person over 60 receive a monthly pension with the requirement that the money be spent within the month. The plan would be funded by a national gross sales tax. Townshend claimed that it would end the depression by putting money into circulation.

**Share Our Wealth Society**—founded by Huey Long. It called for the confiscation of all fortunes over 5 million dollars and a tax of one hundred percent on annual incomes over 1 million. With the money, the government would provide subsidies to every family.

**National Union for Social Justice**—headed by Charles Coughlin. It advocated an inflationary currency and was anti-Semitic.

**Works Progress Administration**—employed people from the relief rolls for 30 hours a week at pay double the relief payment. Mostly did construction jobs.
National Youth Administration—provided part jobs for high school and college students so that they could stay in school.

Rural Electrification Administration—provided loans and WPA labor to electric cooperatives to build lines into rural areas not served by private companies.

Resettlement Administration—relocated destitute families to new homestead communities.

Wagner Act—reaffirmed labor’s right to unionize, prohibited unfair labor practices, and created the National Labor Relations Board to oversee and insure fairness in labor-management relations. It resulted in an increase in union membership, but at the expense of bitter conflict within the labor movement.

Social Security Act—established a retirement plan funded by a tax on wages paid equally by employee and employer. Another provision of the act forced the states to initiate unemployment insurance programs. It imposed a payroll tax on employers which went to the state if it had an insurance program, and the federal government if it did not. It also provided matching funds to the states for aid of the blind, handicapped, and dependent children.

Banking Act of 1935—created a strong central Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System with broad powers over the operations of the regional banks.

Public Utility Holding Company/Wheeler-Rayburn Act of 1935—empowered the Securities and Exchange Commission to restrict public utility building companies to one natural region and to eliminate duplicate holding companies.

Federal Power Commission—regulated interstate electrical power rates and activities.

Revenue Act of 1935—increased income taxes on higher incomes

Motor Carrier Act of 1935—extended the regulatory authority of the Interstate Commerce Commission

Court Packing—Roosevelt was frustrated by the conservative court and proposed the Judicial Recognition Bill which would allow him to appoint more judges. This was opposed by both Republicans and Democrats.

Fair Labor Standards Act—created a minimum wage. Workers in small businesses and in public and nonprofit employment were not covered. The law also prohibited the shipment in interstate commerce of manufactured goods on which children under 16 worked.

Fair Employment Practices Committee—created in response to a threatened protest by Philip Randolph. It insured consideration for minorities in defense employment.

Indian Reorganization Act of 1934—restored tribal ownership of lands, recognized tribal constitutions and government, and provided loans to tribes for economic development.

American Federation of Labor—made up primarily of craft unions.

Committee for Industrial Organizations—sought to integrate several industrial unions, particularly in the steel, auto, rubber, and radio industries. It used a tactic called the sit-down strike, with the strikers occupying the workplace to prevent production.

Good Neighbor Policy—Roosevelt’s foreign policy with Latin America

Nonintervention—at the Montevideo Conference of American Nations in 1933 the US renounced the right of intervention in the internal affairs of Latin American countries. Marines were removed from many middle-American countries.
London Economic Conference—tried to obtain tariff reduction and currency stabilization for the industrial nations. Roosevelt would not agree to peg the value of the dollar to other currencies because he feared that it might impede his recovery efforts. The conference failed for lack of American cooperation.

Reciprocal Trade Agreement Act—the idea of Cordell Hull. It allowed the president to negotiate agreements which could vary the rates of the Hawley-Smoot Tariff up to 50%.

Isolationism—the belief that the US should stay out of foreign wars and problems began in the 1920s and grew in the 1930s. It was fed by house and senate investigations of arms traffic and the munitions industry in 1933 and 1934, especially an examination of profiteering by bankers and munitions makers in drawing the US into WWI by General Nye. Such feelings were strongest in the Midwest and among Republicans, but were found in all areas and across the political spectrum.

Johnson Act of 1934—when European nations stopped payment on WWI debts to the US, the Johnson Act of 1934 prohibited any nation in default from selling securities to any American citizen or corporation.

Neutrality Acts of 1935—provided that, on the outbreak of war between foreign nations, all exports of American munitions and arms to them would be embargoed for 6 months. American ships were prohibited from carrying arms to any belligerent, and the president was to warn American citizens not to travel on belligerent ships.

Neutrality Acts of 1936—gave the president the authority to determine when a state of war existed, and prohibited any loans or credits to belligerents.

Neutrality Acts of 1937—gave the president authority to determine if a civil war was a threat to world peace and covered by the Neutrality Acts, prohibited all arms sales to belligerents, and allowed the cash and carry sale of nonmilitary goods to belligerents.

Neutrality Act of 1939—allowed the cash-and-carry sale of arms and short-term loans to belligerents, but forbade American ships to trade with belligerents or Americans to travel on belligerent ships.

Selective Service and Training Act—first peacetime draft

Atlantic Charter—described a postwar world based on self-determination for all nations. It also endorsed the principles of freedom of speech and religion and freedom from want and fear.

Embargo of 1940—made in response to the fear of Japanese expansion. It placed an embargo on gasoline, lubricants, and scrap iron and steel to Japan, and by granting an additional loan to China.

Embargo of 1941—freezed Japanese funds in the US, closed the Panama Canal to Japan, activated the Philippine militia, and placed an embargo on the export of oil and other vital products to Japan.

World War II and the Postwar Era (1941-1960)

War Production Board—regulated the use of raw materials

General Maximum Price Regulation Act—froze prices and extended rationing.

Revenue Act of 1942—extended the income tax to the majority of the population.
Smith-Connolly Act—authorized government seizure of a plant or mine idled by a strike if the war effort was impeded.

Casablanca Conference—Roosevelt and Churchill declared a policy of unconditional surrender for all enemies.

Declaration of Cairo—called for Japan’s unconditional surrender and stated that all Chinese territories occupied by Japan would be returned to China and that Korea would be free and independent.

Teheran Conference—stalin reaffirmed the Soviet commitment to enter the war against Japan and discussed coordination of the Soviet offensive with the Allied invasion of France.

Yalta Conference—stalin said that the SU would enter the war within 3 months after Germany surrendered and agreed to the “Declaration of Liberated Europe” which called for free elections. Germany was divided into occupation zones.

Potsdam Conference—truman ordered the dropping of the atomic bomb. Established a Council of Foreign Ministers to draft peace treaties for the Balkans. Approval was also given to the concept of war-crimes trials and the demilitarization and denazification of Germany.

Truman Doctrine—that US must support free peoples who were resisting communist domination.

Marshall Plan—the US provided economic aid to help rebuild Europe.

Berlin crisis—after the US, France, and GB announced plans to create a West German Republic out of their German zones, the SU in June 1948 blocked surface access to Berlin. The US then instituted an airlift to transport supplies to the city until the Soviets lifted their blockade.

NATO—pledge that an attack against one would be considered an attack against all. The Soviets formed the Warsaw Treaty Organization in 1955 to counteract it.

Korean War—on June 25, 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea. Truman committed US forces commanded by General MacArthur. Armistice talks began with North Korea in the summer of 1951. In 1953 an armistice was signed leaving Korea divided along almost the same boundary that had existed prior to the war.

Dulles—believed in “massive retaliation” rather than containment.


Eisenhower Doctrine—the US used military force in the Middle East against communist aggression.

Employment Act of 1946—established a Council of Economic Advisors to evaluate the economy, advise the president, and set up a Congressional Joint Committee on the Economic Report. The act declared that the government was committed to maintaining maximum employment.

Atomic Energy Commission—established civilian control over nuclear development and gave the president sole authority over the use of atomic weapons in warfare.

Taft-Hartley Act—an effort by the republicans to control unions. It made the closed shop illegal, though did allow a union shop. It established an 80 day cooling off period for strikers in key industries, ended the practice of employers collecting dues for unions, forbade secondary boycotts, jurisdictional strikes, featherbedding, and contributing to political campaigns, and
required an anti-communist oath of union officials. It slowed down efforts to unionize in the south.

**Dixiecrats**—the States’ Rights Democratic Party. They split from the democratic party over civil rights issues.

**Fair Deal**—Truman proposed increasing the minimum wage, extending Social Security to more people, maintaining rent controls, clearing slums and building public housing, providing more money to TVA, rural electrification, and farm housing. He also introduced bills dealing with Civil Rights, national health insurance, federal aid to education, and repeal of the Taft-Hartley Act.

**Smith Act**—made it illegal to advocate the overthrow of the government by force or to belong to an organization advocating such a position.

**Hiss Case**—in 1948 Whittaker Chambers charged Alger Hiss with having been a communist who supplied classified documents to the SU.

**McCarran Internal Security Act**—required communist-front organizations to register with the attorney general and prevented their members from defense work and travel abroad.

**Rosenberg case**—Julius and Ethel Rosenberg were accused of giving atomic secrets to the SU.

**McCarthy**—on Feb 9, 1950, McCarthy stated that he had a list of known communists who were working in the state department. He later expanded his attacks to diplomats and scholars and contribute to the electoral defeat of 2 senators. After making charges against the army, he was censured and discredited.

**Eisenhower**—sought to balance the budget and lower taxes but did not attempt to roll back existing social and economic legislation. He first described his policy as “dynamic conservatism” then as “progressive moderation.” The administration abolished the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, ended wage and price controls, and reduced farm price supports. It cut the budget and lowered tax rates for corporations and individuals with high incomes. He extended social security. Opposed to the expansion of the TVA, the Eisenhower administration supported a plan to have a privately owned power plant built to supply electricity.

**Atomic Energy Act of 1954**—allowed the construction of private nuclear power plants

**Rural Electrification Administration**—gave electricity to 97% of American farms. In 1954 the government began financing the export of farm surpluses in exchange for foreign currencies and later provided surpluses free to needy nations.

**National Aeronautics and Space Administration**—created after the launching of Sputnik to coordinate research and development.

**Landrum-Griffen Labor-Management Act of 1959**—sought to control unfair union practices by establishing rules such as penalties for misuse of funds.

**Brown v Board of Education**—the court declared that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal. In 1955 the court ordered the states to integrate. Although at first the south reacted cautiously, by 1955 there were calls for “massive resistance” and White Citizens Councils emerged to spearhead the resistance.
Civil Rights Act of 1957—established a permanent Civil Rights Commission and a Civil Rights Division of the justice department which was empowered to prevent interference with the right to vote.

Civil Rights Act of 1960—gave the federal court powers to register African American voters.

Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee—primary aims included the end of segregation in public accommodations and winning voting rights.