

Open Education Resources Book

High School Equivalency

Social Studies



HEP



WEST HILLS
COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICT
HIGH SCHOOL EQUIVALENCY PROGRAM



Authors and Contributors:

Cecilio Mora, Andres Enriquez, Beatriz Torres, Iris Torres, Yanet Aguilar, Maria Jauregui, Vanesa Saraza, Rocio Nanez Barrios, Osvaldo Rodriguez, and Graciela Salcido.

JULY 2022

High School Equivalency Program



BY SA

Contents

Social Studies:	8
Information on what is on the HiSET Exam:.....	8
Chapter 1: World History	8
Early civilizations.....	8
Overview	8
First Civilizations	8
What do civilizations have in common?.....	9
Social, political, and environmental characteristics of early civilizations	10
Overview	10
Formation of Governments and Social Classes	10
What do you think?	10
Ancient Egypt.....	11
Chinese Dynasties.....	12
Creek and Roman Empires	12
Catholicism	13
Christianity.....	13
The Crusades	14
Judaism	15
Renaissance	15
Reformation.....	15
Leaders and Explorers	15
European Transition	19
The Great Famine (1313 - 1322).....	19
Black Death	20
Trade Was to Blame	20
Economic Impact	20
The Hundred Years War (1337 – 1453)	21
Baroque Art in Europe	21
The Outbreak of World War I	23
Prelude to War.....	24

The Discovery of America	26
French Revolution.....	27
The Start of War I.....	27
A Global Conflict	30
The United States Enters the War	31
The Cost of the War.....	33
A Flawed Peace.....	33
The Holocaust: 1941-1942.....	37
The Holocaust: 1942-1945.....	39
Cold War	41
Truman Doctrine.....	41
Marshall Plan	41
Berlin crisis.....	42
Korean War	42
Cuban crisis.....	43
Vietnam war	43
End of the Cold War.....	44
Chinese Civil War	46
The People's Republic of China (1949-present)	47
The Gulf War.....	47
Iraqi Aggression, Oil, And Power	48
The Gulf War.....	49
The end of the Gulf War	49
Modern Era	50
World War II	50
Attack at Pearl Harbor	52
Civil War.....	54
Development of the Cold War.....	54
Rivalry in Europe.....	55
Attributions:.....	58
Chapter 2: US History	58

The Colonial Era	58
Early Historical Influences on American Government	59
The Philosophes.....	59
The Boston Tea party was a political and mercantile protest.....	60
Important English Documents.....	60
The Early Colonial Experience	61
Colonial Governments.....	61
Colonial Comparison.....	62
Political Life in Colonial Times	62
Colonies in North America.....	62
Trade and Taxation	63
Religious Freedom	64
America, a Unique Cultural Identity	69
The Transfer of Culture and Knowledge.....	70
Established Trade Routes	70
An Agrarian Revolution.....	70
The Age of Discovery	71
The Rise of the Slave Trade	71
The Cost of A Slave	71
Wars over Slavery	72
Middle Passage	72
Slavery in the New World	72
Civil War.....	73
Slavery.....	73
The Causes of the Civil War	75
The Great Depression	76
Franklin D. Roosevelt.....	79
The Civil Rights Movement.....	83
The American War for Independence	83
Americans Create a Republic.....	85
Attributions:.....	87

Chapter 3: Civics and Government	88
The Founding Fathers	88
The Declaration of Independence	99
The U.S. Constitution	101
The Articles of Confederation.....	103
The Constitutional Convention and the Connecticut Compromise	103
Constitutional Provisions for Limiting the Role of Government	105
Republicanism.....	106
Individual Rights	107
Outrages and the Early Civil Rights Movement.....	107
Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)	112
Division and Separation of Powers in the Constitution.....	114
The Legislative Branch	114
The Executive Branch	114
The Judicial Branch	114
The 27 Amendments to the Constitution.....	117
Ratification.....	119
Political Cartoon	123
Attributions:.....	124
Chapter 4: US Economics	124
What is Economics.....	124
Input and Output Markets.....	125
The U.S. Economic System.....	125
The Basics of Supply and Demand.....	126
Economic Goals	126
Economic Growth	126
The Business Cycle.....	127
Full Employment.....	128
The Unemployment Rate.....	128
Price Stability	128
The Consumer Price Index.....	129

Economic Forecasting.....	129
Economic Indicators	129
Lagging and Leading Indicators	129
Consumer Confidence Index	130
Government’s Role in Managing the Economy.....	130
Monetary Policy.....	130
Fiscal Policy	130
The National Debt.....	131
Concept: Microeconomics vs. Macroeconomics.....	131
Basic Understandings	132
Vocabulary	132
Related Vocabulary.....	133
Economic Systems	134
Traditional Economy.....	134
A Command Economy	135
A Market Economy	135
Practice Questions:.....	135
Attributions:.....	137
Chapter 5: World Geography	138
Geography Basics.....	138
The Earth and Graticule Location	139
Climate and Latitude	140
Time Zones.....	143
World Regional Geography	144
Oceans	145
Seas.....	146
Mountains.....	146
Rivers	147
Map of the United States	148
Coordinate Locations on a Map	148
Attributions:.....	154

Practice Exams	154
HSE Open Education OER Team:	154

Social Studies:

Information on what is on the HiSET Exam:

For information on what is on the HiSET exam, refer to the website link below:

<https://hiset.ets.org/about/content>

Chapter 1: World History

Early civilizations

Overview

- The term civilization refers to complex societies, but the specific definition is contested.
- The advent of civilization depended on the ability of some agricultural settlements to consistently produce surplus food, which allowed some people to specialize in non-agricultural work, which in turn allowed for increased production, trade, population, and social stratification.
- The first civilizations appeared in locations where the geography was favorable to intensive agriculture.
- Governments and states emerged as rulers gained control over larger areas and more resources, often using writing and religion to maintain social hierarchies and consolidate power over larger areas and populations.
- Writing allowed for the codification of laws, better methods of record-keeping, and the birth of literature, which fostered the spread of shared cultural practices among larger populations.

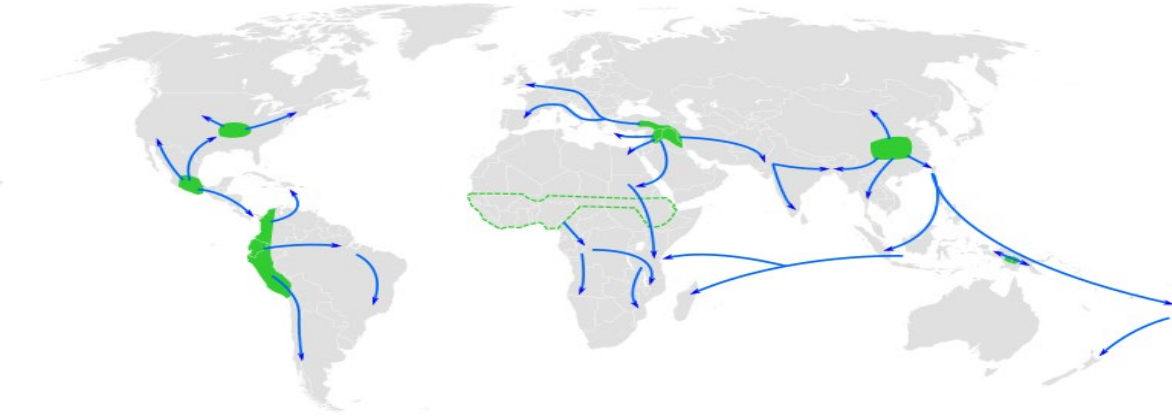
First Civilizations

Today, almost every city has a supermarket with a wide variety of available foods. We take for granted the fact that people have different types of jobs and that governments exist. But, reliable food sources, specialized work, and governments did not exist for most of human history. They are the products of historical processes that began with the first civilizations several thousand years ago.

A **civilization** is a complex society that creates agricultural surpluses, allowing for specialized labor, social hierarchy, and the establishment of cities. Developments such as writing, complex religious systems, monumental architecture, and centralized political power have been suggested as identifying markers of civilization, as well.

The first civilizations appeared in major river valleys, where floodplains contained rich soil and the rivers provided irrigation for crops and a means of transportation. **Foundational**

civilizations developed urbanization and complexity without outside influence and without building on a pre-existing civilization, though they did not all develop simultaneously.



Map showing probable areas of independent development of agriculture, in green, and possible routes of diffusion. Note that while there is much overlap between these regions and the locations of first civilizations, some areas like the Indus Valley in northwest India appear to have developed agriculture after the practice spread to the region. [Image](#) courtesy Wikimedia Commons.

What do civilizations have in common?

Cities were at the center of all early civilizations. People from surrounding areas came to cities to live, work, and trade. This meant that large populations of individuals who did not know each other lived and interacted with one another. So, shared institutions, such as government, religion, and language helped create a sense of unity, and also led to more specialized roles, such as bureaucrats, priests, and scribes.

Cities concentrated political, religious, and social institutions that were previously spread across many smaller, separate communities, which contributed to the development of states. A **state** is an organized community that lives under a single political structure.

Moreover, early civilizations were often unified by **religion** a system of beliefs and behaviors that deal with the meaning of existence. Both political and religious organizations helped to create and reinforce **social hierarchies**, which are clear distinctions in status between individual people and between distinct groups. Political leaders could make decisions that impacted entire societies, such as whether to go to war. Religious leaders gained special status since they alone could communicate between a society and its god or gods.

Social, political, and environmental characteristics of early civilizations

Overview

- The growth of agriculture resulted in intensification, which had important consequences for social organization.
- Larger groups gave rise to new challenges and required more sophisticated systems of social administration.
- Complex societies took the forms of larger agricultural villages, cities, city-states, and states, which shared many features.
- Specialized labor gave rise to distinct social classes and enabled creative and innovative developments.
- Systems of record-keeping and symbolic expression grew more complex, and many societies had systems of writing.

Formation of Governments and Social Classes

Civilizations evoke images of stone walls, monuments, and roads, but they are more than robust physical infrastructure. To facilitate the organization and administration of these large, dense communities, people began to create social infrastructures: economic, political, and religious institutions that created new social hierarchies. These hierarchies were populated with people playing specialized roles, such as professional administrators, farmers, artisans, traders, merchants, and spiritual leaders. Additionally, due to increased trade and conflict with external civilizations, cities required diplomats, armies, and centralized rulers.

Most cities grew out of villages, and some ultimately became city-states, which are self-governing urban centers and the agricultural territories under their control. The surplus food production generated by villages in the vicinity allowed for some residents not to participate in food production, which led to the development of distinct specialized roles and associated classes.

In order to facilitate cooperation between these many different classes and to organize large numbers of people to work together for the large-scale construction of irrigation systems, monuments, and other projects, leaders were required, comprising a new social class. Political leadership would take many different forms in the first civilizations, though powerful **states**, centralized systems of government, and command, were the norm.

What do you think?

Why do you think some societies adopted agriculture while others did not? Why do you think some agricultural societies did not develop into advanced civilizations?

Do you think agricultural systems created cities and states in every case, or is there evidence that states often created the conditions for agricultural systems?

What kinds of political orders do you think were most common in early complex societies and why?

What effects do you think cities had on the environment?

What do we mean when we talk about civilizations? Define what constitutes a civilization in your own words.

Ancient Egypt

Ancient Egypt was a civilization in ancient Northeast Africa, situated in the Egyptian Nile Valley in the country Egypt. Ancient Egyptian civilization followed prehistoric Egypt and coalesced around 3100 BC (according to conventional Egyptian chronology) with the political unification of Upper and Lower Egypt under Menes (often identified with Narmer). The history of ancient Egypt occurred as a series of stable kingdoms, separated by periods of relative instability known as Intermediate Periods: the Old Kingdom of the Early Bronze Age, the Middle Kingdom of the Middle Bronze Age and the New Kingdom of the Late Bronze Age.

Egypt reached the pinnacle of its power in the New Kingdom, ruling much of Nubia and a sizable portion of the Near East, after which it entered a period of slow decline. During the course of its history Egypt was invaded or conquered by a number of foreign powers, including the Hyksos, the Libyans, the Nubians, the Assyrians, the Achaemenid Persians, and the Macedonians under the command of Alexander the Great. The Greek Ptolemaic Kingdom, formed in the aftermath of Alexander's death, ruled Egypt until 30 BC, when, under Cleopatra, it fell to the Roman Empire and became a Roman province.

The success of ancient Egyptian civilization came partly from its ability to adapt to the conditions of the Nile River valley for agriculture. The predictable flooding and controlled irrigation of the fertile valley produced surplus crops, which supported a more dense population, and social development and culture. With resources to spare, the administration sponsored mineral exploitation of the valley and surrounding desert regions, the early development of an independent writing system, the organization of collective construction and agricultural projects, trade with surrounding regions, and a military intended to assert Egyptian dominance. Motivating and organizing these activities was a bureaucracy of elite scribes, religious leaders, and administrators under the control of a pharaoh, who ensured the cooperation and unity of the Egyptian people in the context of an elaborate system of religious beliefs.

Chinese Dynasties

Dynasties in Chinese history, or **Chinese dynasties**, were hereditary monarchical regimes that ruled over China during much of its history. From the inauguration of dynastic rule by Yu the Great in circa 2070 BC to the abdication of the Xuantong Emperor on 12 February 1912 in the wake of the Xinhai Revolution, China was ruled by a series of successive dynasties. Dynasties of China were not limited to those established by ethnic Han the dominant Chinese ethnic group and its predecessor, the Huaxia tribal confederation, but also included those founded by non-Han peoples.

Dividing Chinese history into periods ruled by dynasties is a convenient method of periodization. Accordingly, a dynasty may be used to delimit the era during which a family reigned, as well as to describe events, trends, personalities, artistic compositions, and artifacts of that period. For example, porcelain made during the Ming dynasty may be referred to as "Ming porcelain". The word "dynasty" is usually omitted when making such adjectival references.

The longest-reigning orthodox dynasty of China was the Zhou dynasty, ruling for a total length of 789 years, albeit it is divided into the Western Zhou and the Eastern Zhou in Chinese historiography, and its power was drastically reduced during the latter part of its rule. The largest orthodox Chinese dynasty in terms of territorial size was either the Yuan dynasty or the Qing dynasty, depending on the historical source.

Creek and Roman Empires

Greece in the Roman era describes the Roman conquest of Greece, as well as the period of Greek history when Greece was dominated first by the Roman Republic and then by the Roman Empire.

The Roman era of Greek history began with the Corinthian defeat in the Battle of Corinth in 146 BC. However, before the Achaean War, the Roman Republic had been steadily gaining control of mainland Greece by defeating the Kingdom of Macedon in a series of conflicts known as the Macedonian Wars. The Fourth Macedonian War ended at the Battle of Pydna in 148 BC with the defeat of the Macedonian royal pretender Andriscus.

The definitive Roman occupation of the Greek world was established after the Battle of Actium (31 BC), in which Augustus defeated Cleopatra VII, the Greek Ptolemaic queen of Egypt, and the Roman general Mark Antony, and afterwards conquered Alexandria (30 BC), the last great city of Hellenistic Greece. The Roman era of Greek history continued with Emperor Constantine the Great's adoption of Byzantium as *Nova Roma*, the capital city of the Roman Empire; in 330 AD, the city was renamed Constantinople. Afterwards, the Byzantine Empire was the Eastern Roman Empire, including Roman and Greek culture.

Catholicism

The Christian religion is based on the teachings of Jesus Christ, who lived and preached in the 1st century AD in the province of Judea of the Roman Empire. Catholic theology teaches that the contemporary Catholic Church is the continuation of this early Christian community established by Jesus. Christianity spread throughout the early Roman Empire, despite persecutions due to conflicts with the pagan state religion. Emperor Constantine legalized the practice of Christianity in 313, and it became the state religion in 380. Germanic invaders of Roman territory in the 5th and 6th centuries, many of whom had previously adopted Arian Christianity, eventually adopted Catholicism to ally themselves with the papacy and the monasteries.

In the 7th and 8th centuries, expanding Muslim conquests following the advent of Islam led to an Arab domination of the Mediterranean that severed political connections between that area and northern Europe, and weakened cultural connections between Rome and the Byzantine Empire. Conflicts involving authority in the church, particularly the authority of the bishop of Rome finally culminated in the East–West Schism in the 11th century, splitting the church into the Catholic and Orthodox churches. Earlier splits within the church occurred after the Council of Ephesus (431) and the Council of Chalcedon (451). However, a few Eastern Churches remained in communion with Rome, and portions of some others established communion in the 15th century and later, forming what are called the Eastern Catholic Churches.

Early monasteries throughout Europe helped preserve Greek and Roman classical civilization. The church eventually became the dominant influence in Western civilization into the modern age. Many Renaissance figures were sponsored by the church. The 16th century, however, began to see challenges to the church, in particular to its religious authority, by figures in the Protestant Reformation, as well as in the 17th century by secular intellectuals in the Enlightenment. Concurrently, Spanish and Portuguese explorers and missionaries spread the church's influence through Africa, Asia, and the New World.

Christianity

The **history of Christianity** concerns the Christian religion, Christian countries, and the Christians with their various denominations, from the 1st century to the present. Christianity originated with the ministry of Jesus, a Jewish teacher and healer who proclaimed the imminent Kingdom of God and was crucified, AC 30–33 in Jerusalem in the Roman province of Judea. His followers believe that, according to the Gospels, he was the Son of God and that he died for the forgiveness of sins and was raised from the dead and exalted by God, and will return soon at the inception of God's kingdom.

The earliest followers of Jesus were apocalyptic Jewish Christians. The inclusion of Gentiles in the developing early Christian Church caused the separation of early Christianity from Judaism during the first two centuries of the Christian era. In 313, the Roman Emperor Constantine I

issued the Edict of Milan legalizing Christian worship. In 380, with the Edict of Thessalonica put forth under Theodosius I, the Roman Empire officially adopted Trinitarian Christianity as its state religion, and Christianity established itself as a predominantly Roman religion in the State church of the Roman Empire.

The Crusades

The **Crusades** were a series of religious wars initiated, supported, and sometimes directed by the Latin Church in the medieval period. The best known of these Crusades are those to the Holy Land in the period between 1095 and 1291 that were intended to recover Jerusalem and its surrounding area from Islamic rule. Concurrent military activities in the Iberian Peninsula against the Moors (the *Reconquista*) and in northern Europe against pagan West Slavic, Baltic, and Finnic peoples (the Northern Crusades) also became known as crusades. Through the 15th century, other church-sanctioned crusades were fought against heretical Christian sects, against the Ottoman Empire, to combat paganism and heresy, and for political reasons. Unsanctioned by the church, Popular Crusades of ordinary citizens were also frequent. Beginning with the First Crusade which resulted in the recovery of Jerusalem in 1099, dozens of Crusades were fought, providing a focal point of European history for centuries.

In 1095, Pope Urban II proclaimed the First Crusade at the Council of Clermont. He encouraged military support for Byzantine emperor Alexios I against the Seljuk Turks and called for an armed pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Across all social strata in western Europe, there was an enthusiastic popular response. The first Crusaders had a variety of motivations, including religious salvation, satisfying feudal obligations, opportunities for renown, and economic or political advantage. Later crusades were generally conducted by more organized armies, sometimes led by a king. All were granted papal indulgences. Initial successes established four Crusader states: the County of Edessa; the Principality of Antioch; the Kingdom of Jerusalem; and the County of Tripoli. The Crusader presence remained in the region in some form until the fall of Acre in 1291. After this, there were no further crusades to recover the Holy Land.

Proclaimed a crusade in 1123, the struggle between the Christians and Muslims in the Iberian Peninsula was called the *Reconquista* by Christians, and only ended in 1492 with the fall of the Muslim Emirate of Granada. From 1147, campaigns in Northern Europe against pagan tribes were considered crusades. In 1199, Pope Innocent III began the practice of proclaiming crusades against Christian heretics. In the 13th century, crusading was used against the Cathars in Languedoc and against Bosnia; this practice continued against the Waldensians in Savoy and the Hussites in Bohemia in the 15th century and against Protestants in the 16th. From the mid-14th century, crusading rhetoric was used in response to the rise of the Ottoman Empire, and ended around 1699 with the War of the Holy League.

Judaism

Judaism is an Abrahamic, monotheistic, and ethnic religion comprising the collective religious, cultural, and legal tradition and civilization of the Jewish people. It has its roots as an organized religion in the Middle East during the Bronze Age. Some scholars argue that modern Judaism evolved from Yahwism, the religion of ancient Israel and Judah, by the late 6th century BC, and is thus considered to be one of the oldest monotheistic religions. Judaism is considered by religious Jews to be the expression of the covenant that God established with the Israelites, their ancestors. It encompasses a wide body of texts, practices, theological positions, and forms of organization.

Renaissance

Ever since the fall of Rome in the 4th century, Europeans had looked nostalgically back to the time when "civilization" flourished, as opposed to "these dark times." Even when Constantine had moved the capital so many years before it was with the hope that the former glory of Rome would one day be restored and the empire (East and West) reunited. The Renaissance or "Rebirth" in the 14th through 17th centuries was a time when many Europeans stopped looking back to ancient Greece and Rome and began looking ahead. They actually began to imagine surpassing the classical era as the pinnacle of civilization.

Renaissance artists created greater sculptures than had the Greeks and Romans; Renaissance architects built more magnificent buildings than the Greeks and Romans, literary criticism revived, revered and challenged ancient writing, and philosophy was born anew. The most profound change, however, would come in the form of religion.

Reformation

The **Reformation** (alternatively named the **Protestant Reformation** or the **European Reformation**) was a major movement within Western Christianity in 16th-century Europe that posed a religious and political challenge to the Catholic Church and in particular to papal authority, arising from what were perceived to be errors, abuses, and discrepancies by the Catholic Church. The Reformation was the start of Protestantism and the split of the Western Church into Protestantism and what is now the Roman Catholic Church. It is also considered to be one of the events that signify the end of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the early modern period in Europe.

Leaders and Explorers

John Cabot (c. 1450 – c. 1500) was an Italian navigator and explorer. His 1497 voyage to the coast of North America under the commission of Henry VII of England is the earliest-known European exploration of coastal North America since the Norse visits to Vinland in the eleventh

century. To mark the celebration of the 500th anniversary of Cabot's expedition, both the Canadian and British governments elected Cape Bonavista, Newfoundland as representing Cabot's first landing site. However, alternative locations have also been proposed.

Julius Caesar (12 July 100 BC – 15 March 44 BC) was a Roman general and statesman. A member of the First Triumvirate, Caesar led the Roman armies in the Gallic Wars before defeating his political rival Pompey in a civil war, and subsequently became dictator of Rome from 49 BC until his assassination in 53 BC. He played a critical role in the events that led to the demise of the Roman Republic and the rise of the Roman Empire.

Christopher Columbus (born between 25 August and 31 October 1451, died 20 May 1506) was an Italian explorer and navigator who completed four Spanish-based voyages across the Atlantic Ocean sponsored by the Catholic Monarchs of Spain, opening the way for the widespread European exploration and colonization of the Americas. His expeditions were the first known European contact with the Caribbean, Central America, and South America.

Juan Ponce de León (1474 – July 1521) was a Spanish explorer and *conquistador* known for leading the first official European expedition to Florida and for serving as the first governor of Puerto Rico. He was born in Santervás de Campos, Valladolid, Spain in 1474. Though little is known about his family, he was of noble birth and served in the Spanish military from a young age. He first came to the Americas as a "gentleman volunteer" with Christopher Columbus's second expedition in 1493.

Martin Luther (November 10, 1483–February 18, 1546) was a German professor of theology, composer, priest, monk and seminal figure in the Protestant Reformation. Luther came to reject several teachings and practices of the Roman Catholic Church. He strongly disputed the claim that freedom from God's punishment for sin could be purchased with money, proposing an academic discussion of the practice and efficacy of indulgences in his *Ninety-five Theses* of 1517. His refusal to renounce all of his writings at the demand of Pope Leo X in 1520 and the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V at the Diet of Worms in 1521 resulted in his excommunication by the pope and condemnation as an outlaw by the emperor.

Luther taught that salvation and, subsequently, eternal life are not earned by good deeds but are received only as the free gift of God's grace through the believer's faith in Jesus Christ as redeemer from sin. His theology challenged the authority and office of the pope by teaching that the Bible is the only source of divinely revealed knowledge from God, and opposed priestly intervention for the forgiveness of sins by considering all baptized Christians to be a holy priesthood. Those who identify with these, and all of Luther's wider teachings, are called Lutherans, though Luther insisted on Christian or Evangelical as the only acceptable names for individuals who professed Christ.

Leif Erikson, Leiv Eiriksson, or Leif Ericson, also known as **Leif the Lucky** (c. 970 – c. 1019 to 1025), was a Norse explorer who is thought to have been the first European to have set foot on continental North America, approximately half a millennium before Christopher Columbus. According to the sagas of Icelanders, he established a Norse settlement at Vinland, which is usually interpreted as being coastal North America. There is ongoing speculation that the settlement made by Leif and his crew corresponds to the remains of a Norse settlement found in Newfoundland, Canada, called L'Anse aux Meadows, which was occupied 1,000 years ago.

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was an Indian lawyer, and political ethicist, who employed nonviolent resistance to lead the successful campaign for India's independence from British Rule, and in turn inspire movements for civil rights and freedom across the world. The honorific **Mahātmā** (Sanskrit: "great-souled", "venerable"), first applied to him in 1914 in South Africa, is now used throughout the world.

Karl Heinrich Marx (5 May 1818 – 14 March 1883) was a German philosopher, critic of political economy, economist, historian, sociologist, political theorist, journalist and socialist revolutionary. His best-known titles are the 1848 pamphlet *The Communist Manifesto* and the four-volume *Das Kapital* (1867–1883). Marx's political and philosophical thought had enormous influence on subsequent intellectual, economic, and political history. His name has been used as an adjective, a noun, and a school of social theory.

Marx's critical theories about society, economics, and politics, collectively understood as Marxism, hold that human societies develop through class conflict. In the capitalist mode of production, this manifests itself in the conflict between the ruling classes (known as the bourgeoisie) that control the means of production and the working classes (known as the proletariat) that enable these means by selling their labor-power in return for wages. Employing a critical approach known as historical materialism, Marx predicted that capitalism produced internal tensions like previous socioeconomic systems and that those would lead to its self-destruction and replacement by a new system known as the socialist mode of production. For Marx, class antagonisms under capitalism owing in part to its instability and crisis-prone nature would eventuate the working class's development of class consciousness, leading to their conquest of political power and eventually the establishment of a classless, communist society constituted by a free association of producers. Marx actively pressed for its implementation, arguing that the working class should carry out organized proletarian revolutionary action to topple capitalism and bring about socio-economic emancipation.

Marx has been described as one of the most influential figures in human history, and his work has been both lauded and criticized. His work in economics laid the basis for some current theories about labor and its relation to capital. Many intellectuals, labor unions, artists, and political parties worldwide have been influenced by Marx's work, with many modifying or adapting his ideas.

Napoleon, also **Napoleon Bonaparte** (born **Napoleon Buonaparte**; 15 August 1769 – 5 May 1821), and later known by his regnal name **Napoleon I**, was a French military and political

leader who rose to prominence during the French Revolution and led several successful campaigns during the Revolutionary Wars. He was the *de facto* leader of the French Republic as First Consul from 1799 to 1804. As Napoleon I, he was Emperor of the French from 1804 until 1814 and again in 1815. Napoleon's political and cultural legacy has endured, and he has been one of the most celebrated and controversial leaders in world history.

He supported the French Revolution in 1789 while serving in the French army, and tried to spread its ideals to his native Corsica. He rose rapidly in the Army after he saved the governing French Directory by firing on royalist insurgents. In 1796, he began a military campaign against the Austrians and their Italian allies, scoring decisive victories and becoming a national hero. Two years later, he led a military expedition to Egypt that served as a springboard to political power. He engineered a coup in November 1799 and became *First Consul of the Republic*. Differences with the United Kingdom meant that the French faced the War of the Third Coalition by 1805. Napoleon shattered this coalition with victories in the Ulm Campaign, and at the Battle of Austerlitz, which led to the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1806, the Fourth Coalition took up arms against him because Prussia became worried about growing French influence on the continent. Napoleon defeated Prussia at the battles of Jena and Auerstedt, marched the Grande Armée into Eastern Europe, defeated the Russians in June 1807 at Friedland, and forcing the defeated nations of the Fourth Coalition to accept the Treaties of Tilsit. Two years later, the Austrians challenged the French again during the War of the Fifth Coalition, but Napoleon solidified his grip over Europe after triumphing at the Battle of Wagram.

Hoping to extend the Continental System, his embargo against Britain, Napoleon invaded the Iberian Peninsula and declared his brother Joseph King of Spain in 1808. The Spanish and the Portuguese revolted in the Peninsular War, culminating in defeat for Napoleon's marshals. Napoleon launched an invasion of Russia in the summer of 1812. The resulting campaign witnessed the catastrophic retreat of Napoleon's Grande Armée. In 1813, Prussia and Austria joined Russian forces in a Sixth Coalition against France. A chaotic military campaign resulted in a large coalition army defeating Napoleon at the Battle of Leipzig in October 1813. The coalition invaded France and captured Paris, forcing Napoleon to abdicate in April 1814. He was exiled to the island of Elba, between Corsica and Italy. In France, the Bourbons were restored to power. However, Napoleon escaped Elba in February 1815 and took control of France. The Allies responded by forming a Seventh Coalition, which defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo in June 1815. The British exiled him to the remote island of Saint Helena in the Atlantic, where he died in 1821 at the age of 51. Napoleon had an extensive impact on the modern world, bringing liberal reforms to the many countries he conquered, especially the regions of the Low Countries, Switzerland and parts of modern Italy and Germany. He implemented many liberal policies in France and Western Europe.

Peter the Great was a monarch of the Tsardom of Russia and later the Russian Empire from 1682 until his death in 1725, jointly ruling before 1696 with his elder half-brother, Ivan V. Under his reign, Russia was modernized and grew into a European power.

Through a number of successful wars, he captured ports at Azov and the Baltic Sea, laying the groundwork for the Imperial Russian Navy, ending uncontested Swedish supremacy in the Baltic and beginning the Tsardom's expansion into a much larger empire that became a major European power. He led a cultural revolution that replaced some of the traditionalist and medieval social and political systems with ones that were modern, scientific, Westernized and based on the Enlightenment. Peter's reforms had a lasting impact on Russia, and many institutions of the Russian government trace their origins to his reign. He adopted the title of Emperor in place of the old title of Tsar in 1721, and founded and developed the city of Saint Petersburg, which remained the capital of Russia until 1918.

Amerigo Vespucci (9 March 1451 – 22 February 1512) was an Italian merchant, explorer, and navigator from the Republic of Florence, from whose name the term "America" is derived.

Between 1497 and 1504, Vespucci participated in at least two voyages of the Age of Discovery, first on behalf of Spain (1499–1500) and then for Portugal (1501–1502). In 1503 and 1505, two booklets were published under his name, containing colorful descriptions of these explorations and other alleged voyages. Both publications were extremely popular and widely read across much of Europe. Although historians still dispute the authorship and veracity of these accounts, at the time they were instrumental in raising awareness of the new discoveries and enhancing the reputation of Vespucci as an explorer and navigator.

Vespucci claimed to have understood, back in 1501 during his Portuguese expedition, that Brazil was part of a continent new to Europeans, which he called the "New World". The claim inspired cartographer Martin Waldseemüller to recognize Vespucci's accomplishments in 1507 by applying the Latinized form "America" for the first time to a map showing the New World. Other cartographers followed suit, and by 1532 the name America was permanently affixed to the newly discovered continents.

In 1505, he was made a citizen of Castile by royal decree and in 1508, he was appointed to the newly created position of master navigator for Spain's House of Trade in Seville, a post he held until his death in 1512.

European Transition

During the 14th century, events were taking place in Europe that would forever change its landscape, encourage a questioning of Church authority, and help bring about the end of the 1,000 year medieval period. Four events in particular helped bring about the end of the medieval period in Europe.

The Great Famine (1313 - 1322)

A period of unusually strong rains in Europe led to flooding. Eventually, crops spoiled and livestock drowned, resulting in the Great Famine. Farm animals that were needed for work were slaughtered for food, and seed grain was eaten. This shortage of grain increased prices by

the more six times. Millions of people died from the famine and began the question the Church why this catastrophe was happening.

Black Death

The Black Death, or bubonic plague, struck only 25 years after the Great Famine. Rats with fleas carrying the disease entered Europe from Asia on trading ships. Between 1347 and 1351, 25 million people, about one-third of Europe's population, died in this epidemic. People were buried in mass graves without receiving any blessing from the Church. Some blamed the Jews for poisoning wells; others claimed the plague was God's punishment for sinful living. Once again, the Church appeared helpless before this second great catastrophe of the 14th century.

"Daily life, such as it had become, was balanced by daily death. The shouts of street vendors hawking their wares were replaced by the coarse calls of "Bring out the dead!" Two-wheeled tumbrels piled high with corpses and the dying creaked along the streets in the place of carts brimming with fresh groceries and other merchandise. Fires burned not to cook food or warm bodies, but to incinerate victims' belongings, punish criminals, or fumigate the supposedly "poisonous" atmosphere. In the face of pestilence people's faith in doctors and Catholic priests waned, and for many it shifted to self-help medical books and Protestantism."

Trade Was to Blame

Growing stability in Europe in the late middle ages made possible extensive trade between East and West and within Europe itself. Most historians today generally agree that the plague was likely spread through Eurasia via these trade routes by parasites carried on the backs of rodents. The bacterium *Yersinia pestis* (and not all historians agree this was the culprit) likely traveled from China to the northwestern shores of the Caspian Sea, then part of the Mongol Empire and by the spring of 1346, Italian merchants in the Crimea, specifically the Genoese-dominated city of Kaffa (today Feodosiya in the Ukraine) brought the disease west. Rats carrying infected fleas boarded ships bound for Constantinople (today Istanbul in Turkey), capital of the Byzantine Empire. Inhabitants there were sickened by the plague by early July.

Economic Impact

The Black Death turned the economy upside-down. It disrupted trade and put manufacturing on hold as skilled artisans and merchants died by the thousands not to mention the customers who bought their wares. Workers' wages skyrocketed as arable land lay fallow; landlords, desperate for people to work their land, were forced to renegotiate farmers' wages. Famine followed. Widespread death eroded the strict hereditary class divisions that had, for centuries, bound peasants to land owned by local lords.

The Hundred Years War (1337 – 1453)

This war between England and France, lasting on and off for 116 years, began when an English king claimed the throne of France after the death of the French king. The conflict is especially noteworthy for stirring nationalist feelings amongst the combating nations and reducing the importance of knights in battle, as each king developed a standing army of foot soldiers. New weapons, especially the long-bow and canon, helped render both knights and castles less effective. The era of medieval warfare was nearing an end. **Joan of Arc**, a young French maiden, rallied French troops around the heir to the French throne. She turned the tide in favor of the French when she successfully drove the English out of the city of Orleans and crowned the new French king at Rheims Cathedral. Later, Joan was captured and burned at the stake by the English as a witch. But within 20 years after her death, the war was over. From this point forward, England and France emerged as distinct nations.

Baroque Art in Europe

When Martin Luther tacked his 95 theses to the doors of Wittenberg Cathedral in 1517 protesting the Catholic Church's corruption, he initiated a movement that would transform the religious, political and artistic landscape of Europe.

For the next century, Europe would be in turmoil as new political and religious boundaries were determined, often through bloody military conflicts. Only in 1648, with the signing of the Treaty of Westphalia, did the conflicts between Protestants and Catholics subside in continental Europe.

Martin Luther focused his critique on what he saw as the Church's greed and abuse of power. He called Rome, the seat of papal power, "the whore of Babylon" decked out in finery of expensive art, grand architecture, and sumptuous banquets. The church responded to the crisis in two ways: by internally addressing issues of corruption and by defending the doctrines rejected by the Protestants. Thus, while the first two decades of the 16th century were a period of lavish spending for the Papacy, the middle decades were a period of austerity. As one visitor to Rome noted in 1560's, the entire city had become a convent. Piety and asceticism ruled the day.



View of the Cerasi Chapel in Santa Maria del Popolo in Rome with Annibale Carracci's altarpiece, *The Assumption of the Virgin*, 1600-01, oil on canvas, 96 × 61 inches, and paintings by Caravaggio on the side walls (*The Crucifixion of St. Peter* on the left, and *The Conversion of Paul* on the right)

By the end of the 16th century, the Catholic Church was once again feeling optimistic, even triumphant. It had emerged from the crisis with renewed vigor and clarity of purpose. Shepherding the faithful instructing them on Catholic doctrines and inspiring virtuous behavior took center stage.

Activity:

1. What is the main reason Martin Luther fought against the Catholic church?
 - a. Abuse of power
 - b. Equality
 - c. Separation of the church
 - d. Discrimination

2. The catholic church applied high taxes, so support from church to what class?
 - a. High class
 - b. Upper class
 - c. Lower class
 - d. None

3. What is the act of having immediate and personal communication with God?
 - a. Ivepotism
 - b. Mysticism

- c. Pluralism
 - d. Protestant Resistance theory
4. The Diet of Worms is a meeting in the town of Worms.(It is pronounced "Deet of Worms.") Catholic leaders asked Martin Luther to defend his decision. Martin Luther left the Catholic Church?
- a. True
 - b. False
5. What is the act of telling our sins to the priest?
- a. Council
 - b. Lutheran
 - c. Corruption
 - d. Confession
6. A term applied to Christians who belong to non-Catholic churches. A Christian group that broke away from the Catholic Church; 16th century establishment of the Protestant churches led by Martin Luther?
- a. Religious
 - b. Protestant
 - c. Prophet
 - d. Pope
7. The 16th-century German monk and professor who is considered to be the person who started the Protestant Reformation; wrote the 95 Theses. He began by criticizing Church practices, mainly indulgences?
- a. Martin Luther
 - b. John Calvin
 - c. Edward VI
 - d. Louis XIV

Answers:

1. a, 2. c, 3. b, 4. a, 5. d, 6. b, 7. a

Beatriz Torres

The Outbreak of World War I

World War I introduced new technologies that generated a new kind of war – “total war.” It ushered in the notion of war on a grand and global scale, leaving behind a landscape of death

and destruction such as was never before seen, and a death toll that included countless civilians. It devastated the economies of Europe and destroyed many acres of farmland, homes, villages, and towns. A sense of disillusionment, insecurity, and despair settled over the survivors. Its impact would help to ignite the Russian Revolution, one of the most significant events of the 20th century. Finally, the failure of the WWI peace settlement would contribute toward the outbreak of an even more destructive war two decades later.

Prelude to War

It had been 100 years since a major war had been fought on European soil (Napoleonic Wars). Many Europeans believed that the industrial revolution had produced such a frightening arsenal of new and powerful weapons that the idea of a major war was now unthinkable. But serious tensions were building between the **Great Powers** of Europe (Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia). In the **Balkans**, part of the new Austria-Hungarian Empire, rising nationalism among the persecuted **Slavic** minorities was a serious concern. In 1914, a single incident would eventually bring most all of the European nations into a terrible, long war in which a roughly estimated 8 million soldiers and 6 million civilians would lose their lives. We call it World War I, or, The Great War.

Let's review the situation among the major powers and problem areas of Europe in 1914:

Great Britain - Politically stable, an industrial giant, has the largest navy in the world and is quite busy running a world empire. Britain is content and desires to stand alone, but has become alarmed at the rising power, both militarily and economically, of a relatively new nation, Germany. In particular, the British are concerned over Germany's growing industrial capabilities and its desire to build a navy large enough to challenge Britain's control of the seas (recall that Britain and Germany are separated only by the North Sea).

Italy - Also a relatively new nation that, although powerful, is still politically unstable. Friendly toward Germany and Austria-Hungary. The three nations have signed a defensive treaty known as the **Triple Alliance**, whereby each nation has promised not to fight one another should war ever break out. Because Italy is practically surrounded by coastline, however, it certainly does not desire to wage a war against a major sea power such as Great Britain either.

France and Germany - **Otto Von Bismarck**, the prime minister of Germany, had used war, trickery, and diplomacy to unite the various Germanic states into a new nation by 1870. In 1870, France and Germany had fought the **Franco-Prussian War** in which France suffered a humiliating defeat, was forced to pay Germany a huge sum of money and lost **Alsace-Lorraine**, an area rich in iron and coal deposits. France seeks protection, revenge, and a return of Alsace-Lorraine from Germany, and begins looking for allies. France remains politically disunited and still weak from the Franco-Prussian War, however. After securely uniting Germany (primarily through war), Bismarck then embarked on a policy of peaceful diplomacy, believing that so long as France remained isolated and without allies, she would not pose a threat to Germany. In 1890 - **Kaiser William II**, a "vain, neurotic man," comes to power, removes Bismarck, and is

envious of Great Britain's world empire and navy. He is determined to challenge Great Britain's industrial and naval power. Germany continues its rapid industrialization, seeks colonies (nearly going to war against France in Morocco), and begins a buildup of its navy. Great Britain has become alarmed and begins to seek alliances rather than continue to stand alone.

Russia - She has been slow to develop industrially and is a backward nation compared to Western Europe. Russia, however, has the largest population and army in all of Europe. Russia has recently been humiliated in several wars or crisis (the Crimean War against France and Great Britain, the Russo-Japanese War, and the Balkan Crisis). She remains weak and humiliated. France desires Russia as an ally and is loaning it money to develop its industry. Russia is also interested in forming alliances with the **Slavic** peoples of the **Balkans** (most Russians were also Slavs) in order to gain access to the warmer waters and trade of the Mediterranean. France and Russia promise to come to each other's aid should either be attacked by a third country. Great Britain eventually agrees not to fight France or Russia should a war break out. These agreements between the nations of France, Great Britain and Russia formed the **Triple Entente**.

Adding to these tensions was a growing spirit of **militarism** (the glorification of armed strength). By 1914, many Europeans believed war was inevitable as all the Great Powers were building up large, standing armies. With the exception of Great Britain, who relied on her navy for defense, all the other European powers had adopted **conscription** (compulsory military service). Generals made war plans and yearned for a chance to put their plans into practice. Each country feared sitting around and waiting while their enemy became stronger. Many urged their leaders not to wait. Civilians, who had not experienced a major, general war in over 100 years, remembered only the glory of war and not the horrors of the Napoleonic wars.

Thus, the primary underlying causes of WWI were:

- (1) The competing imperial interests of the Great Powers of Europe
- (2) Slavic nationalist aspirations and Austro-Hungarian imperialist ambitions in the Balkans
- (3) The division of Europe into threatening alliances
- (4) A growing spirit of militarism

These underlying causes needed only a spark to ignite the most destructive war the world had ever seen. The spark would be ignited in the Balkans and quickly spread throughout Europe, engulfing practically the entire continent into war.



The Discovery of America

The history of Spanish exploration begins with the history of Spain itself. During the fifteenth century, Spain hoped to gain an advantage over Portugal, its rival on the Iberian Peninsula. The marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile in 1469 unified Catholic Spain and began the process of building a nation that could compete for worldwide power. Since the 700s, much of Spain had been under Islamic rule, and King Ferdinand II and Queen Isabella I, arch-defenders of the Catholic Church against Islam, were determined to defeat the Muslims in Granada, the last Islamic stronghold on the fringes of Europe. In 1492, they completed the Reconquista: the centuries long Christian conquest of the Iberian Peninsula. The Reconquista marked another step forward in the process of making Spain an imperial power, and Ferdinand and Isabella were now ready to look further afield.

Their goals were to expand Catholicism and to gain a commercial advantage over Portugal. To those ends, Ferdinand and Isabella sponsored extensive Atlantic exploration. Spain's most famous explorer, Christopher Columbus, was actually from Genoa, Italy. He believed that, using calculations based on other mariners' journeys, he could chart a westward route to India, which could be used to expand European trade and spread Christianity. Starting in 1485, he approached Genoese, Venetian, Portuguese, English, and Spanish monarchs, asking for ships and funding to explore this westward route. All those he petitioned including Ferdinand and Isabella at first rebuffed him; their nautical experts all concurred that Columbus's estimates of the width of the Atlantic Ocean were far too low. However, after three years of entreaties, and, more important, the completion of the Reconquista, Ferdinand and Isabella agreed to finance Columbus's expedition in 1492, supplying him with three ships: the *Nina*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*. The Spanish monarchs knew that Portuguese mariners had reached the southern tip of Africa and sailed the Indian Ocean. They understood that the Portuguese would soon reach Asia and, in this competitive race to reach the Far East, the Spanish rulers decided to act.

Columbus held erroneous views that shaped his thinking about what he would encounter as he sailed west. He believed the earth to be much smaller than its actual size and, since he did not

know of the existence of the Americas, he fully expected to land in Asia. On October 12, 1492, however, he made landfall on an island in the Bahamas. He then sailed to an island he named Hispaniola (present-day Dominican Republic and Haiti). Believing he had landed in the East Indies, Columbus called the native Taínos he found there “Indios,” giving rise to the term “Indian” for any native people of the New World. Upon Columbus’s return to Spain, the Spanish crown bestowed on him the title of Admiral of the Ocean Sea and named him governor and viceroy of the lands he had discovered. As a devoted Catholic, Columbus had agreed with Ferdinand and Isabella prior to sailing west that part of the expected wealth from his voyage would be used to continue the fight against Islam.

French Revolution

The French Revolution was a period of radical political and societal change in France that began with the Estates General of 1789 and ended with the formation of the French Consulate in November 1799. Many of its ideas are considered fundamental principles of liberal democracy, while phrases like *liberté, égalité, fraternité* reappeared in other revolts, such as the 1917 Russian Revolution, and inspired campaigns for the abolition of slavery and universal suffrage. The values and institutions it created dominate French politics to this day.

Its causes are generally agreed to be a combination of social, political and economic factors, which the existing regime proved unable to manage. In May 1789, widespread social distress led to the convocation of the Estates General, which was converted into a National Assembly in June. Continuing unrest culminated in the Storming of the Bastille on 14 July, which led to a series of radical measures by the Assembly, including the abolition of feudalism, the imposition of state control over the Catholic Church in France, and extension of the right to vote.

The next three years were dominated by the struggle for political control, exacerbated by economic depression and Civil disorder. Opposition from external powers like Austria, Britain, and Prussia resulted in the outbreak of the French Revolutionary Wars in April 1792. Disillusionment with Louis XVI led to the establishment of the French First Republic on 22 September 1792, followed by his execution in January 1793. In June, an uprising in Paris replaced the Girondins who dominated the National Assembly with the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Maximilien Robespierre.

The Start of War I

On June 28, 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and his wife, Sophie, were paying a state visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The royal pair was shot at point blank range as they rode through the streets of Sarajevo in an open car. The killer was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old member of the Black Hand, a secret society committed to ridding Bosnia of Austrian rule.

Because the assassin was a Serbian, Austria decided to use the murders as an excuse to punish Serbia. An angry Kaiser Wilhelm II urged Austria to be aggressive and he offered Germany's unconditional support. In effect, this gave Austria a "blank check," or the license to do what it wanted in Serbia.

On July 23, Austria presented Serbia with an ultimatum (a list of demands that if not met, will lead to serious consequences). The ultimatum was deliberately harsh. Demands included an end to all anti-Austrian activity. In addition, Serbian leaders would have had to allow Austrian officials into their country to conduct an investigation into the assassinations. Serbia knew that refusing the ultimatum would lead to war against the more powerful Austria. Therefore, Serbian leaders agreed to most of Austria's demands. They offered to have several others settle by an international conference. Austria, however, was in no mood to negotiate. The nation's leaders, it seemed, had already settled on war. On July 28, Austria rejected Serbia's offer and declared war.

After this first military action, a series of events followed in quick succession. With news of Austria's attack on Belgrade, Russia ordered a general mobilization of its troops on July 30, 1914. Germany, interpreting this move as a final decision by Russia to go to war, promptly ordered its own mobilization. Although the Russian tsar and German Kaiser were communicating feverishly by telegraph throughout this time, they failed to convince each other that they were only taking precautionary measures. Britain made an attempt to intervene diplomatically, but to no avail. On August 1, the German ambassador to Russia handed the Russian foreign minister a declaration of war.

On August 3, Germany, in accordance with the Schlieffen Plan, declared war on France as well. The Schlieffen Plan was a German military plan, formulated in 1905, that addressed how Germany should handle the threat of a war on two fronts with Russia and France. In short, the plan stipulated that if war were expected, Germany first attack France before embarking upon military actions against Russia. Under the plan, Germany hoped to overrun France in only six weeks by attacking across France's borders with Belgium and Holland, which were less fortified than the border with Germany. Britain, which had a defense agreement with Belgium, declared war on Germany the next day, August 4th.

By mid-August 1914, the battle lines were clearly drawn. On one side were Germany and Austria-Hungary, known as the Central Powers because of their geographic location in the heart of Europe. On the other side were Great Britain, France, and Russia. They were known as the Allied Powers, or the Allies.

Other powers soon joined the war. In October, Turkey joined the Central Powers. A year later, Bulgaria did the same. In the beginning, Italy stayed neutral. The Italians said that the Triple Alliance was a defensive alliance and Germany had been the aggressor. However, nine months later Italy joined the Allies against Germany and Austria.

In the late summer of 1914, millions of soldiers marched happily off to battle, convinced that the war would be short. Only a few people foresaw the horrors ahead. Staring out over London at nightfall, Britain's foreign minister, Sir Edward Grey, said sadly to a friend, "The lamps are going out all over Europe. We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime." Therefore, the German high command decided to send thousands of men to the east, which weakened the western army, whose supply lines were growing thin.

At the Battle of the Marne River, the German advance was topped dead in its tracks and the German generals gave the order to retreat. Paris was saved. The German retreat left the Schlieffen plan in ruins. A quick victory in the west was no longer possible. Germany had no hope of a quick victory in the east either. Although the Germans won several battles against the Russians in 1914, Russia was simply too big for overnight conquest. Germany's generals now faced the fearful prospect of a long war on two fronts.

Total War: A New Kind of Warfare

After the Battle of the Marne, the war on the Western Front settled into a stalemate. Both sides dug in and held their existing positions. By early 1915, each army had built an elaborate system of tunnels, shelters, and trenches, from which they engaged in **trench warfare**. These battle lines stretched more than 600 miles from the English Channel to the Swiss border. The space between the two sets of trenches won the grim name of "**no-man's land**." As soldiers settled into the trenches for weeks and then months and then years, people began to realize that this war was unlike any other in history. Life in the trenches was pure misery. "The men slept in mud, washed in mud, ate mud, and dreamed in mud," wrote one soldier. The trenches swarmed with rats, fresh food was nonexistent, and sleep was nearly impossible. When the officers ordered an attack, their men went "**over the top**" of their trenches into a bomb-out landscape. There, they usually met murderous rounds of machine-gun fire. Armies traded huge losses for pitifully small land gains.

The slaughter within the trenches reached a peak in 1916. At the Battle of Verdun, that lasted more than five months, each side would lose more than 300,000 men. At the Battle of the Somme, in the first day of battle alone, more than 20,000 British soldiers were killed. Several months later, each side had suffered over half a million casualties. What did each side gain from these two great battles? Near Verdun, the Germans advanced about four miles. In the Somme valley, the British advanced about five miles.

During World War I, countries on both sides used the technology of the Industrial Revolution to help their armies. They invented new weapons and made older ones more deadly. One of these new weapons was the automatic machine gun. It fired so rapidly that a soldier's only protection was to take cover in the trenches. In 1915, Germany turned to poison gas, a mixture that choked and blinded its victims. The Allies quickly began using gas too. In 1916, the tank came into use. While millions of soldiers struggled on the ground, a handful of fighting men launched a new kind of battle in the air. Here, airplanes took part in war for the first time in history. The age of the dogfight, or aerial battle, began. New weapons also changed the war at sea. Early in

the war, Great Britain used its navy to blockade the North Sea coast in order to keep food and war materials from reaching Germany. The Germans fought back with a new invention, the submarine or U-boat. Germany would use its large fleet of U-boats to attack ships carrying food and war supplies to Britain.

World War I soon became a total war, meaning that countries devoted all their resources to the war effort. In each of the major countries fighting the war, the entire force of government was dedicated to winning the conflict by taking control of the economy. Governments told factories what to produce and how much. Numerous facilities were converted to munitions factories. Nearly every able-bodied civilian was put to work. So many goods were in short supply that governments turned to rationing.

In the past, most wars had been fought by professional soldiers. World War I was different. The long trench lines were manned by drafted civilians. In every country, the vast majority of men between 20 and 40 years of age were in military service for the duration of the war. Governments also suppressed anti-war activity, censored news about the war, and used propaganda (one-sided information designed to persuade) to keep up morale and support for the war. All the warring countries used books, posters, and news reports to arouse hatred of the enemy.

Total war also meant that governments turned to help from women as never before. Thousands of women replaced men in factories, offices, and shops. Women built tanks and munitions, plowed fields, paved streets, and ran hospitals. They also kept troops supplied with food, clothing, and weapons. Although most women left the work force within the year the war ended, the war changed many people's views of what women were capable of doing.

A Global Conflict

As trench warfare became the primary characteristic on the Western Front, fighting on other fronts played a crucial role in tipping the balance between the Allies and the Central Powers. In the east, Russians and Serbs battled Austrians, Turks, and Germans. The war in the east was more a war of movement than in the west, but here too stalemate was common. But in 1914, the Germans crushed the invading Russians at the Battle of Tannenberg. Afterward, the Germans gradually pressed the Russians a back into their own land.

Russia never recovered from its defeat at Tannenberg. Short of food, guns, boots, and even blankets, the Russian army had only one asset – numbers. Russia's enormous populations was used to refill the ranks of the army despite over-whelming casualties. For more than three years, that army tied up hundreds of thousands of German troops in the east. Thus, Germany could never hurl its full fighting force at the west.

As the war dragged on, the Allies desperately searched for a way to end the stalemate. In February 1915, the British, Australian, New Zealand, and French troops made repeated assaults on the Dardanelles, the straits linking the Black and Mediterranean seas. They hoped to open

the straits to send much needed supplies to Russia. Defending the straits were the Ottoman Turks, who had joined the Central Powers in October of 1914. The Allied assault, known as the Gallipoli campaign, turned into another bloody stalemate. After almost a year of fighting, the Allies were forced to give up.

Later, the British mounted more indirect campaigns against the Ottomans by organizing Arab nationalists in the Middle East. These campaigns were more successful than the direct attack on Turkey had been. Particularly devoted to the Arab cause was a British soldier named T.E. Lawrence, better known as Lawrence of Arabia, who led daring guerrilla raids against the Turks. The Arabs were eager to revolt against their Turkish overlords. Gradually, Allied forces took control of Baghdad, Jerusalem, and Damascus.

Far from the battlefields of Europe, places in Asia and Africa also saw fighting. Japan declared war against Germany within a few weeks after war had broken out in Europe. The Japanese quickly overran German possessions in China and captured most of Germany's Pacific island colonies. In Africa, the British and French conquered most of Germany's possessions. In German East Africa (modern Tanzania), however, Germany managed to hold out to the bitter end.

The United States Enters the War

Although the Central Powers had won important military successes in 1916, those efforts had nearly exhausted their resources and manpower. Food shortages were already critical because of the British blockade. Worse, Germany's potato crop failed in the summer of 1916.

Desperate to strike a decisive blow, Germany decided to take a new risk. On January 31, 1917, the Germans announced that their submarines would sink without warning any ship in the waters around Britain. This policy was called unrestricted submarine warfare.

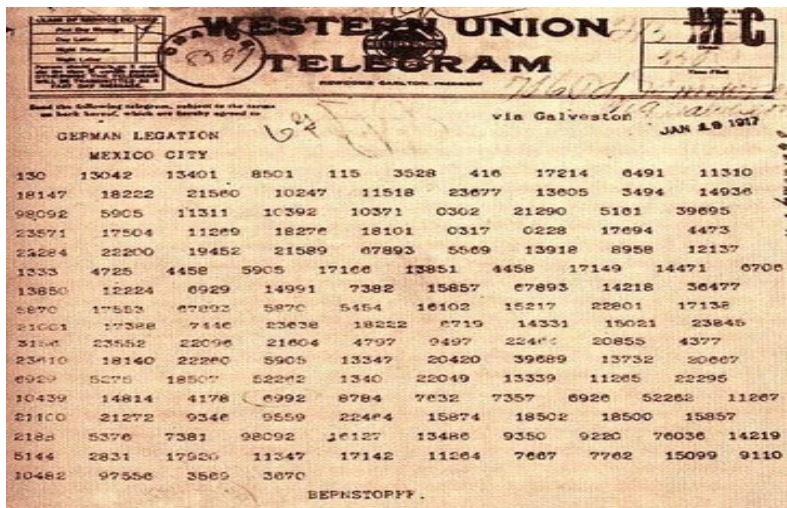
The Germans had tried this policy earlier in the war. On May 7, 1915, a German U-boat had sunk the British passenger ship Lusitania, killing 1,198 people including 139 United States citizens. The attacks had outraged people in the United States. President Woodrow Wilson had sent a strong protest to Germany. The Germans, fearing that the United States would declare war, backed down. They agreed to give warning to ships of a neutral country before firing.



The Cunard liner Lusitania speeding past the Fastnet lighthouse, probably outward bound for New York on her maiden voyage

When the Germans returned to unrestricted submarine warfare in 1917, they knew their decision would lead to war with the United States. However, they hoped to starve Britain into defeat before the United States could mobilize. Three days after Germany announced its plans, President Woodrow Wilson warned Germany that the United States would take any action necessary to protect its citizens. Soon after, German U-bots sank three American ships bound for Great Britain.

In February 1917, another even added fuel to the fire. The British intercepted a telegram from Germany's foreign secretary, Arthur Zimmermann, to the German minister in Mexico. The message said that Germany would help Mexico "reconquer" the land it had lost to the United States if Mexico would ally itself with Germany. The British quickly decoded the message and gave it to the United States government.



Historical Image of Zimmerman Telegram

When the Zimmermann note was made public, many Americans called for war against Germany. Even before news of the note, many Americans had sided with the Allies. A large part of the American population felt a bond with England. The two nations had shared a common ancestry and language, as well as similar democratic institutions and legal systems. In addition, reports - some true and others not – of German war atrocities stirred anti-German sentiment in the United States. More importantly, America’s economic ties with the Allies were far stronger than those with the Central Powers. America traded with Great Britain and France more than twice as much as with Germany. The Zimmermann note simply proved to be the final straw. On April 2, 1917, President Woodrow Wilson asked Congress to declare war. The United States entered the war on the side of the Allies.

This was much-needed news for the Allies, as just a month earlier Czar Nicholas II had renounced his throne. Russia’s suffering during the war had chipped away the people’s support for the Czar. The new government hoped to continue fighting the war, but the Russian armies refused. Just months later, a new revolution struck. Communists seized Russia’s government. They quickly signed the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** with Germany that gave up huge amounts of Russian territory in return for peace. In March 1918, Germany tried one final attack. Once again, the German army nearly reached Paris. The soldiers were tired, and supplies were short, thought. The Allies, now with fresh American troops, drove the Germans back.

Upon this news, Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire surrendered. In October, a revolution toppled the emperor of Austria-Hungary. In November, Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to step down in Germany. The new government agreed to stop fighting, and on November 11, 1918, the war was over.

The Cost of the War

The Cost of the War was staggering. Beyond the 8 million soldiers and 6 million civilians that lost their lives, World War I had shaken the economic and social foundations of Europe. A whole generation of young men had been struck down. France lost 20% of its men between the ages of 20 and 44, and Germany lost 15%. Almost every family in Europe had a son, a husband, or a brother who had been killed or maimed.

The war also left deep scars in the memories of those who survived. Among them were writers, painters, and composers who passed on their experiences to others through their works. Their bitterness and pessimism ran through much of the art and literature of the 1920’s and 1930’s. Disillusioned and disheartened, these young people became known as the **Lost Generation**. Britain’s under-secretary of the navy, Winston Churchill said that victory had been “bought so dear as to be indistinguishable from defeat.”

A Flawed Peace

Peace talks were scheduled to be held in Paris. The main leaders, the so called Big Three, were Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Georges Clemenceau of France, and David Lloyd George

of Britain. None of the defeated countries had been allowed to take part in the discussions. Their representatives were present now only to hear the verdict.

Wilson pushed for his peace plan called the Fourteen Points. He wanted to end secret treaties and alliances and give people the right to form their own nation, a policy known as self-determination. Self-determination meant allowing people to decide for themselves under what government they wished to live. In short, Wilson hoped to end imperialism. He also hoped to establish a League of Nations, a world organization that could police the actions of nations and prevent future wars. His Fourteen Points also argued for freedom of the seas, removing economic barriers to trade, and reducing the size of national armies and navies.

Britain and especially France had different views. They had suffered greatly in the war and wanted to punish Germany. After long debates, the leaders finally agreed on a peace economic barrier to trade, and reducing the size of national armies and navies settlement called the **Treaty of Versailles**.

The treaty of Versailles, established the League of Nations, as Wilson had hoped. It would include 32 nations, with the United States, Britain, France, Japan, and Italy making up the leadership. Germany and Russia were left out of the League. The treaty took away German land in Europe and its colonies. Limits were placed on the size of Germany's armed forces. France regained Alsace-Lorraine and won the right to work the rich mines of the Saar basin for 15 years. After that time, the people of the Saar region were to have the right to rejoin Germany if they so wished.

Poland once again became an independent nation. The new Poland received a large strip of German land called the **Polish Corridor**. This strip cut off East Prussia from the rest of Germany and gave Poland access to the Baltic Sea.

The treaty had many clauses designed to keep Germans from ever again threatening the peace. The size of the German army was strictly limited. Germany could not manufacture war material. Submarines and airplanes were also banned. Furthermore, the Germans were forbidden to place any troops in the **Rhineland**, a strip of land in western Germany between the Rhine River and the French border.

Finally, Germany was given complete blame for the war in what came to be known as the **war guilt clause**. Germany, therefore, would be required to pay **reparations** (payments for war damage) to the Allies for the damage caused. The final reparations bill came to \$31 billion, which Germany was to pay over the next 30 years.

Other Treaties Created New Nations

The Versailles treaty with Germany was just one of five signed in Paris during 1919 and 1920. The other Central Powers also suffered losses in territory. However, out of the ashes of these

old empires, Wilson's idea of national self-determination guided the creation of several new nations.

Turkey was forced to give up almost all of their old empire. Their territory was limited to what is now the country of Turkey. The lands that the Ottomans lost in Southwest Asia were formed into several new territories: Iraq, Lebanon, Palestine, Transjordan, and Syria. These areas became **mandates**, (a territory that was administered on behalf of the League of Nations). The **League of Nations** assigned control of Palestine, Iraq, and Transjordan to Great Britain, Syria and Lebanon went to France. The treaty also recognized the independence of Saudi Arabia.

Several new countries were carved out of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Austria and Hungary were both recognized as independent nations. However, they lost some territory to the newly formed countries of Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia. Even before the peace treaty was signed, Germany had to cancel the severe Treaty of Brest-Litovsk in which Germany had taken about a fourth of Russia's European territory. Even so, Russia ended by losing more land than Germany. The Allies, fearful of Russia's new revolutionary government, wanted to protect Russia's neighbors to the west. As a result Russia lost land to both Romania and Poland. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, which had all declared their independence from Russia in 1918, were recognized as nations.

The new country of Czechoslovakia included a region called the **Sudetenland**. Some 3 million Germans lived in this border region. Furthermore, the treaties forbade any union between Germany and the now tiny state of Austria, whose 6 million people were nearly all German speaking.

The United States Rejected the Treaty

Across the Atlantic, many Americans objected to the Treaty of Versailles, especially to the League of Nations. Some believed that the United States' best hope for peace was to stay out of European affairs. Other Americans feared the League might undermine the powers of Congress in foreign affairs. They wanted to be sure, for example, that no American soldiers could be ordered to fight without Congress's consent. After a bitter debate, the United States Senate refused to join the League of Nations or accept the Treaty of Versailles. The United States worked out a separate treaty with Germany and its allies several years later.

In the end, the Treaty of Versailles did little to build a lasting peace. Instead, it left a legacy of bitterness and hatred. In the hearts of the German people. Other countries felt cheated and betrayed by the peace settlements. Lacking the support of several world powers, the League of Nations was in no position to take action on these complaints. It was, as one observer described it, "a peace built on quicksand."

The First World War (1914-1918) came at the end of a complex era. The Long Nineteenth Century had seen the rise of democracies, increased economic production, and reforms, but also empire, racism, and terrible poverty. The years since the war have been similarly

complicated. In the last century, we have seen another world war and a great deal of suffering, but there's also evidence that things are getting better. What is the human experience of the century we have just lived through, and is this experience the same for everyone? Website: <https://whp.oerproject.com> Facebook: <https://www.facebook.com/OERProject/> Twitter: <https://twitter.com/OERProject>. Created by World History Project.

Practice Questions:

1. Who killed Franz Ferdinand? Why did they kill him?
2. How did the European alliance system help start the war?
3. How did imperialism help start the war?
4. Why does the author argue that industrialization made the war inevitable once preparations were started?
5. How might the First World War have happened on accident?

Vocabulary:

imperialism	the policy of extending the rule or authority of an empire or nation over foreign countries.
nationalism	the belief that peoples' main loyalty should be to their nation and to the people whom they share a common culture and history.
militarism	a policy of glorifying military power and keeping a standing army prepared for war.
Alliance System	defensive military agreements between European nations that were meant to preserve the balance of power in Europe, but instead became one of the causes for dragging all of the Great Powers into World War I.
Franz Ferdinand	heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary whose assassination in 1914 would begin a chain of events that launched World War I.
trench warfare	a form of warfare in which opposing armies fight each other from trenches dug into the battlefield.
Armenian genocide	mass murder committed during WWI by the Ottoman Turks against approximately one million Christians who lived in the Ottoman Empire.
Woodrow Wilson	President of the U.S. during WW I who presented his 14 Points at the Paris Peace Conference at the close of war.

Fourteen Points	President Woodrow Wilson's plan for peace at the Paris Peace Conference of 1919.
League of Nations	an international organization proposed by U.S. President Woodrow to promote disarmament and prevent future wars.
mandate system	the system established after World War I to administer former territories of the German and Ottoman empires, essentially where the victors took control of conquered territories as the spoils of war.

Review Questions:

How did European imperialist rivalries and competition for resources contribute to the start of World War I?

1. How did the rise of nationalism, alliances and militarism cause World War I?
2. How did political boundaries in Europe and Southwest Asia change after the First World War?
3. In what ways were the ideals of the Fourteen Points honored and ignored?
4. How did innovation of aircraft change the way war was fought?
5. What is meant by total warfare?
6. What sparked political mass murder in Armenia?
7. Why did the Japanese invade China in the 1930's?

The Holocaust: 1941-1942

The term **holocaust**, originally meaning a sacrifice consumed by fire in a Greek temple, has been used since the early 19th century for the murder of a large number of people. In recent decades it has acquired a much more specific significance. It now defines, almost exclusively, the systematic attempt by Hitler and the Nazis to exterminate the Jewish people. In the 20th century, which far outstripped all others in the horrors perpetrated by humans on their own kind, the Holocaust has come to stand as the defining atrocity.

It is also the atrocity, in the whole of world history, most deliberately planned as the fulfillment of a theory. A flawed and fanatic theory, but one of fatal potency.

The theory, articulated by Hitler in *Mein Kampf* and in frequent ranting speeches, taps into a deep-rooted European tradition of anti-Semitism, blends in some 19th-century fantasies about ethnic identity and racial purity, and finally adds a dash of 20th-century neurosis about socialism. The troubles of Germany and Austria are thereby blamed on a conspiracy of Jews, working like a virus in all spheres of national life to take over the economy and even, through sexual intermingling, to degrade the pure Aryan stock.

The misfortune underlying the tragedy of the Holocaust is that someone with these views succeeds in becoming the leader of a powerful nation and then, for a brief while, the conqueror of Europe.

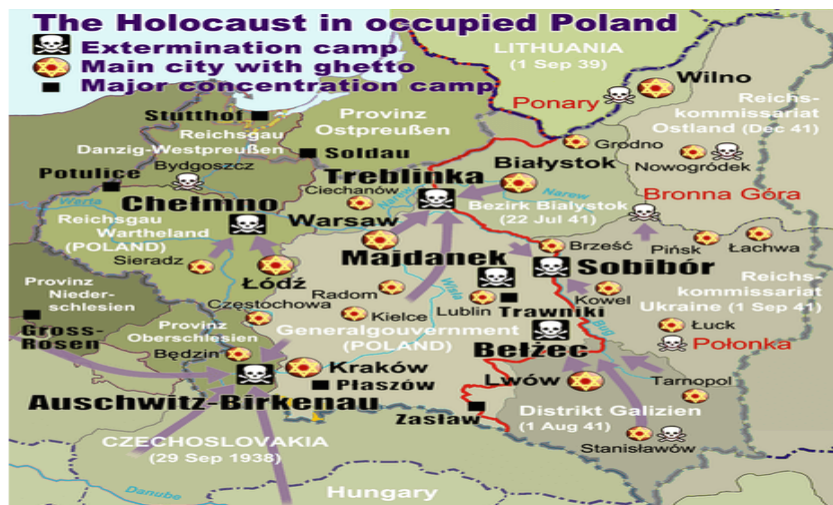
From achieving power in 1933 until the outbreak of war in 1939 (an event for which he holds the Jews responsible), Hitler's ambition is to rid Germany and Austria of the nations' long-resident Jews by making them move elsewhere. But with his invasion of Russia in 1941 he begins to conceive a more drastic outcome. The 'final solution of the Jewish problem' (a phrase used in Nazi documents from early in 1942) will be death.

Within the first few days of the Russian campaign Hitler's Special Task forces round up and shoot large numbers of Jews. In two weeks of continual executions in early July, in the city of Kishinev alone, one such task force kills 10,000 people.

On June 27, in Bialystok, German soldiers chase Jews through the narrow streets around a blazing synagogue, like devils in a medieval scene of the Last Judgement. Hundreds of Jews have been locked into the synagogue before it is set on fire. Once it is blazing, the doors are broken down and others are shoved into the cauldron.

But the Nazis are already working on a less visible and more efficient method of achieving their purpose. It is first employed at Chelmno, in Poland, during 1941. Three vans are specially adapted for the killing of people through exposure to lethal gas. During the first six months 97,000 Jews die in these vans. The scheme is considered highly successful. So steps are taken to provide larger-scale death camps with permanent buildings.

These death camps are built on Polish or Russian soil. One of the first and largest is Treblinka (in Poland) where more than 750,000 Jews are killed during 1942, most of them brought there from the Warsaw ghetto.



Map depicting locations of camps established in Poland

The placing of the concentration camps in the east, relatively out of sight, is a practical measure of discretion by the Nazi high command. On 20 January 1942 a meeting is convened at Wannsee, a lakeside villa near Berlin, by Himmler's second-in-command in the SS, Reinhard Heydrich. Heydrich has been put in charge of the 'final solution'. The purpose of the meeting is to discuss the practical arrangements.

He is taken for granted by now in these high Nazi circles that the solution must apply to Jews in all the nations occupied by the Germans. But death camps in France or the Netherlands will be more exposed to view. So it is decided that Jews from such countries must be brought to the Polish camps.

Thus begins one of the abiding images of the holocaust - trains of cattle trucks into which Jews are crowded, heading for an unknown destination. The program is described as 'transportation of the Jews towards the Russian East'. Early in 1942 the prospect facing these people is immediate death. But later there are two possibilities - immediate death by gas, or slow death by hard labor and deprivation.

The Holocaust: 1942-1945

During 1942 it occurs to the Nazis that, as with the Soviet prisoners of war, they are wasting valuable slave labor in their policy of automatic murder of the Jews. So a new form of camp is planned in which those on the trains will be classified, on arrival, as 'fit' or 'unfit' to work. The fit go one way, to the prison huts where they will live for a while as unpaid and underfed laborers. The unfit go the other way, to the gas chambers.

The first camp of this kind, ready for use in March 1942, is built at Auschwitz in Poland. An unknown number of people (certainly well in excess of a million) die in this camp in the next three years. More than half of them - the unfit, the elderly, the children - are killed in the four gas chambers within a day or two of their arrival.

Although by far the largest group of victims to die because of Hitler's theories (about 6 million), the Jews are not alone. Gypsies too are considered a polluting threat to an Aryan society. Rounded up and sent to the camps, most of them are marked down for Sonderbehandlung ('special treatment' another Nazi euphemism, meaning murder). It is calculated that in all some 400,000 Gypsies are killed.

For Jews in **towns or ghettos**, as for any civilians living in a modern police state, resistance to the authorities is almost impossible (though the uprising in the Warsaw ghetto in April 1943 demonstrates how much can be achieved by desperate people fighting in extreme circumstances). The only effective form of resistance in an occupied country is to vanish into a hidden underworld of secret cells, building up a network of like-minded partisans who will undertake any task to frustrate the occupying regime - from securing safe havens for hunted men to acts of sabotage and guerrilla warfare.

Vocabulary:

totalitarianism	government control over every aspect of public and private life. Stalin's communist Soviet Union and Hitler's Nazi Germany are key examples.
Joseph Stalin	communist dictator of the Soviet Union.
Great Depression	the severe economic depression that followed the collapse of the U.S. stock market in 1929.
Franklin Roosevelt	President of the United States throughout most of the Great Depression and WWII.
fascism	a political movement that promotes an extreme form of nationalism, a denial of individual rights, dictatorial one-party rule, and forcible suppression of opposition.
Benito Mussolini	fascist dictator of Italy during WWII; the original fascist.
Adolf Hitler	leader of the Nazi party and fascist dictator of Germany during WWII.
Weimar Republic	the parliamentary representative democracy established in Germany after its defeat in WW I.
	Nazi Party National Socialist German Worker's Party
Nazi Party National Socialist German Worker's Party	a radical right wing political party that came to power in Germany during the 1930's and was led by Adolf Hitler.
appeasement	The making of concessions to an aggressor in order to avoid war, as the Western powers did with Hitler at the Munich Conference.
Non-Aggression Pact	An agreement in which nations promise not to attack one another.
Stock Market Crash	A sudden dramatic decline of stock prices, driven by a public panic, across a significant cross-section of a stock market, resulting in a significant loss of paper wealth. This occurred in the U.S. in 1929.
Tojo, Hideki	Military general and prime minister of Japan during WWII. He convinced the Japanese emperor to approve of the attack on Pearl Harbor. He would be hanged in 1948 after being convicted of war crimes at the Nuremberg Trials.

Practice Questions:

1. Which battle turned the tide of the war against the Nazis?
2. Was there a formula for survival for Jews in the Holocaust?
3. What was Hitler's "Final Solution"?
4. What methods did the Nazis use to carry out its aims?
5. How did the Nuremberg trials and the establishment of the United Nations reflect in increasingly politically connected world?

Cold War

The Cold War began after the end of World War II in 1945, was one of the greatest military, economic, cultural, and social conflicts of the twentieth century, which ideologically confronted the two superpowers of the time: the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and the United States of America (USA), for the supremacy of the world. USSR were promoters of the communist model, while USA defended the capitalist model.

USA and USSR did not face each other openly. On the contrary, they clashed indirectly, intervening in third-country conflicts, in which each power supported a different faction.

Throughout the Cold War there were stages of tension, such as: the Berlin crisis (1948), the Korean War (1950-53), the Cuban crisis for the installation of Soviet missiles on the island (1963) and the Vietnam War (1965-73).

Truman Doctrine

With the **Truman Doctrine**, President Harry S. Truman established that the United States would provide political, military, and economic assistance to all democratic nations under threat from external or internal authoritarian forces.

The Truman Doctrine arose from a speech delivered by President Truman before a joint session of Congress on March 12, 1947.

Marshall Plan

In the immediate post-World War II period, Europe remained ravaged by war and thus susceptible to exploitation by an internal and external Communist threat. In a June 5, 1947, Secretary of State George C. Marshall issued a call for a comprehensive program to rebuild Europe, Congress passed the **Economic Cooperation Act** in March 1948 and approved funding that would eventually rise to over \$12 billion for the rebuilding of Western Europe.

The **Marshall Plan** generated a resurgence of European industrialization and brought extensive investment into the region. It was also a **stimulant** to the U.S. economy by establishing markets for American goods.

The Marshall Plan was applied solely to Western Europe, precluding any measure of Soviet Bloc cooperation. Increasingly, the economic revival of Western Europe, especially West Germany, was viewed suspiciously in Moscow. The Marshall Plan also institutionalized and legitimized the concept of U.S. foreign aid programs, which have become an integral part of U.S. foreign policy.

Berlin crisis

After the end of World War II Germany was divided into four zones of occupation (To the east by the Soviets and to the west by France, the United States and United Kingdom) with the city of Berlin in the Soviet section

In early 1948, the western allies secretly began to plan the creation of a new German state made up of the Western Allies' occupation zones. In June, without informing the Soviets, U.S. and British policymakers introduced the new Deutschmark to Bizonia and West Berlin. The purpose of the currency reform was to wrest economic control of the city from the Soviets, enable the introduction of Marshall Plan aid, and curb the city's black market. Soviet authorities react blocked West Berlin. Truman, the U.S. president, and his allies responded with an airlift.

On May 11, 1949, Moscow lifted the **blockade** of West Berlin. The Berlin Crisis of 1948–1949 solidified the division of Europe. Shortly before the end of the blockade, the Western Allies created the **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)**. Were created the state of West Germany and East Germany. The incident solidified the **demarcation** between East and West in Europe. As a countermeasure against NATO the Soviet Union created the **Warsaw Pact**. The organization, formed on May 14, 1955, was a political and military alliance. Much like NATO, member pledged to defend each other if one or more of them came under attack.

Korean War

The **Korean War** began as a **civil war** between **North Korea** and **South Korea**, but the conflict soon became international when, under U.S. leadership, the United Nations joined to support South Korea and the **People's Republic of China (PRC)** entered to aid North Korea. The war left Korea divided and brought the Cold War to Asia.

The Korean War had long-lasting consequences for the entire region. Though it failed to unify the country, the United States achieved its larger goals, including preserving and promoting NATO interests and defending Japan. The war also resulted in a divided Korea and complicated any possibility for accommodation between the United States and China. The Korean War served to encourage the U.S. Cold War policies of containment and militarization, setting the stage for the further enlargement of the U.S. defense perimeter in Asia. These Cold War policies would eventually lead the United States to regional actions that included its attempts at preventing the fall of Vietnam to communism.

Cuban crisis

In 1961 was designed Operation Mongoose to, remove the Communist Castro regime from power in Cuba. In October 1962 the Kennedy administration suspended Operation in the face of a far more serious threat. In July 1962 Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev reached a secret agreement with Cuban premier Fidel Castro to place Soviet nuclear missiles in Cuba to deter any future invasion attempt.

As a measure to resolve the crisis, Kennedy ordered a naval “**quarantine**” of Cuba and began a series of direct and indirect communications between the White House and the Kremlin throughout the remainder of the crisis. Finally in October 1963 the Soviets agreed to remove their IL-28 bombers from Cuba and, on November 20, 1962, the United States ended its quarantine. U.S. Jupiter missiles were removed from Turkey in April 1963.

The Cuban missile crisis stands as a singular event during the Cold War and strengthened Kennedy’s image domestically and internationally. It also may have helped mitigate negative world opinion regarding the failed Bay of Pigs invasion. Two other important results of the crisis came in unique forms. First, despite the flurry of direct and indirect communications between the White House and the Kremlin perhaps because of it Kennedy and Khrushchev, and their advisers, struggled throughout the crisis to clearly understand each other’s true intentions, while the world hung on the brink of possible nuclear war. To prevent this from happening again, a direct telephone link between the White House and the Kremlin was established; it became known as the “Hotline.” Second, having approached the brink of nuclear conflict, both superpowers began to reconsider the nuclear arms race and took the first steps in agreeing to a nuclear Test Ban Treaty.

Vietnam war

After World War II, France, and Ho Chi Ming, on the communist side, fought for dominance of Vietnam. President Truman decided to support France because they had the belief in the **Domino Theory**. A communist victory in Vietnam might lead to communist victories in Laos, Cambodia, Thailand, Malaysia, and Indonesia. The French found Ho Chi Minh a formidable adversary. Between 1945 and 1954 a fierce war developed between the two sides. The French troops withdrew, leaving a buffer zone separating North Vietnam and South Vietnam. United States continued to supply funds, weapons, and military advisers to South Vietnam.

In February 1965, the United States began a long program of sustained bombing of North Vietnamese targets known as **Operation Rolling Thunder**. At first only military targets were hit, but as months turned into years, civilian targets were pummeled as well.

In early 1973, the **Paris Peace Accord** was signed, restoring peace in Vietnam. It was a cease-fire between the North and South, calling for the withdrawal of U.S. troops, the closing of U.S. bases, and the reunification of Vietnam by peaceful means. The accord allowed North Vietnamese troops to remain in place in the south and allowed the United States to continue

military support of the South Vietnamese government. The United States was finally out of Vietnam. Every single one of its political objectives for the region met with failure and over 55,000 Americans perished fighting the Vietnam War.

End of the Cold War

The Cold War ended with the crisis of socialism, the fall of the Berlin Wall (1989) and the separation from the Soviet Union.

In December 1991, the Soviet Union was dissolved, leading to the independence of 15 countries. Mikhail Gorbachev, who was head of state of the Soviet Union, had to take a series of measures after the economic, political, and ideological crisis facing the Soviets, known as Perestroika.

Therefore, this led to the disappearance of the largest state of communist and socialist tendency, and the United States became the only power country, under the presidency of Ronald Reagan.

With the end of the Cold War, international tensions and the dangers of possible large-scale military attacks were reduced.

Vocabulary:

Cuban Missile Crisis	(October 1962) - a tense, thirteen-day Cold War confrontation between the Soviet Union and Cuba on one side and the U.S. on the other after Soviet missile installations were discovered in Cuba.
Cultural Revolution	A 1966-1976 uprising in China led by Mao Zedong's Red Guards with the goal of establishing a society of peasants and workers in which all were equal.
Deng Xiaoping	Leader of the Communist party of China between 1980 to 1997, a survivor of the Long March and the last of the "old revolutionaries" who had ruled China since 1949. He is notable for his opening up of the Chinese economy as well as his brutal suppression of the Tiananmen Square protests.
glasnost	A Soviet policy of openness to the free flow of ideas and information, introduced in 1985 by Mikhail Gorbachev.
Mikhail Gorbachev	Leader of the Soviet from 1985 to 1991 whose democratic reform policies of glasnost and perestroika led to the election of non-Communist governments in Eastern Europe and the dissolution of the Soviet Union.

Iron curtain	During the Cold War, the boundary separating the Communist nations of Eastern Europe from the mostly democratic nations of Western Europe. The term was coined by Winston Churchill.
Khmer Rouge	A group of communist rebels who seized power in Cambodia in 1975 under the leadership of Pol Pot. A quarter of the nation's population (2 million) would be slaughtered as Pol Pot attempted to transform Cambodia into a communist, rural society.
Korean War	(1950-1953) - a war fought between North Korean and Chinese communist armies against South Korean and United Nations forces, led by the U.S.
NATO	A defensive military alliance formed in 1949 by ten Western European nations, the United States and Canada intended to collectively defend themselves against further Soviet expansion.
nuclear arms race	The race between the United States and the Soviet Union during the cold war to develop more powerful nuclear bombs.
perestroika	A restructuring of the Soviet economy to permit more local decision-making begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in 1985.
Pope John Paul II	A Polish Pope who in 1978 became the first non-Italian Pope in 400 years. His leadership and inspiration contributed to the end of communism in Eastern Europe.
Natan Sharansky	An Israeli human rights activist and author; a Russian Jewish dissident who spent nine years in a Soviet concentration camp for speaking out for greater human rights in the Soviet Union.
Tiananmen Square	Located in Beijing, China, a series of popular demonstrations occurred here in 1989 that were brutally suppressed by the Chinese military under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping.
Truman Doctrine	A U.S. policy of giving economic and military aid to free nations threatened by internal or external opponents announce by the U.S. president in 1947.
Vietnam War	A Cold War conflict taking place in Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia from 1955 to 1975.

Lech Walesa	A Polish leader who organized a trade union in Poland named Solidarity. He led a workers' strike in 1988 that would lead to free elections in Poland and the end of Communist rule.
Mao Zedong	A Chinese communist leader from 1949 until his death in 1976. With the support of the peasantry, he established communist control of China in 1949 after the Long March and driving the Nationalists off the Chinese mainland during the Chinese Civil War. He is noted for his brutal measures in achieving communist control of China, including the Great Leap Forward and the Cultural Revolution.

Chinese Civil War

By 1945, there were two Chinese governments, the Nationalist government led by Chiang Kai-shek and the communists led by Mao.

By the end of the Second Sino-Japanese War, the balance of power in China's civil war had shifted in favor of the Communists. Their main force grew to 1.2 million troops, with a militia of 2 million. Their "Liberated Zone" contained 19 base areas, including one-quarter of the country's territory and one-third of its population; this included many important towns and cities. Moreover, the Soviet Union turned over all of its captured Japanese weapons and a substantial amount of their own supplies to the Communists, who received Northeastern China from the Soviets as well.

Using the pretext of "receiving the Japanese surrender", business interests within the KMT government occupied most of the banks, factories and commercial properties, which had previously been seized by the Imperial Japanese Army. They also conscripted troops at a brutal pace from the civilian population and hoarded supplies, preparing for a resumption of war with the Communists. These hasty and harsh preparations caused great hardship for the residents of cities such as Shanghai, where the unemployment rate rose dramatically to 37.5%.

In March 1947 the KMT achieved a symbolic victory by seizing the CPC capital of Yan'an. Soon afterward the Communists counterattacked; on 30 June 1947 CPC troops crossed the Huanghe River and moved to the Dabie Mountains area, restored and developed the Central Plain. Concurrently, Communist forces in Northeastern China, North China, and East China began to counterattack as well.

By late 1948 the CPC eventually captured the northern cities of Shenyang and Changchun and seized control of the Northeast after suffering numerous setbacks while trying to take the cities, with the decisive Liaoshen Campaign. The New 1st Army, regarded as the best KMT army, was

forced to surrender after the CPC conducted a brutal six-month siege of Changchun that resulted in more than 150,000 civilian deaths from starvation.

On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong proclaimed the People's Republic of China with its capital at Beijing, which was renamed Beijing. Chiang Kai-shek and approximately two million Nationalist Chinese retreated from mainland China to the island of Taiwan in December after the loss of Sichuan. There remained only isolated pockets of resistance, notably in Sichuan (ending soon after the fall of Chengdu on December 10, 1949) and in the far south.

The People's Republic of China (1949-present)

Major combat in the Chinese Civil War ended in 1949 with the Communist Party in control of most of mainland China, and the Kuomintang retreating offshore, reducing the ROC's territory to only Taiwan, Hainan, and their surrounding islands. On 1 October 1949, Communist Party Chairman Mao Zedong proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China. In 1950, the People's Liberation Army succeeded in capturing Hainan from the ROC and occupying Tibet. However, remaining Nationalist forces continued to wage an insurgency in western China throughout the 1950s.

After Mao's death in 1976 and the arrest of the faction known as the Gang of Four, who were blamed for the excesses of the Cultural Revolution, Deng Xiaoping took power and led the country to significant economic reforms. The Communist Party subsequently loosened governmental control over citizens' personal lives and the communes were disbanded in favor of private land leases. This turn of events marked China's transition from a planned economy to a mixed economy with an increasingly open market environment. China adopted its current constitution on 4 December 1982. In 1989, the violent suppression of student protests in Tiananmen Square brought condemnation and sanctions against the Chinese government from various countries.

The Gulf War

In 1991, the United States led a UN coalition to liberate Kuwait from Iraq.

Overview

- In August 1990, Iraq invaded the country of Kuwait to its southeast in a bid to gain more control over the lucrative oil supply of the Middle East.
- In response, the United States and the UN Security Council demanded that Iraqi dictator **Saddam Hussein** withdraw Iraqi troops from Kuwait, but Hussein refused.
- Over the course of six weeks in January and February 1991, a United States-led coalition of 34 nations began an intensive bombing campaign against strategic Iraqi locations, culminating with a four-day ground campaign against Iraqi forces known as **Operation Desert Storm**.

- At the end of February, Hussein signed a cease-fire agreement and released Kuwait. After the war, Iraq was required to submit to inspections to ensure it possessed no chemical or other **weapons of mass destruction**.

Iraqi Aggression, Oil, And Power

The **Gulf War** started on August 2, 1990 when the forces of Iraqi dictator **Saddam Hussein** invaded oil-rich Kuwait. Hussein hoped that Kuwait's oil reserves would help to pay off the massive debt Iraq had accrued in its recent war with Iran, as well as give Iraq significant bargaining power as the gatekeeper to Middle Eastern oil.



Map showing Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and Israel.

Map of the Persian Gulf region. Map adapted from Wikimedia Commons.

US officials worried that the invasion of Kuwait might be Iraq's first step in a larger effort to consolidate its power over other nations in the Middle East, such as Saudi Arabia. With about one million soldiers in its armed forces, the Iraq Army was the world's fourth largest military force in part, ironically, because the United States had furnished weapons to Iraq to aid in its fight against Iran. (The United States and Iran had been on bad terms since 1979, when Islamic fundamentalists had ousted the pro-American government in Iran and taken American embassy workers hostage.)

Iraq's invasion of Kuwait posed a geopolitical oil crisis. If Saddam Hussein gained control of Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, he would have control over twenty percent of world oil reserves and become the world's dominant oil power. As President George H.W. Bush explained, "Our jobs, our way of life, our own freedom and the freedom of friendly countries around the world would all suffer if control of the world's great oil reserves fell into the hands of Saddam Hussein.

The United States and United Nations Security Council immediately condemned the invasion. The Security Council passed resolutions placing economic sanctions on Iraq and set a deadline of January 15, 1991 for Iraq to withdraw forces from Kuwait.

The Gulf War

The response to the invasion of Kuwait took place in two stages:

Operation Desert Shield (August 1990 - January 17, 1991)

Five days after Iraq invaded Kuwait, President Bush commenced Operation Desert Shield. Building a 34 nation coalition in the United Nations and enhancing US troop strength in the region to more than 500,000, the president explained Operation Desert Shield as “a line in the sand” both to protect Saudi Arabia and liberate Kuwait.

Operation Desert Storm (January 17 - February 28, 1991)

Operation Desert Storm was the combat phase of the conflict. It began with a five-week bombing campaign of some 2,000 sorties a day that employed "smart bombs" bombs able to find their target with pinpoint accuracy against a broad range of strategic Iraqi targets. Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, General Colin Powell, and General Norman Schwarzkopf orchestrated the US-led attack.

Iraq, in turn, launched largely-ineffective short-range "Scud" missiles at civilian and military targets in Saudi Arabia and Israel.

The Gulf War was the first American conflict shown on live television (though footage from the Vietnam War was shown on TV, video coverage of events lagged by several days). CNN aired live images of bombs exploding and other events of the war onto people's home television sets.

The end of the Gulf War

After the four-day ground campaign, by February 28, Iraqi forces fled Kuwait (having set fire to hundreds of oil wells). President Bush declared a ceasefire, and the Gulf War was over. Kuwait had been liberated.

Saddam Hussein was allowed to remain in power in Iraq, though Iraq was subsequently required to submit to searches for weapons of mass destruction (WMDs). President Bush had built the UN coalition around removing Iraq from Kuwait, not around the ouster of Saddam Hussein, and the decision to allow Hussein to remain in power proved controversial.

In the Middle East. Rather, it signaled that at the end of the twentieth century, the foreign policy of the United States was becoming ever-more enmeshed in the politics of the Middle East.

Following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, a second war in Iraq began in 2003 after US intelligence agencies and spy agencies around the world asserted that Saddam Hussein possessed weapons of mass destruction.

Practice Questions:

1. Was the United States led effort to oust Iraq from Kuwait a prudent one?
2. What did the United States hope to accomplish in the Gulf War?
3. What might the consequences have been if Iraq had been allowed to annex Kuwait?

Modern Era

The Modern era begins in 1914 with World War I and continues to the Present. “Change, Change, Change” are its main calling cards. Often referred to as The American Century and the Retreat of Europe, two World Wars severely alter the hierarchy of power and Europe’s control over its colonies. In addition, the areas of the Pacific Rim and India begin to rise. This leads to the collapse of European colonial empires. Modernization brings industrialization to the areas outside of initial influence, local values and traditions. As modernization promotes westernization, mass culture, promoted by new telecommunication technologies, begins to transform, such as the development of lingua francas, and ways of the past are forgotten. Lastly, the battle between new political forms pit the political and economic ideas of democracy and free enterprises against socialism, communism, and totalitarianism. Issue such as genocide and ethnic cleansing promote the development of global organizations which attempt to protect human rights and promote exchange.

World War II

In the mid 1930s events took place that would change the course of history and lead the world to war. First in 1931, Japan invaded the province of China, Manchuria and in 1937 moved further into China. It would take over the city Nanking, where it would kill an estimated 300,000 civilians in a weeks long event known as the Massacre of Nanking. As Japan attempted to conquer China, Europe was experiencing it’s own power struggle.

The lack of confidence in the Germany Weimer Republic led to a yearning for a new government. **Adolf Hitler** used this to gain control of the German government and push the **National Socialist German Workers Party**, or **Nazi** party, into the spotlight. He rearmed the country and started to expand Germany. First he **annexed** the country of Austria and attempted to take a portion of Czechoslovakia, known as the Sudetenland. Many Germans lived in this area and Hitler wanted to unite the German-speaking people of Europe. In 1938 during

the Munich Conference, Britain and France attempted to stop Hitler's invasion, by agreeing to give Hitler the Sudetenland if he agreed to stop his European invasion. They did this without consulting the people of Czechoslovakia in hopes that it would prevent a war and is known as the policy of **appeasement**. Rather than prevent war, it showed Hitler that Britain and France were timid and could be pushed around.

It led him to make more demands and he set his sights on Poland. The following year he signed the **non-aggression pact** with **Joseph Stalin**, the leader of the **Soviet Union**, where they agreed to invade Poland and divide the conquered land. Poland was no match for German troops as they unleashed a mass of forces, known as the **Blitzkrieg**. The invasion of Poland led to England and France declaring war on Germany and soon the countries were involved in a European war. Before long Germany took over Poland and France.

In the Soviet Union, Joseph Stalin took control in 1924 and created a model **communist** state, where the government had complete control of all industry. He established a **totalitarian** government, in which citizens had no rights. Stalin would push the Soviet Union to become the second largest industrial power by 1937, but would also be responsible for the death of anywhere between 8-13 million people, due to his harsh rule.

With Europe in chaos, the U.S. attempted to stay out of the fight and remain neutral. **Pacifism**, the belief in nonviolence, rose throughout the U.S. and many simply did not want to get involved in another world war. This would prove difficult as the country witnessed many injustices done to innocent Europeans.

Practice Questions:

1. What events at the end of World War II lead to increased tension between the United States and the Soviet Union?
2. What were competing political-economic ideologies that brought the U.S. and the Soviet Union into conflict?
3. How did communist revolutions, such as those in Russia, China, and Cuba help shape the Cold War and increase Cold War tensions?
4. How were the Korean and Vietnam wars demonstrative of Cold war tensions?
5. How did the arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union help shape characteristics of the Cold War?
6. What factors brought Mao Zedong to power in China?
7. What were the characteristics of Chinese communism and how did it differ from Soviet communism?
8. What new technologies of the 20th century led to a Cold War "Balance of Terror"?
9. How did the Cold War strategy of "mutually assured destruction" (MAD) help shape the character of armed conflicts in different parts of the world?
10. What were the motivations and goals for the mass murders/genocides that occurred in the Soviet Union, China, and Cambodia?

11. What were the factors that brought about the end of the Cold War?
12. Who were the key leaders of the Cold War whose decisions and actions helped bring about the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union?

Attack at Pearl Harbor

The U.S. refused to accept Japan's continue Pacific expansion, while Japan refused to stop the expansion. As **negotiations** went on the U.S., with the help of a **decoding device**, learned that the Japanese deadline for negotiations was set for November 25. When the deadline passed U.S. officials felt an attack was **emanate**, but believed it would occur in the Dutch East Indies or in the British Malaya.

To their surprise a Japanese fleet of aircraft carriers were headed toward Hawaii. Japan was well aware that with U.S. military bases in the Philippines, Guam, American Samoa, and other small Pacific Islands, an attack would not destroy the U.S.'s foothold in the Pacific, but it would slow down the U.S. ability to respond. The Japanese believed that they could capture the Philippines before the U.S. navy could recover from the attack and it would be a good start in their Pacific expansion. So in the early morning of **December 7, 1941**, with about 100 U.S. Navy ships present, the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor. The ships included cruisers, battleships, destroyers and support ships. In the two-hour attack close to 3,000 Americans died in the attack, many ships were damaged and most ground planes were destroyed as well. Rather than have the effect the Japanese intended, it had the opposite effect. Known as the "**date which will live in infamy**" the attack on Pearl Harbor was used as a **battle cry**.

Declaration of War

The very next day President Roosevelt addressed the Congress and asked for a **declaration of war**. Congress approved with only one dissenting vote and the U.S. turned away from its isolation policy and joined the growing world war. Four days later, Japan's allies, Germany and Italy declared war on the U.S., pushing the U.S. into a war with two different **fighting fronts**.

Practice Questions:

1. A world organization established in 1920 to promote international cooperation and peace. It was first proposed in 1918 by President Woodrow Wilson, although the United States never joined the League. Hitler withdrew from this which was the first step World War II. Policy of peaceful cooperation went down the drain and Nazi determination to rearm was out in the open. Essentially powerless, it was officially dissolved in 1946.
 - a. Munich Conference
 - b. Tehran conference
 - c. League of Nations
 - d. Dunkirk

2. US leader in World War II. United States general who supervised the invasion of Normandy, Casablanca and the defeat of Nazi Germany. Later appointed to be "Supreme Allied Commander" in Europe (he was placed in charge of all generals for all nations allied with the US). His next big plan was Operation Overlord.
 - a. Dwight Eisenhower
 - b. Neville Chamberlain (1869- 1940)
 - c. Franklin Roosevelt (1882-1945)
 - d. Winston Churchill

3. Who was the president during the World War I?
 - a. Franklin Roosevelt
 - b. Woodrow Wilson
 - c. George Washington
 - d. Nixon

4. United States leader during World War II who remained neutral at first but supplied Britain w/ war supplies in order to defeat Germany. "Defend America by Aiding the Allies" and "America First" Japan bombed Pearl Harbor and Germany declared war on the US. The US had mighty industry, large population, and national unity. Established the "Arsenal of Democracy."
 - a. Harry S. Truman (1884-1972)
 - b. Neville Chamberlain (1869- 1940)
 - c. Franklin Roosevelt (1882- 1945)
 - a) None above

5. Do the Soviet Union, Britain, U.S. were the top three Allied powers?
 - a. True
 - b. False

6. What is the main reason the United States entered to the World War II?
 - a. United States defend their allies
 - b. Russia attacked the United States
 - c. Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor
 - d. None above

7. Who created the communism model?
 - a. Adolf Hitler
 - b. Joseph Stalin
 - c. Soviet Union
 - d. United States government

8. During World War II to what government killed Jews people?
 - a. Germany government
 - b. Adolf Hitler
 - c. Joseph Stailin
 - d. Russia government

9. Why did the United States enter World War I?
 - a. Because Germany attacked U.S ships
 - b. To fight against Europe
 - c. To help the Ottoman Empire
 - d. To support Austria-Hungary

10. Which of the following conclusions can be drawn about United States from the information during World War I and World War II?
 - a. United States stayed neutral
 - b. United States helped the allies
 - c. United States participated in both wars
 - d. a and b

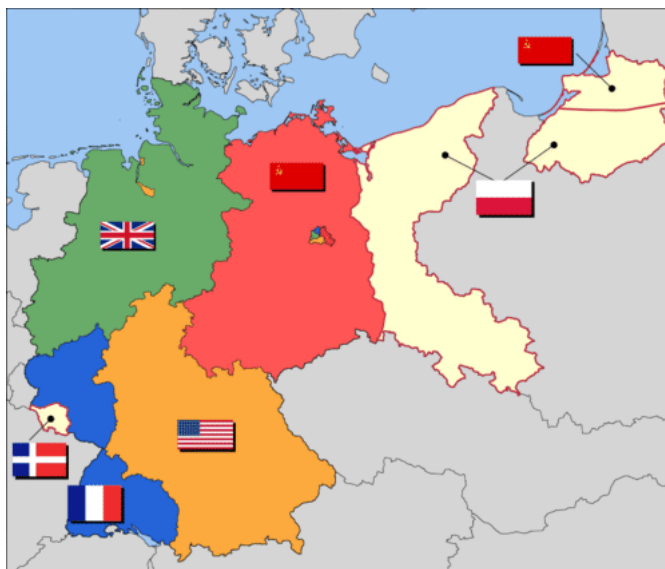
Answers:

1. c, 2. a, 3. b, 4. c, 5. a, 6. c, 7. b, 8. b, 9. a, 10. c

Civil War

Development of the Cold War

Once the Allies had defeated the Axis Powers, the differences between the United States (and Britain) and their Soviet allies became apparent. Stalin was still afraid of the West while the leaders of the United States and other western countries continued to fear communism. This leads to the question, who was responsible for starting the Cold War between the United States and the USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)? Both countries took steps that were unwise and could be misinterpreted by the other side. Thus it should not be a surprise that two counties with two such different systems came into conflict.



Post-war Allied occupation zones in Germany.

Rivalry in Europe

Eastern Europe was the first area where disagreement arose. Both the United States and Great Britain felt the liberated nations of Eastern Europe should freely determine their own governments. Stalin, fearful that the Eastern European countries would be anti-communist if they were allowed to hold free elections, was against the idea of allowing these countries to determine their own governmental system. Having freed Eastern Europe from the control of Nazi Germany, the Soviet army remained in control of the areas they had conquered.

Practice Questions:

Read the following questions and choose the best answer.

1. The proposition that when the two nations possess the ability to inflict nuclear damage on each other, then neither nation is likely to use its nuclear weapons in the first place?
 - a. Superpowers
 - b. Soviet Satellites
 - c. Nuclear deterrence
 - d. None above
2. What Airlift in 1948 that supplied food and fuel to citizens of west Berlin when the Russians closed off land access to Berlin?
 - a. True
 - b. False

3. What is a theory or system of social organization based on the holding of all property in common, actual ownership being ascribed to the community as a whole or to the state?
 - a. Monarchy
 - b. Communism
 - c. Dictatorship
 - d. Democracy

4. Which trade agreement between Canada, the United States and Mexico that encourages free trade between these North American countries?
 - a. North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)
 - b. Warsaw Pact
 - c. Marshall Plan
 - d. Gorbachev

5. Which Eastern European nations remained under the control of the Soviet Union after the Second World War.
 - a. Berlin Airlift
 - b. Superpowers
 - c. Soviet Satellites
 - d. Iron Curtain

6. Which theory that if one nation comes under Communist control, then neighboring nations will also come under Communist control?
 - a. Iron curtain
 - b. Communism
 - c. Domino theory
 - d. Containment

7. What 1962 crisis that arose between the United States and the Soviet Union over a Soviet attempt to deploy nuclear missiles in Cuba?
 - a. Berlin Airlift
 - b. Iron Curtain
 - c. Civil War
 - d. Cuban Missile Crisis

8. What was a state of tension between two superpowers with no actual fighting; power struggle between the soviet union and the United States after World War II?
 - a. Post Cold War world
 - b. Civil War
 - c. Cold War
 - d. World War II

9. Name the event, 1947, President Truman's policy of providing economic and military aid to any country threatened by communism or totalitarian ideology, mainly helped Greece and Turkey?
- Truman Doctrine
 - Cold War agreement
 - Arm Race
 - Mutual Assured Destruction (MAD)
10. What is the name of the United States program of economic aid for the reconstruction of Europe (1948-1952)?
- Marshall Plan
 - NATO
 - Truman Doctrine
 - Arm Race
11. According with the text in 1947, President Truman's policy of providing economic and military aid to any country threatened by communism or totalitarian ideology, mainly helped Greece and Turkey?
- NATO
 - Truman Doctrine
 - Cold War Agreement
 - New policy
12. What is the name of the economic and political system in which a country's trade and industry are controlled by private owners for profit, rather than by the state?
- Capitalism
 - Free market economy
 - Communism
 - None above
13. What Truman's policy was designed to keep the Soviet Union from expanding its power?
- Containment
 - New Policy
 - Cold War Agreement
 - MAD
14. Which state of political hostility and military tension between two countries or power groups, involving propaganda, subversion, threats, economic sanctions, and other measures short of open warfare, especially that between the American and Soviet Union after World War II?

- a. Communism
- b. Democracy
- c. Cold War
- d. World War II

Answers:

1. c, 2. a, 3. b, 4. a, 5. c, 6. c, 7. d, 8. c, 9. a, 10. a, 11. b, 12. a, 13. a, 14. D

Attributions:

- ["Early civilizations"](#) by Khan Academy is licensed under [CC BY 4.0](#)
 - ["Social, political, and environmental characteristics of early civilizations"](#) by Khan Academy is licensed under [CC BY 4.0](#)
 - ["World History "](#) by Wikipedia is licensed under [CC BY-SA 3.0](#)
 - ["Roots of Colonization"](#) by [Tina Ulrich, Joelle Hannert, Tom Gordon, Sherry Trier, Michelle Schneider, Michele Howard, Ryan Bernstein, Justin Guillard](#) is licensed under [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)
 - ["World History Studies"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
-
- ["United States History I"](#) by Lumen is licensed under [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)
 - ["US History High School Diploma"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
-
- ["The Gulf War"](#) by Khan Academy is in the [Public Domain](#)
 - "Practice Questions" by Beatriz Torres is licensed [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International](#)

Chapter 2: US History

The Colonial Era

In 1607 (more than a decade before the Pilgrims would land at Plymouth Rock), three wooden ships arrived on the shores of coastal Virginia. These ships carried just over 100 English men and boys--many of whom were jewelers and merchants by training and practice--and a charter from King James I of England. When they arrived, they had little over a month's time to build a fort and to establish their presence in what would be known as Jamestown. This would be the first permanent English settlement in North America.

By 1619 in a small church on the grounds of the fort, these men established the first representative assembly in North America. Twenty-two elected representatives, known as burgesses, would establish the first rule of law in North America.

Early Historical Influences on American Government

The American Revolution and the domestic instability that followed prompted a call for a new type of government with a constitution to guarantee liberty. The constitution drafted in the early days of the independent American republic has endured longer than any in human history. The Enlightenment of 17th-century Europe had the most immediate impact on the framers of the United States Constitution. Philosophes (the French term attributed to early Enlightenment Philosophers) had an important impact on modern democratic governments.

The Philosophes

One of the first philosophes (French for philosophers) was Thomas Hobbes, an Englishman who concluded in his famous book, *Leviathan*, that people are incapable of ruling themselves primarily because humans are naturally self-centered and quarrelsome, so they need the iron fist of a strong leader. Later philosophes, like Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Rousseau were more optimistic about democracy. Their ideas encouraged the questioning of absolute monarchs, like the Bourbon family that ruled France. Montesquieu suggested a separation of powers into branches of government, not unlike the system American would later adopt. They found eager students who later became the founders of the American government.



The Boston Tea party was a political and mercantile protest

The Boston Tea party was a political and mercantile protest.

John Locke

The single most important influence that shaped the founding of the United States comes from John Locke, a 17th-century Englishman who redefined the nature of government. Although he agreed with Hobbes regarding the self-interested nature of humans, he was much more optimistic about their ability to use reason to avoid tyranny.

In his *Second Treatise of Government*, Locke identified the basis of a legitimate government. According to Locke, a ruler gains authority through the consent of the governed. The duty of that government is to protect the natural rights of the people, which Locke believed to include life, liberty, and property.

If the government should fail to protect these rights, its citizens would have the right to overthrow that government. This idea deeply influenced Thomas Jefferson as he drafted the Declaration of Independence.

Important English Documents

Ironically, the English political system provided the grist for the revolt of its own American colonies. The Magna Carta, written in 1215, established the core idea of limited government, or the belief that the monarch's rule was not absolute. The Magna Carta provided the basis for the later development of Parliament. Over the years, a representative government led by a prime minister came to control and eventually replace the king as the real source of power in Britain.



The ideas of the French Enlightenment philosophes strongly influenced the American revolutionaries. French intellectuals met in salons similar to this to exchange ideas and define their ideals such as liberty, equality, and justice.

The ideas of the French Enlightenment philosophes strongly influenced the American revolutionaries. French intellectuals met in salons similar to this to exchange ideas and define their ideals such as liberty, equality, and justice.

The Petition of Right (1628) extended the rights of "commoners" to have a voice in the government. The English Bill of Rights (1688) guaranteed free elections and rights for citizens accused of crimes. Although King George III still had some real power in 1776, Britain was already well along on the path of democracy by that time.

The foundations of American government lie squarely in the 17th and 18th century European Enlightenment. The American Founders were well versed in the writings of the philosophes whose ideas influenced the shaping of the new country.

Thomas Jefferson, George Washington, James Madison, and others took the brave steps of creating a government based on the Enlightenment values of liberty, equality, and a new form of justice. That government is still intact more than 200 years later.

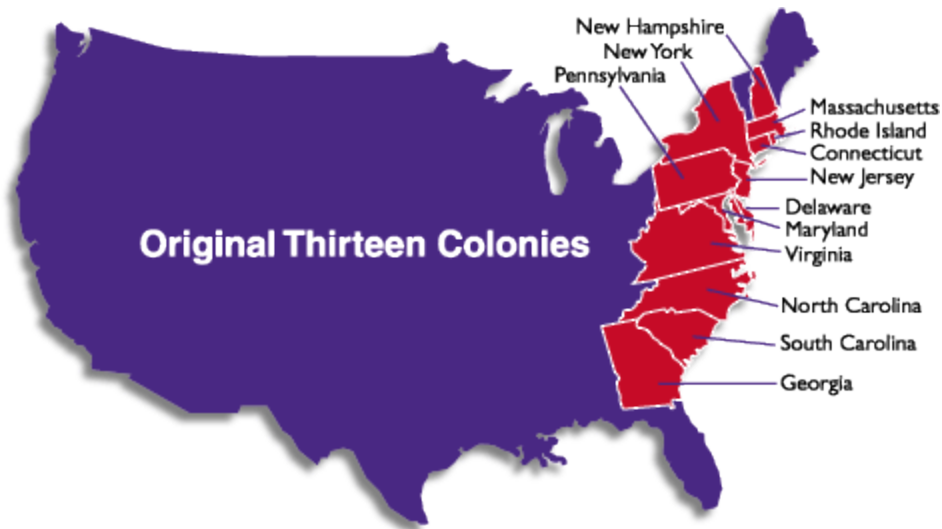
The Early Colonial Experience

One must remember that the majority of the original American Colonies were first established under the direct Charter of the British Government. The British King was considered a father to these new colonies, and the colonies were treated like the King's own children. Like children, the American colonies grew and flourished under British supervision. As with many adolescents, the colonies rebelled against their parent country by declaring independence.

The American democratic experiment did not begin in 1776. The colonies had been practicing limited forms of self-government since the early 1600s. The great expanse of the Atlantic Ocean created a safe distance for American colonists to develop skills to govern themselves, and the British had very little power to enforce even the most basic of parliamentary policies governing trade or taxation during this period known as the period of salutary neglect.

Colonial Governments

Each of the thirteen colonies had a charter, or written agreement between the colony and the king of England or Parliament. Charters of royal colonies provided for direct rule by the king. The legislatures controlled the salary of the governor and often used this influence to keep the governors in line with colonial wishes. The first colonial legislature, the Virginia House of Burgesses, was established in 1619.



Colonial Comparison

The Pre-revolutionary colonial experience was one of absorbing British models of government, the economy, and religion.

The democratic experiment of American self-rule was therefore not a sudden change brought about by the Declaration of Independence. By 1776, Americans had plenty of practice.

Political Life in Colonial Times

Under the Kingdom of Great Britain, the American colonies experienced a number of situations which would guide them in creating a constitution. The British Parliament believed that it had the right to impose taxes on the colonists.

While it did have *virtual* representation over the entire empire, the colonists believed Parliament had no such right as the colonists had no *direct* representation in Parliament. By the 1720s, all but two of the colonies had a locally elected legislature and a British appointed governor. These two branches of government would often clash, with the legislatures imposing "power of the purse" to control the British governor.

There were several occasions when royal actions upset the Americans. For example, taxes on the importation of products including lead, paint, tea, and spirits were imposed.

Colonies in North America

The colonies along the eastern coast of North America were formed under different types of charters, but most developed representative democratic governments to rule their territories.

When the first Pilgrims voyaged to the New World, a bizarre twist of fate created a spirit of self-government. These Pilgrims of the Mayflower were bound for Virginia in 1620, but they got lost and instead landed at Plymouth in present-day Massachusetts.

Since Plymouth did not lie within the boundaries of the Virginia colony, the Pilgrims had no official charter to govern them. They drafted the Mayflower Compact which, in essence, declared that they would rule themselves.

Although Massachusetts eventually became a royal colony, the Pilgrims at Plymouth set a powerful precedent of making their own rules that later reflected itself in the town meetings that were held across colonial New England.



The signing of the Mayflower Compact in 1620 led to the establishment of formal self-rule among the Pilgrims.

Video: [When is Thanksgiving? Colonizing America](#)

Trade and Taxation

Colonial economies operated under Mercantilism, a system based on the belief that colonies existed in order to increase the mother country's wealth. England tried to regulate colonial trade and forbid colonies from trading with other European countries.

England also maintained the right to tax the colonies. Both trade and taxation were difficult for England to control, so an informal agreement emerged. England regulated trade but allowed colonists the right to levy their own taxes. Smugglers soon exploited the English inability to guard every port by secretly trading against Parliament's wishes.

Religious Freedom

The Massachusetts Body of Liberties was created in 1641 with the intention of protecting an individual's rights. This document contained rights that would later be included in the Bill of Rights. Some of the liberties legislated are explicitly cited as originating from biblical sources. The ideals, common to most colonists, include a belief in natural (God-given) rights, natural laws (those attributed to God and considered higher than those of men), a set of moral behavioral standards (based on the Ten Commandments), and a belief that hard work and right behavior will be rewarded.

In Thomas Jefferson's Virginia Statute of Religious Freedom, he wrote:

"Whereas Almighty God hath created the mind free; that all attempts to influence it by temporal punishment or burthens, or by civil incapacitations, tend only to beget habits of hypocrisy and meanness, and are a departure from the plan of the Holy author of our religion, who being Lord both of body and mind, yet chose not to propagate it by coercions on either, as was his Almighty power to do . . .

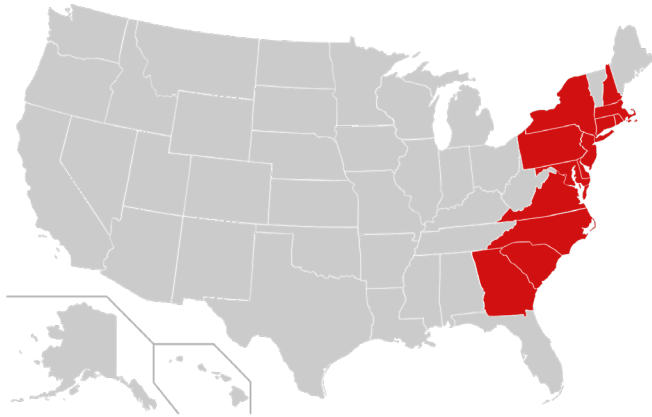
Be it enacted by the General Assembly, that no man shall be compelled to frequent or support any religious worship, place, or ministry whatsoever, nor shall be enforced, restrained, molested, or burthened in his body or goods, nor shall otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men shall be free to profess, and by argument to maintain, their opinion in matters of religion, and that the same shall in no wise diminish, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities.

This is just one example of many such documents that were drafted and adopted by colonial assemblies during the Pre-revolutionary period. Religious freedom served as a major motivation for Europeans to venture to the American colonies. Puritans and Pilgrims in Massachusetts, Quakers in Pennsylvania, and Catholics in Maryland represented the growing religious diversity in the colonies. Rhode Island was founded as a colony of religious freedom in reaction to zealous Puritans. As a result, many different faiths coexisted in the colonies. This variety required an insistence on freedom of religion since the earliest days of British settlement.

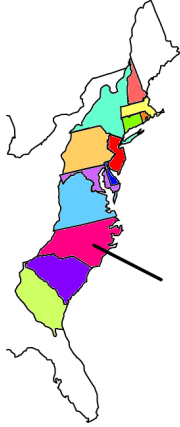
Practice Questions:

Read the following questions and choose the best answer.

1. Which of the following conclusion is supported by this map?

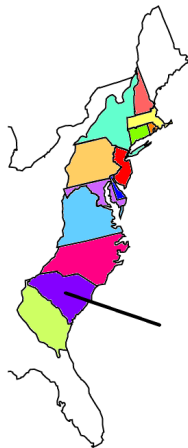


- a. The English established several colonies in the New World
 - b. Spain conquered North America
 - c. French colonies extended along on the East Coast
 - d. The Dutch established their colonies in America
2. Which two American ideals inspired by Roger Williams in the colony of Rhode Island?
 - a. Freedom of Religion Separation of Church and State
 - b. Why were the Carolina colonies established
 - c. For what religion was the colony of Maryland established as a haven
 - d. If you do not work, you do not eat
3. Who is the founder of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and leader of the Puritans who settled there?
 - a. Lord Baltimore
 - b. John Winthrop
 - c. Plymouth Colony
 - d. Connecticut
4. What is the name of the colony established by the Pilgrims?
 - a. Lord Baltimore
 - b. Roger Williams
 - c. John Cabot
 - d. Plymouth Colony
5. What is the name of the selected colony?



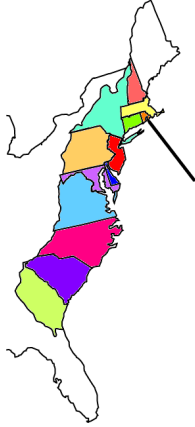
- a. South Carolina
- b. North Carolina
- c. Delaware
- d. Virginia

6. What is the name of the selected colony?



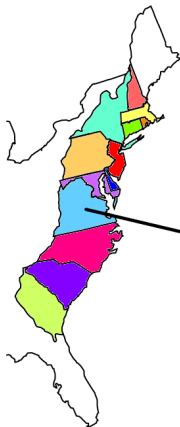
- a. South Carolina
- b. North Carolina
- c. Massachusetts
- d. Virginia

7. What is the name of the selected colony?



- a. New Hampshire
- b. Massachusetts
- c. Rhode Island
- d. Maryland

8. What is the name of the selected colony?



- a. Maryland
- b. Virginia
- c. New Jersey
- d. Pennsylvania

9. What education, moral lives, involvement in government and defense of the colony was established by?

- a. College of William and Mary
- b. South Carolina colony
- c. The Puritans
- d. 5 Original New England Colonies

10. What is another name for the Pilgrims?
 - a. Separatists
 - b. Natives
 - c. Puritans
 - d. Immigrant

11. A region inside of a country is a?
 - a. Place
 - b. State
 - c. Property
 - d. Urban area

12. Who concluded the book *Levithan*?
 - a. Thomas Jefferson
 - b. John Locke
 - c. Thomas Hobbes
 - d. Montesquieu

13. Does colonies had a self-government?
 - a. True
 - b. False

14. What document became the first governing document?
 - a. The Magna Carta
 - b. The Bill of Rights
 - c. The Mayflower Compact
 - d. None

15. Why did the colonists fight the British?
 - a. Democracy
 - b. Free economy
 - c. High Taxes
 - d. Authority

16. When did the Mayflower Compact get signed?
 - a. 1620
 - b. 1776
 - c. 1630
 - d. 1787

17. Who redefined the nature of government?

- a. Montesquieu
- b. John Locke
- c. Voltaire
- d. Rousseau

Answers:

1. a, 2. a, 3. b, 4. d, 5. b, 6. a, 7. c, 8. b, 9. c, 10. a, 11. b, 12. c, 13. a, 14. c, 16. c, 16. a, 17. b

America, a Unique Cultural Identity

- America culture shaped by Immigrants

Many new populations have come to America over the centuries: Some came in pursuit of a more prosperous life; some came in search of protection from religious, ethnic, or political persecution. Others were brought across the Atlantic against their will. And some Americans' ancestors were here long before the first Europeans arrived.

In spite of these differences in origin, we all grapple with the concept of what being a “nation of immigrants” entails, as each incoming community has contributed its respective heritage and culture to American society. And we celebrate that diversity today in our foods, our arts, our sciences, our entrepreneurship, our politics, and our faiths. But we also cherish the notion of a shared American identity that transcends our individual differences.

The 1956 law was the first establishment of an official motto for the country, although E Pluribus Unum ("from many, one") was adopted by an Act of Congress in 1782 as the motto for the Seal of the United States and has been used on coins and paper money since 1795.

A phrase similar to "In God We Trust" appears in the final stanza of "The Star-Spangled Banner". Written in 1814 by Francis Scott Key (and later adopted as the U.S. national anthem on March 3, 1931 by U.S. President Herbert Hoover), the song contains an early reference to a variation of the phrase: "And this be our motto: 'In God is our trust.'"

The change from "E Pluribus Unum" to "In God We Trust" was generally considered uncontroversial at the time, given the rising influence of organized religion and pressures of the Cold War era in the 1950s. The 1956 law was one of several legislative actions Congress took to differentiate the United States from atheistic communism. Earlier, a 1954 act added the words "under God" to the Pledge of Allegiance. Some states also adopted mottos with religious overtones during this time, for example Ohio's "With God, all things are possible".

The constitutionality of the modern national motto has been questioned with relationship to the separation of church and state outlined in the First Amendment. In 1970, in *Aronow v. United States*, the United States Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit ruled that the motto

does not violate the First Amendment to the Constitution. The United States Supreme Court has not ruled on the issue

The Transfer of Culture and Knowledge

The Italian trade routes that covered the Mediterranean and beyond were also major conduits of culture and knowledge. The recovery of lost Greek classics (and, to a lesser extent, Arab advancements on them) following the Crusader conquest of the Byzantine heartlands, revitalized medieval philosophy in the Renaissance of the 12th century, just as the refugee Byzantine scholars who migrated to Italy during and following the Ottomans conquest of the Byzantines between the 12th and 15th centuries were important in sparking the new linguistic studies of the Renaissance, in newly created academies in Florence and Venice.

Established Trade Routes

In the 13th century, much of Europe experienced strong economic growth. The trade routes of the Italian states linked with those of established Mediterranean ports and eventually the Hanseatic League of the Baltic and northern regions of Europe to create a network economy in Europe for the first time since the 4th century. The city-states of Italy expanded greatly during this period and grew in power to become de facto fully independent of the Holy Roman Empire; apart from the Kingdom of Naples, outside powers kept their armies out of Italy. During this period, the modern commercial infrastructure developed, with double-entry book-keeping, joint stock companies, an international banking system, a systematized foreign exchange market, insurance, and government debt. Florence became the center of this financial industry and the gold florin became the main currency of international trade.

An Agrarian Revolution

A feature of the High Middle Ages in Northern Italy was the rise of the urban communes which had broken from the control by bishops and local counts. In much of the region, the landed nobility was poorer than the urban patriarchs in the High Medieval money economy whose inflationary rise left land-holding aristocrats impoverished. The increase in trade during the early Renaissance enhanced these characteristics.

The decline of feudalism and the rise of cities influenced each other. One of the most important effects of this political control was security. Those that grew extremely wealthy in a feudal state ran constant risk of running afoul of the monarchy and having their lands confiscated, as famously occurred to Jacques Coeur in France. The northern states also kept many medieval laws that severely hampered commerce, such as those against usury, and prohibitions on trading with non-Christians. In the city-states of Italy, these laws were repealed or rewritten.

The Age of Discovery

The Age of Discovery is a historical period of European global exploration that started in the early 15th century with the first Portuguese discoveries in the Atlantic Archipelagos and Africa, as well as the discovery of America by Spain in 1492, and the discovery of the ocean route to the East in 1498, and by a series of European naval expeditions across the Atlantic and later the Pacific, which continued until the 18th century.

The Age of Discovery sometimes regarded as a bridge between the Middle Ages and the Modern era, along with its contemporary Renaissance movement. European overseas expansion led to the rise of colonial empires, with the contact between the Old and New Worlds producing the Columbian Exchange: a wide transfer of plants, animals, foods, human populations (including slaves), communicable diseases and culture between the Eastern and Western hemispheres. This represented one of the most-significant global events concerning ecology, agriculture, and culture in history.

During the 15th and 16th centuries, Portuguese sailors were at the vanguard of European overseas exploration, discovering and mapping the coasts of Africa, Asia and Brazil. **Vasco da Gama** led the first fleet around Africa to India, arriving in Calicut and starting a maritime route from Portugal to India. Soon, after reaching Brazil, explorations proceed to southeast Asia, having reached Japan in 1542.

The Rise of the Slave Trade

Europeans did not introduce slavery to Africa. As African rulers rose and fell, their political opponents, people of high social status, and their families were sold to promote internal political stability. Poor people were sold to reconcile debts owed by themselves or their families. Chiefs sold people as punishment for crimes.

The Cost of A Slave

All of these African people were bartered for European trade goods. A slave purchased for 100 gallons of rum worth only £10 could be sold for £20 to £50 in seventeenth-century America. The low cost of slaves greatly encouraged the slave trade. Even though the price of slaves rose three- or four-fold during the eighteenth century, many Europeans were convinced that it was “cheaper to buy than to breed.” In fact, until the late eighteenth century, it was cheaper to import a slave from Africa than to raise a child to the age of 14. During the late seventeenth century, merchants in the Senegambia region of West Africa paid as little as one pound sterling for young males, which they sold to European traders for the equivalent of three-and-a-half pounds sterling, or eleven muskets, thirty-one gallons of brandy, or ninety-three pounds of wrought iron. During the eighteenth century, though, rising prices led slavers to search for captives in interior regions, 500 to 1,000 miles inland.

Wars over Slavery

The effects of the trade on African civilization and culture were devastating. African societies lost kinship networks and agricultural laborers and production capacity. The loss of people meant the loss of indigenous artisans and craftsmen along with their knowledge of textile production, weaving and dying, metallurgy and metalwork, carving, basket making, potting skills, architecture, and agricultural techniques upon which their societies depended. Africa's loss was the New World's gain.

Middle Passage

The Africans who had been stolen from their homes were placed onto ships that took them to South America, the Caribbean, or North America. This trip across the Atlantic Ocean was known as the Middle Passage. Conditions for the captured men, women and children aboard the ship were horrible. Up to a thousand people would have to survive for two to five months largely below deck, in quarters so tight that they could barely move. Besides being unbearably cramped, the deck had no ventilation, windows, or way to dispose of waste. Disease was rampant. Food was limited. Violence and torture were common.

Slavery in the New World

The first Africans in America arrived in Jamestown, Virginia, as indentured servants in 1619. Indentured servants were laborers who were under contract, or indenture, to work for another person for a set number of years. When the contract expired, the laborer was free. Later, Africans brought to America arrived as slaves. Slaves were laborers who had no contract or rights and had to work for their owners for their entire lives. North Carolina adopted its first slave code defining the social, economic, and physical places of enslaved people in 1715; the Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina approved in 1669 had made slavery acceptable. At the time of the American Revolution, most of the enslaved people in North Carolina lived in the eastern part of the colony and the majority lived on large plantations, where their work was critical to the state's cash crops and economy. The long journeys of many enslaved people ended on large farms or plantations in the United States, like Stagville and Somerset in North Carolina now State Historic Sites. On the plantation, the owner dictated much of their lives. Enslaved people were told what work to do, when to do it, and where to live. *Harriet Jacobs (1813–1897)*, born into slavery on a plantation in Edenton, wrote a narrative in which she described many of the horrors endured by enslaved people, such as this instance of a family being separated:

I saw a mother lead seven children to the auction-block. She knew that some of them would be taken from her; but they took all. The children were sold to a slave trader, and their mother was bought by a man in her own town. Before night her children were all far away. She begged the trader to tell her where he intended to take them; this he refused to do. How could he,

when he knew he would sell them, one by one, wherever he could command the highest price?
I met that mother in the street, and her wild, haggard face lives today in my mind.

Most of the people enslaved there worked in the fields growing crops such as tobacco, wheat, corn, potatoes, and sweet potatoes. Children as young as age seven were expected to work. The people taken from their homes in Africa were not alone during their terrible journey on the Middle Passage. They carried memories of their culture, which they re-created in their new homes and which survives today. Many words Americans use today, such as daddy, buddy, banjo, gumbo, okra, and turnip, originate in West African languages. The last few words bring to mind foods that originated in West Africa. Other foods include field peas, gourds, and yams. Musical instruments such as banjos and drums also came from Africa.

The United States banned further imports of slaves from Africa in 1808. Slavery would remain legal until the end of the Civil War in 1865, but from 1808 on, the slave population only grew through natural increase. If a person's mother was enslaved, then that person was also enslaved. Based on the 1860 census, there were 361,522 African Americans (slave and free) living in North Carolina, as well as approximately 630,000 white people and slightly more than 1,100 American Indians.

Watch: History vs. Christopher Columbus by TED Ed

1. Take a stance and defend your view. Was Columbus a fearless explorer or a ruthless exploiter? Write at least three rebuttals to points that you come up with to view both sides of the story

Civil War

Slavery

The issue of slavery proved especially combustible in the reform-minded antebellum United States. Those who hoped to end slavery had different ideas about how to do it. Some could not envision a biracial society and advocated sending blacks to Africa or the Caribbean. Others promoted the use of violence as the best method to bring American slavery to an end. Abolitionists, by contrast, worked to end slavery and to create a multiracial society of equals using moral arguments moral suasion to highlight the immorality of slavery. In keeping with the religious fervor of the era, abolitionists hoped to bring about a mass conversion in public opinion to end slavery.

An early and popular "reform" to slavery was colonization, or a movement advocating the displacement of African Americans out of the country, usually to Africa. In 1816, the Society for the Colonization of Free People of Color of America (also called the American Colonization Society or ACS) was founded with this goal. Leading statesmen including Thomas Jefferson endorsed the idea of colonization.

Members of the ACS did not believe that blacks and whites could live as equals, so they targeted the roughly 200,000 free blacks in the United States for relocation to Africa. For several years after the ACS's founding, they raised money and pushed Congress for funds. In 1819, they succeeded in getting \$100,000 from the federal government to further the colonization project. The ACS played a major role in the creation of the colony of Liberia, on the west coast of Africa. The country's capital, Monrovia, was named in honor of President James Monroe. The ACS stands as an example of how white reformers, especially men of property and standing, addressed the issue of slavery. Their efforts stand in stark contrast with other reformers' efforts to deal with slavery in the United States.

The 1860 election of Abraham Lincoln was a turning point for the United States. Throughout the tumultuous 1850s, the Fire-Eaters of the southern states had been threatening to leave the Union. With Lincoln's election, they prepared to make good on their threats. Indeed, the Republican president-elect appeared to be their worst nightmare. The Republican Party committed itself to keeping slavery out of the territories as the country expanded westward, a position that shocked southern sensibilities. Meanwhile, southern leaders suspected that Republican abolitionists would employ the violent tactics of John Brown to deprive southerners of their slave property. The threat posed by the Republican victory in the election of 1860 spurred eleven southern states to leave the Union to form the Confederate States of America, a new republic dedicated to maintaining and expanding slavery. The Union, led by President Lincoln, was unwilling to accept the departure of these states and committed itself to restoring the country. Beginning in 1861 and continuing until 1865, the United States engaged in a brutal Civil War that claimed the lives of over 600,000 soldiers. By 1863, the conflict had become not only a war to save the Union, but also a war to end slavery in the United States. Only after four years of fighting did the North prevail. The Union was preserved, and the institution of slavery had been destroyed in the nation.

The Causes of the Civil War



Lincoln's election sparked the southern secession fever into flame, but it did not cause the Civil War. For decades before Lincoln took office, the sectional divisions in the country had been widening. Both the Northern and southern states engaged in inflammatory rhetoric and agitation, and violent emotions ran strong on both sides. Several factors played into the ultimate split between the North and the South.

The small but very vocal abolitionist movement further contributed to the escalating tensions between the North and the South. Since the 1830s, abolitionists, led by journalist and reformer William Lloyd Garrison, had cast slavery as a national sin and called for its immediate end. For three decades, the abolitionists a minority even within the antislavery movement had had a significant effect on American society by bringing the evils of slavery into the public consciousness. By the 1850s, some of the most radical abolitionists, such as John Brown, had resorted to violence in their efforts to destroy the institution of slavery.

The formation of the Liberty Party (1840), the Free-Soil Party (1848), and the Republican Party (1854), all of which strongly opposed the spread of slavery to the West, brought the question solidly into the political arena. Although not all those who opposed the westward expansion of slavery had a strong abolitionist bent, the attempt to limit slaveholders' control of their human property stiffened the resolve of southern leaders to defend their society at all costs. Prohibiting slavery's expansion, they argued, ran counter to fundamental American property rights. Across the country, people of all political stripes worried that the nation's arguments would cause irreparable rifts in the country.

The election of Abraham Lincoln to the presidency in 1860 proved to be a watershed event. While it did not cause the Civil War, it was the culmination of increasing tensions between the proslavery South and the antislavery North. Before Lincoln had even taken office, seven Deep South states had seceded from the Union to form the CSA, dedicated to maintaining racial slavery and white supremacy. Last-minute efforts to reach a compromise, such as the proposal by Senator Crittenden and the Corwin amendment, went nowhere. The time for compromise had come to an end. With the Confederate attack on Fort Sumter, the Civil War began.

The Great Depression

Even though the 1920s were “roaring” in many respects, from an economic standpoint it became clear that serious problems threatened the nation’s economy. Important industries were in trouble and overproduction plagued the agricultural sector. As the decade came to a close, the slipping economy would soon crash, ending a decade of innovation, cultural advances, and individual prosperity.

Causes of the Great Depression

A **depression** is a prolonged downturn in the economy, marked by high unemployment and restricted growth of the economy.

For American farmers, meanwhile, “hard times” began long before the markets crashed. In 1920 and 1921, after several years of larger-than-average profits, farm prices in the South and West continued their long decline, plummeting as production climbed and domestic and international demand for cotton, foodstuffs, and other agricultural products stalled. Widespread soil exhaustion on western farms only compounded the problem. Farmers found themselves unable to make payments on loans taken out during the good years, and banks in agricultural areas tightened credit in response. By 1929, farm families were overextended, in no shape to make up for declining consumption. Many defaulted on their loans and the residual effect was that many rural banks began to fail.

The Stock Market Tumbles

To understand the crash, it is useful to address the decade that preceded it. The prosperous 1920s ushered in a feeling of euphoria among middle-class and wealthy Americans, and people began to speculate on wilder investments. The government was a willing partner in this endeavor: The Federal Reserve followed a brief postwar recession in 1920–1921 with a policy of setting interest rates artificially low, as well as easing the reserve requirements on the nation’s largest banks. As a result, the money supply in the U.S. increased by nearly 60 percent, which convinced even more Americans of the safety of investing in questionable schemes. They felt that prosperity was boundless and that extreme risks were likely tickets to wealth. Named for Charles Ponzi, the original “Ponzi schemes” emerged early in the 1920s to encourage novice investors to divert funds to unfounded ventures, which in reality simply used new investors’

funds to pay off older investors as the schemes grew in size. Speculation, where investors purchased into high-risk schemes that they hoped would pay off quickly, became the norm. Several banks, including deposit institutions that originally avoided investment loans, began to offer easy credit, allowing people to invest, even when they lacked the money to do so.

Many American workers couldn't earn any income as the unemployment rate jumped from three percent in 1929 to 25 percent by 1933 as businesses were hit hard, many forced into bankruptcy. The U.S. was not the only country to suffer huge economic loss during this period of time.

Practice Questions:

Read the following questions and choose the best answer.

1. What is a leading cause of the Great Depression?
 - a. Stock Market Crash
 - b. Black Blizzards
 - c. New Deal
 - d. Dust Bowl

2. Name the event, when people rushed to take their money out of the banks?
 - a. New Deal
 - b. Savings
 - c. Debt
 - d. Bank run

3. What did they called a series of new programs aimed at helping those in need during the Great Depression?
 - a. Extra Support
 - b. New Deal
 - c. Government help
 - d. None above

4. When did the Great Depression start?
 - a. 1929
 - b. 1945
 - c. 1939
 - d. 1950

5. Name an arrangement to receive cash, goods, or services now and pay for them in the future?

- a. Credit
 - b. Debit
 - c. Loan
 - d. Interest
6. According to the passage, which of the following statements about the Great Depression is true?
- a. All businesses closed
 - b. Most people lost their jobs
 - c. People migrated to another country
 - d. None above
7. Name the event, when all money people saved was taken by the banks?
- a. The Great Depression
 - b. Businesses closed
 - c. Unusual Weather
 - d. Life Savings Taken
8. What economic disaster; started in the United States in 1929?
- a. Economy collapsed
 - b. The Great Depression
 - c. Dust Bowl
 - d. New Deal
9. According to the passage, during the great depression people lost all their jobs and could not find other jobs?
- a. True
 - b. False
10. Name the debt that has been incurred primarily for the purchase of consumer goods?
- a. Credit
 - b. New deal
 - c. Consumer debt
 - d. Loan arrangements

Answers:

1. a, 2. d, 3. b, 4. a, 5. a, 6. b, 7. d, 8. b, 9. a, 10. c

Franklin D. Roosevelt

The only president ever to serve more than two terms, Franklin Delano Roosevelt was elected to office in 1932 and was reelected three more times before he died near the end of World War II. During the 12 years of his presidency, Roosevelt aroused both intense loyalty and opposition. His critics and supporters agree, however, that more than any other president, Roosevelt was the architect of the American welfare state and established government responsibility for individual social welfare. Roosevelt's impact on the United States through his social and economic legislation was huge and lasting.

No other president in the 20th century has enjoyed the adulation of the masses to the degree conferred on Roosevelt. He was the first president to use mass communication (the radio) to its full advantage. Through his speeches and famous "fireside chats," Roosevelt sounded like a kind uncle or grandfather to millions of Americans who had never heard a president speak before. Hundreds of thousands sent him letters detailing their plight, asking for his assistance, and thanking him for his help.

Born on January 30, 1882, Roosevelt spent his early years at his family estate in Hyde Park, New York and attended the exclusive Groton School before going on to Harvard University and Columbia University Law School. In 1905, he married Eleanor Roosevelt, his distant cousin and the niece of Theodore Roosevelt. He ran for the New York Senate in 1910. Although a Democrat in an overwhelmingly Republican district, Roosevelt won an impressive victory. He quickly made a name for himself by challenging the Tammany Hall political machine's control over the U.S. Democratic Party. In 1913, he was chosen by Josephus Daniels, President Woodrow Wilson's new secretary of the navy, to be assistant secretary of the navy, the same post Theodore Roosevelt had once held. In 1920, Roosevelt ran as the vice presidential candidate with James M. Cox. Although the Democratic Party lost the election, Roosevelt used the opportunity to establish a national reputation. His political future seemed assured when, in 1921, he was stricken with polio (infantile paralysis) and almost completely paralyzed.

For two years, he struggled to teach himself how to cope with the disease and the loss of the use of his legs. Many people thought paralysis would be an insurmountable obstacle to a political career, but instead of giving up, with the help of his wife, Roosevelt developed a bold, active personal style that more than compensated for his inability to stand without assistance. Prior to his illness, Roosevelt had appeared to many of his contemporaries as a spoiled rich man dabbling in politics. Little of his liberalism or political seriousness was apparent before his bout with polio. Once, when asked how he could be so patient with a political opponent, he said, "If you had spent two years in bed trying to wiggle your big toe, after that anything else would seem easy."

In 1928, with the encouragement of outgoing Governor Alfred E. Smith, Roosevelt managed to win the race for governor of New York. With the onset of the Great Depression, Roosevelt became known for his willingness to use the state government to relieve widespread misery

and established a reputation as a compassionate, reform-oriented chief executive. He was reelected in 1930.

In many respects, Roosevelt seemed the ideal candidate to recapture the White House for the Democrats in 1932. Still, it wasn't until after John Nance Garner withdrew from the race at the Democratic convention and instructed his Texas and California delegates to vote for Roosevelt that Roosevelt was able to win the nomination on the fourth ballot. Then he captured the attention of the nation by flying to Chicago to become the first candidate to directly address a convention immediately after nomination. He said, "You have nominated me and I know it, and I am here to thank you for the honor. Let it . . . be symbolic that in so doing I broke traditions. Let it be from now on the task of our Party to break foolish traditions. . . . I pledge you, I pledge myself, to a new deal for the American people."

During the campaign, Roosevelt promised to balance the federal budget and to provide direct aid to the needy. Although vague on exactly how he would accomplish this, he exuded tremendous confidence that he could do what was necessary to end the depression: "The country needs, and, unless I mistake its temper, the country demands bold, persistent experimentation. It is common sense to take a method and try it. If it fails, admit it frankly and try another. But above all, try something."

Roosevelt carried all but six states and defeated Herbert Hoover by more than 7 million votes: 22,821,857 to 15,761,841. Roosevelt also stymied the efforts of the Socialist and Communist parties to capitalize on the economic turmoil gripping the nation. Socialist candidate Norman Thomas obtained less than a million votes, and the Communist Party's representative, William Foster, managed to win only 100,000 votes.

Roosevelt, confident of victory, had begun preparing for the presidency months before his campaign and election. Besides a core of loyal political assistants, he had enlisted the aid of a number of college professors, Rexford Tugwell, Adolph Berle Jr., and Raymond Moley nicknamed the brain trust to assist him so that once in office he could move swiftly to deal with the national crisis.

In his inaugural address, Roosevelt announced that he would call Congress into an immediate special session to obtain the legislation necessary to deal with the banking crisis and the collapse of the economy. He told the nation that if Congress hesitated, he would ask it "for broad executive power to wage a war against the emergency, as great as the power that would be given to me if we were in fact invaded by a foreign foe. This great Nation will endure as it has endured, will revive and prosper. So, first of all, let me assert my firm belief that the only thing we have to fear is fear itself. . . ."

The special session of Congress Roosevelt called convened on March 9, 1933 and adjourned on June 16. During that hundred days, more important legislation was passed than in any other comparable period in U.S. history. The three aims of the New Deal were recovery, relief, and reform. The first New Deal legislation concentrated on recovery and relief. To accomplish these

goals, Roosevelt had to overcome deep-seated American prejudices against a strong federal government.

Two days after assuming office, Roosevelt issued a proclamation closing all of the nation's banks. The special session of Congress passed an emergency banking bill just three days later that gave the president broad powers over the nation's banks, currency, and foreign exchange. Roosevelt went on radio to talk informally to the public about what he had authorized the U.S. Federal Reserve Board and Treasury Department to do and to promise: "I can assure you that it is safer to keep your money in a reopened bank than under the mattress." The combination of decisive action and personal persuasion worked. Public confidence in reopened banks was restored.

Roosevelt also took the nation off the gold standard and devalued the currency by 40% to make American goods more competitive abroad, raise prices of goods at home, and reduce individual debt. As one would anticipate, those in debt applauded, but creditors, such as those holding bonds and long-term mortgages, were enraged.

The most popular New Deal measures were those that tried to relieve the suffering of the approximately 25% of the labor force who were unemployed. Roosevelt knew local and state agencies had run out of funds, so he created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, headed by Harry Hopkins, to give money to local relief agencies. The Civil Works Administration (1933), the Civilian Conservation Corps (1933), the Public Works Administration (1933), and later the Works Progress Administration (1935) were also created to provide temporary relief jobs. Among the other innovative programs were the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA, 1933), which attempted to buoy farm prices by limiting production; the Home Owners' Loan Corporation (1933), which worked to protect people from mortgage foreclosures; the National Recovery Administration (NRA, 1933), which was designed to regulate business competition; the National Labor Relations Board (1935), which was established to guarantee the right of labor to organize; the Social Security Act, which set up an old-age pension system; and the Tennessee Valley Authority project, which brought low-cost power and jobs to millions of people in the Tennessee River Valley area.

Although these efforts failed to end the Great Depression, they did provide a sense of the government's commitment to alleviating the suffering and led to Roosevelt's landslide reelection in 1936. They also marked the first extensive use of government's fiscal powers what would later be termed Keynesian (after English economist John Maynard Keynes) policies to stimulate mass purchasing and thereby promote economic recovery. Then in 1937, after the U.S. Supreme Court angered Roosevelt by declaring (in 1935) the NRA and AAA unconstitutional, Roosevelt made a costly political blunder by launching a plan to increase the size of the court by six more judges, to 15, so that he could appoint enough new justices to overcome the existing five-member conservative majority. Public reverence for the court and Roosevelt's miscalculation that he could orchestrate the election defeat of congressional opponents in 1938 resulted in his first major congressional setback. This "court-packing" plan, combined with the 1937 recession and his apparent unwillingness to curb a wave of sit-down

strikes, sharply limited his political power. The Republicans and conservative Democrats won enough seats in the 1938 congressional elections to halt further substantial New Deal legislation, though Roosevelt did put through the Executive Reorganization Act in 1939, which enlarged and strengthened the executive branch of the government. World War II, not innovative New Deal legislation, returned the nation to prosperity.

By the time he won reelection in 1936, it was clear to Roosevelt that ominous dictatorial regimes in Japan, Germany, and Italy were going to solve their economic problems through military expansion. Roosevelt hoped to keep the United States out of war, but as World War II began in 1939, he worked to bring about the repeal of the Neutrality Act of 1935 so that he could provide aid to Great Britain. In 1940, he decided to run for an unprecedented third term. Promising to keep Americans out of any foreign wars, Roosevelt easily defeated his Republican rival, Wendell Willkie, 449 electoral votes to 82.

After his reelection, Roosevelt obtained congressional approval to provide lend-lease aid to Great Britain and, in 1941, to the Soviet Union. The Lend-Lease Act, passed mainly to allow the British more credit to buy war supplies, provided for the sale, transfer, exchange, or lease of arms or equipment to any country whose defense was vital to the United States. (Total lend-lease aid by the end of the war would amount to nearly \$50 billion.) American ships and planes also began convoying supply ships far out into the North Atlantic and reporting German submarine locations to the British Royal Navy. In the Far East, the United States attempted in 1941 to halt Japan's military expansion by announcing a potentially crippling embargo of vital war materiel and oil to Japan. Instead of backing down, Japan launched a surprise attack on December 7, 1941 designed to wipe out the U.S. Pacific fleet stationed at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. In asking Congress for a declaration of war against Japan, the president declared December 7 as "a date which will live in infamy." Germany and Italy then declared war, and the United States found itself fighting adversaries in both Asia and Europe.

During the war, congressional conservatives managed to dismantle some of the New Deal's innovative programs and forced Roosevelt to orchestrate economic mobilization in a manner that gave considerable authority and profit opportunities to corporate elites. Although severely criticized for various aspects of his direction of the war effort, Roosevelt behaved in his characteristically pragmatic fashion. His goal was to win the war with as few American casualties as possible. To do this, he needed to keep the wartime alliance of Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States together until after Germany and Japan were defeated, and he did. At the same time, war-induced prosperity in combination with a widespread belief among Americans that they were fighting "the Good War" sustained national unity and enough of Roosevelt's popularity to gain him reelection to a fourth term in 1944. Roosevelt did not live to see the end of World War II. At the Allied Yalta Conference in 1945, he had been unable to secure a Poland free of Soviet domination, but he did manage to obtain a Soviet promise to join the war against Japan and to participate in the United Nations. Critics attack his refusal to challenge Soviet domination of Eastern Europe, but supporters point out that it was merely an acceptance of political reality Soviet troops occupied the region. Ordered by his doctors to rest after his return from Yalta, Roosevelt traveled to his favorite retreat at Warm Springs, Georgia,

where he suffered a massive cerebral hemorrhage and died on April 12, 1945. Perspectives on Roosevelt over the years have varied widely. In the 1930s, his Republican opponents saw him as a virtual socialist. Liberal historians of the 1940s and 1950s lionized him for leading a popular crusade to restore prosperity and justice in America. None of these interpretations, however, has sought to deny the centrality of Roosevelt and his New Deal in the shaping of modern America.

The Civil Rights Movement

The African American civil rights movement made significant progress in the 1960s. While Congress played a role by passing the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Civil Rights Act of 1968, the actions of civil rights groups such as CORE, the SCLC, and SNCC were instrumental in forging new paths, pioneering new techniques and strategies, and achieving breakthrough successes. Civil rights activists engaged in sit-ins, freedom rides, and protest marches, and registered African American voters. Despite the movement's many achievements, however, many grew frustrated with the slow pace of change, the failure of the Great Society to alleviate poverty, and the persistence of violence against African Americans, particularly the tragic 1968 assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr. Many African Americans in the mid- to late 1960s adopted the ideology of Black Power, which promoted their work within their own communities to redress problems without the aid of whites. The Mexican American civil rights movement, led largely by Cesar Chavez, also made significant progress at this time. The emergence of the Chicano Movement signaled Mexican Americans' determination to seize their political power, celebrate their cultural heritage, and demand their citizenship rights.

Practice Questions:

1. If you were looking back on the Long Nineteenth Century from the viewpoint of someone living in 1914, what would be the positive story of this era?
2. What are some positive aspects of history since the First World War?
3. What is one big problem with this positive view of the twentieth century?
4. What data supports the idea that things are getting better?
5. How did the mid-twentieth-century success of Detroit turn into economic problems in the late twentieth century?

The American War for Independence

On April 19, 1775, part of the British occupation force in Boston marched to the nearby town of Concord, Massachusetts, to seize a colonial militia arsenal. Militiamen of **Lexington and Concord** intercepted them and attacked. The first shot the so-called "shot heard round the world" made famous by poet Ralph Waldo Emerson was one of many that hounded the British and forced them to retreat to Boston. Thousands of militiamen from nearby colonies flocked to Boston to assist.

In the meantime, leaders convened the **Second Continental Congress** to discuss options. In one final attempt for peaceful reconciliation, the **Olive Branch Petition**, they professed their love and loyalty to King George III and begged him to address their grievances. The king rejected the petition and formally declared that the colonies were in a state of rebellion.

In January of 1776, **Thomas Paine** published a pamphlet, *Common Sense* that urged the colonists to declare and fight for independence. The pamphlet explained the advantages of and the need for immediate independence in clear, simple language. It was published anonymously and became an immediate sensation. *Common Sense* presented the American colonists with an argument for freedom from British rule at a time when the question of whether or not to seek independence was the central issue of the day.

The **Second Continental Congress** chose **George Washington**, a southerner, to command the militiamen besieging Boston in the north. On July 2, 1776, to declare their independence. **Thomas Jefferson**, a young lawyer from Virginia, drafted the Declaration of Independence, a document firmly based on the ideas of the English philosopher, **John Locke**, and the Enlightenment. The Declaration reflected these ideas in its eloquent argument for natural rights:

“We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with **unalienable Rights**, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness; that to guarantee these Rights governments are Instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed.”

Since Locke had asserted that people have the right to rebel against an unjust ruler, the Declaration of Independence included a long list of George III’s abuses. The document ended by breaking the ties between the colonies and Britain. The colonies, the Declaration said, “are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown.



John Trumbull - "Declaration of Independence" 1819

"When war was first declared, the odds seemed heavily weighted against the Americans. First, the Americans' motivation for fighting was much stronger than that of the British, since their army was defending their homeland. Second, the overconfident British generals made several mistakes. Third, time itself was on the side of the Americans. The British could win battle after battle, as they did, and still lose the war. Fighting an overseas war, 3,000 miles from London, was terribly expensive. After a few years, tax-weary British citizens clamored for peace. Finally, the Americans did not fight alone. Louis XVI of France had little sympathy for the ideals of the American Revolution, but he was eager to weaken France's rival, Britain. French entry into the war in 1778 was decisive. In 1781, combined forces of about 9,500 Americans and 7,800 French trapped a British army commanded by Lord Cornwallis near Yorktown, Virginia. In the end, the Americans won their war for independence.

Americans Create a Republic

The new U.S. Constitution created a system in which power was shared between the national government and state governments. The Constitution further divided the three different types of government powers – **legislative, executive, and judicial** – among three separate branches of government, as advocated by the Enlightenment thinker Baron de Montesquieu.

In addition, the new Constitution gave each of these government branches several ways to "check" the other branches (known as the system of "**checks and balances**") in order to ensure that no one branch became too powerful or tyrannical. Later, a Bill of Rights was added to the Constitution to include protections of individual liberties such as freedom of speech, press, assembly, and religion, as well as the rights of the accused.



Although the Constitution created a strong central government, it did not eliminate local governments. Instead, the Constitution established the practice of federalism, in which power would be divided between national and state governments.

More than 200 years ago, the Founding Fathers drafted the United States Constitution. The Founding Fathers did not want one branch of government becoming too powerful, so they divided the new government into three branches: the legislative branch, the executive branch, and the judicial branch. The Founding Fathers also established a republic. This means the power of the state resides in elected individuals representing the citizens of the state, and government leaders exercise power according to the rule of law. In the American government system, the rule of law is the Constitution. An understanding of the Constitution is key to understanding the structure and daily function of the American government. In the "Constitution module", you will learn about the U.S. Constitution and the process for ratification, the powers and structures of the national government, the relationship between the three branches of government, the relationship between states and the national government, and the true meaning of the "Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag".

American Revolution	The war fought by American colonists for their independence from Great Britain between 1775 and 1781 that led to the formation of a new republican nation, the United States of America.
checks and balances	Measures designed to prevent any one branch of government from dominating the others.
Constitutionalism	The idea that the authority of government derives from and is limited by a body of fundamental, written law.
Declaration of Independence	A document, authored by Thomas Jefferson and sent to George III of England that espouses the basic ideals of American democracy and lists the reasons for the American colonies' break with Great Britain, precipitating the American Revolution.
Democracy	A government controlled by its citizens, either directly or through representatives.
Federalism	A system of government in which power is shared between two levels of government: national and state governments, whereby each of the state governments have powers independent of the national government.
human rights	Rights that all people are assumed to possess.
French & Indian War	(1754 - 1763) a war fought between Britain and France for control of territory in North America. After France's defeat, it temporarily surrenders its North American territories, whereas British victory and the ensuing debt brought on by the war initiates Britain's attempt to gain greater control over and to tax its American colonies. This war was part of the Seven Years War, which was the first World War.

Jefferson, Thomas	An American founding father, a leader of the Enlightenment, principal author of the Declaration of Independence, and third President of the United States (1801-1809).
Liberty	The quality or state of being free.
"no taxation without representation"	The popular rallying cry of the American Revolution, reflecting the belief that if the American colonists were not permitted to vote for members of the English Parliament, then Parliament had not right to tax the colonists.
Paine, Thomas	An English-American political activist, leader of the Enlightenment, and author of the most influential pamphlet at the start of the American Revolution, Common Sense, in which he argued forcefully for the American colonists to break with Great Britain.
popular sovereignty	The belief that government is created by and subject to the will of the people - the belief that the citizens of a nation are in control of their own political destiny.
separation of powers	The practice of dividing political power between different parts or branches so as to curtail one part or branch from assuming absolute power.
U.S. Constitution	The written national law of the United States, adopted by the Constitutional convention held in Philadelphia in 1787. It replaced the Articles of Confederation, the first Constitution of the United States, that were approved during the American Revolution.
Washington, George	Commander-in-chief of the Continental army during the American Revolution and later elected first President of the United States of America after the adoption of the U.S. Constitution.

Attributions:

- ["US Government for High School Diploma"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
- 
LICENSED UNDER [CK-12 License](#)
© CK-12 Foundation • Visit us at [ck12.org](#)
- ["Maps of the Thirteen Colonies"](#) by Wikipedia is licensed under [CC BY-SA 3.0](#)
 - "Practice Questions" by Beatriz Torres is licensed [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International](#)
 - ["US History High School Diploma"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
- 
LICENSED UNDER [CK-12 License](#)
© CK-12 Foundation • Visit us at [ck12.org](#)
- ["Addressing Slavery"](#) by ISKME is licensed under [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)
 - ["US History"](#) by ISKME is licensed under [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)

- ["World History Studies"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)



Chapter 3: Civics and Government

The Founding Fathers



The Founding Fathers

Many individuals and teams provided enlightening ideas and fulfilled significant roles to shape the foundation of America. This section will detail the accomplishments of some of the most important men in the history of government and politics: George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, John Marshall, Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Ronald Reagan all played a pivotal part in the progress of American ideals.

The Founding Fathers

The term Founding Fathers refers broadly to those individuals who led the American Revolution against the authority of the British Crown and established the United States of America. It is also more narrowly defined as referring specifically to those who either signed the Declaration of Independence in 1776 or who were delegates to the 1787 Constitutional Convention and took part in drafting the proposed Constitution of the United States.

The men who attended the Constitutional Convention included some of the most prominent men of the revolutionary and post-revolutionary era. George Washington was present at the convention (and was chosen to be its president), along with Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and Roger Sherman. As a group, the framers of the Constitution

were wealthier and better educated than the average American. Nearly all of them had experience in state and national governments, and many of them had fought in the revolution. They were truly the “cream of the crop” of leaders and thinkers in America during the pre- and post-colonial periods.

QUICK FACTS ABOUT THE FOUNDING FATHERS	
FOUNDING FATHER	ESSENTIAL FACTS
John Adams	<p>John Adams was born in Massachusetts in 1735. He was a Harvard lawyer who defended the British soldiers after the Boston Massacre. He served as a delegate to both Continental Congresses and was on the committee to write the Declaration of Independence. He was the first Vice President and the second President of the United States.</p> <p>During his Presidency, he tried to maintain neutrality with England and France, even though the French attempted a bribe during the XYZ Affair. He is criticized for signing the Alien and Sedition Acts which many said violated civil liberties. Adams was defeated by Jefferson in 1800 when he ran for a second term. Before he left office, he appointed John Marshall Chief Justice. In the final days of his Presidency, he appointed Federalists to fill several new judgeships in what is called “the midnight appointments.” It was one of these appointments that led to the famous case Marbury v Madison. He died on July 4, 1826.</p>
Benjamin Franklin	<p>Benjamin Franklin was an inventor, writer, printer, diplomat, scientist, humorist, and statesman. He was born in Boston in 1706. In 1733 he started publishing Poor Richard’s Almanack. What distinguished Franklin’s almanac were his witty sayings and lively writing. During the French and Indian War, Franklin advocated colonial unity with his Albany Plan which encouraged the colonists to “Join or Die.” He was a delegate to the both Continental Congresses and a member of the committee to write the Declaration of Independence. Franklin was the U.S. Ambassador to France and helped to negotiate the Treaty of Paris that ended the American Revolution. The French loved Franklin, and he was very popular in that country. Later, he was the oldest delegate to the Constitutional Convention at the age of 81. He became a member of the Pennsylvania Abolition Society before he died.</p>
Alexander Hamilton	<p>Alexander Hamilton was born in the West Indies in 1755. He was the Aide-De-Camp (personal assistant) to George Washington during the American Revolution. He was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention in 1787 from New York. As a proponent of a strong central government, he was one of the authors of The Federalist Papers (essays that promoted the ratification of the Constitution). Hamilton was the first Secretary of the Treasury under President George Washington, where he worked to pay off the country’s war debts through his financial plan, which included the assumption of state debts and creation of a national bank. He was the founder of the Federalist Party, which is</p>

	<p>considered the first political party. On July 11, 1804 he fought a duel with Aaron Burr who was angry over Hamilton's support of Jefferson in the presidential election of 1800. Hamilton was shot by Burr and died the next day</p>
John Jay	<p>John Jay was born December 12th, 1745, Representing the point of view of the American merchants in protesting British restrictions on the commercial activities of the colonies, he was elected to the Continental Congress in 1774 and again in 1775. Jay did not favor independence from Britain. However, once the revolution was undertaken Jay was an ardent supporter of the new nation. He drafted the first constitution of New York State and was appointed chief justice of the state in 1777. In the following year, he was again elected to the Continental Congress and was chosen as its president.</p> <p>The ineffectiveness of the Articles of Confederation led Jay to become a proponent of a strong national government and one of the primary authors of the Federalist Papers. After the Constitution was ratified, George Washington nominated John Jay as the chief justice, and he was confirmed two days later. Jay was instrumental in establishing the Supreme Court as a reasoned and honorable institution. He later retired from service in the Supreme Court and was elected (without even running) to be Governor of New York in 1795 where he proved to be a popular and productive governor.</p>
Thomas Jefferson	<p>Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia in 1743. As a Virginia planter, he was also a delegate to the House of Burgesses and to the First and Second Continental Congress. He was selected to draft the Declaration of Independence and is considered the author of the Declaration of Independence. Next, he was a U.S. Minister to France. Jefferson was the first Secretary of State under George Washington and Vice-President under John Adams.</p> <p>Leader of the Democratic-Republican Party, in 1801 he became the third President of the United States. As President, he was responsible for the Louisiana Purchase in 1803 and the Embargo Act of 1807. Jefferson sent the Lewis and Clark Expedition in 1804 to explore the new territory purchased from France, which produced a wealth of scientific and geographical knowledge. He died on July 4, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence.</p> <p>His self-written epitaph read: <i>"Here was buried Thomas Jefferson Author of the Declaration of American Independence of the Statute of Virginia for religious freedom & Father of the University of Virginia."</i></p>
James Madison	<p>James Madison was born in Virginia in 1751. Madison was a delegate to the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention and is widely considered the "Father of the Constitution" for his many contributions to the basic structure of our government. He used Montesquieu's idea for separation of powers but also added a system of checks and balances to assure no one branch was too</p>

	powerful. He authored the Virginia Plan which proposed representation in the legislative branch based on population but was willing to compromise by creating a bicameral legislature. He supported ratification of the new U.S. Constitution and wrote over a third of the Federalist Papers, promoting its ratification. He helped frame the Bill of Rights, and then became Secretary of State under Thomas Jefferson. He was the fourth President of the United States. During his presidency, the United States fought Great Britain in the War of 1812.
George Washington	George Washington was born in Virginia in 1732. He was a Virginia planter and a delegate to the House of Burgesses. Washington fought during the French and Indian War and was a delegate to the Continental Congress. He was chosen Commander of the Continental Army during the American Revolution. Later, he became the President of the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention in 1787 and the First President of the United States. During his presidency, his foreign policy was to remain neutral, and he warned the country against European entanglement and political parties in his Farewell Address. George Washington is referred to as the “Father of our Country.”

Although the delegates to the **Constitutional Convention met in secret**, the records of the convention debates reveal lively conversations about what form of government to create. The convention debates and the subsequent debates over ratification of the new constitution were generally organized as a debate between the Federalists and the Anti-federalists. The Federalists supported ratification because they believed that the country needed a stronger national government. Their arguments for ratification were made in a series of famous essays written by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay called *The Federalist Papers*. The Anti-federalists opposed ratification of the Constitution because they believed that it gave the national government too much power. They preferred a political union where the states had more power. The Anti-federalists tend to be overlooked because they lost the argument. The Constitution was ratified. But the Anti-federalist Papers are worth reading in an era when American politics includes criticism of the size of the federal government. The legacy of the Founding Fathers continues to this day as the document that they drafted during the Constitutional Convention has held true and steadfast throughout the test of time.

Justice John Marshall

John Marshall was a self-made man who lacked formal schooling due to the isolated area in Virginia where he was raised. Because schools were few, his father taught him at home. Upon the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, Marshall volunteered and served in the 11th regiment of Virginia. He participated in the battles at Germantown, Brandywine, Monmouth, and Stony Point. George Washington, a man much admired by Marshall, offered him the post of Attorney General and U.S. minister to France. He did not accept Washington’s offer.

In 1799, Marshall ran for and received a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives. In 1800, due to his staunch support of Adams and his stellar service, Adams first appointed Marshall to the position of secretary of state. Marshall reluctantly accepted the position. Then, in 1801, President Adams appointed Marshall as chief justice of the United States. During Marshall's 34 years as chief justice, he clarified the position of the Supreme Court and made it a central fixture in the process of government. As a fervent Constitutionalist, John Marshall worked tirelessly to foster the Supreme Courts role in guiding national policy and public opinion.

One of the most important cases heard by the court during Marshall's tenure was *Marbury v. Madison*.

Marbury v. Madison (1803)

Facts of the Case

The case began on March 2, 1801, when an obscure Federalist, William Marbury, was designated as a Justice of the Peace in the District of Columbia. Marbury and several others were appointed to government posts created by Congress in the last days of John Adams's presidency, but these last-minute appointments were never fully finalized. The disgruntled appointees invoked an act of Congress and sued for their jobs in the Supreme Court. (Justices William Cushing and Alfred Moore did not participate.)

Practice Questions:

1. Is Marbury entitled to his appointment?
2. Is his lawsuit the correct way to get it?
3. Is the Supreme Court the place for Marbury to get the relief he requests?

Conclusion

Decision: 4 votes for Madison, 0 vote(s) against

Legal provision: Section 13 of the Judiciary Act of 1789

The justices held, through Marshall's forceful argument, that on the last issue the Constitution was "the fundamental and paramount law of the nation" and that "an act of the legislature repugnant to the constitution is void." In other words, when the Constitution--the nation's highest law--conflicts with an act of the legislature, that act becomes invalid.

Importance: This case establishes the Supreme Court's power of judicial review allowing courts to overturn laws on the basis of unconstitutionality. With this case, the Supreme Court gave itself a series of check and balance powers that raised its prominence to that of the Legislative and Executive branches.



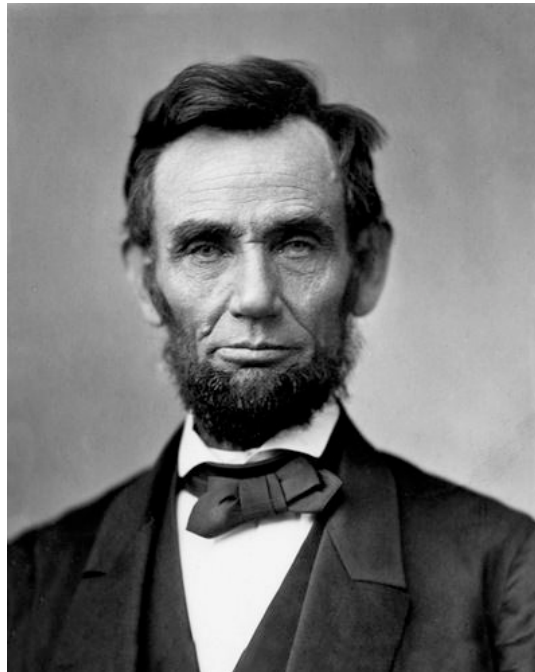
Andrew Jackson

Andrew Jackson was the seventh president of The United States. He served two terms in office, from 1829-1837. During his presidency, Jackson challenged the status quo of typical political procedures and typical political participants. Andrew Jackson, an orphan from South Carolina, was the definition of a self-made man. He was just a boy when he fought in the Revolutionary War. Then, he studied law and became a prosecutor, judge, senator, and congressman from Tennessee. His main claim to fame arose from his role as Major General in the War of 1812, the battle with the Creek Indians, and the victory over the British at the Battle of New Orleans, (which was fought after the war had been declared over).

When the orders to disband his troops were received, Jackson defied them. He bravely used his own resources (money and horses) to successfully lead his troops back to Tennessee. His toughness was equated to the hickory tree, and after his heroism toward his troops, Jackson was given the nickname "Old Hickory." In 1829, Jackson used his military fame to receive the Democratic nomination and ran against incumbent John Quincy Adams. Jackson organized and ran a national political campaign in which he called himself, "a man of the people." Using this platform to promote an anti-elitism stance, he fought the small number of eastern elites that normally participated in politics. Jackson won huge victories in the south and the west. "

President Jackson challenged the Bank of the United States on the grounds that it promoted eastern elitism in favoritism against the common man. Although the Supreme Court declared the bank constitutional, Jackson was determined to close it. During his impassioned fight against the bank, Jackson passed legislation aimed at weakening the national bank. Jackson moved government money to state-chartered banks, which sent the economy into a temporary depression. The Bank War ended in 1836 when the charter for the national bank was not renewed. Jackson had won. An additional legacy from Jackson's presidency was the establishment of The Indian Removal Act of 1830, which led to the Trail of Tears. The Trail of Tears was a series of removals of Native Americans in the United States from their ancestral homelands in the Southeastern United States to areas in the west that had been designated as Indian Territory. The relocated tribe members suffered from exposure, disease, and starvation while traveling to the reserved land. Many died before reaching their destinations.

Although portrayed as a positive movement to open the territory west of the Mississippi to westward expansion by Anglo settlers, the Indian Removal Act resulted in the brutal death of many natives who refused to go peacefully. The Trail of Tears occurred when federal troops forcibly removed the Cherokee from Georgia after the Cherokee unsuccessfully attempted to use legal action to block removal. As the majority of Cherokee did not vacate their land by the designated time, they were rounded up and marched to Oklahoma at gunpoint. Approximately 4000 Native Americans lost their lives on this journey. Jackson had many notions that the average American favored, and his concept of politics for all encouraged many changes to the political system. In his final speech to the American public, he said, "But you must remember, my fellow-citizens, eternal vigilance by the people is the price of liberty, and that you must pay the price if you wish to secure the blessing."



Abraham Lincoln

Abraham Lincoln was born in the Kentucky wilderness where his family worked the land as farmers. After becoming involved in a land dispute, the Lincoln family moved to Indiana. He did not have any formal schooling but reportedly was encouraged to read by his step-mother. Rumors from his Indiana neighbors claim he would walk for miles to borrow a book. When the family moved once again, Lincoln followed them to Illinois, but after another move, he chose to go his own way and settled in New Salem. While in New Salem, Lincoln held many jobs including shopkeeper, postmaster, and store owner.

In 1847 Lincoln became a representative where he was vocally against the Mexican-American war while he also vocally supported Zachary Taylor for president. Soon, Lincoln decided to run again for the Senate. In 1860, he was elected the 16th president of the United States. During his tenure in office, Lincoln led the country through the Civil War. He delivered the Emancipation

Proclamation in 1863 that freed the slaves. He also delivered the Gettysburg Address where he reminded the country that the Declaration of Independence maintained equality for all.

Lincoln led the country in Reconstruction, but he believed in a quick resolution to allow the southern states to return to the Union. He was assassinated before he could follow through with this plan. His strong leadership, simple humor, speaking style, and political accomplishments have left a permanent legacy in American history.



Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR), the 32nd American president, served four terms in office--that is 16 years! Eventually after his presidency, the 22nd amendment, which limited the presidential term limit to two terms, was ratified in 1951. Prior to this amendment, there was not a rule or regulation about seeking reelection. The previous presidents all simply followed Washington's and Adams's precedent of only running for two terms. Roosevelt's popularity stemmed from his leadership through the Great Depression and World War II. He successfully steered the nation while expanding the federal government's powers. The social programs created through the New Deal produced a large presence of government in an average citizen's life. This relationship between government and citizen was forever changed.

The New Deal was implemented in order to restore hope to an out-of-work and down-on-its-luck American public. The governmental agencies such as Civilian Conservation Corps, Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Works Progress Administration, and many more created under the New Deal, restored hope and prosperity to the public. Some of these agencies are still in existence today.

Elected in 1932, Democratic president Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR) sought to implement a “New Deal” for Americans amid staggering unemployment. He argued that the national government could restore the economy more effectively than states or localities. He persuaded Congress to enact sweeping legislation. New Deal programs included boards that enforced wage and price guarantees, created programs to construct buildings and bridges, developed national parks, created artworks, and provided payments to farmers to reduce acreage of crops and stabilize prices. The 1930s New Deal programs included commissioning photographers to document social conditions during the Great Depression. The resultant photographs are both invaluable historical documents and lasting works of art.

The New Deal and the End of Dual Federalism

By 1939, national government expenditures equaled state and local expenditures combined. FDR explained his programs to nationwide audiences by having “fireside chats” on the relatively young medium of radio. His policies were highly popular, and he was reelected by a landslide in 1936. The Supreme Court, after rejecting several New Deal measures, eventually upheld national authority over such once-forbidden terrain as labor-management relations, minimum wages, and subsidies to farmers. The Court thereby sealed the fate of Dual Federalism.



Theodore Roosevelt

With the assassination of President McKinley in 1901, Theodore Roosevelt, almost 43, became the youngest President in the nation’s history. He brought new excitement and power to the presidency, as he vigorously led Congress and the American public toward progressive reforms and a strong foreign policy. He took the view that the President as a “steward of the people” should take whatever action necessary for the public good unless expressly forbidden by law or

the Constitution.” I did not usurp power,” he wrote, “but I did greatly broaden the use of executive power.” Roosevelt’s youth differed sharply from that of the log cabin Presidents. He was born in New York City in 1858 into a wealthy family, but he too struggled against ill health, and in his triumph became an advocate of the strenuous life. During the Spanish-American War, Roosevelt was lieutenant colonel of the Rough Rider Regiment, which he led on a charge at the battle of San Juan. He was one of the most conspicuous heroes of the war. Boss Tom Platt, needing a hero to draw attention away from scandals in New York State, accepted Roosevelt as the Republican candidate for Governor in 1898. Roosevelt won and served with distinction.

As President, Roosevelt held the ideal that the Government should be the great arbiter of the conflicting economic forces in the Nation, especially between capital and labor, guaranteeing justice to each and dispensing favors to none. Roosevelt emerged spectacularly as a “trust buster” by forcing the dissolution of a great railroad combination in the Northwest. Other antitrust suits under the Sherman Act followed. Roosevelt steered the United States more actively into world politics. He liked to quote a favorite proverb, “Speak softly and carry a big stick. . . .” Aware of the strategic need for a shortcut between the Atlantic and Pacific, Roosevelt ensured the construction of the Panama Canal. His corollary to the Monroe Doctrine prevented the establishment of foreign bases in the Caribbean and arrogated the sole right of intervention in Latin America to the United States. He won the Nobel Peace Prize for mediating the Russo-Japanese War, reached a Gentleman’s Agreement on immigration with Japan, and sent the Great White Fleet on a goodwill tour of the world.

Leaving the Presidency in 1909, Roosevelt went on an African safari, then jumped back into politics. In 1912 he ran for President on a Progressive ticket. To reporters he once remarked that he felt as fit as a bull moose, the name of his new party. While campaigning in Milwaukee, he was shot in the chest by a fanatic. Roosevelt soon recovered, but his words at that time would have been applicable at the time of his death in 1919: “No man has had a happier life than I have led; a happier life in every way.”



Ronald Reagan

On February 6, 1911, Ronald Wilson Reagan was born to Nelle and John Reagan in Tampico, Illinois. He attended high school in nearby Dixon then worked his way through Eureka College. There, he studied economics and sociology, played on the football team, and acted in school plays. Upon graduation, he became a radio sports announcer. A screen test in 1937 won him a contract in Hollywood. During the next two decades, he appeared in 53 films.

As President of the Screen Actors Guild, Reagan became embroiled in disputes over the issue of Communism in the film industry; his political views shifted from liberal to conservative. He toured the country as a television host, becoming a spokesman for conservatism. In 1966 he was elected Governor of California by a margin of a million votes. He was re-elected in 1970. Ronald Reagan won the Republican Presidential nomination in 1980 and chose as his running mate former Texas Congressman and United Nations Ambassador George Bush. Voters troubled by inflation and by the year-long confinement of Americans in Iran swept the Republican ticket into office. Reagan won 489 electoral votes to 49 for President Jimmy Carter.

Ronald Reagan became the 40th President of the United States serving America from 1981 to 1989. His term saw a restoration of prosperity at home, with the goal of achieving “peace through strength” abroad. At the end of his two terms in office, Ronald Reagan viewed with satisfaction the achievements of his innovative program known as the Reagan Revolution, which aimed to reinvigorate the American people and reduce their reliance upon Government. He felt he had fulfilled his campaign pledge of 1980 to restore “the great, confident roar of American progress and growth and optimism.” On January 20, 1981, Reagan took office. Only 69 days later he was shot by a would-be assassin, but quickly recovered and returned to duty. His grace and wit during the dangerous incident caused his popularity to soar.

Dealing skillfully with Congress, Reagan obtained legislation to stimulate economic growth, curb inflation, increase employment, and strengthen national defense. He embarked upon a course of cutting taxes and Government expenditures, refusing to deviate from it when the strengthening of defense forces led to a large deficit.

A renewal of national self-confidence by 1984 helped Reagan and Bush win a second term with an unprecedented number of electoral votes. Their victory turned away Democratic challengers Walter F. Mondale and Geraldine Ferraro. In 1986 Reagan obtained an overhaul of the income tax code, which eliminated many deductions and exempted millions of people with low incomes. At the end of his administration, the Nation was enjoying its longest recorded period of peacetime prosperity without recession or depression. In foreign policy, Reagan sought to achieve “peace through strength.” During his two terms he increased defense spending 35 percent, but sought to improve relations with the Soviet Union. In dramatic meetings with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, he negotiated a treaty that would eliminate intermediate-range nuclear missiles. Reagan declared war against international terrorism, sending American bombers against Libya after evidence came out that Libya was involved in an attack on American soldiers in a West Berlin nightclub.

By ordering naval escorts in the Persian Gulf, he maintained the free flow of oil during the Iran-Iraq war. In keeping with the Reagan Doctrine, he gave support to anti-Communist insurgencies in Central America, Asia, and Africa. Overall, the Reagan years saw a restoration of prosperity, and the goal of peace through strength seemed to be within grasp.

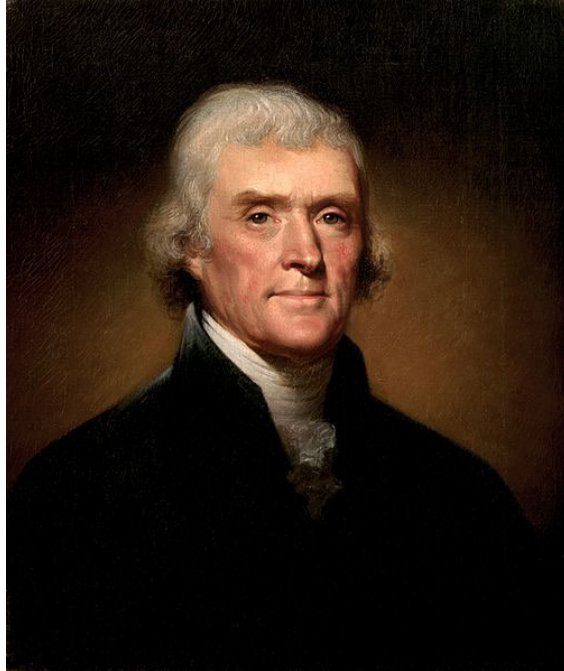
Practice Questions:

1. How did George Washington's actions as Founding Father, Framers, and First President establish his legacy in American history?
2. How was Thomas Jefferson so instrumental in crafting America's foreign policy? Give two examples.
3. Do you agree with Andrew Jackson's Indian Removal Act? What do you think this act showed about his character?
4. Abraham Lincoln delivered the Emancipation Proclamation Speech in 1863. How was this a turning point in the Civil War?
5. Explain FDR's New Deal. Include three strengths.
6. How did Theodore Roosevelt improve the Monroe Doctrine?
7. What effect did Ronald Reagan's military spending have on America? Defend your position.

The Constitution and Bill of Rights marked a turning point in people's ideas about government. Both documents put Enlightenment ideas into practice. They expressed an optimistic view that reason and reform could prevail and that progress was inevitable.

The Declaration of Independence

Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence while he was a delegate at the Second Continental Convention in the summer of 1776. The document explains the reasons why the American colonists were demanding independence from Great Britain and details their grievances (complaints) against the King and the British Parliament. Jefferson argued that all men had unalienable rights, which included life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, and that governments should not attempt to limit or deny these rights to citizens. He also noted that governments existed by the consent of the governed arguing that the citizens of the state hold supreme political power and the powers, given freely to government, are limited.



Portrait of Thomas Jefferson

An excerpt from a larger article titled, "Declaration of Independence: A History"

The Declaration of Independence is made up of five distinct parts: the introduction; the preamble; the body, which can be divided into two sections; and a conclusion. The introduction states that this document will "declare" the "causes" that have made it necessary for the American colonies to leave the British Empire. Having stated in the introduction that independence is unavoidable, even necessary, the preamble sets out principles that were already recognized to be "self-evident" by most 18th-century Englishmen, closing with the statement that "a long train of abuses and usurpations . . . evinces a design to reduce [a people] under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security." The first section of the body of the Declaration gives evidence of the "long train of abuses and usurpations" heaped upon the colonists by King George III. The second section of the body states that the colonists had appealed in vain to their "British brethren" for a redress of their grievances. Having stated the conditions that made independence necessary and having shown that those conditions existed in British North America, the Declaration concludes that "these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved."

National Archives website. Exhibits, "The Charters of Freedom: Declaration of Independence, A History Retrieved May 16, 2015 (Public Domain).

The Declaration of Independence (second reading)

Adapted from an excerpt from a longer article titled, "Declaration of Independence"

On June 7, 1776, Richard Henry Lee introduced a resolution to the Congress that declared the thirteen colonies "free and independent states." Congress did not act on the resolution immediately. A vote was set for early July. In the meantime it seemed appropriate that some sort of explanation was in order for such a bold act. A subcommittee of five, including Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, was selected to choose the careful wording. Such a document must be persuasive to a great many parties. Americans would read this and join the patriot cause. Sympathetic Britons would read this and urge royal restraint. Foreign powers would read this and aid the colonial militia. They might, that is, if the text were convincing. The five agreed that Jefferson was the most talented writer. They would advise on his prose.

The declaration is divided into three main parts. The first was a simple statement of intent. Jefferson's words echo down through the decades of American life until the present day. Phrases like "all men are created equal," "unalienable rights," and "life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness" have bounced from the lips of Americans in grammar school and retirement. All are contained in the first section that outlines the basic principles of the enlightened leaders. The next section is a list of grievances; that is, why the colonies deemed independence appropriate. King George was guilty of "repeated injuries" that intended to establish "absolute tyranny" in North America. He has "plundered our seas, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people." It was difficult for Americans to argue his points. The concluding paragraph officially dissolves ties with Britain. It also shows modern readers the courage taken by each delegate who would sign. They were now officially guilty of treason and would hang in the gallows if taken before a royal court. Thus, they would "pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor." Debate in the Congress followed. Jefferson watched painfully as the other delegates tweaked his prose. Jefferson had wanted to include a passage blaming the king for the slave trade, for example, but the southern delegates insisted upon its removal. Finally on July 4, 1776, the colonies approved the document. The vote was twelve to zero, with the New York delegation abstaining. As president of the Congress, John Hancock scrawled his famous signature across the bottom and history was made. If the American effort was successful, they would be hailed as heroes. If it failed, they would be hanged as traitors.

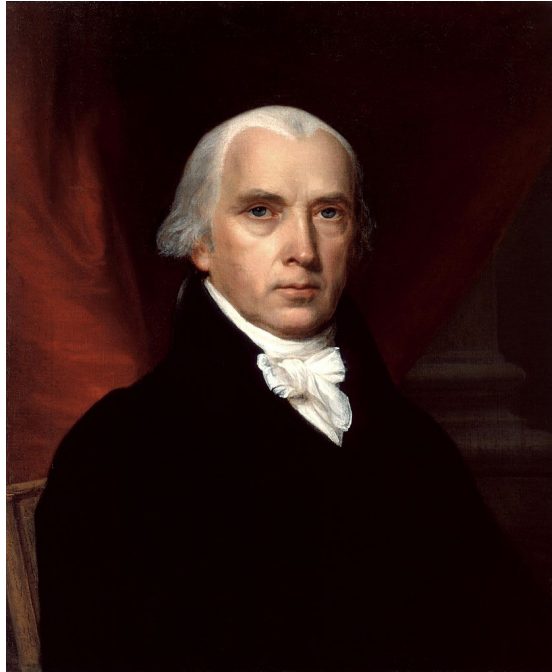
Practice Questions:

1. What were the reasons why the Congress felt a need to create a written declaration of their desire to become an independent country?
2. What were some the grievances that Jefferson uses to justify the American independence movement?

The U.S. Constitution

The Constitution of the United States of America

We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, ensure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America." **Preamble to the Constitution**



James Madison, 3rd President of the United States and Father of the U.S. Constitution.

The **Constitution of the United States of America** is the supreme law of the land. Empowered with the sovereign authority of the people by the framers and the consent of the legislatures of the states, it is the source of all government powers, and also provides important limitations on the government that protect the fundamental rights of United States citizens.

Why a Constitution?

The need for the Constitution grew out of problems with the **Articles of Confederation**, which established a "firm league of friendship" between the states, and vested most power in a Congress of the Confederation. This power was, however, extremely limited the central government conducted diplomacy and made war, set weights and measures, and was the final arbiter of disputes between the states. Crucially, it could not raise any funds itself, and was entirely dependent on the states themselves for the money necessary to operate. Each state sent a delegation of between two and seven members to the Congress, and they voted as a bloc with each state getting one vote. But any decision of consequence required a unanimous vote, which led to a government that was paralyzed and ineffectual. A movement to reform the Articles began, and invitations to attend a convention in Philadelphia to discuss changes to the Articles were sent to the state legislatures in 1787. In May of that year, delegates from 12 of the 13 states (Rhode Island sent no representatives) convened in Philadelphia to begin the work

of redesigning government. The delegates to the Constitutional Convention quickly began work on drafting a new Constitution for the United States.

The Articles of Confederation

America's own government under the Articles of Confederation, Madison was convinced, had to be replaced. In force since 1781, established as a "league of friendship" and a constitution for the 13 sovereign and independent states after the Revolution, the articles seemed to Madison woefully inadequate. With the states retaining considerable power, the central government, he believed, had insufficient power to regulate commerce. It could not tax and was generally impotent in setting commercial. Congress was attempting to function with a depleted treasury; paper money was flooding the country, creating extraordinary inflation--a pound of tea in some areas could be purchased for a tidy \$100; and the depressed condition of business was taking its toll on many small farmers. Some of them were being thrown in jail for debt, and numerous farms were being confiscated and sold for taxes.

In 1786, some of the farmers had fought back. From his idyllic Mount Vernon setting, Washington wrote to Madison: "Wisdom and good examples are necessary at this time to rescue the political machine from the impending storm."

Madison thought he had the answer. He wanted a strong central government to provide order and stability. "Let it be tried then," he wrote, "whether any middle ground can be taken which will at once support a due supremacy of the national authority," while maintaining state power only when "subordinately useful." The resolute Virginian looked to the Constitutional Convention to forge a new government in this mold. The convention had its specific origins in a proposal offered by Madison and John Tyler in the Virginia assembly that the Continental Congress be given power to regulate commerce throughout the Confederation. Through their efforts in the assembly a plan was devised inviting the several states to attend a convention at Annapolis, MD, in September 1786 to discuss commercial problems. Madison and a young lawyer from New York named Alexander Hamilton issued a report on the meeting in Annapolis, calling upon Congress to summon delegates of all of the states to meet for the purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation. Although the report was widely viewed as a usurpation of congressional authority, the Congress did issue a formal call to the states for a convention. To Madison it represented the supreme chance to reverse the country's trend. And as the delegations gathered in Philadelphia, its importance was not lost to others. The squire of Gunston Hall, George Mason, wrote to his son, "The Eyes of the United States are turned upon this Assembly and their Expectations raised to a very anxious Degree. May God Grant that we may be able to gratify them, by establishing a wise and just Government."

The Constitutional Convention and the Connecticut Compromise

A chief aim of the Constitution as drafted by the Convention was to create a government with enough power to act on a national level, but without so much power that fundamental rights

would be at risk. One way that this was accomplished was to separate the power of government into three branches, and then to include checks and balances on those powers to assure that no one branch of government gained supremacy. This concern arose largely out of the experience that the delegates had with the King of England and his powerful Parliament. The powers of each branch are enumerated in the Constitution, with powers not assigned to them reserved to the states.

Two plans competed to become the new government: the Virginia Plan, which apportioned representation based on the population of each state, and the New Jersey plan, which gave each state an equal vote in Congress. The Virginia Plan was supported by the larger states, and the New Jersey plan preferred by the smaller. In the end, they settled on the Great Compromise (sometimes called the Connecticut Compromise), in which the House of Representatives would represent the people as apportioned by population; the Senate would represent the states apportioned equally; and the President would be elected by the Electoral College. The plan also called for an independent judiciary.

The founders also took pains to establish the relationship between the states. States are required to give "full faith and credit" to the laws, records, contracts, and judicial proceedings of the other states, although Congress may regulate the manner in which the states share records, and define the scope of this clause. States are barred from discriminating against citizens of other states in any way, and cannot enact tariffs against one another. States must also extradite those accused of crimes to other states for trial.

The founders also specified a process by which the Constitution may be amended, and since its ratification, the Constitution has been amended 27 times. In order to prevent arbitrary changes, the process for making amendments is quite onerous. An amendment may be proposed by a two-thirds vote of both Houses of Congress, or, if two-thirds of the states request one, by a convention called for that purpose. The amendment must then be ratified by three-fourths of the state legislatures, or three-fourths of conventions called in each state for ratification. In modern times, amendments have traditionally specified a time frame in which this must be accomplished, usually a period of several years. Additionally, the Constitution specifies that no amendment can deny a state equal representation in the Senate without that state's consent.

With the details and language of the Constitution decided, the Convention got down to the work of actually setting the Constitution to paper. It is written in the hand of a delegate from Pennsylvania, Gouverneur Morris, whose job allowed him some reign over the actual punctuation of a few clauses in the Constitution. On September 17, 1787, 39 of the 55 delegates signed the new document, with many of those who refused to sign objecting to the lack of a bill of rights. At least one delegate refused to sign because the Constitution codified and protected slavery and the slave trade.

Practice Questions:

1. How do the principles of Checks and Balances and Separation of Powers limit the power of the federal government?
2. How did the Great Compromise establish the process of how states were represented in the national legislature?
3. What concerns did the delegates who refused to sign the Constitution have with the new law?

Constitutional Provisions for Limiting the Role of Government

The framers of the Constitution wanted to create an entirely new form of democratic government -- a Federal Republic. To accomplish this task, they carefully considered the problems with previous forms of government and examined the Enlightenment ideas that had so greatly influenced them up to that point. However, they knew that an even more daring experiment in democracy was needed, so they mixed the Enlightenment ideals of the past with new and uniquely American thoughts on self-government and devised a document that in little more than 4,000 words (quite short for a document of its nature) completely laid out a new blueprint for government that we know as the United States Constitution.

For this system to be effective, the framers had to carefully interweave six principles of Constitutional government. These were:

Popular Sovereignty

Limited Government

Federalism

When the Framers of the Constitution set about creating a new constitutional form of government, they wanted a document that would divide, distribute, balance, and protect governmental powers, and ensure that the liberties and rights of the people were protected. To achieve this, they instituted a series of important principles into the new Constitution.

Of course, they did not do this without a little help from those giants upon whose shoulders they knew they were standing – the Enlightenment philosophers such as Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, and Montesquieu.

These brave men, the Founding Fathers, were working in unknown and untested territory – the creation of an entirely new form of Democracy (which would be described as a Federal Republic). In order to go about this grand experiment, the Founding Fathers instituted a number of important philosophical principles which we will call “Constitutional Ideals.” These are described in the chart below:

IMPORTANT CONSTITUTIONAL IDEALS	
POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY	People establish governments and are the source of all governmental powers. People tell the government what to do instead of governments controlling the lives of the people.
LIMITED GOVERNMENT	Governments must have restricted and highly controlled power so that they do not exercise “tyranny” or unrestrained power over the people. Individual rights must be “firewalled” and protected from government abuse.
SEPARATION OF POWERS	Government power is divided among branches. In U.S. Government there are three branches: the Legislative (lawmaking), Executive (Implement and Execute laws), and Judicial (Interpret and enforce laws).
CHECKS AND BALANCES	In order to ensure that no one branch of government wields too much power over the others, each branch is given authority to check or restrain some of the powers of the other branches.
JUDICIAL REVIEW	The judiciary (Supreme Court and lower courts) has the power to strike down laws and other government actions as unconstitutional.
FEDERALISM	The powers and rights of the states are protected and balanced with powers and rights given to the national government through a process of division and power-sharing as outlined in the Constitution.

Of course, now more than 227 years later, they did such a good job, the document has only had to be formally changed 27 times to date. Of those 27 formal changes, ten of them were made in the first two years of the new Constitution in order to create our nation’s Bill of Rights. In its original form, the U.S. Constitution runs just over 4,500 words.

Republicanism

A political philosophy that has been a major part of American civic thought since its founding is called Republicanism. American republicanism was first expressed and first practiced by the Founding Fathers. The concept stemmed from their experiences with the monarchy in Great Britain.

The idea of Republicanism promotes *liberty* and *unalienable rights* as central values, making people sovereign, or able to rule themselves. Republicanism rejects monarchy, aristocracy, and inherited political power. It also expects citizens to be virtuous and faithful in their performance of civic duties, and vilifies corruption. A Republic should prepare for the negative influences that could place the nation in a perilous situation leading to tyranny or dictatorship. For example, Republicanism believes that a government official should not run for or hold a public office for personal gain, but rather to benefit the whole community.

Under Republicanism, all citizens were considered equal, but the definition of *citizen* has changed throughout the years. When the United States of America was first formed, for example, a black person was not considered a citizen.

Today's Republicanism is very different. The guiding principles are interpreted differently from the Republicans who initially created the concept in the Renaissance.

Individual Rights

According to scholars today, Jefferson acquired the most famous ideas in the Declaration of Independence from the writings of English philosopher John Locke. In 1689, Locke wrote *Second Treatise of Government*. This was during England's Glorious Revolution, which overthrew the rule of James II.

In his treatise, Locke identified the basis of a legitimate government. A ruler gains authority through the consent of the governed Locke stated. The government's duty is to protect the natural rights of the people-- life, liberty, and property.

If the government did not protect these rights, its citizens would have the right to overthrow that government. This idea deeply influenced Thomas Jefferson as he drafted the Declaration of Independence.

Outrages and the Early Civil Rights Movement



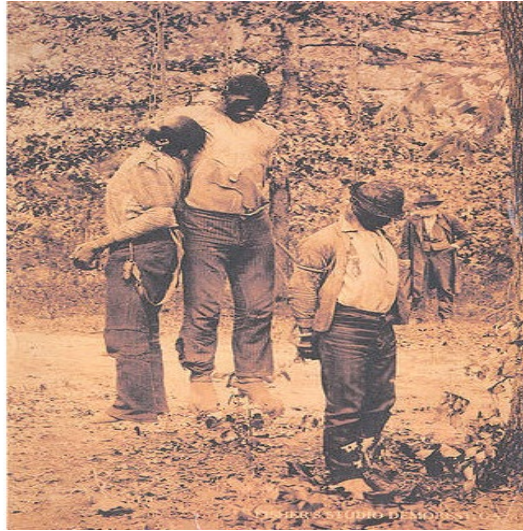
The National Memorial for Peace and Justice, opening in Montgomery, Ala., on Thursday, is dedicated to victims of lynching. Lynsey Weatherspoon for NPR

Race, Ethnicity, and Disfranchisement

The Gilded Age was a time of reaction to Reconstruction and the Civil War. Many people protested the 15th amendments guarantee that citizens of the United States could not have their voting rights infringed. The federal government did not pass mandatory literacy tests for prospective immigrants, but nine Western and Northern states enacted English-based literacy

Lynching and the Campaign for Legal Justice

“We had to do it!” exclaimed a white Democrat in explaining how his Georgia county with 1,500 registered voters somehow recorded 6,000 votes in 1894. “Those damned Populists would have ruined the country.” For many whites, the possibility of “negro domination” was far more than a political concern and justified lawlessness beyond voting fraud.



The lynching of Jim Redmond, Gus Roberson, and Bob Addison, and one onlooker. May 17, 1892. Habersham County, Georgia.

Practice Questions:

Read each question carefully and choose the best answer.

1. The first of the Black Codes passed in Mississippi on November 22, 1865, following the end of the Civil War (April 12, 1861 – May 10, 1865) during the Reconstruction Era?
 - a. True
 - b. False
2. Most black codes were based on vagrancy law; had to prove they had a job and that job was recognized by whites?
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. What fee people had to pay in order to vote a way that the Southerners got around the 15th amendment?
 - a. Literacy test
 - b. White primary
 - c. Poll Tax

- d. Sales Tax
4. Black codes enforced a series of requirements that included poll taxes, property qualifications, and literacy tests?
 - a. False
 - b. True
 5. What Vagrancy laws placed pressure on?
 - a. White people
 - b. Slaves
 - c. ex-slaves to sign labor contracts
 6. By what year did every state had poll tax?
 - a. 1889
 - b. 1900
 - c. 1887
 - d. 1910
 7. Which punishments included chain gangs and convict leasing?
 - a. Crimes and punishments: Different levels and types of punishment between.
 - b. Under Black Codes, the Civil Rights of freedmen were
 - c. The Black Codes, that included vagrancy laws, led to a system of
 - d. Apprenticeships: Courts were authorized to apprentice the black children of.
 8. The Black Codes restricted the freedom of black people (freedmen) and the right to own property, conduct business, buy and lease land, and move freely through public spaces such as Southern towns?
 - a. False
 - b. True
 9. The practice of keeping blacks from voting in the southern states' primaries through arbitrary use of registration requirements and intimidation.
 - a. Court
 - b. White primary
 - c. Judge
 10. The Black Codes, that included vagrancy Laws, led to a system of penalties and punishments including Convict Leasing that put freed slaves back into forced labor on the plantations?
 - a. True
 - b. False

Answers:

1. a, 2. a, 3. c, 4. b, 5. c, 6. a, 7. a, 8. b, 9. b, 10. a

Ida Wells



Ida B. Wells Barnett, in a photograph by Mary Garrity from c. 1893.

Born into slavery during the Civil War and forced to abandon formal education in order to provide for her family, Wells eventually became a teacher, civil rights leader, newspaper editor, and international lecturer. She was arrested for refusing to give up her seat on a Southern railroad in 1883 but was most famous for her tireless but unsuccessful efforts on behalf of a federal antilynching law.

For many angry lynch mobs, it was usually insufficient to simply kill their victim. Crowds of thousands of men, women, and children watched and participated in a symbolic orgy of community-sanctioned violence. Many times, the body was paraded through the black community, a grizzly reminder that white supremacy must not be challenged. Ida Wells lost her parents at age sixteen due to yellow fever. She raised her five younger brothers and sisters by working as a teacher, supplementing her abbreviated formal education with a love of books and learning for its own sake. She stood up to segregation, refusing to give up her seat on a railroad in 1883 and then suing the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad after she was dragged from the car by two men. Wells sued the rail company and won, although the Tennessee Supreme Court later reversed the decision. Years later, the state of Tennessee and the rest of the South passed laws specifically permitting, and in many cases, requiring segregation in public transportation and most other public areas of life. Ida Wells was a leader of the antilynching

movement. In 1892 she published a book entitled *Southern Horror: Lynch Law in All Its Phases*, which documented the frequency and consequences of lynching.

Creating and Confronting Jim Crow

Federal law prohibited racial segregation between the passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1875 and its nullification by the Supreme Court in 1883. The law was seldom enforced in the North or the South. The federal law prevented states from passing laws mandating segregation beyond schools a kind of separation that was banned from the original draft of the 1875 law but removed before its passage. By the late 1880s, Southern states passed a variety of segregation ordinances that were nicknamed Jim Crow a term referring to the practice of racial segregation. By the end of the decade, nearly every form of public activity, from riding a streetcar to attending a theater, was segregated by law. Alabama passed a law forbidding interracial checkers, New Orleans segregated its prostitutes, and Mississippi prohibited any book used by black students to be used in a white school. Black women and men challenged each of these laws, braving Southern jails and lynch mobs long before the modern civil rights movement of the 1960s.

Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)

Before the committee could challenge the law in the someone had to be arrested for violating the law. The committee selected Homer Plessy for the unenviable task, hoping that his very light complexion would further their argument that people should not be separated or excluded because of perceptions about race. The committee also arranged a deal with a local railroad. This particular line opposed the segregation law because it added to their operating costs by requiring additional rail cars with separate compartments. The rail company agreed to have Plessy arrested, while the committee was waiting at the jail with bail money in hand Homer Plessy's lead attorney Albion Tourgée also led a national organization that communicated about civil rights issues via the mail.

After more than four years of trials and appeals, the case was heard by the US Supreme Court. Tourgée argued that justice was "colorblind" while the Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed all citizens the same right to due process regardless of race. In an infamous decision, the Supreme Court ruled in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) that a segregation law might be valid if it supported established traditions and customs. The court upheld the Louisiana law, arguing that it met this historical criteria and served a positive social good by promoting "comfort and the preservation of the public peace and good order." The court disagreed that segregation implied discrimination or inferiority.

John Marshall Harlan was the only member of the Supreme Court who dissented. The *Plessy* decision would stand until the Supreme Court specifically revoked it in the 1954 case *Brown v. Board of Education*, which outlawed segregation in public schools.

In the meantime, the 1896 decision included a provision that would become the basis of hundreds of civil rights lawsuits during the next sixty years. In issuing its defense of legal segregation, the majority decision required separate facilities to also be equal. This requirement led to numerous demands for better equipment and facilities for black schools and other segregated facilities throughout the Jim Crow South. Our constitution is color-blind, and neither knows nor tolerates classes among citizens. In respect of civil rights, all citizens are equal before the law. We boast of the freedom enjoyed by our people above all other peoples. But it is difficult to reconcile that boast with a state of law which, practically, puts the brand of servitude and degradation upon a large class of our fellow citizens our equals before the law. The thin disguise of 'equal' accommodations for passengers in railroad coaches will not mislead anyone, nor atone for the wrong this day done. US Supreme Court Justice John Marshall Harlan

Lawsuits against segregation itself would continue after 1896 in many Northern and Western states. This was because many of these states passed their own civil rights laws before or almost immediately after the Supreme Court invalidated the Civil Rights Act in 1883. T. Thomas Fortune, one of the most outspoken black leaders of this era, founded a national civil rights organization called the National Afro American League in 1887. Four years later, he successfully sued a New York barroom that drew the color line against him. Neither his case nor his victory was particularly unusual. Black plaintiffs sued at least half a dozen restaurants and hotels between 1892 and the turn of the century in the state of Iowa alone. Most local civil rights cases were dismissed on lack of evidence, but numerous judgments were issued in favor of black plaintiffs. In most of these cases, however, the judgments were for trifling amounts of money that did not even cover court costs. Many plaintiffs faced threats, and those with white employers or landlords might lose their jobs and homes.

The consequences of confronting the color line in less obvious ways were likewise dangerous, even in the North. A mid-nineteenth century image of a black man being removed from a rail car in Philadelphia reveals a number of truths about segregation. First, the color line was not limited to the South even if actual laws requiring segregation were passed in Southern states in the 1890s. Second, African Americans protested both formal and informal segregation long before the modern civil rights movement of the 1960s. Raised beyond the veil of slavery, a new generation of African Americans relished and preserved the stories of their ancestors who confronted the lash with dignity

In 1895, Booker T. Washington gave a famous speech known as "The Atlanta Compromise," which argued that segregation was less important than creating good schools for black children and good jobs for black men. Privately, Washington also worked to aid civil rights activism. Publicly, however, Washington appeared to accept segregation as a tactical compromise. This tactic permitted Washington to have access to a number of white lawmakers and white philanthropists. In exchange for accepting segregation, Washington challenged these whites to make sure that black schools were receiving better support, if not equal support as required by law. Whether Washington's decision was for the best interest of the race would be debated by black leaders during the early decades of the twentieth century.

Practice Questions:

1. How did literacy tests and poll taxes affect Southern politics?
2. What was the impact of the white-only primary?
3. What were obstacles did African Americans who sought to exercise their constitutional right to vote face in the South in the 1890s?
4. What was the intent of Jim Crow laws, and how did African Americans confront these laws during this era? Explain your answer using historical examples.
5. Why was Homer Plessy arrested in New Orleans in 1892? What was his crime?
6. Who was "Ferguson" in the Supreme Court case *Plessy v. Ferguson*? What was his role in the case?
7. How did the Supreme Court rule in the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson*?
8. How were the actions of Citizen's Committee an example of using civil disobedience to bring attention to a social cause?
9. What social cause did Ida Wells champion?

Division and Separation of Powers in the Constitution

Separation of powers is a political doctrine originating in the writings of Charles de Second at, Baron de Montesquieu in *The Spirit of the Laws*, in which he argued for a constitutional government with three separate branches, each of which would have defined abilities to check the powers of the others. This philosophy heavily influenced the writing of the United States Constitution, according to which the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial branches of the United States government are kept distinct in order to prevent abuse of power. This United States form of separation of powers is associated with a system of **checks and balances**.

The Legislative Branch

The legislative branch is made up of Congress (the Senate and the House of Representatives). The powers of Congress are expressed powers because they are directly stated in the Constitution. They are also called enumerated powers because they are numbered 1-18.

The Executive Branch

The executive branch is the President, the President's cabinet, and many bureaucratic agencies (these groups actually enact laws once they are signed by the President). The Founding Fathers believed that a strong executive branch of government was needed to carry out the acts of Congress.

The Judicial Branch

Article III section one of the United States Constitution establishes the judicial branch of government. The judicial branch of the government consists of the Supreme Court and the

lower courts. The judicial system is made up of two different court systems, the federal courts and the state courts.

Practice Questions:

1. What branch writes laws?
 - a. Executive branch
 - b. Legislative branch
 - c. Judicial branch
 - d. None

2. What branch of government enforce laws?
 - a. Executive
 - b. Legislative
 - c. Judicial
 - d. a and b

3. What kind of power interpret and apply the laws?
 - a. Executive
 - b. Legislative
 - c. Judicial
 - d. b and c

4. The branch that makes the laws?
 - a. Judicial
 - b. Executive
 - c. Legislative

5. Which power of judges to determine if laws and acts of the executive branch are constitutional?
 - a. Legislative review
 - b. Executive review
 - c. Judicial review

6. What is the highest court in the land?
 - a. Courts of Appeals
 - b. District Court
 - c. Bankruptcy Court
 - d. Supreme Court

7. Which powers of the national government are divided into three distinct branches?
 - a. House of Representatives
 - b. Separation of Powers
 - c. Judicial review

- d. Legislative branch
8. Which lower house of Congress had 435 members and are elected for 2 years terms?
- a. Senate
 - b. Congress
 - c. House of Representatives
9. Who is part of the chief executive?
- a. The Congress
 - b. The President
 - c. The Military
 - d. Both a and c
10. Which branch of government includes members of US Congress?
- a. Judicial branch
 - b. Executive branch
 - c. Legislative branch
 - d. None
11. What was the name of the first constitution of the United States?
- a. Articles of Confederation
 - b. Bill Rights
 - c. Declaration of Independence
 - d. Emancipation Proclamation
12. How many branches is US government divided into?
- a. Three
 - b. Executive branch
 - c. Legislative branch
 - d. Judicial branch
13. The difference between a "Federalist" and an "Antifederalist" is that federalist ;supported ratification of the new US Constitution that was created in 1787 and antifederalist opposed ratification of the new US Constitution that was created in 1787?
- a. False
 - b. True
14. What term(s) best describes the type of government of the United States?
- a. The legislative branch of the U.S
 - b. The Articles of Confederation
 - c. Representative democracy, or republic
 - d. The executive branch of the U.S
15. When a state law conflicts with a federal law, which law should be followed?

- a. Only states laws
- b. Federal laws
- c. None
- d. a and b

16. Which branch of US government has the power to declare war?

- a. President
- b. Legislative branch
- c. Judicial branch
- d. None

Answers:

1. b, 2. a, 3. c, 4. c, 5. c, 6. d, 7. b, 8. c, 9. d, 10. c, 11. a, 12. a, 13. b, 14. c, 15. b, 16. a

The 27 Amendments to the Constitution

The first ten amendments of the Constitution are called the Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights guarantees individual liberties and freedoms; limits the power of judiciary; and reserves the power to the state and public.

Amendment 1: Rights of freedom of religion (prohibits establishment of one religion over another by law, practicing religion freely), freedom of expression, freedom of speech, freedom of assembly and freedom of press.

Amendment 2: Right to possess arms.

Amendment 3: Quartering of soldiers prohibited during peacetime. Soldiers should be quartered at a civilian home only with the owner's permission.

Amendment 4: Freedom from seizure of property, arrests and searches without a specific warrant.

Amendment 5: Prohibits trial for a crime except on indictment of a Grand Jury and double jeopardy, prohibits punishment without legal procedures and taking away of private property without adequate compensation.

Amendment 6: Right to a public and speedy trial by an impartial jury, to confront the witnesses against the accused and to have a legal attorney in defense of the accused.

Amendment 7: Right to trial by a jury in civil cases.

Amendment 8: Prohibits imposing cruel, unusual punishments and fines, prohibits granting excessive bails.

Amendment 9: Assures the recognition of those rights that people may have but are not listed here.

Amendment 10: Provides that the powers that are not given to the United States nor prohibited by the constitution are reserved to the states respectively or to the people.

Amendment 11: Clearly states the judicial powers of the US states and the federal government on foreign nationals and the limitations of the citizens to sue states under federal law.

Amendment 12: Specifies the procedure for electing the president and the vice-president of the US separately by ballot votes.

Amendment 13: Establishes the abolishment of slavery from the US and all the places that fall under its jurisdiction.

Amendment 14: Broadly defines the parameters of the US citizenship, prohibits the states from reducing or diminishing the privileges of citizens and emphasizes their 'right to due process and the equal protection of the law'.

Amendment 15: The citizens' right to vote shall not be denied by the states or the federal government on the basis of race, color or previous status of servitude.

Amendment 16: Authorizes the federal government to collect taxes on income without apportionment.

Amendment 17: Establishes the direct election of the senators to the United States Senate.

Amendment 18: Prohibits the manufacture, sale, transportation, import or export of intoxicating beverages within the US and all the territories falling under its jurisdiction.

Amendment 19: Establishes that the citizens' right to vote shall not be denied on the basis of their gender or sex.

Amendment 20: States in detail the terms of office that the President, the Vice-President, the Senators and the Representatives shall hold.

Amendment 21: Repeals the 18th Amendment. Prohibits the importation of intoxicating beverages.

Amendment 22: Establishes that the Presidential term is limited to two years and a person shall be elected to the presidential office only once.

Amendment 23: Allows the representation of the District of Columbia in the Presidential elections.

Amendment 24: Prohibits the non-payment of poll tax or other tax as a basis of denial of the right to vote.

Amendment 25: The Vice President shall become President in case the President is removed from office or in case of his death.

Amendment 26: Prohibits the federal government or the state from denying any citizen who is 18 years or above, the right to vote.

Amendment 27: Establishes that any law that increases or decreases the Congressional pay shall not be put to effect until the next term of office of the representatives begins.

Ratification

The amendment must be accepted or ratified once it has been proposed. There are two different methods for ratifying the Constitution:

- An amendment can be ratified if three-fourths of the state legislatures vote for it.
- Congress can direct the states to hold special ratifying conventions to consider a proposed amendment. If three-fourths of the conventions approve the amendment, it is approved, or ratified and becomes part of the Constitution.

Practice Questions:

Read the following questions and choose the best answer.

1. Where do both chambers of congress meet?
 - a. Senate
 - b. Congress
 - c. Capital building
2. The power of the president to give freedom from a punishment?
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. Nine (9) is a total number of justices that serve on the Supreme Court?
 - a. True
 - b. False
4. The role of these officials is to advice the president?
 - a. Secretary
 - b. Cabinet
 - c. Senator

5. What does the strips of the flag represent?
 - a. States
 - b. Colonies
 - c. Cities

6. What was the purpose of adding the first 10 amendments to the Constitution?
 - a. Equal representation in the senate
 - b. Protect individual liberties
 - c. The bill rights

7. How old do you have to be to be the President?
 - a. 35
 - b. 27
 - c. 25
 - d. 40

8. How is representation decided in the senate?
 - a. Electoral college
 - b. Expressed powers
 - c. 4 years
 - d. Equal representation

9. What is the term length of a member of the House?
 - a. 4 years
 - b. 2 years
 - c. 5 years
 - d. 10 years

10. What is the term length of a Supreme Court Justice?
 - a. 10 years
 - b. 5 years
 - c. For life
 - d. 20 years

11. Allows the court to determine the constitutionality of laws?
 - a. Legislative branch
 - b. Judicial review
 - c. Executive branch
 - d. Separation of powers

12. What amendment granted women the right to vote?
 - a. 10th amendment
 - b. 20th amendment
 - c. 1th amendment

- d. 19th amendment
13. Marriage and divorce laws; issue license; conduct elections is a NOT a power of the federal government?
- a. True
 - b. False
14. What is an economic system based on private property and free enterprise?
- a. Capitalism
 - b. Socialism
 - c. Communism
15. What is the number of FULL terms president may serve?
- a. 4 terms
 - b. 6 terms
 - c. 2 terms
 - d. 8 terms
16. What amendment speak about “speech, religion, assembly, press, petition freedoms”?
- a. 10th amendment
 - b. 1st amendment
 - c. 19th amendment
 - d. 5th amendment
17. According to the 20th amendment, the president begins his duties as president on?
- a. January 15th
 - b. April 15th
 - c. January 20th
 - d. November 4th
18. What branch oversees checks and balances?
- a. Judicial
 - b. Legislative
 - c. Executive
 - d. a and b
19. What amendment discusses about right to jury in civil trails?
- a. 1st amendment
 - b. 5st amendment
 - c. 6st amendment
 - d. 7st amendment
20. What amendment discusses about one state cannot be sued by another state?
- a. 10st amendment

- b. 8st amendment
 - c. 11st amendment
 - d. 7st amendment
21. What amendment discusses; (1)All persons born in the U.S. are citizens; (2) no person can be deprived of life, liberty or property without DUE PROCESS OF LAW; (3) no state can deprive a person of EQUAL PROTECTION of the laws?
- a. 14st amendment
 - b. 17st amendment
 - c. 21st amendment
 - d. 2st amendment
22. What amendment discusses; you do not have to take in and take care of soldiers during peace times into your home. (Prohibits the forced quartering of soldiers during peacetime.)?
- a. 6th amendment
 - b. 7th amendment
 - c. 3rd amendment
 - d. 4th amendment
23. What amendment discusses; power of Congress to tax income (money from your job)?
- a. 16th amendment
 - b. 10th amendment
 - c. 15th amendment
 - d. 11th amendment
24. What amendment discusses; unenumerated rights, rights in addition to those stated in the Constitution, not everything can be written down, and rights retained by the people?
- a. 6th amendment
 - b. 8th amendment
 - c. 9th amendment
 - d. 4th amendment
25. What amendment discusses; states cannot deny any person the right to vote because of race?
- a. 15th amendment
 - b. 14th amendment
 - c. 16th amendment
 - d. 11th amendment
26. What amendment explains Abolished slavery?
- a. 13th amendment
 - b. 1st amendment

- c. 9th amendment
 - d. 17th amendment
27. What amendment discusses; you have the right to a speedy & public trial, the right to counsel in criminal trials and you get a free lawyer ("public defender"). Right to jury in criminal trials?
- a. 5th amendment
 - b. 8th amendment
 - c. 6th amendment
 - d. 10th amendment
28. What amendment discusses; a well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed?
- a. 1st amendment
 - b. 4th amendment
 - c. 3rd amendment
 - d. 2nd amendment
29. What amendment discusses; court cannot issue excessive bail (\$ paid to leave jail between arrest and the trial) and there can be no cruel and unusual punishment (the punishment should fit the crime)?
- a. 4th amendment
 - b. 8th amendment
 - c. 9th amendment
 - d. 3rd amendment

Answers:

1. c, 2. b, 3. a, 4. b, 5. b, 6. b, 7. a, 8. d, 9. b, 10. c, 11. b, 12. d, 13. a, 14. a, 15. c, 16. b, 17. c, 18. b, 19. d, 20. c, 21. a, 22. c, 23. a, 24. c, 25. a, 26. a, 28. c, 29. d, 30. b

Political Cartoon

A **political cartoon**, is a type of **editorial cartoon**, is a cartoon graphic with caricatures of public figures, expressing the artist's opinion. An artist who writes and draws such images is known as an editorial cartoonist. They typically combine artistic skill, hyperbole and satire in order to question authority and draw attention to corruption, political violence and other social issues.



Thomas Nast depicts the Tweed Ring: "Who stole the people's money?" / "'Twas him."

Attributions:

- "[United States Government](#)" is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)



- "[US History High School Diploma](#)" is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)



- "Practice Questions" by Beatriz Torres is licensed [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International](#)

- "[US History](#)" is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)



- "[Separation of powers under the United States Constitution](#)" by Wikipedia is licensed under [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)

- "[U.S. Constitution](#)" by SoftChalk is licensed under [CC BY 4.0](#)

- "[Political cartoon](#)" by Wikipedia is licensed under [CC BY 3.0](#)

Chapter 4: US Economics

What is Economics

Economics is the study of the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Resources are the *inputs* used to produce *outputs*. Resources may include any or all of the following:

- Land and other natural resources

- Labor (physical and mental)
- Capital, including buildings and equipment
- Entrepreneurship

Resources are combined to produce goods and services. Land and natural resources provide the needed raw materials. Labor transforms raw materials into goods and services. Capital (equipment, buildings, vehicles, cash, and so forth) are needed for the production process. Entrepreneurship provides the skill and creativity needed to bring the other resources together to produce a good or service to be sold to the marketplace.

Because a business uses resources to *produce* things, we also call these resources factors of production. The factors of production used to produce a shirt would include the following:

- The land that the shirt factory sits on, the electricity used to run the plant, and the raw cotton from which the shirts are made
- The laborers who make the shirts
- The factory and equipment used in the manufacturing process, as well as the money needed to operate the factory
- The entrepreneurship skill used to coordinate the other resources to initiate the production process and the distribution of the goods or services to the marketplace

Input and Output Markets

Many of the factors of production (or resources) are provided to businesses by households. For example, households provide businesses with labor (as workers), land and buildings (as landlords), and capital (as investors). In turn, businesses pay households for these resources by providing them with income, such as wages, rent, and interest. The resources obtained from households are then used by businesses to produce goods and services, which are sold to the same households that provide businesses with revenue. The revenue obtained by businesses is then used to buy additional resources, and the cycle continues.

The U.S. Economic System

Like most countries, the United States features a mixed market system: though the U.S. economic system is primarily a free market system, the federal government controls some basic services, such as the postal service and air traffic control. The U.S. economy also has some characteristics of a socialist system, such as providing social security retirement benefits to retired workers.

The free market system was espoused by Adam Smith in his book *The Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776. According to Smith, competition alone would ensure that consumers received the best products at the best prices. In the kind of competition he assumed, a seller who tries to charge more for his product than other sellers won't be able to find any buyers. A job-seeker who asks more than the going wage won't be hired. Because the "invisible hand" of

competition will make the market work effectively, there won't be a need to regulate prices or wages.

Almost immediately, however, a tension developed among free market theorists between the principle of *laissez-faire* leaving things alone and government intervention. Today, it's common for the U.S. government to intervene in the operation of the economic system. For example, government exerts influence on the food and pharmaceutical industries through the Food and Drug Administration, which protects consumers by preventing unsafe or mislabeled products from reaching the market.

The Basics of Supply and Demand

To appreciate how perfect competition works, we need to understand how buyers and sellers interact in a market to set prices. In a market characterized by perfect competition, price is determined through the mechanisms of *supply* and *demand*. Prices are influenced both by the supply of products from sellers and by the demand for products by buyers.

To illustrate this concept, let's create a *supply and demand schedule* for one particular good sold at one point in time. Then we'll define *demand* and create a *demand curve* and define *supply* and create a *supply curve*. Finally, we'll see how supply and demand interact to create an *equilibrium price* the price at which buyers are willing to purchase the amount that sellers are willing to sell.

Economic Goals

All the world's economies share three main goals:

1. Growth
2. High employment
3. Price stability

Let's take a closer look at each of these goals, both to find out what they mean and to show how we determine whether they're being met.

Economic Growth

One purpose of an economy is to provide people with goods and services cars, computers, video games, houses, rock concerts, fast food, amusement parks. One way in which economists measure the performance of an economy is by looking at a widely used measure of total output called gross domestic product (GDP). GDP is defined as the market value of all goods and services produced by the economy in a given year. In the United States, it's calculated by the Department of Commerce. GDP includes only those goods and services produced domestically; goods produced outside the country are excluded. GDP also includes only those goods and

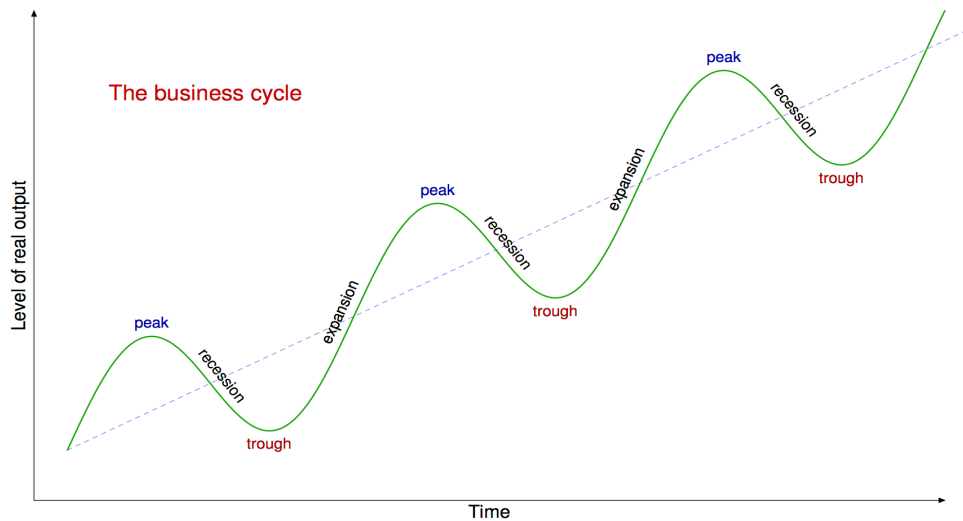
services that are produced for the final user; intermediate products are excluded. For example, the silicon chip that goes into a computer (an intermediate product) would not count, even though the finished computer would.

By itself, GDP doesn't necessarily tell us much about the state of the economy. But *change* in GDP does. If GDP (after adjusting for inflation) goes up, the economy is growing. If it goes down, the economy is contracting.

The Business Cycle

The economic ups and downs resulting from expansion and contraction constitute the business cycle. A typical cycle runs from three to five years but could last much longer. Though typically irregular, a cycle can be divided into four general phases of *prosperity*, *recession*, *depression* (which the cycle generally skips), and *recovery*:

- During *prosperity*, the economy expands, unemployment is low, incomes rise, and consumers buy more products. Businesses respond by increasing production and offering new and better products.
- Eventually, however, things slow down. GDP decreases, unemployment rises, and because people have less money to spend, business revenues decline. This slowdown in economic activity is called a recession. Economists often say that we're entering a recession when GDP goes down for two consecutive quarters.
- Generally, a recession is followed by a *recovery* in which the economy starts growing again.
- If, however, a recession lasts a long time (perhaps a decade or so), while unemployment remains very high and production is severely curtailed, the economy could sink into a depression. Though not impossible, it's unlikely that the United States will experience another severe depression like that of the 1930s. The federal government has a number of economic tools (some of which we'll discuss shortly) with which to fight any threat of a depression.



[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA](#)

Full Employment

To keep the economy going strong, people must spend money on goods and services. A reduction in personal expenditures for things like food, clothing, appliances, automobiles, housing, and medical care could severely reduce GDP and weaken the economy. Because most people earn their spending money by working, an important goal of all economies is making jobs available to everyone who wants one. In principle, full employment occurs when everyone who wants to work has a job. In practice, we say that we have “full employment” when about 95 percent of those wanting to work are employed.

The Unemployment Rate

The U.S. Department of Labor tracks unemployment and reports the unemployment rate: the percentage of the labor force that’s unemployed and actively seeking work. The unemployment rate is an important measure of economic health. It goes up during recessionary periods because companies are reluctant to hire workers when demand for goods and services is low. Conversely, it goes down when the economy is expanding and there is high demand for products and workers to supply them.

Price Stability

A third major goal of all economies is maintaining price stability. Price stability occurs when the average of the prices for goods and services either doesn’t change or changes very little. Rising prices are troublesome for both individuals and businesses. For individuals, rising prices mean you have to pay more for the things you need. For businesses, rising prices mean higher costs, and, at least in the short run, businesses might have trouble passing on higher costs to consumers. When the overall price level goes up, we have inflation.

The Consumer Price Index

The most widely publicized measure of inflation is the consumer price index (CPI), which is reported monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The CPI measures the rate of inflation by determining price changes of a hypothetical basket of goods, such as food, housing, clothing, medical care, appliances, automobiles, and so forth, bought by a typical household.

Economic Forecasting

In the previous section, we introduced several measures that economists use to assess the performance of the economy at a given time. By looking at changes in GDP, for instance, we can see whether the economy is growing. The CPI allows us to gauge inflation. These measures help us understand where the economy stands today. But what if we want to get a sense of where it's headed in the future? To a certain extent, we can forecast future economic trends by analyzing several leading economic indicators.

Economic Indicators

An economic indicator is a statistic that provides valuable information about the economy. There's no shortage of economic indicators, and trying to follow them all would be an overwhelming task. Thus, economists and businesspeople track only a select few, including those that we'll now discuss.

Lagging and Leading Indicators

Statistics that report the status of the economy a few months in the past are called lagging economic indicators. One such indicator is *average length of unemployment*. If unemployed workers have remained out of work for a long time, we may infer that the economy has been slow. Indicators that predict the status of the economy three to twelve months in the future are called leading economic indicators. If such an indicator rises, the economy is likely to expand in the coming year. If it falls, the economy is likely to contract.

To predict where the economy is headed, we obviously must examine several leading indicators. It's also helpful to look at indicators from various sectors of the economy labor, manufacturing, and housing. One useful indicator of the outlook for future jobs is the number of new *claims for unemployment insurance*. This measure tells us how many people recently lost their jobs. If it's rising, it signals trouble ahead because unemployed consumers can't buy as many goods and services as they could if they had paychecks.

To gauge the level of goods to be produced in the future (which will translate into future sales), economists look at a statistic called *average weekly manufacturing hours*. This measure tells us the average number of hours worked per week by production workers in manufacturing industries. If it's on the rise, the economy will probably improve. For assessing the strength of

the housing market, *building permits* is often a good indicator. An increase in this statistic which tells us how many new housing units are being built indicates that the economy is improving. Why? Because increased building brings money into the economy not only through new home sales but also through sales of furniture and appliances to furnish them.

Finally, if you want a measure that combines all these economic indicators, as well as others, a private research firm called the Conference Board publishes a U.S. *leading index*. To get an idea of what leading economic indicators are telling us about the state of the economy today, go to the Conference Board site at <http://www.conference-board.org> and click on “U.S. Indicators” and then “leading economic index.”

Consumer Confidence Index

The Conference Board also publishes a consumer confidence index based on results of a monthly survey of five thousand U.S. households. The survey gathers consumers’ opinions on the health of the economy and their plans for future purchases. It’s often a good indicator of consumers’ future buying intent. For information on current consumer confidence, go to the Conference Board site at <http://www.conference-board.org> and click on “consumer confidence.”

Government’s Role in Managing the Economy

In every country, the government takes steps to help the economy achieve the goals of growth, full employment, and price stability. In the United States, the government influences economic activity through two approaches: monetary policy and fiscal policy. Through monetary policy, the government exerts its power to regulate the money supply and level of interest rates. Through fiscal policy, it uses its power to tax and to spend.

Monetary Policy

Monetary policy is exercised by the Federal Reserve System (“the Fed”), which is empowered to take various actions that decrease or increase the money supply and raise or lower short-term interest rates, making it harder or easier to borrow money. When the Fed believes that inflation is a problem, it will use *contractionary policy* to decrease the money supply and raise interest rates. When rates are higher, borrowers have to pay more for the money they borrow, and banks are more selective in making loans. Because money is “tighter” more expensive to borrow demand for goods and services will go down, and so will prices. In any case, that’s the theory.

Fiscal Policy

Fiscal policy relies on the government’s powers of spending and taxation. Both taxation and government spending can be used to reduce or increase the total supply of money in the

economy the total amount, in other words, that businesses and consumers have to spend. When the country is in a recession, the appropriate policy is to increase spending, reduce taxes, or both. Such expansionary actions will put more money in the hands of businesses and consumers, encouraging businesses to expand and consumers to buy more goods and services. When the economy is experiencing inflation, the opposite policy is adopted: the government will decrease spending or increase taxes, or both. Because such contractionary measures reduce spending by businesses and consumers, prices come down and inflation eases.

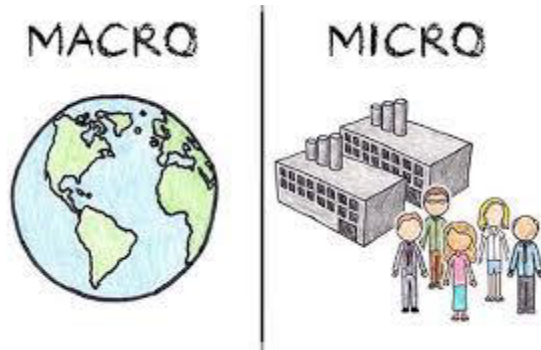
The National Debt

If, in any given year, the government takes in more money (through taxes) than it spends on goods and services (for things such as defense, transportation, and social services), the result is a budget *surplus*. If, on the other hand, the government spends more than it takes in, we have a budget *deficit* (which the government pays off by borrowing through the issuance of Treasury bonds). Historically, deficits have occurred much more often than surpluses; typically, the government spends more than it takes in. Consequently, the U.S. government now has a total national debt of more than \$14 *trillion*.

Concept: Microeconomics vs. Macroeconomics

Economics is concerned with the well-being of *all* people, including those with jobs and those without jobs, as well as those with high incomes and those with low incomes. Economics acknowledges that production of useful goods and services can create problems of environmental pollution. It explores the question of how investing in education helps to develop workers' skills. It probes questions like how to tell when big businesses or big labor unions are operating in a way that benefits society as a whole and when they are operating in a way that benefits their owners or members at the expense of others. It looks at how government spending, taxes, and regulations affect decisions about production and consumption.

It should be clear by now that economics covers a lot of ground. That ground can be divided into two parts: **Microeconomics** focuses on the actions of individual agents within the economy, like households, workers, and businesses. **Macroeconomics** looks at the economy as a whole. It focuses on broad issues such as the growth of production, the number of unemployed people, the inflationary increase in prices, government deficits, and levels of exports and imports. Microeconomics and macroeconomics are not separate subjects, but rather complementary perspectives on the overall subject of the economy.



What are the differences between macro and micro economy?

Basic Understandings

- The economic principles of scarcity and opportunity costs influence the economic choices of societies and individuals.
- The economic systems of free enterprise, socialism, and communism share some characteristics but have different methods for making economic decisions.
- The viewpoints of various economic philosophers have influenced the development of the free enterprise system in the United States.
- The United States uses a free enterprise system that is continually changing.
- The circular flow model can be used to represent the movement of resources in an economy.

Vocabulary

free enterprise system – an economic system characterized by private ownership of businesses operated for profit with economic freedom for both consumers and producers

scarcity – the condition in which there are not enough resources available to produce everything that individuals demand

opportunity cost – the value of goods and services that are given up in order to obtain an alternative good or service

factors of production – the resources needed to produce goods and services, including land, labor, capital, and entrepreneurship

resources – supplies of something of value

economic system – a process created to manage the production, consumption, and distribution of goods and services

circular flow model – a visual representation showing the relationship between the factor market and the product market

Related Vocabulary

- choice
- competition
- firms
- incentives
- consumers
- producers
- socialism
- communism
- capitalism

Practice Questions:

- 1. Economics. The student understands the concepts of scarcity and opportunity costs. The student is expected to:**
 - A. explain why scarcity and choice are basic economic problems faced by every society;
 - B. describe how societies answer the basic economic questions: what to produce, how to produce, and for whom to produce;
 - C. describe the economic factors of production: land, labor, capital, and entrepreneurship; and
 - D. interpret a production-possibilities curve and apply the concepts of opportunity costs and scarcity.
- 1. Economics. The student understands free enterprise, socialist, and communists economic systems. The student is expected to:**
 - A. explain the basic characteristics of economic systems, including property rights, incentives, economic freedom, competition, and the role of government;
 - B. contrast current and historic examples of the free enterprise system, socialism, and communism using the basic characteristics of economic systems; and
 - C. analyze the contributions of various economic philosophers, including Friedrich Hayek, Milton Friedman, John Maynard Keynes, and Adam Smith, and their impact on the U.S. free enterprise system.
- 2. Economics. The student understands the basic characteristics and benefits of the U.S. free enterprise system. The student is expected to:**

- A. explain the benefits of the U.S. free enterprise system, including individual freedom of consumers and producers, variety of goods, responsive prices, investment opportunities, and the creation of wealth; and
 - B. analyze recent changes in the basic characteristics, including private property, incentives, economic freedom, competition, and the limited role of government, of the U.S. economy.
3. **Economics. The student understands the circular-flow model of the economy. The student is expected to:**
- A. interpret the roles of resource owners and firms in a circular-flow model of the economy and provide real-world examples to illustrate elements of the model; and
 - B. explain how government actions affect the circular-flow model.

Economic Systems

Every society has an economy or economic system that helps it provide necessities for the people. The economy or economic system is an organized way of providing for the wants and needs of their people. Every economy has to deal with the concept of scarcity and must answer the questions “what to produce?”, “how to produce?” and “for whom to produce?”

Universal Generalizations

- **Capitalism, socialism, and communism** are the three major economic systems.
- All economic systems have advantages and disadvantages.

Practice Questions?

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of capitalism?
2. What is the difference between socialism and communism?
3. How is communism both an economic and a political system?

Think about what a complex system a modern economy is. It includes all production of goods and services, all buying and selling, and all employment. The economic life of every individual is interrelated, at least to a small extent, with the economic lives of thousands or even millions of other individuals. Who organizes and coordinates this system? Who ensures that the number of televisions a society provides is the same as the amount it needs and wants? Who ensures that the right number of employees work in the electronics industry? Who insures that televisions are produced in the best way possible? How does it all get done?

Traditional Economy

There are at least three ways societies have found to organize an economy. The first is the traditional economy, which is the oldest economic system and can be found in parts of Asia,

Africa, and South America. Traditional economies organize their economic affairs the way they have always done (i.e., tradition). Occupations stay in the family. Most families are farmers who grow the crops they have always grown using traditional methods. What you produce is what you get to consume. Because things are driven by tradition, there is little economic progress or development.

A Command Economy

Command economies are very different. In a command economy, economic effort is devoted to goals passed down from a ruler or ruling class. Ancient Egypt was a good example: a large part of economic life was devoted to building pyramids, for the pharaohs [Figure 1]. Medieval manor life is another example: the lord provided the land for growing crops and protection in the event of war. In return, vassals provided labor and soldiers to do the lord's bidding. In the last century, communism emphasized command economies.

A Market Economy

A market is an institution that brings together buyers and sellers of goods or services, who may be either individuals or businesses. Although command economies have a very centralized structure for economic decisions, market economies have a very decentralized structure. In a market economy, decision-making is decentralized. Market economies are based on private enterprise: the means of production (resources and businesses) are owned and operated by private individuals or groups of private individuals.

As previously addressed, market systems and command systems in their pure form are on the extremes of the economic spectrum, and in reality each fails to exist entirely in isolation of the other. More accurately, all nations operate under a "mixed economic system" that emulates certain characteristics of each type of economy to varying degrees.

In a pure command economy, rather than businesses and individuals, because government owns the means of production, they determine what to produce, how to produce it, and who gets it once it has been produced. This is an incredibly difficult and complicated process that limits the free will of the people living within its rules. Central planners (government officials) make decisions based on what they believe is best for the population.

Practice Questions:

1. What are at least three ways societies have found to organize economy?
2. Describe the differences between traditional, command and market economies? Give advantages and disadvantages for each.
3. List the six economic goals and give a brief description for each?

4. What are some differences between communism and socialism?
5. Why might a country move from one economic system to another?

Practice Questions:

Read the following questions and choose the best answer.

1. Trading goods/services for other goods/services without using any money?
 - a. True
 - b. False
2. Combination of command & market economy is a true statement?
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. A trademark is a brand named (examples Nike)?
 - a. True
 - b. False
4. What is an economic system based on agriculture & consistent cultures?
 - a. Market economy
 - b. Traditional economy
 - c. Natural resources
 - d. Mixed economy
5. Does publicly means of production, distribution, and exchange should be owned or Control?
 - a. Capitalism
 - b. Mixed economy
 - c. Market economy
 - d. Socialism
6. What causes enough resources to go around to provide every need/want?
 - a. Copyrights
 - b. Services
 - c. Expenses
 - d. Scarcity
7. Does knowledge, creative, ideas, or expressions of the human mind that have commercial value?
 - a. True
 - b. False

8. Name, the people who put everything together to make/provide goods/services?
 - a. Human Resources
 - b. Free market economy
 - c. Economic freedom
 - d. Using economics in your everyday decision

9. Name, the freedom to own property, to make a profit, and to make choices about what to produce, buy, and sell?
 - a. Market economy
 - b. Economic freedom
 - c. Human Resources

10. Name types of property and 4 types of ways on how it is secured?

For example, invention: patent, good : TM, service : SM, intellectual work/property : (C)

 - a. Different types of property and how it is secured
 - b. Market economy
 - c. Using economics in your everyday decision

11. What is the place to copyright your property to give you exclusive rights?
 - a. Free market economy
 - b. Copyright Office
 - c. Economic Freedom

12. What is the quantity of good service?
 - a. Inflation
 - b. Demand

Answers:

4. a, 2. a, 3. b, 4. b, 5. d, 6. d, 7. b, 8. a, 9. b, 10. a, 11. b, 12. b

Attributions:

- ["Exploring Business"](#) by University of Minnesota is licensed under [CC BY-NC-SA 4.0](#)
 - ["Economic for High School Diploma"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
-
- "Practice Questions" by Beatriz Torres is licensed [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International](#)

Chapter 5: World Geography

Geography Basics

Geography is the spatial study of the earth's surface (from the Greek *geo*, which means "Earth," and *graphein*, which means "to write"). Geographers study the earth's physical characteristics, its inhabitants and cultures, phenomena such as climate, and the earth's place within the universe. Geography examines the spatial relationships between all physical and cultural phenomena in the world. Geographers also look at how the earth, its climate, and its landscapes are changing due to cultural intervention.

The discipline of geography can be broken down into two areas of focus: physical geography and human geography. These two main areas use a spatial perspective, include the study of place, and the comparison of one place with another.

Physical geography is the spatial study of natural phenomena in the environment, such as rivers, mountains, landforms, weather, climate, soils, plants, and any other physical aspects of the earth's surface. Physical geography focuses on geography as a form of earth science. It tends to emphasize the main physical parts of the earth the lithosphere (surface layer), the atmosphere (air), the hydrosphere (water), and the biosphere (living organisms) and the relationship of these parts.

The major forms of study within physical geography include the following:

- Geomorphology (the study of the earth's surface features)
- Glaciology (the study of glaciers)
- Coastal geography (the study of the coastal regions)
- Climatology (the study of climates and climate change)
- Biogeography (the study of the geographic patterns of species distribution)

Physical landscape is the term used to describe the natural terrain at any one place on the planet. The forces of erosion, weather, tectonic plate action, and water have formed the earth's physical features. Many state and national parks in the United States preserve the land for the public to enjoy.

Human geography is the study of human activity and its relationship to the earth's surface. Human geographers examine the spatial distribution of human populations, religions, languages, ethnicity, political systems, economics, urban dynamics, and other human activity. They study patterns between human cultures and various environments and focus on the causes and consequences of human settlement and distribution over the landscape. While the economic and cultural aspects of humanity are the primary focuses of human geography, these aspects cannot be understood without describing the landscape on which economic and cultural activities take place.

Cultural landscape is the term used to describe the parts of the earth's surface that have been altered or created by people. For example, the urban cultural landscape of a city includes buildings, streets, signs, parking lots, and vehicles. Rural cultural landscape includes fields, orchards, fences, barns, and farms. Cultural forces unique to a given place such as religion, language, ethnicity, customs, and heritage influence the cultural landscape of that place at a given time. The colors, sizes, and shapes of the cultural landscape usually symbolize meaning regarding societal norms. Spatial dynamics help in identifying and evaluating cultural differences.

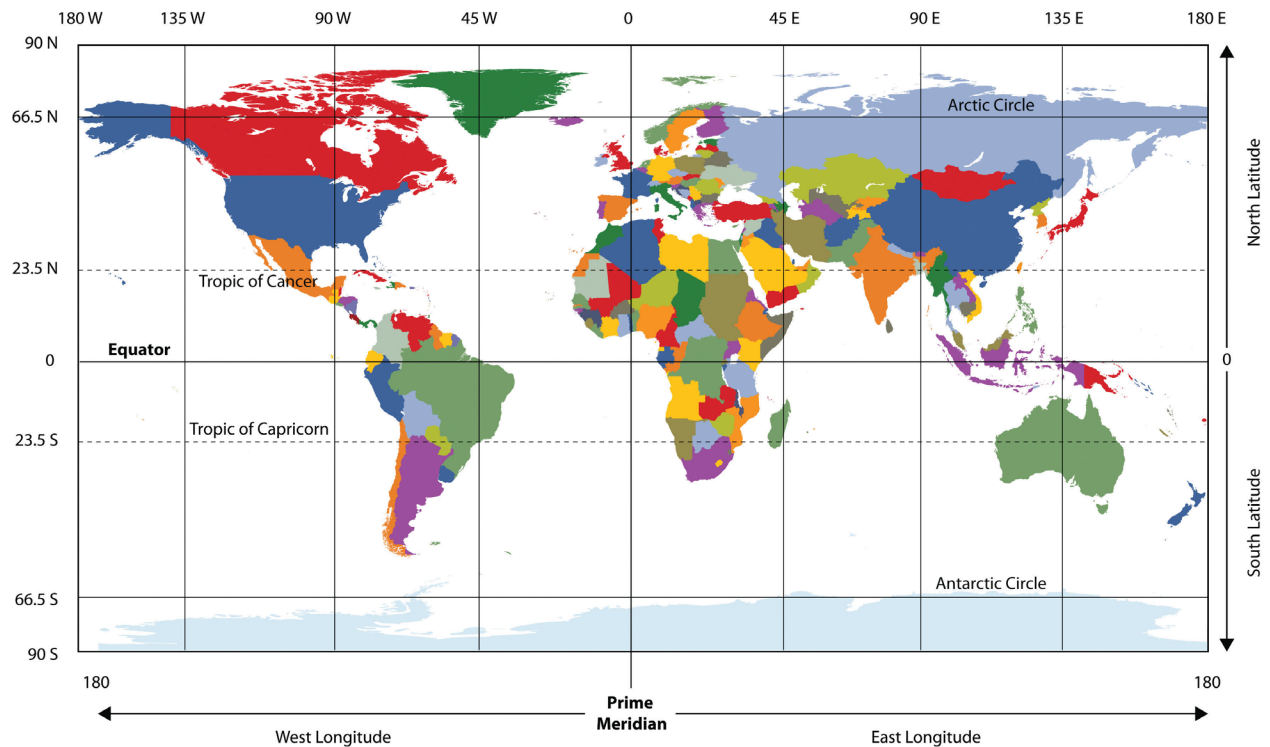
Traditionally, the field of cartography, or map making, has been a vital discipline for geographers. While cartography continues to be an extremely important part of geography, geographers also look at **spatial** (space) and **temporal** (time) relationships between many types of data, including physical landscape types, economies, and human activity.

The Earth and Graticule Location

When identifying a region or location on the earth, the first step is to understand its relative and absolute locations. Relative location is the location on the earth's surface with reference to other places, taking into consideration features such as transportation access or terrain. Relative location helps one compare the advantages of one location with those of another. Absolute location refers to an exact point on the earth's surface without regard to how that point is related to any other place. Absolute location is vital to the cartographic process and to human activities that require a method of identifying a place.

Just as you were taught in geometry that there are 360 degrees in a circle or a sphere, the earth also has 360 degrees, and they are measured using a grid pattern called the graticule. Lines of latitude and longitude allow any absolute location on the earth to have an identifiable address of degrees north or south and east or west, which allows geographers to accurately locate, measure, and study spatial activity.

Geographers and cartographers organize locations on the earth using a series of imaginary lines that encircle the globe. The two primary lines are the equator and the prime meridian. From these lines, the systems of longitude and latitude are formed, allowing you to locate yourself anywhere on the planet. The line is the longest when you travel along in an east-west direction. At the equator, the sun is directly overhead at noon on the two equinoxes, which occur in March and September.



Climate and Latitude

The earth is tilted on its axis 23.5 degrees. As it rotates around the sun, the tilt of the earth's axis provides different climatic seasons because of the variations in the angle of direct sunlight on the planet. Places receiving more direct sunlight experience a warmer climate. Elsewhere, the increased angle of incoming solar radiation near the earth's poles results in more reflected sunlight and thus a cooler climate. The Northern Hemisphere experiences winter when sunlight is reflected off the earth's surface and less of the sun's energy is absorbed because of a sharper angle from the sun.

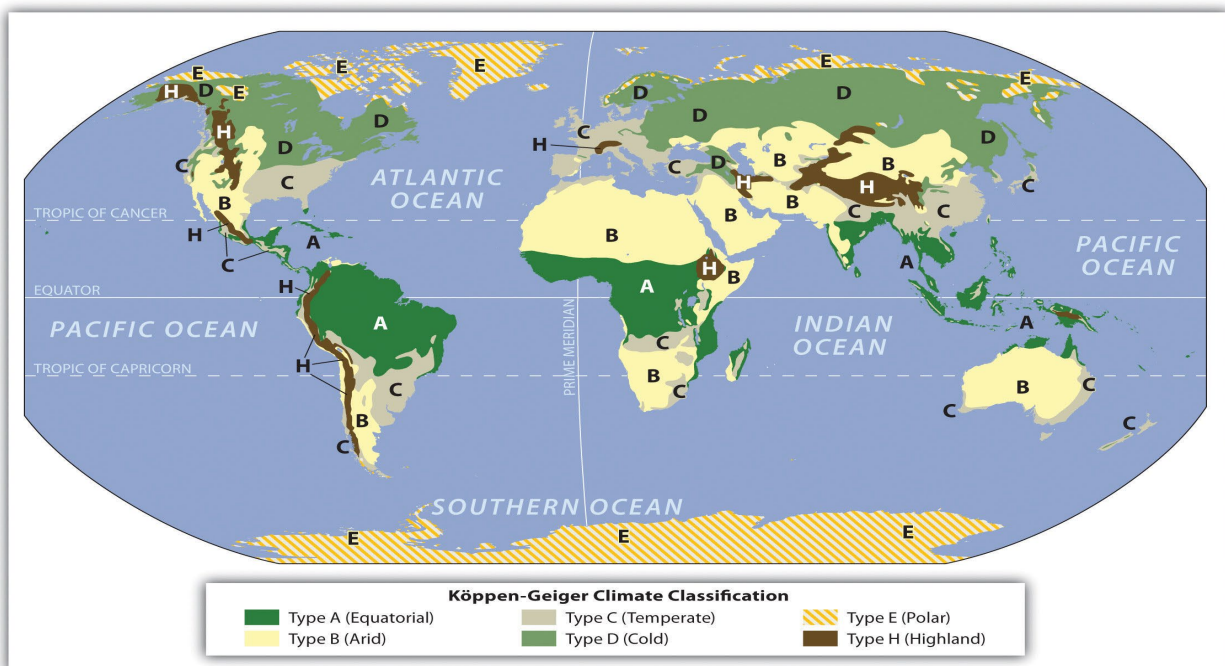
The **Tropic of Cancer** is the parallel at 23.5 degrees north of the equator, which is the most northerly place on Earth, receiving direct sunlight during the Northern Hemisphere's summer. Remember that the earth is tilted 23.5 degrees, which accounts for seasonal variations in climate. The **Tropic of Capricorn** is the parallel at 23.5 degrees south of the equator and is the most southerly location on Earth, receiving direct sunlight during the Southern Hemisphere's summer.

The tropics (Cancer and Capricorn) are the two imaginary lines directly above which the sun shines on the two solstices, which occur on or near June 20 or 21 (summer solstice in the Northern Hemisphere) and December 21 or 22 (winter solstice in the Northern Hemisphere). The sun is directly above the Tropic of Cancer at noon on June 20 or 21, marking the beginning of summer in the Northern Hemisphere and the beginning of winter in the Southern Hemisphere. The sun is directly above the Tropic of Capricorn at noon on December 21 or 22, marking the beginning of winter in the Northern Hemisphere and the beginning of summer in

the Southern Hemisphere. Solstices are the extreme ends of the seasons, when the line of direct sunlight is either the farthest north or the farthest south that it ever goes. The region between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn is known as the tropics. This area does not experience dramatic seasonal changes because the amount of direct sunlight received does not vary widely. The higher latitudes (north of the Tropic of Cancer and south of the Tropic of Capricorn) experience significant seasonal variation in climate.

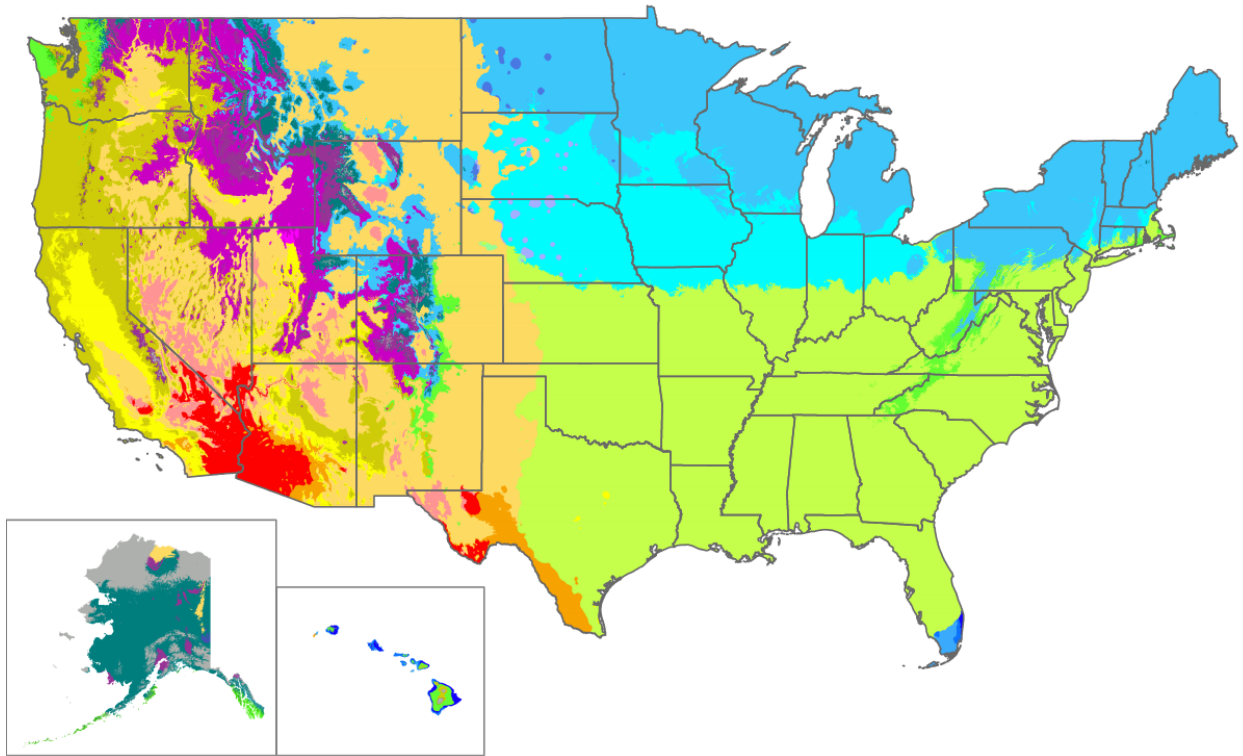
Type H climates are actually a subset of the type E climate category.

- Type A: Tropical or equatorial climates
- Type B: Dry or arid climates
- Type C: Moderate or temperate climates
- Type D: Cold or continental climates
- Type E: Polar or extreme climates
- Type H: (Unclassified) highland climates





























[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA-NC](#)

Köppen climate types of the United States



Köppen climate type

 EF (Ice-cap)	 Dsb (Warm-summer mediterranean continental)	 Csa (Hot-summer mediterranean)
 ET (Tundra)	 Dsa (Hot-summer mediterranean continental)	 BSk (Cold semi-arid)
 Dfc (Subarctic)	 Cfc (Subpolar oceanic)	 BSh (Hot semi-arid)
 Dfb (Warm-summer humid continental)	 Cfb (Oceanic)	 BWk (Cold desert)
 Dfa (Hot-summer humid continental)	 Cfa (Humid subtropical)	 BWh (Hot desert)
 Dwc (Subarctic)	 Cwb (Subtropical highland)	 Aw (Savanna)
 Dwb (Warm-summer humid continental)	 Cwa (Humid subtropical)	 Am (Monsoon)
 Dwa (Hot-summer humid continental)	 Csc (Cold-summer mediterranean)	 Af (Rainforest)
 Dsc (Dry-summer subarctic)	 Csb (Warm-summer mediterranean)	

*Isotherm used to distinguish temperate (C) and continental (D) climates is -3°C

Data sources: Köppen types calculated from data from PRISM Climate Group, Oregon State University, <http://prism.oregonstate.edu>;
Outline map from US Census Bureau

[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA](#)

Time Zones

Universal Time (UT), Coordinated Universal Time (UTC), **Greenwich Mean Time** (GMT), or Zulu Time (Z): all four terms can be defined as local time at 0 degrees longitude, which is the prime meridian (location of Greenwich, England). This is the same time under which many military operations, international radio broadcasts, and air traffic control systems operate worldwide. UTC is set in zero- to twenty-four-hour time periods, as opposed to two twelve-hour time periods (a.m. and p.m.). The designations of a.m. and p.m. are relative to the central meridian: a.m. refers to *ante meridiem*, or “before noon,” and p.m. refers to *post meridiem*, or “after noon.” UT, UTC, GMT, and Z all refer to the same twenty-four-hour time system that assists in unifying a common time in regard to global operations. For example, all air flights use the twenty-four-hour time system so the pilots can coordinate flights across time zones and around the world.

The earth rotates on its axis once every twenty-four hours at the rate of 15 degrees per hour ($15 \times 24 = 360$). **Time zones** are established roughly every 15 degrees longitude so that local times correspond to similar hours of day and night. With this system, the sun is generally overhead at noon in every time zone that follows the 15-degree-wide system. The continental United States has four main time zones (see [Table 1.1 “Four Main Time Zones in the Continental United States and Their Central Meridians”](#) and [Figure 1.7 “Major Time Zones of the World”](#)).

Table 1.1 Four Main Time Zones in the Continental United States and Their Central Meridians

USA Time Zones	Central Meridian
Eastern standard time zone	75 degrees W
Central standard time zone	90 degrees W
Mountain standard time zone	105 degrees W
Pacific standard time zone	120 degrees W



This Photo by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/)

World Regional Geography

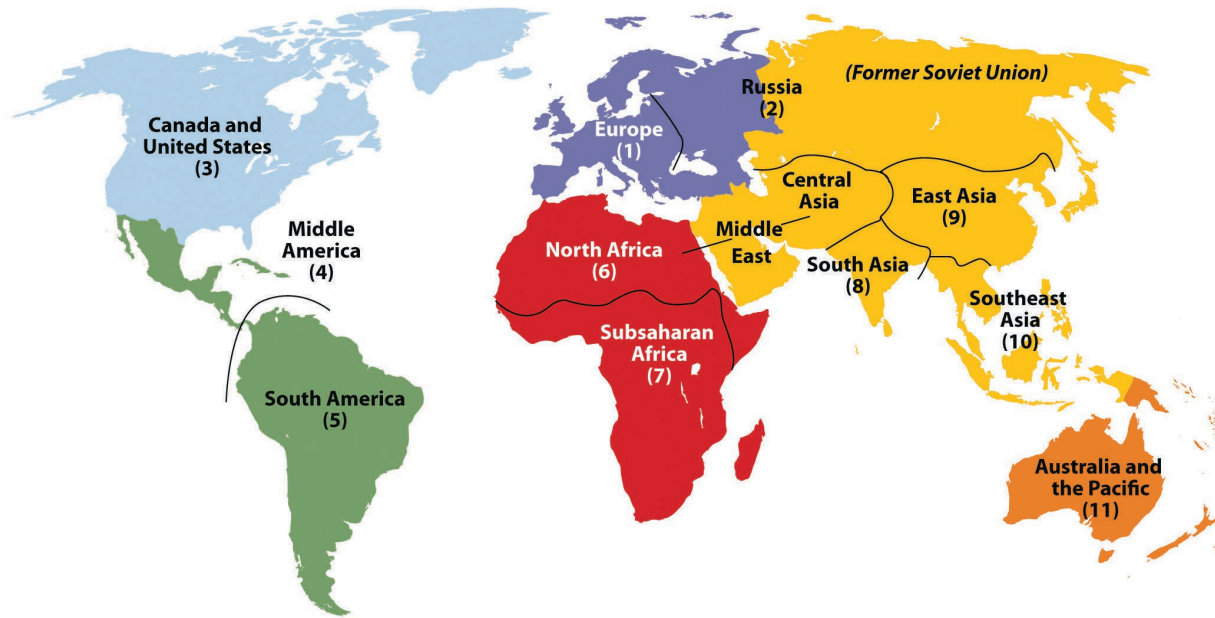
World regional geography studies various world regions as they compare with the rest of the world. Factors for comparison include both the physical and the cultural landscape. The main questions are, Who lives there? What are their lives like? What do they do for a living? Physical factors of significance can include location, climate type, and terrain. Human factors include cultural traditions, ethnicity, language, religion, economics, and politics.

World regional geography focuses on regions of various sizes across the earth's landscape and aspires to understand the unique character of regions in terms of their natural and cultural attributes. Spatial studies can play an important role in regional geography. The scientific approach can focus on the distribution of cultural and natural phenomena within regions as delimited by various natural and cultural factors. The focus is on the spatial relationships within any field of study, such as regional economics, resource management, regional planning, and landscape ecology.

Again, this textbook takes a regional approach with a focus on themes that illustrate the globalization process, which in turn helps us better understand our global community. The regions studied in world regional geography can be combined into larger portions called realms. Realms are large areas of the planet, usually with multiple regions, that share the same general geographic location. Regions are cohesive areas within each realm. The following eleven realms are outlined in this text:

1. Europe (Eastern Europe and Western Europe)

2. The Russian Realm (Russian republic of the former Soviet Union)
3. North America (United States and Canada)
4. Middle America (Caribbean, Mexico, Central America)
5. South America
6. North Africa, the Middle East and central Asia
7. Subsaharan Africa (Africa south of the Sahara Desert)
8. Southern Asia (India and its neighbors)
9. Eastern Asia (China, Mongolia, Japan, and the Koreans)
10. Southeast Asia (mainland region and the islands region)
11. Australia and the Pacific (including New Zealand)



World Realms	
1. Europe	7. Subsaharan Africa
2. Russia	8. South Asia
3. USA and Canada	9. East Asia
4. Middle America	10. Southeast Asia
5. South America	11. Australia and Pacific
6. North Africa and Southwest Asia	

Oceans

The **ocean** (also the **sea** or the **world ocean**) is the body of salt water that covers approximately 70.8% of the surface of Earth and contains 97% of Earth's water. An ocean can also refer to any of the large bodies of water into which the world ocean is conventionally divided. Separate names are used to identify five different areas of the ocean: Pacific (the largest), Atlantic, Indian, Southern (Antarctic), and Arctic (the smallest). Seawater covers approximately 361,000,000 km² (139,000,000 sq mi) of the planet. The ocean is the principal component of

Earth's hydrosphere, and therefore integral to life on Earth. Acting as a huge heat reservoir, the ocean influences climate and weather patterns, the carbon cycle, and the water cycle.



Seas

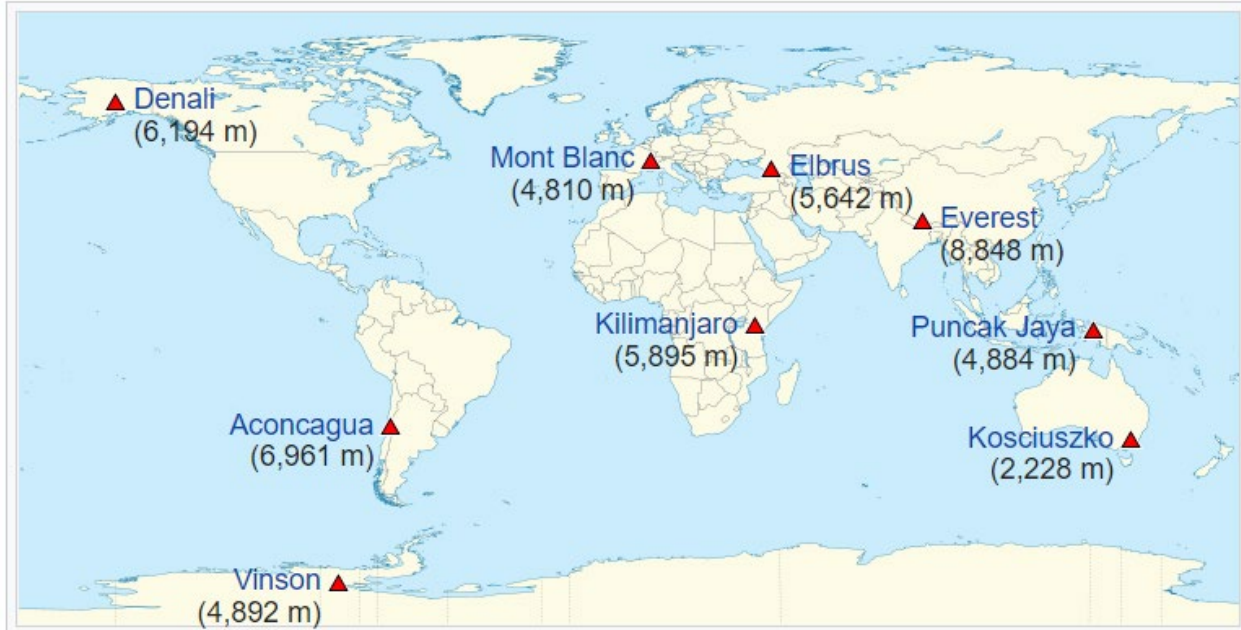
The sea is the interconnected system of all the Earth's oceanic waters, including the Atlantic, Pacific, Indian, Southern and Arctic Oceans. However, the word "sea" can also be used for many specific, much smaller bodies of seawater, such as the North Sea or the Red Sea. There is no sharp distinction between seas and oceans, though generally seas are smaller, and are often partly (as marginal seas or particularly as Mediterranean seas) or wholly (as inland seas) bordered by land.

Mountains

Most geologically young mountain ranges on the Earth's land surface are associated with either the Pacific Ring of Fire or the Alpide Belt. The Pacific Ring of Fire includes the Andes of South America, extends through the North American Cordillera along the Pacific Coast, the Aleutian Range, on through Kamchatka, Japan, Taiwan, the Philippines, Papua New Guinea, to New Zealand. The Andes is 7,000 kilometers (4,350 mi) long and is often considered the world's longest mountain system.

The Alpide belt includes Indonesia and Southeast Asia, through the Himalaya, Caucasus Mountains, Balkan Mountains fold mountain range, the Alps, and ends in the Spanish mountains and the Atlas Mountains. The belt also includes other European and Asian mountain ranges. The Himalayas contain the highest mountains in the world, including Mount Everest, which is 8,848 meters (29,029 ft) high and traverses the border between China and Nepal.

The Seven Summits are the highest mountains of each of the seven traditional continents.



Rivers

A **river** is a natural flowing watercourse, usually freshwater, flowing towards an ocean, sea, lake or another river. In some cases, a river flows into the ground and becomes dry at the end of its course without reaching another body of water.



Map of the United States

In the United States, a state is a constituent political entity, of which there are currently 50. The term "United States", when used in the geographical sense, is the contiguous United States, the state of Alaska, the island state of Hawaii, the five insular territories of Puerto Rico, Northern Mariana Islands, U.S. Virgin Islands, Guam, and American Samoa, and minor outlying possessions.^[1] The United States shares land borders with Canada and Mexico and maritime borders with Russia, Cuba, The Bahamas, and other countries, in addition to Canada and Mexico.



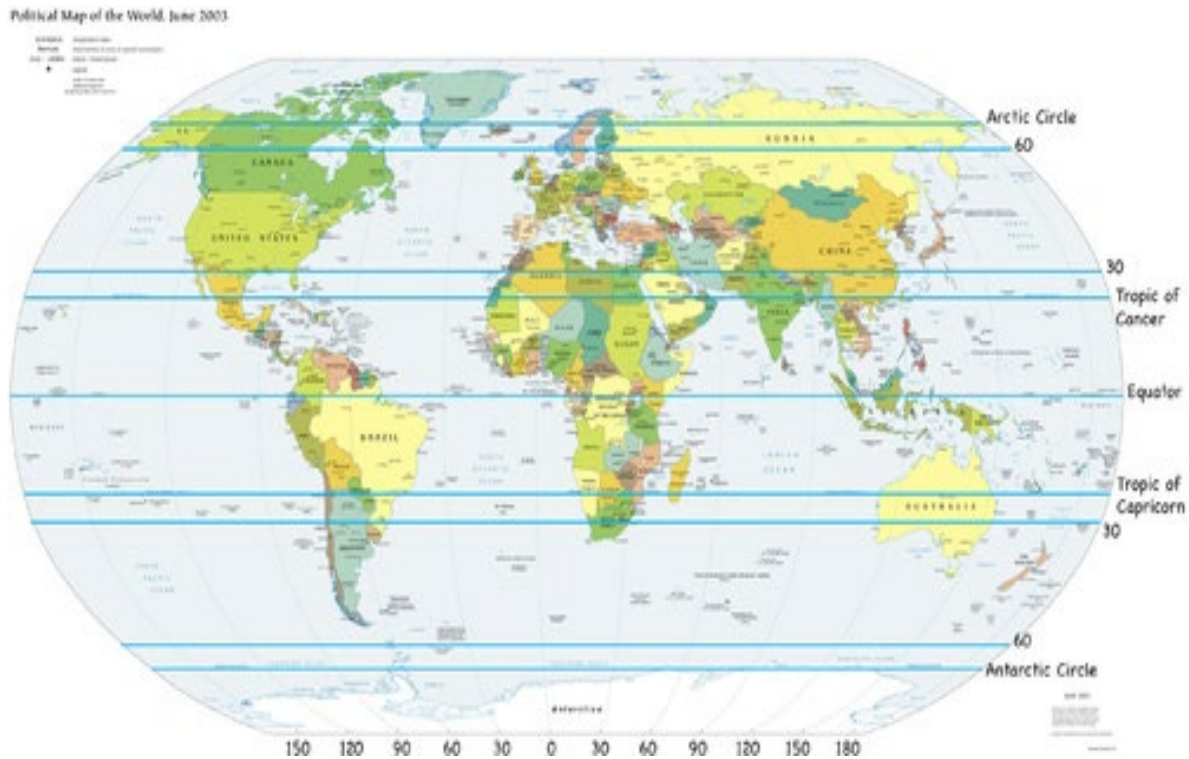
Coordinate Locations on a Map

A coordinate grid is a grid in which points are graphed. It usually has two or more intersecting lines which divide a plane into quadrants, and in which ordered pairs, or coordinates, are defined.

Maps also use **coordinates**. Around the edges of maps are numbers and sometimes letters. These define the location of cities, states, and other physical entities and landmarks. Most maps use degrees. These define the latitude and longitude.

Longitude is the measure, in degrees, of lines vertically on a map. Depending on how the map is made, these lines are sometimes curved.

Latitude is the measure, in degrees, of lines horizontally on a map. These degrees are written as ordered pairs with the latitude listed first and the longitude listed second. Here is an example of a world map with the latitude and longitude lines overlaid on it. For lines to the left of 0° or below the equator, there is an implied negative sign. Sometimes coordinates are also written with directions. 30°S is the latitude line beneath the Tropic of Cancer on the map below.



You can identify different locations on a map if you have the coordinates of the location. For example, which country is located at 60°N, 140°E?

- First, identify the latitude line.

The line is below the Arctic Circle line and it goes through Russia and North America.

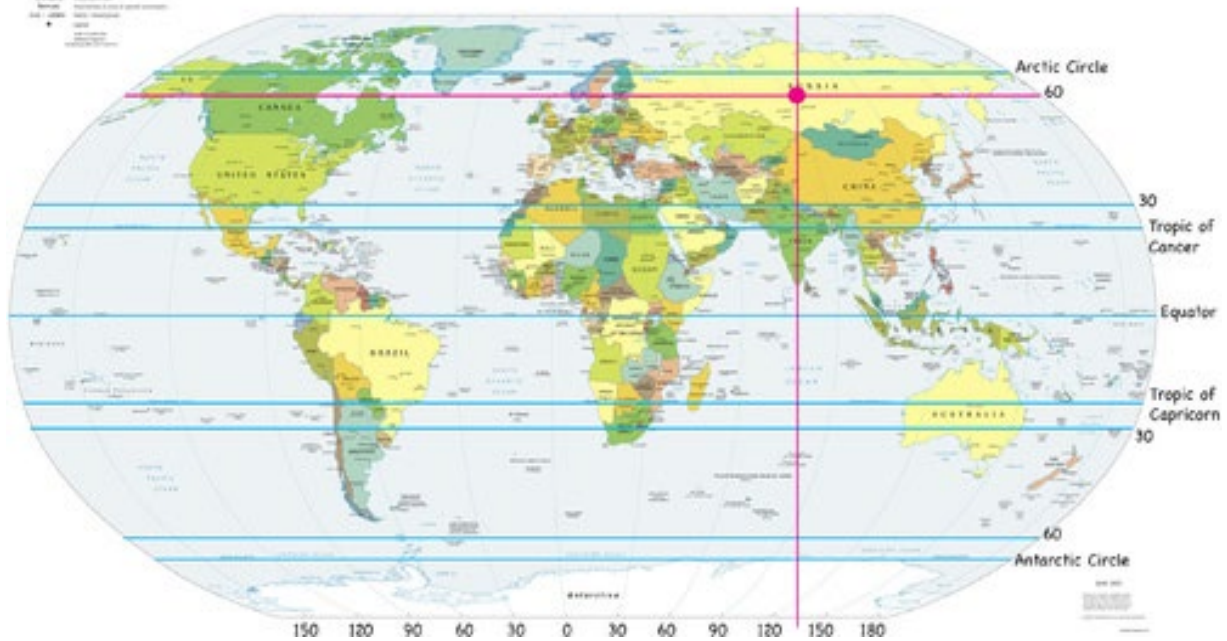
- Next, identify the longitude line.

In this case, it is off to the right and it seems to go mainly through eastern India, China, and Russia.

- Then, decide where they converge.

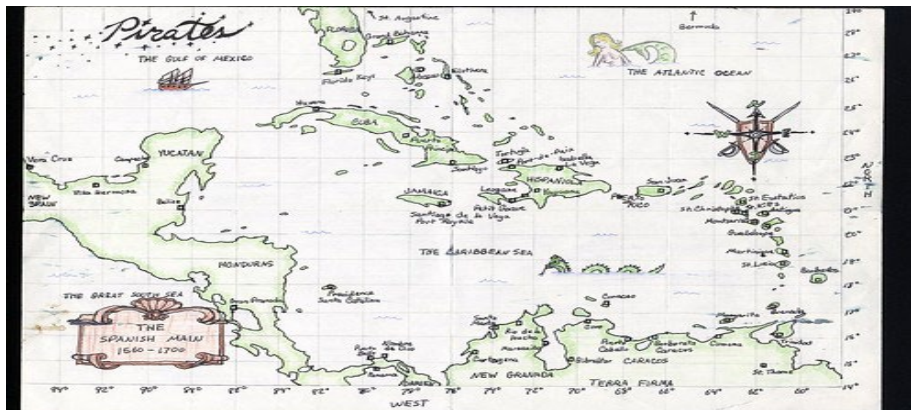
In this example, they both pass through Russia, so that is the country that exists at those coordinates.

Political Map of the World, June 2003



Example

Ian finds an old map when he's going through his grandfather's attic. It seems to be a pirate map of the Spanish Main. On the back of it, he sees scrawled a hasty X and the numbers: 26.5 and 81. He suspects that this map leads to treasure. But where is it? The coordinates say 26.5 and 81.



- First, he decides which coordinate is which.

26.5 must be the latitude because the numbers don't go that low on the bottom. That means that 81 is the longitude.

- Next, he locates the latitude and then the longitude of the point.

That latitude seems to go through the Atlantic Ocean and some islands.

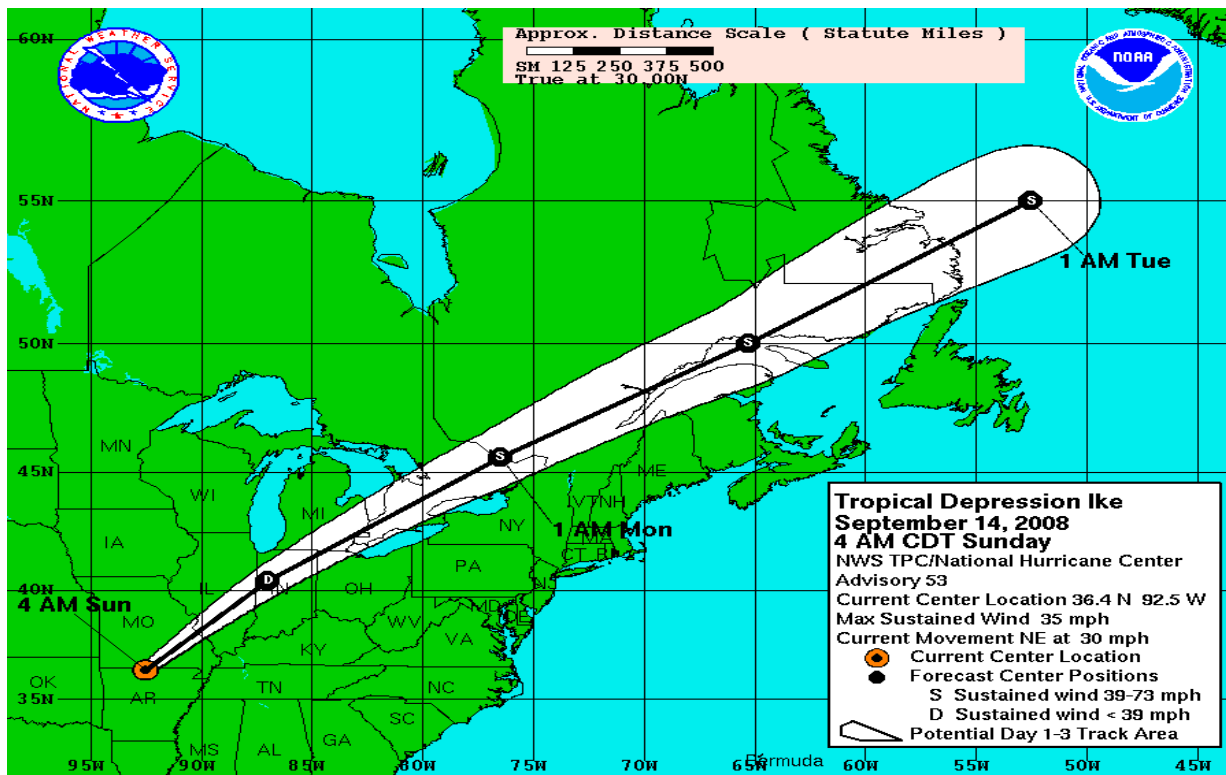
That longitude seems to go up through Cuba and then Florida.

- Then, he finds where they converge.

They seem to meet up in the Florida Keys.

He concludes that the booty is in the Keys. He starts dreaming up get-rich-quick schemes that will get him to Florida so he can start digging.

Example:



In the map above, identify the state found at (40°N, 80°W).

- First, find the latitude. This is the horizontal line.

In this case, it is 40°N. This line goes through the middle of the map. It crosses Montana, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

- Next, find the longitude.

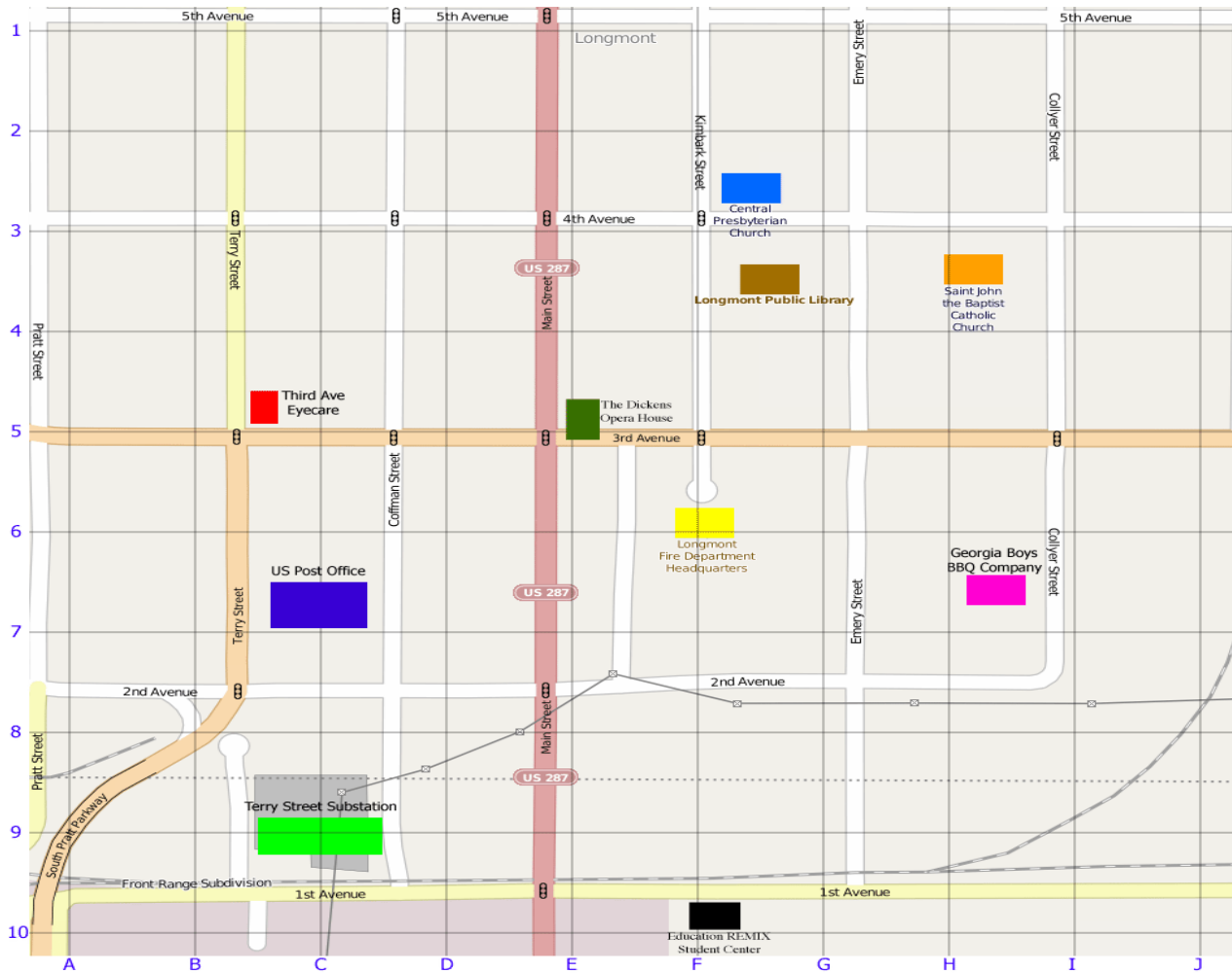
In this case it is 80°W. Starting in South Carolina, it goes up through North Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania.

- Then, find the state where they converge.

Pennsylvania is the only state that both lines go through, so it is the answer.

Practice Questions:

Use ordered pairs to identify locations on a map. Choose the best answer.



1. What building name and color is located at approximately (C, 6.5)?
 - a. Third Ave Eye-care-Red
 - b. US Post Office- Dark blue
 - c. Terry Street Substation- Bright Green
 - d. Education REMIX Student Center- Black
2. What building name and color is located at approximately (F, 10)?

- a. Education REMIX Student Center – Black
 - b. Terry Street Substation – Bright Green
 - c. US. Post Office – Dark Blue
 - d. Georgia Boys BBQ Company- Pink
3. What building name and color is located at approximately (F, 6)?
- a. The Dickens Opera House – Dark Green
 - b. Georgia Boys BBQ Company – Pink
 - c. US Post Office- Dark Blue
 - d. Longmont Fire Department Headquarters – Yellow
4. What building name and color is located at approximately (H, 3.5)?
- a. Saint John the Baptist Catholic- Orange
 - b. Longmont Public Library – Brown
 - c. Central Presbyterian Church- Light Blue
 - d. Longmont Fire Department Headquarters- Yellow
5. What building name and color is located at approximately (E, 5)?
- a. Georgia Boys BBQ Company – Pink
 - b. US Post Office – Dark blue
 - c. The Dickens Opera House – Dark Green
 - d. Longmont Fire Department Headquarters – Yellow
6. What building name and color is located at approximately (H, 6.5)?
- a. Terry Street Substation – Bright Green
 - b. Georgia Boys BBQ Company – Pink
 - c. Central Presbyterian Church- Light Blue
 - d. Education REMIX Student Center – Black
7. What building name and color is located at approximately (C,5)
- a. US Post Office – Dark Blue
 - b. The Dickens Opera House- Dark Green
 - c. Third Ave Eye- care- Red
 - d. Longmont Fire Department Headquarters – Yellow
8. What building name and color is located at approximately (F, 2.5)?
- a. Terry Street Substation – Bright Green
 - b. US Post Office – Dark Blue
 - c. Central Presbyterian Church- Light Blue
 - d. Education REMIX Student Center – Black
9. What building name and color is located at approximately (C, 9)?
- a. Terry Street Substation – Bright Green
 - b. US Post Office – Dark Blue+



- c. The Dickens Opera House- Dark Green
 - d. Education REMIX Student Center – Black
10. What building name and color is located at approximately (G, 3.5)?
- a. Central Presbyterian Church- Light Blue
 - b. The Dickens Opera House- Dark Green
 - c. Longmont Fire Department Headquarters – Yellow
 - d. Longmont Public Library – Brown

Answers:

1. b, 2. a, 3. d, 4. a, 5. c, 6. b, 7. c, 8. c, 9. a, 10. d

[Coordinate Locations on a Map | CK-12 Foundation \(ck12.org\)](#)

Attributions:

- ["EPISD World Geo 2019"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
- 
- ["World Regional Geography"](#) by University of Minnesota is licensed under CC BY-NC-SA 4.0
 - ["World Geography"](#) by Wikipedia is licensed under [CC BY 3.0](#)
 - ["Fifth Grade Math Resource"](#) is licensed under [CK-12 Foundation](#)
- 
- "Practice Questions" by Beatriz Torres is licensed [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International](#)

Practice Exams

Complete the two reading practice exams in the websites links listed below:

<https://www.hisetpracticetest.org/hiset-social-studies-practice-test/>

<https://www.ets-cls.org/hiset/> (Register to take the practice test)

HSE Open Education OER Team:

Cecilio Mora – Lead OER/Project Director, West Hills Community College District

Andres Enriquez – Project Director, California State University, Sacramento

Beatriz Torres, Lead Instructor, West Hills Community College District

Iris Torres, Reading Instructor, West Hills Community College District

Yanet Aguilar, Writing Instructor, California State University, Sacramento

Maria Jauregui, Social Studies Instructor, California State University, Bakersfield

Vanesa Saraza, Science Instructor, Santa Rosa Junior College.

Rocio Nanez Barrios, Math Instructor, Santa Rosa Junior College

Oswaldo Rodriguez, Math Instructor, SER Jobs for Progress, Inc

Graciela Salcido, Reviewer, West Hills Community College District

Open Educational Resources (OER) are teaching, learning, and research materials that are either (a) in the public domain or (b) licensed in a manner that provides everyone with free and perpetual permission to engage in the 5R activities.

- Retain – make, own, and control a copy of the resource
- Reuse – use your original, revised, or remixed copy of the resource publicly
- Revise – edit, adapt, and modify your copy of the resource
- Remix – combine your original or revised copy of the resource with other existing material to create something new
- Redistribute – share copies of your original, revised, or remixed copy of the resource with others

Mission of HSE OER Book:

The mission of the High School Equivalency (HSE) OER Team is to make the HSE OER book accessible to all instructors and students nationwide. **We invite HSE instructors, administrators, and students to contribute to the improvement and expansion of this book by submitting OER materials, contributions, or corrections on this [HSE OER Book Contribution Form](#).**