

Survey of Americas History, 1800-1945 (HiHm2044)

History of the United States

Introduction

The Pre-Columbian Era is the time before Christopher Columbus went to the Americas in 1492. At that time, **Native Americans** lived on the land that is now the United States of America. They had various cultures: in the Eastern hunted game and deer; in the Northwest fished; in the Southwest grew corn and built houses called **pueblos**; and in the Great Plains hunted buffalo. A lot of Mexicans had the same bloodline in them. They unwillingly gave the land to the Native Americans.

Colonial America

Using its naval power, adequate finance and surplus population, England created settlement and established 13 colonies in the New World. The English tried to settle at **Roanoke Island in 1585**. In **1607**, the first lasting English settlement was made at **Jamestown, Virginia**, by John Smith and other Englishmen interested in **gold and adventure**. In its early years, many people in Virginia died of disease and starvation. The colony in Virginia lasted because it made money by planting tobacco.

In 1621, a group of **Englishmen called the Pilgrims settled at Plymouth, Massachusetts**. A bigger colony was built at Massachusetts Bay by the **Puritans** in 1630. The Pilgrims and the Puritans were interested in making a better society, not looking for gold. They called this ideal society a "**city on a hill**". Although the 13 colonies had British origin, they gradually developed their own **sense of identity**.

Great Britain was not the only country to settle what would become the United States. In the 1500s, **Spain built a fort at Saint Augustine, Florida**. **France settled in Louisiana**, and the area around the Great Lakes. The **Dutch settled New York**, which they called **New Netherland**. Other areas were settled by **Scotch-Irish, Germans, and Swedes**. However, in time Britain controlled all of the colonies, and most American colonists adopted the British way of life. The growth of the colonies was not good for Native Americans. Many of them died of smallpox, a disease brought to America by the Europeans.

Unit One: Socio-Economic and Political Changes in the United States of America in the Late 18th and Early 19th Centuries

1.1. The Road to Revolution

The American Revolutionary War was a war fought between **Great Britain** and the **original 13 British colonies**. The **war took place from 1775 to 1783** with fighting in North America and other places. Britain's North American colonies were in fact **prosperous**, populous, and to a considerable degree **self-governing** before the Revolution broke out.

The colonists **enjoyed a developed commerce**, some local hand craft industry, and **immense land resources**. Unlike the European peasantry, most free born Americans owned enough land to feed their families. **Basic literacy was wide spread** and helped produce a well-informed citizenry and thus one that could more readily be reached by the propaganda of revolt. **All colonies possessed elected legislative assemblies** capable of successfully resisting the will of their appointed royal governors.

As in Europe, American expressions of discontent drew upon the radical political ideas of the Enlightenment. Well read Americans like **Thomas Jefferson** were aware of the natural rights doctrines of **John Locke** and the Lockean theory that legitimate government should be founded on a “**social contract**” involving both the governors and the governed.

1.1.1. Early Seeds of the Revolution (1651–1748)

Subversive organizations proliferated at all levels throughout the 1760s and early 1770s. Riotous gangs so-called **Liberty Boys** attacked royal officials and their homes. Subversive words and organizations were accompanied by increasing amounts of physical violence.

As early as 1651, the English government had sought to regulate trade in the American colonies. On October 9, 1660, the **Navigation Acts** were passed pursuant to a mercantilist policy intended to ensure that trade enriched only Great Britain, and barring trade with foreign nations.

Britain and France went into war in 1756. In North America, the French were settled in Canada and down the Mississippi to New Orleans. The British, however, over ran the French holdings, capturing Quebec, the chief city of French Canada in 1759. They moved with confidence against the French overseas in both Canada and India. **In the initial phase of the war, the Americans stood on the side of the British against France**. During the war, the colonial subjects were much burdened and began to develop a sense of equality with Britain. The French, on the other, **waited the time for revenge** so later they sided with the rebels. At the **Treaty of Paris in 1763**, the **War was completed** and **France was forced to give up all her territories in North America and India**. Except Mexico France left out of its control east of the Mississippi, the West Indies and Canada. Historians typically begin their histories of the American Revolution with the British coalition victory in the **Seven Years' War** (1756-1763), which had an impact on the colonies.

In the aftermath of Britain's victory over France in the Seven Years' War, young, aggressive **George III** (r. 1760-1820) and his ministers began to exert new pressures on their New World Colonies:

- Attempting a general overhaul of what was after 1763 the world's largest overseas empire, the British government strengthen the traditional ties of merchants control;
- **Troops** intended for the defense of the overseas territories were **quartered there at the expense of colonials**;

- **New Taxes** and **customs duties** were levied on a range of common articles of daily use, from newspaper to tea. The new policies seemed tyrannical infringements of traditional colonial rights. In the 1680s, King Charles II determined to regulate trade more effectively. His efforts were fiercely opposed by the colonists. Charles' successor James II finalized these efforts in 1686, establishing the Dominion of New England. The enforcement of the unpopular **Navigation Acts** and the **curtailing of local democracy** angered the colonists. Subsequent English governments continued in their efforts to tax certain goods, passing acts regulating the trade of wool, hats, and molasses. The **Molasses Act of 1733** in particular was egregious to the colonists. By this Act the American Colonies were permitted to import **Molasses only from the British West Indies**. It annoyed the colonists and they became revolutionary.

1.1.2. Taxes imposed and withdrawn (1764–1766)

In 1764, Parliament passed the **Currency Act** fearing that the colonists might evade debt payments. Parliament also passed the **Sugar Act**, imposing customs duties on a number of articles. That same year, Prime Minister George Grenville proposed **direct taxes** on the colonies to raise revenue. In 1765, the British Parliament needed money to pay back the debt for the French and Indian War. Parliament finally passed the **Stamp Act in March 1765** which imposed direct taxes on the colonies for the first time. This law said that colonists had to buy stamps for legal papers, newspapers, and even playing cards. The money from the stamps went to the King. The colonies did not follow this law and refusing to do what the King wanted. The British sent more soldiers (**Red Coats**) to keep control of the colonies and they sometimes had to fight.

The colonists did not object that the taxes were high; they were actually low. **They objected to the fact that they had no representation in the Parliament** and thus **no voice concerning legislation** that affected them. Benjamin Franklin testified in Parliament in 1766 that Americans already contributed heavily to the defense of the Empire. The decision was to keep them on active duty with full pay, but they had to be stationed somewhere. **Stationing a standing army in Great Britain during peacetime was politically unacceptable**, so the decision was made to station them in America and have the Americans pay them. The soldiers had no military mission; they were not there to defend the colonies because there was no threat to the colonies.

The **Sons of Liberty were formed in 1765**. They used public demonstrations, boycott, and threats of violence to ensure that the British tax laws were unenforceable. In Boston, the Sons of Liberty burned the records of the vice admiralty court and looted the home of chief justice. Several legislatures called for united action, and nine colonies sent delegates to the **Stamp Act Congress in New York City in October 1765**. Moderates led by John Dickinson drew up a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" stating that taxes passed without representation violated their rights as Englishmen. **Colonists emphasized their determination by boycotting imports of British merchandise.**

1.1.3. Townshend Acts and the Tea Act (1767–1773)

In 1767, the Parliament passed the **Townshend Acts** which placed duties on a number of essential goods, including paper, glass, and tea, and established a Board of Customs in Boston to more rigorously execute trade regulations. The new taxes were enacted on the belief that Americans only objected to internal taxes and not to external taxes such as custom duties. **Colonists responded by organizing new boycotts of British goods.**

In February 1768, the Assembly of Massachusetts Bay issued a **circular letter** to the other colonies urging them to coordinate resistance. The governor dissolved the assembly when it refused to rescind the letter. Meanwhile, a **riot broke out in Boston in June 1768** over the seizure of the sloop Liberty. Customs officials were forced to flee, prompting the British to deploy troops to Boston. A Boston town meeting declared that no obedience was due to parliamentary laws and called for the convening of a convention. A convention assembled but only issued a mild protest before dissolving itself. In January 1769, Parliament responded to the unrest by reactivating the **Treason Act 1543** which called for subjects outside the realm to face trials for treason in England.

On March 5, 1770, a large crowd gathered around a group of British soldiers. The crowd grew threatening, throwing snowballs, rocks, and debris at them. The soldiers fired into the crowd. They hit and **killed half of a dozen of Boston.** The event quickly came to be called the **Boston Massacre**. The widespread descriptions soon began to turn colonial sentiment against the British.

A new ministry under Lord North came to power in 1770, and **Parliament withdrew all taxes except the tax on tea**, giving up its efforts to raise revenue while maintaining the right to tax. This temporarily resolved the crisis, and the boycott of British goods largely ceased, with only the more radical patriots such as **Samuel Adams** continuing to agitate.

In June 1772, American patriots burned a British warship that had been vigorously enforcing unpopular trade regulations in what became known as the **Gaspee Affair**. The affair was investigated for possible treason, but no action was taken. In the same year, it became known that the Crown intended to pay fixed salaries to the governors and judges in Massachusetts. **Samuel Adams in Boston set about creating new Committees of Correspondence, which linked Patriots in all 13 colonies** and eventually provided the framework for a rebel government. Virginia, the largest colony, set up its Committee of Correspondence in early 1773, on which Patrick Henry and **Thomas Jefferson** served.

A total of about 7000 to 8000 Patriots served on "**Committees of Correspondence**" at the colonial and local levels, comprising most of the leadership in their communities. **Loyalists were excluded.** The committees became the leaders of the American resistance to British actions, and largely determined the war effort at the state and local level.

Meanwhile, **Parliament passed the Tea Act** to lower the price of taxed tea exported to the colonies in order to help the East India Company undersell smuggled Dutch tea. The act was opposed by those who resisted the taxes and also by smugglers who stood to lose business. On December 16, 1773, a group of men, led by **Samuel Adams** and dressed to evoke the appearance of American Indians, boarded the ships of the British East India Company and dumped £10,000 worth of tea from their holds into Boston Harbor. Decades later, this event became known as the **Boston Tea Party** and remains a significant part of American patriotic lore.

1.1.4. Intolerable Acts and the Quebec Act (1774–1775)

The British government responded by passing several Acts which came to be known as the **Intolerable Acts**, which further darkened colonial opinion towards the British. They consisted of four laws enacted by the British parliament: -

- The first was the **Massachusetts Government Act** which altered the Massachusetts charter and **restricted town meetings**.
- The second act was the **Administration of Justice Act** which ordered that all British soldiers to be tried were to be arraigned in Britain, not in the colonies.
- The third Act was the **Boston Port Act**, which closed the port of Boston until the British had been compensated for the tea lost in the Boston Tea Party.
- The fourth Act was the **Quartering Act of 1774**, which allowed **royal governors to house British troops in the homes of citizens** without requiring permission of the owner.

In response, Massachusetts patriots formed an alternative shadow government known as the "**Provincial Congress**" which began training militia outside British-occupied Boston. In **September 1774, the First Continental Congress convened**, consisting of representatives from each of the colonies, to serve as a vehicle for deliberation and collective action. The Congress endorsed the proposal of John Adams that Americans would obey Parliament voluntarily but would resist all taxes in disguise. Congress called for a boycott beginning on December 1, 1774 of all British goods; it was enforced by new committees authorized by the Congress.

1.1.5. Role of the Writers and Philosophers

The Writers and Philosophers played an important role in the American War of Independence. **Thomas Paine** through this writing 'Commonsense' inspired the Americans to raise their voice against the British Government. **Samuel Adams**, another writer sowed the seed of independence among the Americans through his writings. Besides this, the Americans were influenced by the writings of **Locke, Rousseau, Adam Smith and Milton**.

1.1.6. Ideology and Factions

The population of the 13 Colonies was not homogeneous in their political views and attitudes. Loyalties and allegiances varied widely within regions and communities and even within families, and sometimes shifted during the course of the Revolution.

The American Enlightenment was a critical precursor of the American Revolution. Chief among the ideas of the American Enlightenment were the concepts of **Natural Law, Natural Rights, Consent of the Governed, Individualism, Property Rights, Self-Ownership, Self-Determination, Liberalism, Republicanism and fear of corruption.** Collectively, the acceptance of these concepts by a growing number of American colonists began to foster an intellectual environment which would lead to a new sense of political and social identity.

A. Class and psychology of the Factions

In terms of class, **Loyalists** tended to have longstanding social and economic connections to British merchants and government; for instance, prominent merchants in major port cities such as **New York, Boston** and **Charleston** tended to be Loyalists. In addition, **officials of the colonial government and their staffs favored maintaining relations with Great Britain.** They often were linked to British families in England by marriage as well.

By contrast, Patriots by number tended to be **yeomen farmers**, especially in the frontier areas of New York and the backcountry of Pennsylvania, Virginia and down the Appalachian Mountains. They were **craftsmen** and **small merchants**. Leaders of **both the Patriots and the Loyalists were men of educated, propertied classes. The Patriots included many prominent men of the planter class from Virginia and South Carolina.**

Loyalists were alienated when the Patriots resorted to violence, such as burning houses and tarring and feathering. **Loyalists wanted to take a centrist position and resisted the Patriots' demand to declare their opposition to the Crown.**

Many Loyalists were fearful that revolution might lead to anarchy, tyranny or mob rule. Ideological demands always came first: The Patriots viewed independence as a means to gain freedom from British oppression and taxation. Most yeomen farmers, craftsmen, and small merchants joined the Patriot cause to demand more political equality.

B. Patriots

Those who fought for independence were called "Patriots", "Whigs", "Congress-men", or "Americans" during and after the war.

According to historian Robert Calhoun, 40–45% of the white population in the Thirteen Colonies supported the Patriots' cause, 15–20% supported the Loyalists, and the remainder were neutral or kept a

low profile. The **signers of the Declaration of Independence were mostly well-educated, of British stock, and of the Protestant faith.**

C. Loyalists

Those who actively supported the king were known at the time as "Loyalists", "Tories", or "King's men". There were 500 to 1,000 black loyalists, slaves who escaped to British lines and joined the British army. Most died of disease, but Britain took the survivors to Canada as free men. **Recent immigrants** who had not been fully Americanized were also inclined to support the King.

After the war, the great majority of the approximately **500,000 Loyalists remained in America**. Some became **prominent American leaders**, such as **Samuel Seabury**. Approximately 62,000 Loyalists relocated to **Canada**; others moved to **Britain** (7,000), **Florida**, or the **West Indies** (9,000). Nearly all black loyalists left for Nova Scotia, Florida, or England, where they could remain free.

D. women

Women contributed to the American Revolution in many ways, and were involved on both sides. They participated by **boycotting** British goods, **spying on the British**, following armies as they marched, **washing, cooking**, and tending for soldiers, **delivering secret messages**, and in a few cases fighting **disguised as men**. Above all, they **continued the agricultural work** at home to feed their families and the armies. They maintained their families during their husbands' absences and sometimes after their deaths.

E. Other participants

Coin minted in 1782 to celebrate recognition of the United States as an independent nation and for the Dutch-US trade treaty by **The Netherlands**. Besides, in early 1776, **France** set up a major program of **aid** to the Americans, and the **Spanish** secretly added funds. American rebels obtained some munitions through the Dutch Republic as well as French and Spanish ports in the West Indies.

Spain did not officially recognize the U.S. but became an informal ally when it declared war on Britain on June 21, 1779. She led an expedition of colonial troops to force the British out of Florida and keep open a vital conduit for supplies.

F. American Indians

Most American Indians rejected pleas that they remain neutral and instead supported the British Crown. The British provided them with funding and weapons to attack American outposts. Some Indians tried to remain neutral, seeing little value in joining what they perceived to be a European conflict, and fearing reprisals from whichever side they opposed.

The great majority of the 200,000 Indians east of the Mississippi distrusted the Colonists and supported the British cause, hoping to forestall continued colonial encroachment on their territories. Tribes more closely involved in trade tended to side with the Patriots.

G. Black Americans

Free blacks in the North and South fought on both sides of the Revolution, but most fought for the Patriots. **There were about 9,000 black Patriots**, counting the Continental Army and Navy, state militia units, privateers, wagoners in the Army, servants to officers, and spies.

Many black slaves sided with the Loyalists. Tens of thousands in the South used the turmoil of war to escape, and the southern plantation economies of South Carolina and Georgia especially were disrupted. During the Revolution, the **British tried to turn slavery against the Americans.**

1.2. The Beginning of Military Hostilities and Events of the War

In 1774, fifty delegates of the colonies met at Philadelphia. They adopted that trade with Britain should cease until grievances were abolished. They drew the continental association and agreed to cease all the trade with Britain unless the acts were repealed. **This was the First Continental Congress which came to be known as the first turning point of the War.** Massachusetts was declared in a state of rebellion in February 1775 and the British garrison received orders to disarm the rebels and arrest their leaders, leading to the **Battles of Lexington** and Concord on April 19, 1775. The Patriots laid siege to Boston, expelled royal officials from all the colonies, and took control through the establishment of Provincial Congresses. The **Battle of Bunker Hill** followed on June 17, 1775. It was a British victory—but at a great cost: about 1,000 British casualties from a garrison of about 6,000, as compared to 500 American casualties from a much larger force.

1.2.1. Creating New State Constitutions

Following the Battle of Bunker Hill, Patriots of the all 13 colonies had overthrown their existing governments, closing courts and driving away British officials. They had elected conventions and "legislatures" that existed outside any legal framework; **new constitutions were drawn up** in each state to supersede royal charters. **They declared that they were states now, not colonies.**

On January 5, 1776, **New Hampshire ratified the first state constitution.** In May 1776, Congress voted to suppress all forms of crown authority, to be replaced by locally created authority. **Virginia, South Carolina, and New Jersey created their constitutions before July 4.** The new states were all committed to **republicanism**, with no inherited offices. They decided what form of government to create, and also how to select those who would craft the constitutions and how the resulting document would be ratified.

The new constitution substantially **reduced universal male suffrage**, gave the governor **veto power** and patronage appointment authority, and added an **upper house with substantial wealth qualifications** to the **unicameral legislature**.

1.2.2. Independence and Union

On May 10, 1775, the **Second Continental Congress**, which is the **Second Turning Point of the War of Independence**, met at Philadelphia. It devised the colonies to establish new states of governments. A **committee composed of five leading thinkers** was set to write a declaration of independence. **Thomas Jefferson was the principal author in writing a statement that would explain independence**. The document denied England any authority, and set forth a general independence, human equality, unalienable rights to life and prosperity. The Second Continental Congress was divided on the best course of action, but eventually produced the **Olive Branch Petition**, in which they attempted to come to an accord with King George. The king, however, issued a Proclamation of Rebellion which stated that the states were "in rebellion" and the members of Congress were traitors.

On June 11, 1776, a committee was created to draft a document explaining the justifications for separation from Britain. The revolutionaries were now in full control of all 13 colonies and were ready to declare independence. On July 4, 1776, the Congress adopted the **Declaration of Independence**. It made clear that war was inevitable. The Congress appointed George **Washington**, a wealthy Virginian planter, as commander-in-chief of the liberation army.

The Second Continental Congress approved the "**Articles of Confederation**" for ratification by the states on November 15, 1777. The Congress immediately began operating under the Articles' terms, and facilitating international alliances with France and Spain. The articles were ratified on March 1, 1781. At that point, the **Continental Congress was dissolved** and a new government of the United States in Congress Assembled took its place on the following day.

1.2.3. Northern Battles

In the **winter of 1775**, the Americans invaded **Canada** under generals Benedict Arnold and Richard Montgomery. The attack was a complete failure; many Americans who weren't killed were either captured or died of smallpox. Early in 1776, Washington's army attacked the British in Boston. In **March 1776, the Army evacuated the British from Boston**.

There was also revolutionary war in Lexington and **Concord**. The **Battle of Bunker Hill in 1775 was** One of the first **major battles**. A few months later the Continental Army and British troops fought the **New York and New Jersey Campaign**. During the New York battles, the British started using **Hessian troops**, who were from **Germany**. Though the colonists lost New York, **Washington** was able to hold

onto most of his army. Over Christmas, 1776-77, he crossed the Delaware River and **defeated the Hessians** at Trenton and the **British at Princeton**.

In 1777, the British attacked the city of Philadelphia, the then American capital. Two battles were fought over Philadelphia: **Brandywine** and **Germantown**. Again, the Americans lost a major city, but Washington was able to keep most of his army. Around this time, the **Frenchman Lafayette** joined the American Army. In **1778, the British left Philadelphia**. Between 1778 and 1781, most battles between Washington and the British were inconclusive.

One of the most important battles was the **Battle of Saratoga, near New York, in October 1777**. The American victory at this place became the **Third Turning Point of the war because the British force had suffered crushing defeat**. American soldiers under **Horatio Gates** forced a British surrender under **John Burgoyne**. **This led to France and Spain joining the war on the side of Americans**. These powerful countries fought the British around the world. **The war now assumed a global character**. Following their surrender at Saratoga in October 1777, there were thousands of British and Hessian soldiers in American hands. They treated captured enemy soldiers as prisoners of war. At the end of the war, both sides released their surviving prisoners.

From 1778 to 1780, there was fighting in the West. The American commerce raider **John Paul Jones** also won several naval battles over the British, but the French navy did most of the fighting at sea.

1.2.4. American Alliances after 1778

The **capture of a British army at Saratoga encouraged the French** to formally enter the war in support of Congress. Benjamin Franklin negotiated a permanent military alliance in early 1778, significantly becoming the **first country to officially recognize the Declaration of Independence**. On February 6, 1778, a Treaty of Amity and Commerce and a **Treaty of Alliance were signed between the United States and France**. Later, **Spain** (in 1779) and the **Dutch** (1780) became allies of the French, leaving the British Empire to fight a global war alone without major allies, and requiring it to slip through a combined blockade of the Atlantic.

1.2.5. Southern Battles

The British strategy in America now concentrated on a campaign in the southern states. With fewer regular troops at their disposal, the British commanders saw the "southern strategy" as a more viable plan, as the south was perceived as being more strongly Loyalist, with a large population of recent immigrants as well as large numbers of slaves who might be captured or run away to join the British.

Beginning in late December 1778, the **British captured Savannah** and controlled the **Georgia coastline**. Not enough Loyalists turned out, however, and the British had to fight their way north into North Carolina and Virginia, with a severely weakened army. Behind them, much of the territory that they had

already captured dissolved into a **chaotic guerrilla war**, fought predominantly between bands of Loyalist and American militia, which negated many of the gains that the British had previously made.

In **1779 major fighting** shifted to **Georgia** and **South Carolina**. As fighting spread northward, General Nathanael Greene led the Rebel campaign. He caused many people in the South to be Patriots instead of Loyalists, and won several battles against the British. **In 1780, they launched a fresh invasion and took Charleston.**

In 1781, Washington and French general Jean Rochambeau led an offensive against British troops in **Yorktown**, Virginia. This was called the **Battle of Yorktown**. When their soldiers lost this battle, the British surrendered. They continued to fight the French and Spanish for two years, winning in **India, Gibraltar** and elsewhere.

1.2.6. End of the War

The American Revolution came to an end in **1783** when a peace treaty was signed in **Paris**. Casualty figures (Killed/wounded/missing/captured) for the American Revolution are **poorly known**. Unlike American Civil War casualties which were published in newspapers, total casualties of the Revolution are **rough estimates**.

1.2.7. Paris Peace Treaty

In the Treaty, King **George III accepted the independence of the colonies** and **recognized the newly created nation as the United States of America**. The treaty also gave all the land Britain said it owned which was **west of the Appalachians** as far as the **Mississippi River** to the new country. This land **led to the creation of 35 new states**.

During negotiations in Paris, the American delegation discovered that France would support independence, but no territorial gains. The US obtained all the land east of the Mississippi River, south of **Canada**, and **north of Florida**. It gained fishing rights off **Canadian coasts**, and agreed to allow British merchants and Loyalists to try to recover their property. It was a highly **favorable treaty for the United States**. Prime Minister Shelburne foresaw highly profitable **two-way trade between Britain and the rapidly growing United States**. Since the blockade was lifted and the old imperial restrictions were gone, **American merchants were free to trade with any nation** anywhere in the world, and their businesses flourished.

The British largely abandoned the Indian allies living in the new nation. They were not a party to this treaty and did not recognize it until they were defeated militarily by the United States. Losing the war and the Thirteen Colonies was a shock to Britain.

The peace Treaty left France financially prostrate, while the **British economy boomed** thanks to the return of American business. Historians conclude that loss of the American colonies enabled Britain to

deal with the French Revolution with more unity and better organization than would otherwise have been the case. **Britain turned towards Asia, the Pacific and later Africa with subsequent exploration** leading to the rise of the Second British Empire.

Britain's war against the Americans, French, and Spanish cost about £100 million. The Treasury borrowed 40% of the money that it needed. **Heavy spending brought France to the verge of bankruptcy and revolution**, while the British had relatively little difficulty financing their war, keeping their suppliers and soldiers paid, and **hiring tens of thousands of German soldiers**.

1.3. Consequences of the Revolution

The consequences of the American War of Independence were far reaching:

1) the **thirteen colonies were freed from Great Britain**. They combinedly formed the United States of America.

- In 1787, these Colonies met at Philadelphia and passed constitution of the United States of America and George Washington became the First President. They **were tied together by the articles of confederation**.
- As a result of the Revolution **the idea of aristocracy, or nobility, in America died out and America became a democratic Nation**. The **boundaries of the new nations were established**. It was extended from Canada and the Great Lakes in the north to the border of Florida, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. Following the end of the war in 1783, the national government was still operating under the Articles of Confederation and was able to settle the issue of the western territories, which were ceded by the states to Congress. **American settlers moved rapidly into those areas**, with Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee becoming states in the 1790s.

2) **Tens of thousands of Loyalists left the United States** – the current high estimate is 70,000. Some migrated to Britain. The great majority, known as United Empire Loyalists, received land and subsidies for resettlement in British colonies in North America, especially **Quebec, Prince Edward Island, and Nova Scotia**. The new colonies of **Upper Canada** (now Ontario) and **New Brunswick** were expressly created by Britain for their benefit, where the Crown awarded land to Loyalists as compensation for losses in the United States. Britain wanted to develop the frontier of Upper Canada on a British colonial model. But about **80% of the Loyalists stayed in the United States** and became full, loyal citizens; some of the exiles later returned to the U.S.

3) the **influence of American War of Independence was felt in the whole of Europe**. According to the Paris Peace Conference France received Chandan Nagar and other trade centers in India. She also

received back her **West African Settlement of Senegal** and acquired the **islands of Tobago** and **St. Lucia in the West Indies**. Spain received **Florida** and **Minorca** from England.

4) The American Revolution was the **first wave of the Atlantic Revolutions**: the French Revolution, the Haitian Revolution, and the Latin American wars of independence. The **Revolution had a strong, immediate influence in Great Britain, Ireland, the Netherlands, and France**. Many British and Irish Whigs spoke in favor of the American cause. In Ireland, there was a profound impact; the Protestants who controlled Ireland were demanding more and more self-rule. As in America, so too in Ireland the King no longer had a monopoly of lethal force. **In 1782, Ireland declared its independence and freed herself from England.**

The Revolution, along with the Dutch Revolt (end of the 16th century) and the 17th century English Civil War, was among the **examples of overthrowing an old regime for many Europeans** who later were active during the era of the French Revolution. The American Declaration of Independence influenced the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen of 1789. The spirit of the **Declaration of Independence led to laws ending slavery in all the Northern states** and the **Northwest Territory**, with New Jersey the last in 1804. States such as New Jersey and New York adopted gradual emancipation, which kept some people as slaves for more than two decades longer.

5) **It produced deep changes** and **had a profound effect on world affairs** although Interpretations vary concerning the effect of the Revolution. Contemporaries of the period referred to it as "the revolution", while others call it the "American War of Independence" outside the USA. Historians such as Bernard Bailyn, Gordon Wood, and Edmund Morgan view the American Revolution as a unique and radical event that **produced deep changes** and **had a profound effect on world affairs**, such as an increasing belief in the principles of the Enlightenment. These were demonstrated by a leadership and government that espoused protection of natural rights, and a system of laws chosen by the people. **John Murrin**, by contrast, argues that the definition of "the people" at that time was mostly **restricted to free men who were able to pass a property-qualification**. This view argues that any **significant gain of the revolution was irrelevant** in the short term **to women, black Americans and slaves, poor white men, youth, and American Indians**.

6) **It gave a serious setback to the British Colonialism** and destroyed it.

7) It laid stress on the Rights of Human beings. The 'Declaration of Rights' worked by Thomas Jefferson aroused people about their rights. After the Revolution, genuinely democratic politics became possible in the former colonies. The rights of the people were incorporated into state constitutions. **Concepts of liberty, individual rights, equality among men and hostility toward corruption became incorporated as core values of liberal republicanism.**

8) Status of American women: -The concept of republican motherhood was inspired by this period and reflects the importance of **Republicanism as the dominant American ideology**. During this period, the wife's relationship with her husband also became more **liberal**, as love and affection instead of obedience and subservience began to characterize the ideal marital relationship. In addition, many women contributed to the war effort through **fundraising** and **running family businesses** in the absence of husbands.

Patriarchy faded as an ideal, young people had more freedom to choose their spouses and more often **used birth control to regulate the size of their families**. Society emphasized the role of mothers in child rearing.

9) By this War of Independence America established her trade relationship with other countries and became prosperous. The United States of America grew from strength to strength and became super power in the world. The Revolution **ended mercantilist restrictions upon the colonists**. American industry and trade were now free to develop and expand.

10) The American war of Independence helped England in the growth of new colonies in Australia.

Why the War of Independence Succeeded?

A) George Washington's Efficient Leadership: -he was a **competent general**; a **brilliant strategist** who used **guerrilla-type hit-and-run tactics** to wear out his enemy and waited for the moment to join with his French allies to deal a decisive blow to the British forces. On a governmental level, the Continental Congress kept a tight control on the colonists through the Committees of Correspondence who operated through diverse local committees and the Sons of Liberty so effectively that 1/3 of the population – the Patriots – controlled the other 2/3 of Loyalists and undecided.

George Washington's rapid movements of men and materiel required the **existence of a road system** that his troops did not have to hack out of the wilderness. He had experienced the effects of such a strategy when he served under the command of **General Braddock** in the French and Indian War. The Continental Congress and the Committees of Correspondence could communicate with each other through an **efficient postal service**.

B) Geography and Communication: The **vastness of a country with a road-system** which was familiar and **controlled by the rebels** made the British hesitate – after some initial set-backs – to venture away from their coastal strongholds. Even there, the rebels, with their excellent communications and ability to move rapidly, harassed the British locally. The **area of fighting was large and the number of British troops was small and had little experience of warfare in the difficult environmental areas** of America (the terrain of the land, jungle forests and swampy areas of the region).

C)The British had to conduct its campaign from 300 miles away. It took at least three months for a message and its answer to cross the Atlantic.

D)The Importance of Europe:It had a much larger influence on the outcome of the American War of Independence. France and Spain were allies through the Family Compact of the **Bourbons** and shared a mutual desire for revenge against the British. There were, of course, other reasons – like **commercial exchange** with a fast-growing economy in North America – but for both, France and Spain, **revenge for the Seven Years' War** and the **insulting peace treaty of 1763** – along with Britain's attempts to gain absolute superiority in Europe and around the globe – were the overriding factors for siding with the American rebels.

France'ssupplied **money** and **arms to the Patriots** influenced other countries to move against Great Britain. French's **artillery and the naval squadron contribution hadgreat influence on the struggle**. The **Netherlands' importance as a financier** of the American Revolution and an inspiration for a republican form of government is possibly getting too much attention while their role as a serious rival for British claims to empire and naval superiority finds.

The **concentration of British finances and arms to maintain Britain's dominance in Europe, India, and the West Indies** was also what made American independence possible.

1.4. Problems and Disputes among the States after Independence

Following the end of the War of Independence, the 13 colonies had confronted economic, social and political troubles.

1.4.1. Problems and Changes in the Economic Sector: -As far as the economy was concerned, there was a certain amount of **unemployment**, notably in the northern states. Moreover, the **issues of paper currency** during the war period made the situation worse. A peculiarly serious problem, one which crops up throughout American history was that of **debt**. The **farmers of the Western regions** of the states had borrowed heavily from the merchants of the **eastern towns**.

After the war **Britain closed the West Indian islands to American trade**, and farmers could not sell their produce. Many of them were forced to sell their farms; others went to debtor persons. This led **mobs of farmers** in attacks upon the courts, with the object of preventing judges from giving decisions in case of debt. This episode caused grave **alarm among the richer inhabitants of the states**, and made many men ready to welcome some strong united government.

During the period under discussion, the US was still a rural nation. In 1810, for instance, nearly **93%** of the population lived outside cities and nearly **84%** workers in agriculture. Between 1800 and 1850, the new nation grew rapidly in size and in population. Cities were grown rapidly. **In 1800, there were only 33 towns and cities. By 1850, there were 236 cities.**

Between 1800 and 1850, the **production of corn, wheat and cotton become more than doubled**. Although the economy was still largely based on agriculture, **industries become more and more important particularly in the north**. Progress in transportation was linked to the changes of the economy. For example, steam boats began running on the rivers, new and better roads were built, and **steam railroads** began. Side by side with this **economic development**, the native-born population increased, and ever greater number of **new immigrants** from Europe, particularly from **Ireland** and **Germany** arrived.

1.4.2. Political Problems and Changes after Independence

Although the articles of Confederation had been adopted in 1781, it provided a weak national government at a time when the new nation needed a strong one. The weakness of the national government caused trouble in a number of ways:

1. There were **no national officials to in force laws**. A law passed by the Congress could be completely useless if states did not enforce it.
2. Finances were confused and awkward. The national government had no way to raise the money needed to pay its debts and perform its duties. It could not tax the people. It could only ask the states for many, and states could easily refuse. In addition, there was **no national system of money**. **Each state printed its own**. This led to **inflation** and rising prices.
3. There was **no national army or navy**. Each state took care of its own defense with its militia, or volunteers.
4. There was **no national system of court** or other means for settling disputes between states.
5. The national government had **little power in foreign affairs**.

Caused by these problems, many Americans became **dissatisfied with the articles of Confederation**. They felt the country needed a strong central government. By 1787 many leaders of the nation thought a change was necessary. In 1787, **fifty-five Americans**, including **George Washington**, **Benjamin Franklin**, **James Madsons** and **Alexander Hamilton**, gathered in Philadelphia. The meeting was called to revise the articles of Confederation. The Constitutional Convention lasted for four months, and made ready the constitution of the new government to be presented to the people. The new constitution had several major features:

- A **central government**, or national government was to established;
- The national government was to **share powers** with the states. But it also has special powers of its own; and
- The national government was to consist of **three branches**:
 - ✓ The **legislative** branch would make laws;
 - ✓ The **executive** branch would enforce laws; and
 - ✓ The **judicial** branch would help interpret the meaning of laws.

The new constitution achieved major purposes:

- It **established a republic**. The writers of the constitution wanted this republican form of government to work within a federal system by which individual states join together in a union.
- It **established division of power** between the state and federal government.
- It provided for a **separation of power** among the branches of the federal government. The three branches of federal authority are the legislative (Congress), executive (president), and judicial (Federal Courts).

1.4.2.1. The Power of the Legislative Branch, or the Congress

The constitution grants many powers to congress. For example, it can:

- Make **tax** laws and collect taxes.
- **Borrow money** and **print** paper money.
- Regulate interstate **trade** and make **copy right**.
- Establish post-offices and national roads.
- Set up a system of **federal courts**.
- **Declare war** and provide for the armed forces.
- Make all laws necessary and proper to perform its duties.

The **Congress consists** of Senate and **House** of Representatives. The Senate is known as the **Upper House**. All Senators must be at least 30 years of age. They must have been citizens of the US for at least nine years. They serve six-year terms.

The Power of the President

The president is elected by direct vote. Each party will nominate a qualified person to run for the office of the president. He: -

- Is **commander-in-chief** of all armed forces at all times.
- Appoints the **head** of all executive departments.
- Has the power to make **treaties**. However, all treaties must be approved by a 2/3 of the Senate.
- Appoints all US **ambassadors** to other countries and all judges, including the judges of the Supreme Court. This appointment requires the approval of the majority of the Senate.
- Must give **report to the Congress**.
- Must “take care” that laws be faithfully executed.

The Judicial Branch of Government

It **handles six types of cases**. That is cases: -

- In which federal laws have been violated.
- Involving **treaties** with other nations.

- Involving ships on the high seas.
- Government involvement between two or more states.
- Involving **ambassadors** of other nations

1.5. The Emergence of Political Parties

The framers of the American political system were **students of the Enlightenment**- a 17th century European intellectual movement that stressed the importance of human intellect and reason in answering all questions. They put a premium on discussion, debate, and deliberation in sorting out issues. In short, they believed that parties were antithetical to reason and careful deliberation.

The first two political parties in American history were the **Federalists** and the **Republicans**. **Opponents of the Republicans called them Democrats**, and the party later adopted that name; thus, they are the **ancestors of the modern Democrats**. They have nothing whatever to do with the modern Republican Party; this was founded just before the Civil War. They arose during the 1790's, when Americans began to differ sharply from each other over major **political issues**, over **financial policy** and, foreign **affairs**.

In finance, it was **Hamilton's policy** that provoked the division. Hamilton's political ideas **reflect the opinion of the commercial upper class** into which he had married. The rich, he argued, were more likely to be **wise rulers than any other class**, because **they were better educated** and had more to lose by misgovernment. So, **the rich must be won over to support the existing system of government**. He argued that **rich men would support government whose finances were secure**.

Hamilton opponents said that he had put the country at the mercy of a rich class. They point to the privileged position of the Bank; they also pointed out that founding the debt had made fortunes for the speculators who had gone around buying up pay certifications from soldiers at cheap rates. **They challenged the government's right to charter a bank, saying that such action was unconstitutional**.

The leader of Hamilton's opponents was Thomas Jefferson.

Jefferson, a tall, carelessly dressed man, was in personal appearance a contrast to Hamilton, who was small and neat: in ideas too, they were completely opposite to each other. Jefferson lacked Hamilton's logical brain, but Hamilton had none of Jefferson's devotion to democracy. **Jefferson believed in the right of the common man to liberty**. Each man, he maintained, had a **right to share in the government of the country** in which he lived, and **a right to be free from control by the rich**.

The other great issue upon which parties arose, and so Hamilton and Jefferson disagreed strongly, was the **French Revolution** and **its outcome**, the **Anglo-French War** which began in 1793. The **Federalists** under Hamilton, whose **sympathy for monarchy** was well known, **opposed the Revolution** and **supported Britain** rather than France. **Jefferson and the Republicans welcomed the French Revolution**. The **Federalist Party included rich merchants** who had no linking for revolutionary mobs. The **Republican Party attracted the farmers**, particularly the poor farmers of the western lands who loved liberty and

hated the merchants to whom they were in debt. Jefferson believed that America's hope lay in small, agriculture-based communities. He had **faith in ordinary citizens**, particularly the farmer: "Those who labor in the earth are the chosen people of God, if ever He had a chosen people."

Hamilton and **Jefferson** passionately **disagreed about the future of the nation**. The rivalry of the two grew more bitter and party feeling stronger as **Washington's terms office went on**. He also **distrusted a strong national government**. **Hamilton**, on the other hand, believed that the future of the nation lay in the development of **vibrant urban centers**, based on a **strong manufacturing sector**. He was a capitalist and **believed that a strong central government was the best mechanism to ensure long-term economic growth**. Unlike Jefferson, Hamilton was suspicious of average citizens and believed that it would be best for élites to run the government.

The two men got along in Washington's cabinet for a while, but it was just a matter of time until their divergent philosophies would spill over into heated debate. The spark was a plan that Hamilton put forward to kick-start the nation's economy. Among other things, **Hamilton called for the full payment of wartime debt—called full assumption**.

In 1796, a presidential election was held; it was a party contest. The Federalist candidates were **John Adams**, who was vice president under Washington, and **Thomas Pinckney**. The **Republicans supported Jefferson and Aaron Burr**. Adams got 71 votes and Jefferson 68, and the **Federalists held power for the next four years**. **Jefferson became vice president**. This situation, where the president was of one party and the vice president of the other, was awkward: the **12th Amendment (1804) provided that separate elections** should be held to each office and now **each party nominates a separate candidate for each office**.

A second component of Hamilton's plan was a heavy national investment **in infrastructure improvements**—for instance, in roads, bridges, ports, and canals. He believed that doing so would increase the flow of goods and services, thus leading to a general rise in living standards.

To pay for these two projects, Hamilton proposed a tax on distilled spirits—which became known as the **Whiskey Tax**. This **was not a sales tax**, but rather **an excise tax**, meaning a **levy on the production of the product**. More controversial was that most **whiskey producers were farmers in the South and West**, so to many, the plan reeked of northeastern industrial elites placing the burden of "economic development" on the backs of the working poor.

Opposition to Hamilton's plans grew, with the leading critic being none other than Thomas Jefferson. Hamilton and Jefferson squared off on a daily basis, leading Washington to comment that the two went at it "like two cocks" in a pen during cabinet meetings. **Lines were being drawn, sides were being taken**, and the public was slowly becoming "partisan."

Hamilton's plans passed through Congress. In 1794, shortly after the plan's approval, a group of farmers in western Pennsylvania refused to pay the tax. Federal troops were sent to collect but they were met with armed resistance. This event, called the **Whiskey Rebellion**, was one of the first tests of the rule of national law in the states. Washington decided to confront the farmers head-on. In September 1794, Washington issued a proclamation ordering the militia to assemble and march against the insurgents. Over 150 prisoners were taken by federal troops, but all were later pardoned by Washington.

Jefferson won the election of 1800 narrowly, and his Republican colleagues stormed into the majority of both houses in Congress. He proclaimed his success the "second revolution." The direction of public policy changed, and those who had been convicted under the Alien and Sedition Acts were pardoned. The election of 1800 also proved that parties could face each other in heated debate, but then let voters decide. The election marked the first time that one group replaced another group in control of government peacefully. Not only were parties not dangerous, as many speculated, but they seemed to exemplify precisely what citizens might want in a democratic system: a mechanism for airing differences of opinion regarding the proper course of government and then mobilizing support behind sets of candidates.

The dispute over political parties was settled with the election of 1800. From 1804 to 1820, the Republicans won between 53 and 92 percent of the Electoral College votes, and between 53 and 92 percent of the seats in Congress. The Federalists had disappeared in Congress, but within the Republican ranks, blocks of legislators had developed.

By the 1824 elections Adams became president and shortly thereafter kept his promise to Clay. The backlash from the deal spread across America, manifesting itself in two ways. First, the Democratic-Republicans were torn apart, leading to the creation of the Whig Party. Its leaders were Adams, Clay, and Calhoun. Their platform centered on states' rights, individual freedom, and lower taxes. The remaining Democratic-Republicans shortened their name to the Democratic Party—and their leaders were Jackson and New York politician Martin Van Buren. It was a rebirth of party politics, this time located at the community level.

1.6. The Jeffersonian Republic

Thomas Jefferson was primarily a planter, lawyer, mastered many disciplines, which ranged from surveying and mathematics to horticulture and mechanics, an architect in the classical tradition, leading spokesman for democracy and republicanism in the era of the Enlightenment, a statesman, diplomat, and Founding Father who served as the third president of the United States from 1801 to 1809. Previously, he had been elected the second vice president of the United States, serving under John Adams from 1797 to 1801. The principal author of the Declaration of Independence, Jefferson was a proponent of individual rights; produced formative documents and decisions at both the state and national level.

At the age of 33, he was one of the youngest delegates to the Congress. Jefferson **was mainly of English ancestry, born and educated in colonial Virginia**. He graduated from the College of William and Mary and briefly practiced law, with the largest number of his cases concerning land ownership claims. He became the nation's first secretary of state in 1790–1793 under President George Washington. **Jefferson and James Madison organized the Democratic-Republican Party to oppose the Federalist Party during the formation of the First Party System.**

As President, Jefferson pursued the nation's shipping and trade interests against Barbary pirates and aggressive British trade policies. He also **organized the Louisiana Purchase**, almost **doubling the country's territory**. As a result of peace negotiations with France, his administration **reduced military forces**. Jefferson's second term was beset with difficulties at home, including the trial of former Vice President Aaron Burr. American foreign trade was diminished when Jefferson implemented the **Embargo Act of 1807**, responding to British threats to U.S. shipping. In 1803, Jefferson began a controversial process of **Indian tribe removal to the newly organized Louisiana Territory**, and he **signed the Act Prohibiting Importation of Slaves in 1807**.

Jefferson's historical legacy is mixed. Some modern scholarship has been critical of Jefferson's private life, pointing out the contradiction between his **ownership of the large numbers of slaves** that worked his plantations and his famous declaration that "all men are created equal."

1.6.1. Presidency (1801–1809)

Jefferson nominated moderate Republicans to his cabinet. Upon assuming office, he first confronted an \$83 million national debt. He began dismantling Hamilton's Federalist fiscal system. His **administration eliminated the whiskey excise and other taxes** after closing "unnecessary offices" and cutting "useless establishments and expenses". After two terms, he had lowered the national debt from \$83 million to \$57 million.

Jefferson strongly felt the **need for a national military university**, producing an officer engineering corps for a national defense based on the advancement of the sciences, rather than having to rely on foreign sources for top grade engineers with questionable loyalty. He signed the **Military Peace Establishment Act** on March 16, 1802, thus founding the United States **Military Academy** at West Point. Jefferson was also hoping to bring **reform to the Executive branch**, replacing Federalists and active opponents throughout the officer corps to promote Republican values.

1.6.2. Re-election in 1804 and Second Term

Jefferson's successful first term occasioned his re-nomination for president by the Republican Party. However, his popularity further suffered in his second term due to his response to wars in Europe. **Positive relations with Great Britain had diminished**. After Napoleon's decisive victory at the Battle of

Austerlitz in 1805, Napoleon became more aggressive in his negotiations over trading rights, which American efforts failed to counter. Jefferson then led the enactment of the **Embargo Act of 1807**, directed at both France and Great Britain. This triggered economic chaos in the U.S. and was strongly criticized at the time, resulting in Jefferson having to abandon the policy a year later.

During the revolutionary era, the states abolished the international slave trade, but **South Carolina reopened it**. In his annual message of December 1806, **Jefferson denounced** the "**violations of human rights**" attending the international slave trade, calling on the newly elected Congress to criminalize it immediately. **In 1807, Congress passed the Act Prohibiting Importation of Slaves**, which Jefferson signed. The act established severe punishment against the international slave trade, although it did not address the issue domestically.

In the wake of the Louisiana Purchase, **Jefferson sought to annex Florida from Spain**, as brokered by Napoleon. Congress agreed to the President's request to secretly appropriate purchase money in the "**\$2,000,000 Bill**". The bill was signed into law. In December 1807, Jefferson announced his intention not to seek a third term.

1.6.3.Society and Government

According to Jefferson's philosophy, citizens have "**inalienable rights**" and "**rightful liberty**". Jeffersonian government not only prohibited individuals in society from infringing on the liberty of others, but also restrained itself from diminishing individual liberty as a protection against tyranny from the majority. He advocated enfranchising a majority of Virginians, seeking to expand **suffrage to include "yeoman farmers"**, **city day laborers, vagrants, Amerindians, and women**.

He was convinced that individual liberties were the fruit of political equality, which were threatened by arbitrary government. Excesses of democracy in his view were caused by **institutional corruptions** rather than human nature. He tried to restore a **balance between the state and federal governments**. Jefferson considered democracy to be the expression of society, and promoted national self-determination, cultural uniformity, and education of all males of the commonwealth. He supported **public education** and a **free press** as essential components of a democratic nation.

1.6.4. Slavery

Jefferson, as a wealthy landholder, used slave labor for his household, plantation, and workshops. Over his lifetime he **owned about 600 slaves** and sold about **110 for economic reasons**. He felt slavery was harmful to both slave and master, but had reservations about releasing unprepared slaves into freedom and advocated gradual emancipation. In 1779, he proposed gradual voluntary training and resettlement to the Virginia legislature, and three years later drafted legislation allowing owners to free their own slaves.

In 1784, Jefferson **proposed the abolition of slavery in all western U.S. territories**. Congress, however, failed to pass his proposal by one vote. In 1806, he officially **called for anti-slavery legislation** terminating the import or export of slaves.

Jefferson shared the common belief of his day that **blacks were mentally** and **physically inferior**, but argued they nonetheless had innate human rights. He therefore supported colonization plans that would transport freed slaves to another country, such as **Liberia** or **Sierra Leone**.

1.7. The Louisiana Purchase

Beginning in the 17th century, **France explored the Mississippi River** valley and established scattered settlements in the region. By the middle of the 18th century, France controlled more of the present-day United States than any other European power: from **New Orleans** northeast to the **Great Lakes** and northwest to modern-day **Montana**.

In 1762, during the French and Indian War, **France ceded French Louisiana** west of the Mississippi River **to Spain** and in **1763 transferred nearly all of its remaining North American holdings to Great Britain**. Spain did little to develop Louisiana during the next three decades. In 1796, **Spain allied itself with France**, leading Britain to use its powerful navy to cut off Spain from America. In 1801, Spain signed a secret treaty with France to return the **Louisiana Territory to France**.

U.S. feared that France, under Napoleon Bonaparte, would soon seek to dominate the Mississippi River and access to the Gulf of Mexico. In a letter to U.S. minister to France Robert Livingston, President Thomas Jefferson stated, “The day that France takes possession of New Orleans...we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation.” Livingston was ordered to negotiate with French minister Charles Maurice de Talleyrand for the **purchase of New Orleans**.

1.7.1. Louisiana Purchase Negotiations

France was slow in taking control of Louisiana, but in 1802 Spanish authorities, apparently acting under French orders, revoked a US-Spanish treaty that granted Americans the right to store goods in New Orleans. In response, Jefferson sent future US president James Monroe to Paris to aid Livingston in the New Orleans purchase talks. In mid-April 1803, shortly before Monroe’s arrival, the French asked a surprised Livingston if the United States was interested in Louisiana.

1.7.2. purchasing all of Louisiana Territory

It's believed that the failure of France to put down a **slave revolution in Haiti**, the impending **war with Great Britain** and probable **British naval blockade of France** – combined with **French economic difficulties** – may have prompted Napoleon to offer Louisiana for sale to the United States. Negotiations moved swiftly, and at the end of April the U.S. envoys agreed to pay \$11,250,000. In exchange, the United States acquired the vast domain of Louisiana Territory, some 828,000 square miles of land.

The treaty was dated April 30 and signed on May 2. In October, the US Senate ratified the purchase, and **in December 1803 France transferred authority over the region to the US.** The Louisiana Purchase of 1803 from France doubled the size of the young republic. At that time, it was known as the **Louisiana Territory**, which stretched from the **Mississippi River** in the east to the **Rocky Mountains** in the west and from the **Gulf of Mexico** in the south to the **Canadian** border in the north. Part or all of **15 states** were eventually created from the land deal, which is considered one of **the most important achievements of Thomas Jefferson's presidency.**

1.7.3. Legacy of the Louisiana Purchase

American **expansion westward into the new lands began** immediately, and in 1804 a territorial government was established. On April 30, 1812, exactly nine years after the Louisiana Purchase agreement was made, the first state to be carved from the territory – Louisiana – was admitted into the Union as the 18th U.S. state.

1.8. Textile Factories

In 1764, a man by the name of **James Hargreaves** would greatly impact the American Textiles industry from afar by inventing the Spinning Jenny in England. The Spinning Jenny was an iconic transformative invention that greatly improved the ability to produce textiles. The Spinning Jenny was capable of producing at a rate of the output of **eight hand spinners**. This allowed the amount of effort to produce yarn to be greatly reduced. Although Hargreaves never really benefitted from the invention in his lifetime, it **opened the door to the future of textiles** in America.

As textile history, the protectionist outlook in England was to **"Keep inventions for England and keep the colonies poor."** With the helping hand of **Alexander Hamilton**, a model facility dedicated to textiles would open in Patterson, New Jersey. Although this facility would eventually close its doors in 1796, Hamilton's ideology of the future of textiles in America did not die there.

How Did the Textile Revolution Finally Happen in the United States? The textile industry was founded by the work and importance of the following businessmen, inventors, and inventions:

A) Samuel Slater

In 1790, **Samuel Slater**, a cotton spinner's apprentice who left England the year before with the secrets of textile machinery, built a factory from memory to produce spindles of yarn. The factory had 72 spindles, powered by nine children pushing foot treadles, soon replaced by water power. He **has been called the "Father of American Industry" and the "Founder of the American Industrial Revolution."** He built several successful cotton mills in New England and established the town of Statesville, Rhode Island.

Three years later, **John** and **Arthur Shofield**, who also came from England, built the **first factory to manufacture woollens in Massachusetts**. From these humble beginnings to the time of the Civil War there were over two million spindles in over **1200 cotton factories** and **1500 woolen factories** in the United States.

B) Francis Cabot Lowell and Power Looms

Francis Cabot Lowell was an American businessman and the founder of the world's **first textile mill**. Together with inventor Paul Moody, Lowell created a more efficient power loom and a spinning apparatus.

C) Elias Howe and Sewing Machines

Before the invention of the sewing machine, most sewing was done by individuals in their homes, however, many people offered services as tailors or seamstresses in small shops where wages were very low. One inventor was struggling to put into metal an idea to lighten the toil of those who lived by the needle. Nearly all clothing was local and hand-sewn; there were tailors and seamstresses in most towns that could make individual items of clothing for customers.

1.8.1. The Cotton Gin

In 1786, in Massachusetts, two **Scotch immigrants**, who claimed to be familiar with **Richard Arkwright's British-made** spinning, were employed to design and build spinning machines for the mass **production of yarn**. The inventors were encouraged by the U.S. government and assisted with grants of money. The resulting machines, operated by horse power, were crude, and the textiles produced irregular and unsatisfactory.

Shortly after the first yarn spinning in Rhode Island in 1792, advancement in textiles would arrive on the scene. In 1793, **Eli Whitney**, an American born inventor, made history by **inventing and patenting the cotton gin**. This idea was brought to fruition through the design of an easier approach to separating the cotton from the seed. This had a gigantic effect on the economy due to the United States heavy

dependency on cotton which had becoming the top export. **Whitney** later went on to form a manufacturing company utilizing the cotton gin.

1.8.2. The First American Textile Factory

The first factory in the United States was begun after George Washington became President. The Boston Manufacturing Company was established by Frances Cabot Lowell, Patrick Johnson, and Nathan Appleton. By the year 1814, America opened the doors to its first textile factory in Lowell, Massachusetts. This factory capitalized on developing a process that would allow cotton lint to be made into a ready to use cloth. Lowell later went on to become a city entirely devoted to the craft of textiles. In effect, **Lowell also became the pioneer of attracting people from rural lands to urbanized cities.** They were also a trendsetter for the development of corporations which in turn became an enormous source for America's economic growth.

1.8.3. American Failures with Textile Machinery and the American Textile Industry Founders

At first, these new factories were financed by business partnerships, where several individuals invested in the factory and paid for business expenses like advertising and product distribution. Shortly after the War of 1812, a new form of business enterprise became prominent — **the corporation**. In a corporation, individual investors are financially responsible for business debts only to the extent of their investment. First used by bankers and builders, the **corporation concept spread to manufacturing**. In 1813, Frances Cabot Lowell, Nathan Appleton and Patrick Johnson formed the **Boston Manufacturing Company to build** America's first integrated textile factory that performed every operation necessary to transform cotton lint into finished cloth.

About 1831, **George Opdyke** (later Mayor of New York) began the small-scale manufacture of ready-made clothing, which he stocked and sold largely through a store in **New Orleans**. Opdyke was one of the first American merchants to do so. But it was not until after the power-driven sewing machine was invented, that factory production of clothes on a large scale occurred. Since then the clothing industry has grown.

From the textile industry, the factory spread to many other areas. In Pennsylvania, large furnaces and rolling mills supplanted small local forges and blacksmiths. In Connecticut, **tin ware** and **clocks** were produced. Soon reapers and **sewing machines** would be manufactured.

Over the next 15 years they charted additional companies in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. Others copied their corporation model and by **1840 the corporate manufacturer was commonplace**. The impact of the creation of all these **factories** and **corporations** was to **drive people from rural areas to the cities** where factories were located. This movement was well underway by the Civil War.

During the 1840s, the **population of the country as a whole increased** by 36%. With a huge and growing market, unconstrained by European traditions that could hamper their development, the **corporation became the central force in America's economic growth.**

The earliest traces of American textiles can be found in the courageous **Homespun Movement**. This occurred during the beginning of America's initial struggle with England that eventually morphed into the Revolutionary War. Homespun began as what would have been widely recognized as a rebellious act by England and a valiant protest to future Americans under the oppression of a foreign king. At the inception of this future American powerhouse of an industry was an **opposition to British enforcement of increased taxes on English manufactured goods.** This was thanks to the incredibly unpopular **Townsend Acts** which came into effect in 1767 at the hand of Parliament. As a result of this act, **brave women boycotted British products** and undertook the task of utilizing their own resources to produce homespun clothing in their homes. This movement would later **provide uniforms, cloths, and blankets to the soldiers** of the Continental Army in the Revolutionary War.

1.9. The Rise of Industrial America (1877-1900)

The years between 1877 and 1900 were some of the most **momentous** and **dynamic** in American history. These are mainly the **reunification** of the South and North; the **integration of four million newly freed African Americans, westward expansion, immigration, industrialization,** and **urbanization.** It was also a period of **reform**, in which many Americans sought to regulate corporations and shape the changes taking place all around them.

Congress continued to pursue a version of reform in the West as part of a **Greater Reconstruction.** The federal government sought to integrate the West into the country as a social and economic replica of the North. **Land redistribution on a massive scale formed the centerpiece of reform.** Through such measures as the **Homestead** and **Railroad Acts of 1862,** the government **redistributed the vast majority of communal lands** possessed by American Indian tribes to railroad corporations and white farmers.

The treaty system had officially ended in 1871, but Americans continued to negotiate agreements with the Indians. The goal of these agreements, and American land policy in general, was to create millions of new farms and ranches across the West.

1.9.1. Agricultural Development

Most immigrants came to the United States for **economic opportunity.** **Cheap land** and relatively **high wages,** compared to their home countries, were available regardless of citizenship. The **Homestead Act** did not require that settlers filing for land be American citizens, and the railroads not only sold their land grants cheaply, they advertised widely in Europe.

The results of this distribution of fertile and largely accessible land were astonishing. Everything in the late nineteenth century seemed to move faster than ever before. Americans brought more land under cultivation between 1870 and 1900 than they had since the English first appeared at Jamestown in 1607. **Farmers abandoned small, worn-out farms in the East** and developed new, larger, and more fertile farms in the Midwest and **West**. They developed so much land because they farmed extensively, not intensively. In terms of yields per acre, **American farmers ranked far below Europe**. Maintaining fertility demanded labor, which was precisely what American farmers were bent on reducing. They invested not in labor but in technology, particularly improved plows, reapers, and threshers. In many years these **lands lacked adequate rainfall to produce crops**. However, **farmers had the largest share of the dollar value of American economic output** until 1880 when commerce's 29 percent of the gross national product edged out their 28 percent.

1.9.2. Industrial Development

In the early 19th century, the industrial revolution came to America. Many factories were built in **Northern cities such as Lowell, Massachusetts**. Most of them made clothes. Many factory workers were women, and some were children or people from Ireland or Germany. Despite this industrialization, America was still a nation of farmers. However, manufacturing and mining at 30 percent share of the GNP both exceeded agriculture's 19 percent share in 1890.

The rise of industrial America, the dominance of wage labor, and the growth of cities represented perhaps the greatest changes of the period. Few Americans at the end of the Civil War had anticipated the rapid rise of American industry. For the first time in the nation's history, wage earners had come to outnumber the self-employed, and by the 1880s these wage earners were becoming employees of larger and larger corporations.

Over the period as a whole, **American industry advanced rapidly**. By 1900 **the United States had one half the world's manufacturing capacity**. At the end of the century, **it had overtaken Great Britain both in iron and steel production and in coal production**. She made such great gains because it was the fastest runner in a relatively slow race. The entire period from 1873 to the turn of the century became known as the **Long Depression in Western Europe**. To the contrary, the **US grew faster than European economies**.

Important sectors of the American economy globalized, putting American businesses and farmers in competition with other places in the world. One result was a steady downward pressure on prices. **The Republican policy of maintaining tariff protection for American industry mitigated deflation on the domestic market**. But the return to the gold standard with the **Resumption Act of 1875**, which later became a major political issue, created compensatory deflationary pressure that contributed to the general decline in prices. This benefitted workers only as long as they were able to maintain their wages.

1.10. Social Change

Many Americans desperately believed that the values of **free labor, individualism, and contract freedom** ensured success within the new industrial society. Other Americans simply tried to portray the new economy as essentially the same as the old. They believed that **individual enterprise, hard work, and free competition** in open markets still guaranteed success to those willing to work hard. An evolving mass print culture of cheap newspapers, magazines, and dime novels offered proselytizers of the old values' new forms of communication.

1.10.1. The Labor Movement

Many Americans formed a diffuse reform movement contemporary referred to as **anti-monopolism**. Anti-monopolists, including **farmers, small businessmen, and workers** in the Knights of labor and other organizations, agreed on the problem, but often differed on the solution. They lamented the rise of large corporations, which to them were synonymous with monopoly. **They worried about the dependence on wage labor, the growth of unemployment**, particularly during the frequent panics and depressions, and the **decline of individual independence**. In the 1870s, Walt Whitman lamented the human casualties of the new economy. **Anti-monopolists agreed that the purpose of a republican economy was to sustain independent and prosperous republican citizens**, but how to restore the economy to that condition was the problem. Some, probably a majority in the 1870s, sought government intervention to restore competition. Others, who grew in numbers in the 1880s and 1890s, accepted the inevitability of large corporations but desired that they be more tightly regulated. By the 1890s, the **Populists**, an anti-monopolist third party, advocated government ownership of the railroads and the telegraphs.

In many ways, the **anti-monopolists were successful**. They comprised large **factions within both the Democratic and Republican Parties** and created new third parties from the **Green backers** (1874–1884) to the Populists of the 1890s.

Many others were already in place. The inevitable **compromises involved in passing legislation left a contradictory reform legacy**. Some measures sought to restore competition by breaking up trusts or **holding companies** while others accepted the existence of large corporations but enforced regulations to restrain them. The **Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890 initiated a movement to break up the largest trusts**. State railroad commissions and the Interstate Commerce Commission created in 1887 represented attempts to regulate corporations.

1.10.2. The Erie Canal

After the War of 1812 the Federalist Party faded away, leaving an "Era of Good Feelings" in which **only one party was important**, under Presidents James Madison and James Monroe. Under Monroe, the United States' policy in North America was the **Monroe Doctrine**, which suggested that **Europe should**

stop trying to control the United States and other independent countries in the Americas. Around this time, Congress called for something called the "**American System**". The American System meant spending money on banking, transportation and communication. **Due to the American System, bigger cities and more factories were built.** One of the **big transportation projects** of this time was the **Erie Canal**, a canal in the state of New York. By the 1840s, railroads were built as well as canals. By 1860, thousands of miles of railroads and telegraph lines had been built in the United States, mostly in the Northeast and Midwest.

In 1828, **Andrew Jackson** was elected President. He was the **first president elected from the Democratic Party**. He **changed the government in many ways**. Since many of his supporters were poor people who had not voted before, he rewarded them with government jobs, which is called "spoils" or "patronage". Because of Jackson, a **new party was formed to run against him called the Whigs**. This was called the "**Second Party System**". Jackson was very much **against the National Bank**. He saw it as a symbol of Whigs and of powerful American businessmen. Jackson also **called for a high import tax** that the South did not like. They called it the "**Tariff of Abominations**".

UNIT 2: Growth of Sectional Rivalry: American Civil War and Postwar South (1865-1900)

2.1. Controversial Issues: Following, the American War of Independence there were many complicated and deep rooted political, economic and social controversies that lastly brought about the civil war.

2.1.1. Controversy related with the Constitution:-The loyalists of the Union in the North proclaimed support for the **Constitution**, while they faced secessionists of the Confederate States in the South, who advocated for states' rights to **uphold slavery**. **By 1861, over three million African-Americans were slaves in the South**. This means that they worked for other people, but had no freedom and received no money for their work. The South wanted to keep slavery, but **many people in the North wanted to end it**.

In the 1840s and 1850s, people in the Northern states and people in the Southern states did not agree whether slavery was right or wrong in the territories--parts of the United States that were not yet states. People in the government tried to make deals to stop a war, but they did not really work to keep the Union together.

In the 1860 presidential election, Republicans, led by Abraham Lincoln, supported banning slavery in all the U.S. territories. The Southern states viewed this as a **violation of their constitutional rights**. Before Lincoln's inauguration, **seven slave states** with cotton-based economies declared secession and formed the **Confederate States of America, on February 4, 1861**. The first seven states (Georgia, Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, Texas and South Carolina) to declare secession had the highest proportions of slaves in their populations. They **took control of federal forts** and other properties within their boundaries with little resistance from outgoing **President James Buchanan**, whose term ended on March 4, 1861.

Another **argument between the North and South was about the role of government**. The South wanted **stronger state governments**, but the North wanted a **stronger central government**.

2.1.2. Territorial Expansion Crisis:- Between **1803 and 1854**, the United States achieved a **vast expansion of territory through purchase, negotiation, and conquest**. With the conquest of northern Mexico west to California in 1848, slaveholding interests looked forward to expanding into these lands and perhaps Cuba and Central America as well. In the Southern states the question of the territorial expansion of slavery westward again became explosive.

By 1860, four doctrines had emerged to answer the question of federal control in the territories, and they all claimed they were sanctioned by the Constitution, implicitly or explicitly. The first of these **"conservative"** theories, represented by the **Constitutional Union Party**, argued that the Missouri

Compromise apportionment of territory north for free soil and south for slavery should become a Constitutional mandate.

The second doctrine of Congressional preeminence, **championed by Abraham Lincoln and the Republican Party**, insisted that the Constitution did not bind legislators to a policy of balance—that slavery could be excluded in a territory as it was done in the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 at the discretion of Congress; thus Congress could restrict human bondage, but never establish it.

The third was that Senator Stephen A. Douglas proclamation of the doctrine of territorial or **"popular" sovereignty**—which asserted that the settlers in a territory had the same rights as states in the Union to establish or disestablish slavery as a purely local matter. In 1854, this doctrine was legislated by the **Kansas–Nebraska Act**.

The fourth theory was advocated by Mississippi Senator Jefferson Davis, also known as the **"Calhoun doctrine"**. Rejecting the arguments for federal authority or self-government, **state sovereignty would empower states to promote the expansion of slavery** as part of the federal union under the US Constitution. These four doctrines comprised the dominant ideologies presented to the American public on matters of slavery, the territories, and the US Constitution before the 1860 presidential election.

2.1.3. Tensions related with States' Rights

The South argued that a **state had the right to secede** at any time. Northerners rejected this notion and claimed that States' rights or sovereignty, were always more a means than an end, an instrument to achieve a certain goal more than a principle.

2.1.3.1. Sectionalism

Sectionalism resulted from the different economies, social structure, customs, and political values of the North and South. Regional tensions came to a head during the **War of 1812**, resulting in the Hartford Convention, which manifested **Northern dissatisfaction with a foreign trade embargo** that affected the industrial North disproportionately, the Three-Fifths Compromise, dilution of Northern power by new states, and a succession of Southern presidents. Sectionalism increased steadily between 1800 and 1860 as the North, which phased slavery out of existence, industrialized, urbanized, and built prosperous farms, while the Deep South concentrated on plantation agriculture based on slave labor, together with subsistence farming for poor whites.

In the 1840s and 50s, the issue of accepting slavery (in the guise of rejecting slave-owning bishops and missionaries) split the nation's largest religious denominations (the Methodist, Baptist, and Presbyterian churches) into separate Northern and Southern denominations.

2.1.3.2. Protectionism

Slave owners preferred low-cost manual labor with no mechanization. Northern manufacturing interests supported tariffs and protectionism while southern planters demanded free trade, The Democrats in

Congress, controlled by Southerners, wrote the tariff laws in the 1830s, 1840s, and 1850s, and kept reducing rates so that the 1857 rates were the lowest since 1816. The Republicans called for an increase in tariffs in the 1860 election. The increases were only enacted in 1861 after Southerners resigned their seats in Congress. The tariff issue was a Northern grievance.

2.1.3.3. Nationalism and Honor

Nationalism was a powerful force in the early 19th century, with famous spokesmen such as Andrew Jackson and Daniel Webster. While practically all Northerners supported the Union, Southerners were split between those loyal to the entire United States (called "**unionists**") and those loyal primarily to the southern region and then the **Confederacy**.

While the South moved towards a Southern nationalism, leaders in the North were also becoming more nationally minded, and they rejected any notion of splitting the Union. The Republican national electoral platform of 1860 warned that Republicans regarded disunion as treason and would not tolerate it. The South ignored the warnings.

2.2. The Civil War

The American Civil War was a war fought in the United States from **1861** to **1865**. The Civil War is the most studied and written about episode in US history. Primarily as a result of the long-standing controversy over the enslavement of black people, war broke out in **April 1861**.

In the election of 1860, the Democratic Party split and the Republican candidate for President, Abraham Lincoln, was elected. After this, many Southern states left the Union. Eventually, eleven states left. They tried to start a new country called the Confederate States of America, or the "Confederacy". **A war started between the Union (North) and the Confederacy (South)**. Not having factories made it harder for Southern soldiers to get guns or uniforms. The South could not get supplies because **Northern ships blockaded the Southern coast**.

Lincoln's March 4, 1861, inaugural address declared that his administration would not initiate a civil war. After Confederate forces seized numerous federal forts within territory claimed by the Confederacy, efforts at compromise failed and both sides prepared for war. The Confederates assumed that European countries were so dependent on "**King Cotton**" that they would intervene, but none did, and none recognized the new Confederate States of America.

2.2.1. Outbreak of the War

Hostilities began on April 12, 1861, when **Confederate forces fired upon Fort Sumter**. While in the Western Theater the Union made significant permanent gains, in the **Eastern Theater**, the battle was inconclusive during **1861–1862**. Later, in September 1862, **Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation**, which made ending slavery a war goal. To the west, by summer 1862 the Union destroyed

the Confederate river navy, then much of its western armies, and seized New Orleans. The successful 1863 Union siege of Vicksburg split the Confederacy in two at the Mississippi River.

Inflicting an ever-tightening naval blockade of Confederate ports, the Union marshaled the resources and manpower to attack the Confederacy from all directions. The last significant battles raged around the **Siege of Petersburg**. While the military war was coming to an end, the political reintegration of the nation was to take another 12 years, known as the **Reconstruction Era**.

Battle of Fort Sumter

Fort Sumter was located in the middle of the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina. Its garrison recently moved there to avoid incidents with local militias in the streets of the city. **Jefferson Davis** ordered the **surrender of the fort** and to **attack it before a relief expedition could arrive**. The fort was bombarded **on April 12–13**, forcing its capitulation.

The thunderclap of Sumter produced a startling crystallization of Northern sentiment. From every side came news of mass meetings, speeches, resolutions, tenders of business support, the muster of companies and regiments, the determined action of governors and legislatures.

Mass meeting in New York City 20 April 1861, to support the Union

Union leaders incorrectly assumed that only a minority of Southerners were in favor of secession and that there were large numbers of southern Unionists that could be counted on. Lincoln called on all the states to send forces to recapture the fort and other federal properties. The scale of the rebellion appeared to be small, so he called for only 75,000 volunteers for **90 days**. The governor of Massachusetts had state regiments on trains headed south the next day. In western Missouri, local secessionists seized Liberty Arsenal. On May 3, 1861, Lincoln called for an additional 42,000 volunteers for a period of **three years**. Four states in the middle and upper South had repeatedly rejected Confederate overtures, but now Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and North Carolina refused to send forces against their neighbors, declared their secession, and joined the Confederacy. To reward Virginia, the **Confederate capital was moved to Richmond**.

Attitude of the Border States

Maryland, Delaware, Missouri, and Kentucky were slave states that were opposed to both secession and coercing the South. West Virginia then joined them as an additional border state after it separated from Virginia and became a state of the Union in 1863.

Maryland's territory surrounded the United States' capital of Washington , DC and could cut it off from the North. It had numerous anti-Lincoln officials who tolerated anti-army rioting in Baltimore and the burning of bridges, both aimed at hindering the passage of troops to the South. Maryland's legislature voted overwhelmingly (53–13) to stay in the Union, but also rejected hostilities with its southern

neighbors, voting to close Maryland's rail lines to prevent them from being used for war. Lincoln responded by establishing **martial law**. Lincoln rapidly took control of Maryland and the District of Columbia by seizing many prominent figures, including **arresting 1/3 of the members of the Maryland General Assembly** on the day it reconvened.

After Virginia's secession, a Unionist government in Wheeling asked 48 counties to vote on an ordinance to create a new state on October 24, 1861. A voter turnout of 34 percent approved the statehood bill (96 percent approving). The inclusion of 24 secessionist counties in the state and the ensuing guerrilla war engaged about 40,000 Federal troops for much of the war. Congress admitted West Virginia to the Union on June 20, 1863. West Virginia provided about 20,000–22,000 soldiers to both the Confederacy and the Union.

A Unionist secession attempt occurred in East Tennessee, but was suppressed by the Confederacy, which arrested over 3,000 men suspected of being loyal to the Union. They were held without trial.

Mobilization

As the first seven states began organizing a Confederacy in Montgomery, the **entire U.S. army numbered 16,000**. However, Northern governors had begun to mobilize their militias. The Confederate Congress authorized the new nation up to **100,000 troops** sent by governors as early as February. By May, **Jefferson Davis was pushing for 100,000** men under arms for one year or the duration, and that was answered in kind by the U.S. Congress.

In the first year of the war, both sides had far more volunteers than they could effectively train and equip. After the initial enthusiasm faded, reliance on the cohort of young men who came of age every year and wanted to join was not enough. Both sides used a draft law—**conscription**—as a device to encourage or force volunteering; relatively few were drafted and served. The **Confederacy passed a draft law in April 1862 for young men aged 18 to 35**; overseers of slaves, government officials, and clergymen were exempt. The U.S. Congress followed in July, authorizing a militia draft within a state when it could not meet its quota with volunteers. **European immigrants joined the Union Army in large numbers**, including 177,000 born in **Germany** and 144,000 born in **Ireland**.

When the Emancipation Proclamation went into effect in January 1863, ex-slaves were energetically recruited by the states, and used to meet the state quotas. States and local communities offered higher and higher cash bonuses for white volunteers. Congress tightened the law in March 1863. Men selected in the draft could provide substitutes or, until mid-1864, pay commutation money. Many eligible pooled their money to cover the cost of anyone drafted. Families used the substitute provision to select which man should go into the army and which should stay home.

In both the North and South, the **draft laws were highly unpopular**. In the North, some 120,000 men evaded conscription, many of them **fleeing to Canada**, and another **280,000 soldiers deserted** during the

war. From a tiny frontier force in 1860, the Union and Confederate armies had grown into the "largest and most efficient armies in the world" within a few years. Anyways, Civil War soldiers were driven by **political ideology**, holding firm **beliefs about the importance of liberty, Union**, or state rights, or about the **need to protect or to destroy slavery**.

Prisoners

At the start of the civil war, a system of paroles operated. Captives agreed not to fight until they were officially exchanged. Meanwhile, they were held in camps run by their army. They were paid, but they were not allowed to perform any military duties. The **system of exchanges collapsed in 1863** when the **Confederacy refused to exchange black prisoners**. After that, about **56,000** of the 409,000 POWs **died in prisons during the war**, accounting for nearly 10 percent of the conflict's fatalities.

Naval Tactics

The small U.S. Navy of 1861 was rapidly enlarged to 6,000 officers and 45,000 men in 1865, with 671 vessels. Its **mission was to blockade Confederate ports, take control of the river system, defend against Confederate raiders** on the high seas, and **be ready for a possible war with the British Royal Navy**. Meanwhile, the main riverine war was fought in the West, where a series of major rivers gave access to the Confederate heartland. The U.S. Navy eventually gained control of the Red, Tennessee, Cumberland, Mississippi, and Ohio rivers. In the East, the Navy supplied and moved army forces about, and occasionally shelled Confederate installations.

The Civil War occurred during the early stages of the industrial revolution. Many naval innovations emerged during this time, most notably the advent of the **ironclad warship**. It began when the Confederacy, knowing they had to meet or match the Union's naval superiority, responded to the Union blockade by building or converting more than **130 vessels**, including twenty-six ironclads and floating batteries. Only half of these saw active service. Many were equipped with ram bows, creating "ram fever" among Union squadrons wherever they threatened. But in the face of overwhelming Union superiority and the Union's ironclad warships, they were unsuccessful.

Battle between the Monitor and Merrimack

In addition to ocean-going warships coming up the Mississippi, the Union Navy used timberclads, tinclads, and **armored gunboats**. The Confederacy experimented with the submarine CSS Hunley, which didn't work satisfactorily. Lacking the technology and infrastructure to build effective warships, the Confederacy attempted to obtain warships from Britain.

Union blockade

In April 1861, Lincoln announced the Union **blockade of all Southern ports**. The South blundered in embargoing cotton exports in 1861 before the blockade was effective; by the time they realized the

mistake, it was too late. "King Cotton" was dead, as the South could export less than 10 percent of its cotton. The **blockade shut down the ten Confederate seaports** with railheads that moved almost all the cotton.

Blockade runners

British investors built small, fast, steam-driven blockade runners that traded arms and luxuries brought in from Britain **through Bermuda, Cuba, and the Bahamas** in return for high-priced cotton. When the Union Navy seized a blockade runner, the ship and cargo were condemned as a Prize of war and sold, with the proceeds given to the Navy sailors; the **captured crewmen were mostly British**, and they were released.

Diplomacy

In 1861, Southerners voluntarily embargoed cotton shipments, hoping to start an economic depression in Europe that would force Britain to enter the war to get cotton, but this did not work. Worse, Europe developed other cotton suppliers, which they found superior, hindering the South's recovery after the war. **Cotton diplomacy proved a failure as Europe had a surplus of cotton.** When Britain did face a cotton shortage, it was temporary, being replaced by increased **cultivation in Egypt and India**. Meanwhile, the **war created employment for arms makers, ironworkers, and British ships to transport weapons.**

Eastern Theater

The Eastern theater refers to the military operations east of the **Appalachian Mountains**, including the states of Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, the District of Columbia, and the coastal fortifications and seaports of North Carolina.

New Mexico

Numerous small-scale military actions south and west of Missouri sought to control Indian Territory and New Mexico Territory for the Union. The **Battle of Glorieta** Pass was the decisive battle of the **New Mexico Campaign**. The Union repulsed Confederate incursions into New Mexico in 1862 and the exiled Arizona government withdrew into Texas. In the Indian Territory, civil war broke out within tribes. About 12,000 Indian warriors fought for the Confederacy, and smaller numbers for the Union.

Battles

The Civil War was a contest marked by the ferocity and frequency of battle. **Over four years, 237 named battles were fought**, as were many more minor actions and skirmishes, which were often characterized by their bitter intensity and high casualties.

South Carolina

One of the earliest battles of the war was fought at **Port Royal Sound**, south of Charleston. Much of the war concentrated on capturing Charleston. However, the **Confederates were able to drive back each Union attack**. One of the most famous of the land attacks was the **Second Battle of Fort Wagner**. The **Federals suffered a serious defeat** in this battle, losing 1,500 men while the Confederates lost only 175.

Georgia

Fort Pulaski on the Georgia coast was an early target for the Union navy. Following the capture of Port Royal, an expedition was organized forcing a Confederate surrender. The **Union army occupied the fort** for the rest of the war.

Louisiana

In April 1862, a Union naval task force attacked Forts **Jackson** and **St. Philip**, which guarded the river approach to New Orleans from the south. The Confederates attempted to defend, but surrendered. These **two surrenders gave the Union control over the entire Mississippi**.

Conquest of Virginia

At the beginning of 1864, Lincoln made **Grant commander of all Union armies**. Grant understood the concept of total war and believed that only the utter defeat of Confederate forces and their economic base would end the war. **Grant devised a coordinated strategy** that would strike at the entire Confederacy from multiple directions. One last Confederate attempt to break the Union hold failed at the decisive **Battle of Five Forks** (sometimes called "the **Waterloo of the Confederacy**") on April 1. This meant that the Union now controlled the entire perimeter surrounding Richmond-Petersburg, completely cutting it off from the Confederacy. Realizing that the capital was now lost, the Confederate commander decided to evacuate his army. The **Confederate capital fell to the Union Corps**, composed of black troops. The remaining Confederate units fled west.

2.2.2. Outcome of the Civil War

Confederate forces across the South surrendered as news of their commander's surrender reached them. On April 26, 1865, General Joseph E. Johnston's nearly 90,000 men of the Confederate Army surrendered in North Carolina. It proved to be the largest surrender of Confederate forces, effectively bringing the war to an end. **President Johnson officially declared a virtual end to the insurrection on May 9, 1865; President Jefferson Davis was captured on the following day**. On June 23, **Cherokee** became the last Confederate general to surrender his forces.

The **North** and **West grew rich** while the once-rich **South became poor** for a century. The national political power of the slave-owners and rich southerners ended. Many scholars argue that the Union held

an insurmountable long-term advantage over the Confederacy in **industrial strength and population**. Confederate actions, they argue, only delayed defeat.

The Emancipation Proclamation was an effective use of **Lincoln's war powers**. **His naval blockade was 95 percent effective at stopping trade goods**; as a result, imports and exports to the South declined significantly. The abundance of European cotton and Britain's hostility to the institution of slavery, along with Lincoln's Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico naval blockades, severely decreased any chance that either Britain or France would enter the war.

The **Union victory had a major impact on the course of world history**. It **energized popular democratic forces**. A Confederate victory, on the other hand, would have meant a new birth of slavery, not freedom. The North's victory decisively **proved the durability of democratic government**. Confederate independence, on the other hand, would have established an American model for reactionary politics and race-based repression that would likely have cast an international shadow into the twentieth century and perhaps beyond."

Scholars have debated what the effects of the war were on political and economic power in the South.

A) Economic Effects

The Southern economy nearly collapsed during the war. There were multiple reasons for this:

- the severe deterioration of food supplies, especially in cities,
- the failure of Southern railroads,
- the loss of control of the main rivers, foraging by Northern armies, and
- the seizure of animals and crops by Confederate armies.

Practically, the **entire Confederate cotton crop was useless** (although it was sold to Union traders). **Critical imports were scarce** and the **coastal trade was largely ended** as well. The measure of the blockade's success was not the few ships that slipped through, but the thousands that never tried it. **Merchant ships owned in Europe could not get insurance** and were too slow to evade the blockade, so they stopped calling at Confederate ports.

To fight an offensive war, the **Confederacy purchased ships from Britain, converted them to warships**, and raided American merchant ships in the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Insurance rates skyrocketed and the American flag virtually disappeared from international waters. After the war, the U.S. demanded that Britain pay for the damage done, and Britain paid the U.S. \$15 million in 1871.

The war resulted in at least **1,030,000 casualties** (3 percent of the population), including about **620,000 soldier deaths**—two-thirds by disease, and **50,000 civilians**. The war accounted for more American deaths than in all other U.S. wars combined. Based on 1860 census figures, 8 percent of all white men aged 13 to 43 died in the war, including 6 percent in the North and 18 percent in the South. About **56,000 soldiers died in prison camps** during the War. An estimated **60,000 men lost limbs** in the war.

Union army dead, amounting to 15 percent of the over two million who served, was broken down as follows: 110,070 killed in action (67,000) or died of wounds (43,000).

199,790 died of disease (75 percent was due to the war, the remainder would have occurred in civilian life anyway) 24,866 died in Confederate prison camps 9,058 killed by accidents or drowning 15,741 other/unknown deaths 359,528 total dead. In addition, there were 4,523 deaths in the Navy (2,112 in battle) and 460 in the Marines (148 in battle).

Black troops made up 10 percent of the Union death toll, they amounted to 15 percent of disease deaths but less than 3 percent of those killed in battle. Losses among African Americans were high, in the last year and a half and from all reported casualties, approximately 20 percent of all African Americans enrolled in the military lost their lives during the Civil War.

According to the revised official data, that of the slightly over **two millions troops in the United States** Volunteers, over 316,000 died (from all causes), or 15.2 percent. Of the 67,000 Regular Army (white) troops, 8.6 percent, or not quite 6,000, died. Of the approximately 180,000 United States Colored Troops, however, over 36,000 died, or 20.5 percent. In other words, the mortality "rate" amongst the **United States colored troops in the Civil War was thirty-five percent greater than that among other troops**, notwithstanding the fact that the former were not enrolled until some eighteen months after the fighting began. Generally, it is estimated that **620,000 to 750,000 soldiers died**, along with an undetermined number of civilians from 1861 to 1865. By one estimate, the war claimed the lives of **10 percent** of all Northern men 20–45 years old, and **30 percent** of all **Southern white men aged 18–40**.

The wealth amassed in slaves and slavery for the Confederacy's 3.5 million blacks effectively ended when Union armies arrived. They were nearly all freed by the Emancipation Proclamation. Lincoln issued his preliminary Emancipation Proclamation on September 22, 1862, and his final Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863. The Proclamation became a symbol of the Union's growing commitment to add emancipation to the Union's definition of liberty. By late 1864, Lincoln was playing a leading role in getting Congress to vote for the **Thirteenth Amendment**, which made emancipation universal and permanent. The **Emancipation Proclamation greatly reduced the Confederacy's hope of getting aid from Britain or France**.

The war destroyed much of the wealth that had existed in the South. All accumulated investment Confederate bonds was forfeit; most banks and railroads were bankrupt. Income per person in the South dropped to less than 40 percent of that of the North, a condition that lasted until well into the 20th century. **Southern influence in the U.S. federal government, previously considerable, was greatly diminished** until the latter half of the 20th century. The full restoration of the Union was the work of a highly contentious **postwar era known as Reconstruction**.

When we conclude the outcomes of the Civil War:-

- Much of the South's infrastructure was destroyed, especially the transportation systems.
- The Confederacy was collapsed and during the Reconstruction Era that followed the war, national unity was slowly restored,
- Four million black slaves were freed and slavery was abolished,
- civil rights were guaranteed to freed black slaves through amendments to the Constitution and federal legislation, and
- The national government expanded its power.

. B) Technological significance

There were numerous technological innovations during the Civil War that had a great impact on 19th century science. The Civil War was one of the **earliest examples of** an " **industrial war** ", in which technological might is used to achieve military supremacy in a war. New inventions, such as the telegraph, steamships and iron-clad ships, and mass-produced weapons were employed extensively . The train and telegraph, delivered soldiers, supplies and messages at a time when horses were considered to be the fastest way to travel. It was also in this war when **countries first used aerial warfare**, in the form of reconnaissance balloons, to a significant effect. It saw **the first action involving steam-powered ironclad warships in naval warfare history**. **Repeating firearms** such as the Henry rifle, Spencer rifle, Colt revolving rifle, Triplett and Scott carbine and others, first **appeared during the Civil War**; they were a revolutionary invention that would soon replace muzzle-loading and single-shot firearms in warfare, as well as the first appearances of **rapid-firing weapons** and **machine guns** such as the Agar gun and the Gatling gun.

Unit 3: Neocolonialism in Latin America

Most of the countries of **South America, Central America, Mexico**, and the **West India Island**, called **Latin America** because they were **colonized by Spaniards, Portuguese and French**. The history of Latin America, beginning with the first voyage of Columbus, may be studied under four periods:

1. Discovery and exploration (1492-1550)
2. Colonization and exploitation (1550-1800)
3. Revolution and independence (1800-1825), and
4. Sovereignty and self-development (1825----)

3.1. The European Conquest

In October 1492, Christopher Columbus, a **Genoese sea captain** in service of Spain, landed on a small island, which is one of the groups now called the Bahamas. His discovery began the opening up of America by European. In 1492, America was inhabited by a brown -skinned people whom Columbus and his successors, because of mistaken belief that they found lands off or near the coasts of India, called Indians.

Spain, at the height of her European power in the early part of the 16th Century, quickly followed up Columbus' discovery. **Columbus himself went on three more voyages to America**, and other Spanish navigators followed him. Traders, soldiers, missionaries and civil servants soon followed the navigators. Spain had undertaken the conquest of a continent. But it was the central and southern parts of America to which the **Spaniards went, not the north**. This was for two reasons:

1. Spanish seaman went south wards to get into the **track of the trade winds** which would carry them a cross to the New World. Further, in Central and Southern America, in the West Indian Islands and in Mexico and, most important of all, in Peru, they **found wealth** which was theirs for the taking. The Indians civilizations, those of **Aztecs in Mexico** and of the **Incas in Peru**, offered untold loot, in **gold** and **silver** and **precious stones**. These **fastened a Spanish Empire on Central and most of South America**.
2. By contrast, there was little to tempt the Spaniards north wards .There were, too, formidable **geographical obstacles** to any advance in that direction. North Mexico in **mountainous**, between southern Mexico and California lies a belt of land whose **rainfall is very small** and some of which is **desert**. This made overland advance difficult.

Spanish colonization was mainly the work of those tireless and courageous pioneers, the **Jesuit missionaries**. A number of **Spanish landowners** also established themselves in California. The whole process of Spanish colonization was extremely slow, partly because the **decline of Spanish power** in Europe at the end of the 16th Century.

The Portuguese built their empire in Brazil, which fell in their sphere of influence owing to the Treaty of Tordesillas, by developing the land for **sugar production** since there was a lack of a large, complex society or mineral resources.

During the European colonization, most of the native population died, mainly by disease such as **smallpox** and **measles** decimated populations with no immunity. The conquerors and colonists of Latin America also had a major impact on the population of Latin America. The **Spanish conquistadors committed savage acts of violence against the natives**. Because the Spanish were now in power, native culture and religion were forbidden. The Spanish even went as far as burning the **Maya Codices** (like books). These codices contained information about **astrology, religion, Gods, and rituals**. The Spanish also melted down countless pieces of golden artwork so they could bring the gold back to Spain and destroyed countless pieces of art that they viewed as unchristian.

3.2 The Period of Revolution and the Winning of Independence

The **causes of the revolutions were both internal and external**, i.e. some developed mainly in Latin America itself, while others were communicated from outside - Europe and North America. In Latin America, colonies were mostly of Spain and Portugal, **taxation was burdensome**, and most of the land was held by a few rich landlords who enjoyed special political and social privileges.

Spaniards born in Spain , and Portuguese born in Portugal , enjoyed many privileges and favors in Latin America that were not enjoyed by **Creoles** ,i.e. Spaniards, Portuguese, or French who were born in Latin America and of course , the Indians and mixed races had various reasons for complaint . Many of them had been enslaved and robbed and other wise oppressed for generations. Accordingly, the Careoles, the Indians and the mixed races in Latin America were dissatisfied and ready for revolt. But external influences and conditions also played a very effective part in bringing on the revolutions. These **external influences came chiefly from the USA, France, Spain and Portugal**.

External Causes of the Latin American Revolutions: It was the policy of European countries, of Spain especially, **to work their colonies for the profit of the mother country**. This along trade restrictions and the other things already mentioned, made the colonists, particularly the **Creoles**, the **Indians**, and the **mixed races**, ready to strike for freedom. Then in 1776 , and the years following:

- Came the **example of the thirteen English colonies** in the North-their stirring Declaration of Independence, their heroic fight, and their successful rise as independent states.
- The **Intellectual Revolution**, crystallized in the writings of Locke, Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau, and Adam Smith had a telling influence in Latin America.

- The **French Revolution** from 1789 to 1800 afforded stirring example. Between 1801 and 1803 the Negroes of Haiti , a large island in Latin America , fighting for freedom , won against the soldiers of Napoleon

Unwittingly, **Napoleon** did much to prepare conditions in Europe that led to revolution in Latin America. In 1807, he **invaded Portugal**. To escape him, the **royal family** of Portugal took ship and **went to Brazil**, their great colony in South America. This was the first step in a series of events that led to Brazilian independence in 1822. The same year and the next, 1807 and 1808, **Napoleon invaded Spain**, deposed king Ferdinand VII, and made his own brother, **Joseph Bonaparte**, king of Spain. Soon after, when Joseph was proclaimed king in the capital cities of South America, the **people there refused to accept him**; instead they shouted allegiance to Ferdinand. They began to fight Napoleon's usurper. In a short time their fight developed into a struggle for independence.

Political Pioneers

In Latin America, as well as in British America and other countries, revolution was due in considerable measure to individual agitators. One of the most conspicuous and influential of the early leaders of the revolution in South America was **Francisco de Miranda**, born of Spanish parents in Venezuela in 1750. Before the fight for independence began in Latin America, he took part in the American Revolution and the French Revolution.

Although he was a captain in the Spanish army in Venezuela, he resigned in order to serve under **Lafayette in the American Revolution**. He then began to lay plans for the independence of Venezuela. In various countries of Europe he was cordially received. The French Revolution enlisted his ardent sympathies -he **joined the army of the Republic** and rose to the rank of major-general.

In 1807, **Miranda organized a conspiracy**, but failed. In 1810, he organized a successful expedition and in 1811 the **independence of Venezuela was proclaimed**. This was the **first formal declaration of independence** that was made by any of the Spanish-American colonies.

The exemplary work of Miranda was taken up by the young **Simon Bolivar** (1783-1830), a wealthy **Creole family**, was also **born in Venezuela**. He studied law in Spain and traveled extensively on the continent of Europe. In Paris, he witnessed the last scenes of the French Revolution. In 1809, returning from another visit to Europe, he traveled through the United States, where he became an ardent admirer of the growing young republic and resolved to join the movement for independence in Venezuela. During the next fifteen years, as a soldier and states man, he **led the revolt in Venezuela and neighboring countries** to a long delayed but successful conclusion. During the next four or five years, Bolivar **aided the revolutionists in Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia**. He is often called the **"Washington of South America"**.

Among the able generals who fought with Bolivar in the wars of liberation was a young Indian, **Antonio Paez**. Born in 1790, he was only twenty when the revolutions got well started. He was the first president of Venezuela after independence.

While Bolivar, Paez, and others were leading the revolution in the northern part of South America, **insurrection against Bonaparte, and later against Spain, were taking place in Argentina** and other southern countries of the continent. Among the leaders of the revolution in the south, Jose de San **Martin** was probably the ablest. San Martin (1778-1850) was born in Argentina, but as a child was sent to Spain for education. Later in Spain he served with distinction as a soldier against Napoleon. In 1811, he gave up his commission as lieutenant colonel in the Spanish army and returned to Argentina. In January 1813, he **defeated the Spanish army** and in the following year he was placed in command of the insurgent army in Peru. Argentina, Chile, and Peru owed their independence chiefly to him. In 1810, revolution began in Mexico and Central America by the native priests called **Hidalgo** and **Morelos**. They soon paid for their patriotism with their lives, but the fight for liberty was carried on by others from year to year; and by 1821 independence was won.

By 1825 nearly all the colonies of Spain, Portugal, and France in South America, Central America, Mexico, and the West Indies had **established their independence**. The most **notable exceptions** were **Cuba** and **Porto Rico**, which continued to be colonies of Spain.

3.3. Neocolonialism after Independence: Roots of Latin America

Underdevelopment and the Colonial Economic System

Following the model of the American and French revolutions, most of Latin America achieved its independence by 1825. **Independence destroyed the old common market** that existed under the **Spanish Empire** after the Bourbon Reforms and created an increased dependence on the financial investment provided by nations which had already begun to industrialize. Therefore, Western European powers, in particular **Great Britain** and **France**, and the **USA began to play major roles**, since the region became economically dependent on these nations. **Independence also created a new, self-consciously "Latin American" ruling class and intelligentsia** which at times avoided Spanish and Portuguese models in their quest to reshape their societies. These elite looked towards other **Catholic European models**—in particular France—for a new **Latin American culture**, but did not seek input from indigenous peoples.

The **new nations inherited the cultural diversity of the colonial era** and strived to create a new identity based around the shared European (Spanish or Portuguese) **language and culture**. Within each country, however, there were **cultural** and **class divisions** that created tension and hurt national unity. For the next few decades there was a long process to create a sense of nationality. Most of the new national borders were created around the often centuries, which had become areas of political identity. In many areas the

borders were unstable, since the new states fought wars with each other to gain access to resources, especially in the second half of the nineteenth century. The more important conflicts were the **Paraguayan War (1864–70)** ; also known as the **War of the Triple Alliance** and the **War of the Pacific (1879–84)** .

The **Paraguayan War** pitted **Argentina, Brazil** and **Uruguay** against **Paraguay**, which was utterly defeated. In the War of the Pacific, **Chile defeated** the **combined forces of Bolivia** and **Peru**. Chile gained control of saltpeter-rich areas, previously controlled by Peru and Bolivia, and Bolivia became a land-locked nation. In **Mexican–American War (1846–48)** , **Mexico lost over half of its territory** to the United States. In the 1860s , France attempted to indirectly control Mexico. In South America, Brazil consolidated its control of large swaths of the Amazon Basin at the expense of its neighbors. In the 1880s **USA** implemented an **aggressive policy** to **defend** and **expand its political** and **economic interests in all of Latin America**, which culminated in the **creation** of the **Pan-American Conference**, the successful completion of the **Panama Canal** and the United States **intervention in** the final **Cuban war** of independence.

The **export of natural resources** provided the basis of most Latin American economies in the nineteenth century, which allowed for the development of wealthy elite. **The restructuring of colonial economic** and **political realities resulted in a sizable gap between rich and poor**, with landed elites controlling the vast majority of land and resources. In Brazil, for instance, by 1910 85% of the land belonged to **1%** of the population. **Gold mining** and fruit growing, in particular, were monopolized by these wealthy landowners. These "Great Owners" completely controlled local activity and, furthermore, were the principal employers and the main source of wages. This led to a society of peasants whose connection to larger political realities remained in thrall to farming and mining magnates.

The endemic political instability and the nature of the economy resulted in the emergence of **caudillos, military chiefs** whose hold on power depended on their military skill and ability to dispense patronage. The political regimes were at least in theory democratic and took the form of either presidential or parliamentary governments. Both were prone to being taken over by a caudillo or an oligarchy. The political landscape was occupied by conservatives, who believed that the preservation of the old social hierarchies served as the best guarantee of national stability and prosperity, and liberals, who sought to bring about progress by freeing up the economy and individual initiative. Popular insurrections were often influential and repressed. **Thousands were killed during the suppression of a Colombian revolt** between 1899 and 1902 **during the Thousand Days' War**. Some states did manage to have some of democracy. Others were clearly oligarchist or authoritarian. All of these regimes sought to maintain Latin America's lucrative position in the world economy as a provider of raw materials.

Review Questions

1. Briefly outline the history of Latin America
2. List the causes of the Latin American Revolutions
3. Write the name of leaders of the Latin American revolutions
4. What is Latin America? Why so called ?
5. Were the causes of the Latin American revolutions mainly similar to or different from those of the American Revolution? In what were they similar? In what different?
6. How did Napoleon Bonaparte help to bring on the Latin-American revolutions?
7. In what armies Miranda serve? In how many revolutions did he take part?
8. What can you tell about Bolivar?
9. Who was the chief revolutionary leader in the Southern countries of Latin America?
10. What was Monroe Doctrine? When proclaimed? Why?
11. What was the significance of the Monroe Doctrine?
12. In which Latin American country is the Portuguese language spoken?

Unit Four-United States of America

4.1. Forging US Nation 1815-1877

The years between 1815 and 1900 were period of the most momentous and dynamic in American history. They set in motion developments that would shape the country for generations—the reunification of the South and North, the integration of four million newly freed African Americans, westward expansion, immigration, industrialization, and urbanization. It was also a period of reform, in which many Americans sought to regulate corporations and shape the changes taking place all around them.

4.2. Toward a Democracy , 1815-1850

Before the Revolution most of Britain's North American colonies limited the privilege of voting to those who owned a specified amount of property or paid a certain amount of taxes. After the Revolution most of the new state constitutions expanded suffrage by reducing property qualifications. In some states anyone could vote, including women, free African Americans, and Native Americans, as long as they met the property qualifications. Another wave of suffrage expansion occurred in the early nineteenth century. Western states entered the Union with constitutions that had no property or tax requirements at all, allowing universal white adult male suffrage in part as a means of attracting settlers. This trend spread east, where Connecticut abolished property requirements for voting by 1818. Massachusetts followed in 1821 and New York in 1826. The expansion of the electorate altered American politics, as more people were allowed to vote and more of those who held the franchise used it. The percentage of eligible voters participating in presidential elections nearly tripled from 1824 to 1840, when a record 80 percent of those eligible went to the polls. However, even as states were allowing nearly all white males to vote, they also began to disenfranchise other groups of citizens. In 1838, for example, Pennsylvania amended its constitution so that African Americans could no longer vote; other states later did the same. Democracy was further limited by some American constitutional forms that isolated elected officials from voters. State legislatures, not voters, chose United States senators and would continue to do so until the early twentieth century. Some state legislatures, notably South Carolina's, also continued to select presidential electors, and while in other states voters continued to cast ballots for electors rather than for presidential candidates.

4.3. Reconstruction, 1865-1877

On April 14, 1865, President Lincoln was shot, while watching a play, by John Wilkes Booth, a Southern sympathizer. He died early the next morning, and Andrew Johnson became the president. The new president had to go through the process of reconstruction, which was putting the United States back together after the Civil War. During this time, the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments to the Constitution were passed, freeing slaves, making them citizens and allowing them to vote. Congress was run by

"Radical Republicans", who wanted to punish the South after the Civil War. The South did not like this, so they made "**Jim Crow**" laws that **placed blacks in lower roles**.

Reconstruction, in United States history, refers both to the **period after the Civil War** when the states of the **breakaway Confederate States of America were reintegrated** into the USA , and to the process by which this was accomplished. **Most scholars have accepted 1865-1877 as the boundaries for Reconstruction.**

Reconstruction was the effort of rebuilding the South based on free labor instead of slave labor. The issue to Northern politicians was how it would be done .It is possible to say that **Reconstruction began during the war, with the Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863**. It comprised multiple complex methods to resolve the outstanding issues of the war's aftermath, the most important of which were the **three "Reconstruction Amendments"** to the Constitution, which remain in effect to the present time: the **13th (1865)** , the **14th (1868)** and the **15th (1870)** . At the end of the Civil War, Congress proposed the **Thirteenth Amendment**, which sought to prohibit slavery. A state was not to gain re-admittance into the Union until it ratified the Amendment, but some states such as Mississippi were admitted despite failing to ratify. The **Amendment became a part of the Constitution** in December 6, 1865. From the Union perspective, the goals of Reconstruction were to consolidate the Union victory on the battlefield by **reuniting the Union**; to guarantee a "republican form of government for the ex-Confederate states; and to **permanently end slavery—and prevent semi-slavery status.**

Congress passed the **first Reconstruction Act** on March 2 , 1867. The **South was now divided into five military districts**, each under a major general. New elections were to be held in each state with freed male slaves being allowed to vote. The act also included an amendment that offered readmission to the Southern states after they had ratified the **Fourteenth Amendment** and **guaranteed adult male suffrage**. President Andrew Johnson immediately vetoed the bill but Congress re-passed the bill the same day. Senator **Charles Sumner of Massachusetts, a Radical Republican**, held that **Congress should abolish slavery** along with the Confederacy, **extend civil and political rights to blacks, and educate black and white students together**. They came to the fore after the 1866 elections and undid much of Johnson's work.

The era itself was controversial and pitted various segments of American society against one another. **Radical Republicans** demanded proof that Confederate nationalism was dead and that the slaves were truly free. **In 1872 the "Liberal Republicans" argued that the war goals had been achieved and that Reconstruction should end.** In 1874, Democrats, primarily Southern, took control of Congress and opposed any more reconstruction. **Conservative elements** of this time period (in particular the Democrats) believed that the old order that governed relations between the states and between blacks and whites should remain intact. **The Compromise of 1877 closed with a**

national consensus that the Civil War had finally ended. With the withdrawal of federal troops, however, whites retook control of every Southern legislature; the **Jim Crow** period of disenfranchisement and legal segregation was about to begin.

Unit Five: New Horizons 1860-1890

5.1. The rise of industry, 1860-1900

From the era of Reconstruction to the end of the 19th century, the United States underwent an economic transformation marked by the **maturing of the industrial economy**, the **rapid expansion of big business**, the **development of large-scale agriculture**, and the **rise of national labor unions** and industrial conflict.

Before the Civil War the USA was found at the age of the first Industrial Revolution which embraces textiles, railroads construction, iron and Coal production. By 1890s U.S. became the world's most powerful industrial economy mainly in the expansion and development of trans-continental railroads, steel production, oil processing, electricity, and banking system. Using huge tracts of iron ore for steel industry enhanced the nation's economic development. The railroads powered the industrial economy. They consumed the majority of iron and steel produced in the country before 1890. As late as 1882, steel rails accounted for 90 percent of the steel production in the United States. They were the nation's largest consumer of lumber and a major consumer of coal. They also distributed these commodities across the country.

The expansion and development of railroads spurred the industrialization of the post-Civil War years (especially steel); sprawling nation to become united physically; created huge domestic market for US raw materials and manufactured goods—probably the largest integrated market in the world; stimulated creation of three Western frontiers: mining, agriculture, and ranching. Electricity became a cornerstone of the industrial progress. This period in the US history is generally called the **Second Industrial Revolution**. During the period under discussion, there were technological innovations that had contribution for further industrial growth, such as:

- Samuel B. Morse- telegraph (1844),
- Transatlantic cable (1866),
- Typewriter (1867),
- Alexander Graham Bell- telephone (1876),
- Cash register (1879)
- Calculator (1887),
- Adding machine (1888),
- Kodak camera (1888),
- Fountain pen (1884),
- Safety razor and blade (1895),

- transformer for producing high voltage alternating current (1885) that lighting of cities and the operation of electric streetcars, subways, and electrically powered machinery and appliances,
- Thomas Edison's established the world's first modern research laboratory in (1876), and
- Working on teams rather than alone

Indispensable factors that contributed for the emergence of America's huge industrial growth were the followings:

1. The country was a treasure-house of **raw materials** essential to industrialization. In the 1850s, 52% of all power came from animals while only 35% came from water and coal. By the 1900s, the use of water and coal more than doubled to 73% of all power resources. During the second half of the 19th c, the US shocked the world by transferring into a dynamite industrial nation. Power sources played a major role in industry at this time.
 2. An **abundant labor supply** that was, between 1865 and 1900, supplemented yearly by the arrival of hundreds of thousands of immigrants;
 3. A growing population and an **advanced transportation system network** made the US the **largest market** in the world for industrial goods.
 4. **Capital (money to be invested) was plentiful**; lots of investment by wealthy Americans and Europeans.
 5. Businesses benefited from **friendly government policies** that protected private property, subsidized railroads with land grants and loans, supported US manufacturers with protective tariffs, almost no regulation and limited taxes on corporations.
 6. **Talented entrepreneurs** were able to build and manage vast industrial and commercial enterprises.
 7. Stimulated the **growth of other industries**, esp. coal and steel;
 8. The nation's first big business;
 9. Railroad mileage increased fivefold in 35 years: from 35,000 miles in 1865 to 193,000 miles in 1900. Communication devices and railroad also increased commerce. Big businesses were on the rise and Americans, soon left their farms for factories; As more and more people moved to the west in search of better lives, the need for communication grew.
 10. RRs created a national market for goods, and thereby encouraged mass production and mass consumption.
 11. Stimulated the growth of other industries, esp. coal and steel;
- By 1900, the U.S. was the leading industrial power in the world.

As a result of this revolution, many significant changes had been occurred:

- Standard of living rose sharply and remained highest in the world;
- Urban centers mushroomed as factories increasingly demanded more labor;

- American agriculture eclipsed by industrialism;
- Free-enterprise eclipsed by monopoly. Industrialization raised the standard of living but also created:
- sharper economic and class divisions.
- The Concentration of Wealth • By 1900 the richest 10% controlled 90% of the nation's wealth
- The work-place became regimented and impersonal
- Women achieved social and economic independence in new careers as typing, stenography, and switchboard operating
- Marriages delayed, smaller families resulted
- Social stratification most pronounced in U.S. history
- Foreign trade developed as high U.S. productivity resulted in overproduction.
- Natural resources fed industrial growth.

By 1900 the U.S. was the most powerful economy in the world: exceeded the combined output of **Germany** and **Great Britain**; and she **had one half the world's manufacturing capacity**. By 1900, U.S. producing as much steel as Britain and Germany combined. B. **Bessemer process** had turned iron into steel. Steel could now be readily produced for locomotives, steel rails, and the heavy girders used in building construction. Before World War First , America was heavy borrower from Europe; but after the War , she emerged as largest creditor.It is an amazing fact that in 1880, about 50% of Americans field of occupation was agriculture; while only25% by 1920 and about 2% today.

- **What were the historical Significance of America's railroad network?**
- **Describe the impact of the Second Industrial Revolution on America ?**

5.2. An urban society, 1860-1900

The urbanization of the United States has progressed throughout its entire history. Over the last two centuries, she has been transformed from a predominantly rural, agricultural nation into an urbanized, industrial one. This was largely due to the Second Industrial Revolution in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. In 1790, only about **one out of every twenty Americans** lived in urban areas , but this ratio had dramatically changed to **one out of four by 1870**, one out of two by 1920, two out of three in the 1960s, and four out of five in the 2000s.

Urbanization was fastest in the Northeastern United States, which acquired an urban majority by 1880. Some Northeastern U.S. states had already acquired an urban majority before , thenincluding Massachusetts and Rhode Island (majority-urban by 1850), and New York (majority-urban since about 1870). The Midwestern and Western United States became urban

majority in the 1910s, while the Southern United States only became urban-majority after World War II, in the 1950s.

Previously, cities had served as commercial centers for rural hinterlands and were frequently located on rivers, lakes, or oceans. Manufacturing occurred outside their limits—usually near power sources, such as streams, or natural resources, such as coal. As industry grew, cities changed. In the late 19th century, industry invaded the cities.

Population changes also transformed the city. Urban growth reflected the geographic mobility of the industrial age; people moved from city to city as well as within them. The new transience led to diverse populations. Migrants from rural areas and newcomers from abroad mingled with wealthy long-time residents and the middle class. Immigrants constituted the fastest growing populations in big cities, where industry offered work.

Between 1877 and 1900 there was a net immigration of approximately 7,348,000 people into the United States. During roughly the same period, the population of the country increased by about 27 million people, from about 49 million in 1880 to 76 million in 1900. Before 1880 the immigrants came largely from Western Europe and China. Millions of "immigrants" came from Southern and Eastern Europe, mostly to work in factories. Taking the period between 1860 and 1900 as a whole, Germans comprised 28 percent of American immigrants; the British comprised 18 percent, the Irish 15 percent, and Scandinavians 11 percent. Together they made up 72 percent of the total immigration.

As immigration exploded, the urban population surged from 6 million in 1860 to 42 million in 1910. Big cities got bigger: Chicago tripled in size in the 1880s and 1890s. By 1900 three cities contained more than a million people: New York (3.5 million), Chicago (1.7 million), and Philadelphia (1.3 million).

Just as industrialization and immigration transformed the city, new technology reshaped it.

Late 19th century cities were cauldrons of change. In commerce, they became centers of merchandising with large department stores, which developed in the 1860s and 1870s. As city populations grew, the need for safe water, sanitation, fire control, and crime control also grew. These needs led to **new urban services**—water reservoirs, sewer systems, fire and police departments. **Reformers attempted to enhance urban environments** with parks and to improve poor neighborhoods with urban missions. Urban religious leaders of the 1880s promoted the **Social Gospel**, under which churches concerned themselves with social problems such as poverty, vice, and injustice. Thus, America was transformed from an agrarian nation to an urban nation between 1865 and 1920.

5.3. The Gilded Age, 1865-1900

The **Gilded Age** in United States history is the late 19th century, from 1865 to about 1900. The term for this period came into use in the 1920s and 1930s. The early half of the Gilded Age roughly coincided

with the middle portion of the Victorian era in Britain and the Belle Époque in France. Its beginning in the years after the American Civil War overlaps the Reconstruction Era (which ended in 1877). It was followed in the 1890s by the Progressive Era.

The **Gilded Age was an era of rapid economic growth**, especially in the North and West. As American wages were much higher than those in Europe, especially for skilled workers, **the period saw an influx of millions of European immigrants**. The rapid expansion of industrialization led to **real wage growth** of 60% between 1860 and 1890, spread across the ever-increasing labor force. The average annual wage per industrial worker (including men, women, and children) rose from \$380 in 1880 to \$564 in 1890, a gain of 48%. However, the **Gilded Age was also an era of abject poverty and inequality** as millions of immigrants—many from impoverished regions—poured into the United States, and the **high concentration of wealth** became more visible and contentious .

Railroads were the major growth industry, with the factory system, mining, and finance increasing in importance. Immigration from Europe and the eastern states led to the rapid growth of the West, based on farming, ranching, and mining. The **Transcontinental Railroad, finished in 1869**, helped get people and goods from the west to the rest of the country. Chicago became the center of trade between West and East because many rail lines met there.

The whole economy seemed to revolve around the railroads. At the end of the 1870s the railroads renewed their expansion. With a brief break in the 1880s, expansion continued at a reckless pace until 1890. **By 1900 roughly one-sixth of all capital investments were in the railroads. The railroads powered the industrial economy. They consumed the majority of iron and steel produced before 1890.** They were the nation's largest consumer of lumber and a major consumer of coal. They also distributed these commodities across the country.

Many Americans thought the railroads charged farmers so much money that it made them poor. Workers led several strikes against the railroad that were put down by the army. Also, farmers started groups to fight the railroad, such as the Grange. These groups became the Populist Movement, which almost won the presidency under William Jennings Bryan. The Populists wanted reforms such as an income tax and direct election of Senators. The Populist Party died out after 1896. Many of the things the Populists wanted would happen during the Progressive Era.

During this time, many people moved to the United States from other countries, such as Ireland, Italy, Germany, Eastern Europe, and China. Many of them worked in large factories and lived in big cities, such as New York City, Chicago, and Boston, often in small, poor, close-together apartments called "tenements" or "slums". They often were used by "political machines", who gave them jobs and money in exchange for votes.

After the Civil War, people continued to move west where new states were formed. People now could get free land in the West due to an 1862 law called the **Homestead Act**. Most of the land in the West was owned by the government, railroads, or large farmers. There were problems between the white settlers and the native Indians as more people began to move west. Because of this, many more Indians were killed at battles. Almost all the Indians' land was taken away by laws like the Dawes Act.

5.4. Politics and protest, 1865-1900

The political landscape was notable in that despite some corruption, turnout was very high and national elections saw two evenly matched parties. The dominant issues were **cultural** (especially regarding prohibition, education, and ethnic or racial groups) and **economic** (tariffs and money supply). With the **rapid growth of cities**, political machines increasingly took control of urban politics. In business, powerful nationwide trusts formed in some industries. **Unions crusaded for the 8-hour working day** and the **abolition of child labor**; middle class reformers demanded **civil service reform**, **prohibition of liquor and beer**, and **women's suffrage**.

Local governments across the North and West **built public schools** chiefly at the elementary level; **public high schools started to emerge**. The numerous religious denominations were growing in membership and wealth, with Catholicism becoming the largest denomination. They all expanded their missionary activity to the world arena. Catholics, Lutherans and Episcopalians set up religious schools and the larger denominations set up numerous colleges, hospitals, and charities. Many of the problems faced by society, especially the poor, during the Gilded Age gave rise to attempted reforms in the subsequent Progressive Era.

Labor unions became important in the very rapidly growing industrial cities. Two major nationwide depressions—the **Panic of 1873** and the **Panic of 1893**—interrupted growth and caused social and political upheavals. The South after the Civil War remained **economically devastated**; its economy became increasingly tied to commodities, cotton and tobacco production, which suffered from low prices. With the end of the Reconstruction era in 1877, African-American people in the South were stripped of political power and voting rights and were left economically disadvantaged.

Unit Six: Entering a New Century (1867-1920)

6.1. US Imperialism, 1867-1908

Imperialism was the belief that the **U.S. should build a stronger navy and conquer land**. In the late nineteenth and early 20th centuries, the U.S. started being more active in foreign affairs. In 1898, the United States fought a war with Spain called the **Spanish-American War**. She won, and gained **Puerto Rico**, **Guam**, **Guantanamo** and the **Philippines**. Combined with the purchase of **Alaska** and the **taking-**

over of Hawaii, the United States had gained all the territory it has today, plus some it would later lose after World War II. Around this time, **trade with China was opened**. This was because she and European powers had beaten **China in the Opium Wars** and the **Boxer Rebellion**. These powers were able to trade with China through the **Open Door Policy**.

In 1901, **Theodore Roosevelt became President**. He had been a **soldier in the Spanish-American War**. He called for a foreign policy known as the “**Big Stick**”. Between 1901 and 1930, the United States **sent soldiers into Latin America** several times. When Roosevelt was president, **work was begun on the Panama Canal**, a link between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans that made travel around the world much faster.

During this time, people started to notice the poor condition of American cities. A group of people called the “muckrakers” wrote books and newspaper articles about subjects like the power of big business, unclean practices in factories, and the condition of poor people. Roosevelt and Congress answered their concerns with laws such as the **Pure Food and Drug Act**. The Act controlled the way food was made to make sure it was safe. Another response to the muckrakers was something called “**trust-busting**”, where big businesses were broken up into smaller ones.

In 1912, Woodrow Wilson became President. He was a Progressive, but not quite the same as Roosevelt. He fought the “triple wall of privilege”, which were big business, taxes, and fees on goods coming into the United States. During this time, the **Sixteenth** and **Seventeenth Amendments** to the U.S. Constitution were passed. They **allowed for a federal income tax** and **direct election of U.S. Senators**.

6.2. The progressive Era (1893-1920)

Progressivism is the term applied to a variety of **responses to the economic and social problems** of rapid industrialization introduced to America. In the United States, **progressivism** is the belief that the government should have a **larger role in the economy to provide good living standards for people**, especially workers. The spirit of reform gained strength in the late 1800s and thrived during the early 1900s. The reformers, called progressives, were confident in their ability to improve government and the quality of life.

Progressivism **began as a social movement** and **grew into a political movement**. The early progressives rejected Social Darwinism. In other words, they were people who believed that the problems society faced (poverty, violence, greed, racism, class warfare) could best be addressed by providing **good education**, a **safe environment**, and an **efficient workplace**. Progressives lived mainly in the cities, were college educated, and believed that government could be a tool for change. Social reformers, like **Jane Addams**, and journalists, like **Jacob Riis** and **Ida Tarbel**, were powerful voices for progressivism.

On a national level, **progressivism gained a strong voice in the White House** when Theodore Roosevelt became president in 1901. TR believed that strong corporations were good for America, but he also

believed that corporate behavior must be watched to ensure that corporate greed did not get out of hand (trust-busting and federal regulation of business). **Progressivism ended with World War I** when the horrors of war exposed people's cruelty and many Americans associated President Woodrow Wilson's use of progressive language ("the war to make the world safe for democracy") with the war.

6.1.1. Fighting Corruption

Many Americans called for reform in the late 1800s. The reformers had many different goals. **Progressive reformers focused on urban problems, government, and business.** They claimed that government and big business were taking advantage of the American people rather than serving them. Political machines—powerful organizations linked to political parties—controlled local government in many cities. In each ward, or political district within city, a machine representative controlled jobs and services. This representative was the political boss.

The bosses gained votes for their parties by doing favors for people, such as offering turkey dinners, providing jobs for immigrants, and helping needy families. A political boss was often a citizen's closest link to local government. Although they did help people, many bosses were dishonest.

These corrupt politicians found numerous ways to make money. They accepted bribes from tenement landlords in return for overlooking violations of city housing codes. They received campaign contributions from contractors hoping to do business with the city. They also accepted kickbacks. A **kickback is an arrangement in which contractors padded the amount of their bill for city work and paid, or "kicked back," a percentage of that amount to the bosses.** Some politicians used their knowledge of city business for personal profit. A person who knew where the city planned to build a road could buy land there before the route became public knowledge. Later the land could be sold for a huge profit.

To break the power of political bosses, **reformers founded organizations** such as the **National Municipal League** in Philadelphia. These groups worked to make city governments more honest and efficient. Cities troubled by poor management or corruption tried new forms of government. After a tidal wave the task of rebuilding cities overwhelmed the mayor and city council. Citizens were struggling for the formation of a new charter that placed the city government in the hands of **commissioners**. The new commission efficiently rebuilt the city. By 1917 commissions governed nearly 400 cities. Many other cities, mostly small ones, **hired professional city managers.**

6.1.2. Fighting the Spoils System

The spoils system rewarding political supporters with jobs and favors had been common practice since the time of Andrew Jackson. Whenever a new president came to power, jobseekers flooded the nation's

capital. The spoils system also called patronage existed at all levels of government and led to numerous abuses. Many who received government jobs were not qualified. Some were dishonest. Presidents Rutherford B. Hayes (1877–1881) and James Garfield wanted to change the spoils system. Hayes tried to do this by **reforming the civil service**—the body of nonelected government workers—but neither the Democratic nor the Republican Party supported his efforts. Garfield also hoped to reform the civil service. He believed that **people should be appointed to government jobs not as a reward for political support but because of their qualifications**. Garfield took office in 1881 but was **assassinated** by an unsuccessful office seeker before he could launch his reforms.

In 1883 Congress passed the **Pendleton Act**, which **established the Civil Service Commission** to set up **competitive examinations for federal jobs**. Applicants had to demonstrate their abilities in this examination. By 1900 the commission controlled the hiring of many federal employees

6.1.3. Controlling Business

During the late 1800s, many Americans came to believe that trusts, or combinations of companies, were becoming too large. They believed these trusts had too much control over the economy and the government. This public concern led to new laws regulating big business. In 1890 Congress passed the **Sherman Antitrust Act**, the **first federal law to control trusts and monopolies**. Supporters of the law hoped it would keep trusts from limiting competition. During the 1890s, however, the government rarely used the Sherman Act to curb business. Instead, it applied the act against labor unions, claiming that **union strikes interfered with trade**. Not until the early 1900s did the governments win cases against trusts by using the Sherman Act.

6.1.4. Reining in the Railroads

The railroads functioned as an oligopoly—a market structure in which a few large companies control the prices of the industry. Reformers called for regulations on railroad rates, but the Supreme Court ruled that only Congress could enact legislation to regulate commerce that crossed state lines. So in 1887 Congress passed the **Interstate Commerce Act**, which required railroads to charge “reasonable and just” rates and to publish those rates. The act also created the **Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC)** to supervise the railroad industry and, later, the trucking industry.

6.1.5. Lowering Tariffs

Reformers also wanted to lower tariffs. Many people believed that high tariffs led to higher prices for goods. In 1890 the Republicans raised tariffs sharply to protect American businesses from international competition. Voters showed their opposition to high tariffs by sending many Democrats to Congress. **Grover Cleveland**, who became president in 1893, also supported lower tariffs

6.1.6. Progressives in the Early 1900s

In the early 1900s, new ideas for correcting injustice and solving social problems emerged among American reformers. Socialism and progressivism were two such ideas. Socialists believed a nation's resources and major industries should be owned and operated by the government on behalf of all the people—not by individuals and private companies for their own profit.

During the same period, progressives brought new energy to the reform movement. Like the socialists, many progressives were alarmed by the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of a few. Progressives rejected the socialist idea of government ownership of industries. Instead, they supported government efforts to regulate industry. They also sought to reform government, to make it more efficient and better able to resist the influence of powerful business interests. Progressives also believed that society had an obligation to protect and help all its members. Many progressive reforms aimed to help those who lacked wealth and influence.

Journalists aided the reformers by exposing injustices and corruption. Investigative reporters wrote newspaper and magazine stories that brought problems to the attention of the public—and gained readers. These journalists were called **muckrakers** because they “raked” (brought to light) the “muck” (dirt and corruption) underlying society.

In the early 1900s, **progressives backed a number of reforms designed to increase the people's direct control of the government.** The initiative allowed citizens to place a measure or issue on the ballot in a state election. The referendum gave voters the opportunity to accept or reject measures that the state legislature enacted. The recall enabled voters to remove unsatisfactory elected officials from their jobs. These reforms were called the **Oregon System.**

Progressives also changed **the way United States senators are elected.** The Constitution had given state legislatures the responsibility for choosing senators, but party bosses and business interests often controlled the selection process. Progressives wanted to give the people an opportunity to **vote for their senators directly.** Support for this idea grew. In 1912 Congress passed the **Seventeenth Amendment** to the Constitution to provide for the direct election of senators. Ratified in 1913, the amendment gave the people a voice in selecting their representatives

6.1.7. Women and Progressives

Many leaders of the urban reform movement were middle class women. The **situation of middle-class women changed during the late 1800s.** Their responsibilities at home lessened as families became smaller, more children spent the day at school, and men worked away from home. Women also gained more free time as technology made housework easier. Many more middle-class women were gaining higher education. About **40 percent of all college students in 1910 were women.** Women were also

starting **professional careers**—mostly in teaching but also in nursing, medicine, and other fields. Between 1890 and 1910, the number of women working outside the home increased. These changes created the “new woman”—a popular term for educated, up-to-date women who pursued interests outside their homes. Many such women became role models.

Women also found clubs as an outlet for their talent and energy. At first the clubs focused on cultural activities. Many clubs gradually became more concerned with social problems. When some clubs refused to admit African Americans, African American women established their own network of clubs. In 1896, women from these clubs formed the **National Association of Colored Women**. Its first president, **Mary Church Terrell**, was an active leader for women’s rights. The association established homes for orphans, founded hospitals, and worked for woman suffrage, fulfilling its motto “Lifting as We Climb.”

After the Civil War, Congress passed the **Fifteenth Amendment**, giving **voting rights to freed men**—but **not to women**. Some leading abolitionists became suffragists, men and women who fought for woman suffrage, or women’s right to vote. Like other reformers, the suffragists formed organizations to promote their cause.

National Woman Suffrage Association, which **called for a constitutional amendment allowing women to vote in national elections**. A second organization, the **American Woman Suffrage Association**, focused on winning woman suffrage in state elections.

In 1890, the two groups merged to form the **National American Woman Suffrage Association**. The whole aim of the [women’s] movement has been to destroy the idea that obedience is necessary to women; to train women to such self-respect that they would not grant obedience and to train men to such comprehension of equity [fairness] they would not exact [demand] it.

The suffrage movement gained strength and suffragists continued their struggle to win the vote everywhere. By 1917 the national tide was turning in favor of woman suffrage. Meanwhile Congress began debating the issue, and President Wilson agreed to support an amendment to the Constitution. In 1919 the Senate voted in favor of the **Nineteenth Amendment**, which allowed woman suffrage. The amendment was ratified in 1920, in time for women to vote in that year’s presidential election. For the first time, American women were able to participate in the election of their national leaders.

While they struggled to gain rights for themselves, **many middle-class women also worked to improve the lives of working-class people, immigrants, and society as a whole**. They supported and staffed libraries, schools, and settlement houses and raised money for charities. Some women promoted other causes. They **challenged business interests by sponsoring laws to regulate the labor of women and children** and to require government inspection of workplaces. Women also played an important role in the movement to reform and **regulate the food and medicine industries**. In many states across the country,

women pressured state legislatures to provide **pensions for widows** and abandoned mothers with children. These pensions later became part of the Social Security system.

6.1.8. The Prohibition Amendment:—The anti-alcohol movement grew during the early 1900s. Progressive reformers who wanted to ban alcohol for social reasons were joined by Americans who opposed alcohol for religious or moral reasons. In 1917, they persuaded Congress to pass a constitutional **amendment**, the Eighteenth Amendment, **making it illegal to make, transport, or sell alcohol in the United States**.

6.3. White house reformers (1900-1914)

When **Theodore Roosevelt** received the Republican vice-presidential nomination in 1900, the powerful Republican leader Mark Hanna warned that there would be only one life between “that cowboy” and the White House. When the election resulted in a Republican victory, Hanna turned to McKinley and said, “Now it is up to you to live.” Less than a year later, **President McKinley was assassinated**. Suddenly, 42-year-old **Theodore Roosevelt** became president—the **youngest president in the nation’s history**. When Roosevelt moved into the White House in 1901, he brought progressivism with him.

President McKinley had **avored big business**, but President **Roosevelt was known to support business regulation and other progressive reforms**. In 1902 Roosevelt **ordered the Justice Department to take legal action against certain trusts** that had violated the **Sherman Antitrust Act**. His first target was the Northern Securities Company, a railroad monopoly formed by financiers J.P. Morgan and James J. Hill to control transportation in the Northwest. Northern Securities fought the government’s accusations of illegal activity all the way to the Supreme Court.

Finally, in 1904 the **Justice Department won its case**. The Supreme Court decided that Northern Securities had illegally limited trade and ordered the trust to be taken apart. During the rest of Roosevelt’s term as president; he obtained a total of 25 indictments (legal charges) against trusts in the beef, oil, and tobacco industries. As he saw it, trusts should be regulated, not destroyed. He distinguished between “**good trusts**,” which were concerned with public welfare, and “**bad trusts**,” which were not.

In 1902, **Roosevelt faced a major labor crisis**. More than 100,000 Pennsylvania coal miners, members of the United Mine Workers, went on strike. They demanded **better pay, an eight-hour workday**, and **recognition of the union’s right** to represent its members in discussions with mine owners.

The mine owners refused to negotiate with the workers. The coal strike dragged on for months. As winter approached, **coal supplies dwindled**. Public opinion began to turn against the owners. As public pressure mounted, Roosevelt invited representatives of the owners and miners to a **meeting at the White House**.

He threatened to send federal troops to work in the mines and produce the coal. The owners finally agreed to arbitration—settling the dispute by agreeing to accept the decision of an impartial outsider. **Mine workers won a pay increase** and a **reduction in hours**, but they did not gain recognition for the union. **Roosevelt's action marked a departure from normal patterns of labor relations** at the time. Earlier presidents had used troops against strikers, but **Roosevelt had used the power of the federal government to force the company owners to negotiate**. In other labor actions, however, Roosevelt supported employers in disputes with workers.

Roosevelt ran for the presidency in 1904, promising the people a **square deal—fair and equal treatment for all**. He was elected with more than 57 percent of the popular vote. Roosevelt's "square deal" called for a considerable amount of government regulation of business. This contrasted with an attitude toward business that dated back to the **presidency of Thomas Jefferson**, which was summed up in the phrase **laissez-faire**. This French term generally means, "let people do as they choose."

Roosevelt introduced a new era of government regulation. He supported the Meat Inspection and Pure Food and Drug Acts; these acts gave the Department of Agriculture and the Food and Drug Administration the power to visit businesses and inspect their products.

Roosevelt held a lifelong enthusiasm for the great outdoors and the wilderness. He **believed in the need for conservation, the protection and preservation of natural resources**. As president, Roosevelt took steps to conserve the country's forests, mineral deposits, and water resources. In 1905, he proposed the U.S. Forest Service.

He pressured Congress to set aside millions of acres of national forests and **created the nation's first wildlife sanctuaries**. Roosevelt also **formed the National Conservation Commission**, which produced the first survey of the country's natural resources. **Roosevelt has been called America's first environmental president**. While he made conservation an important public issue, Roosevelt also **recognized the need for economic growth and development**. He tried to strike a balance between business interests and conservation.

No president before had ever served more than two terms. In keeping with that tradition, Roosevelt decided not to run for reelection in 1908. Instead Roosevelt chose **William Howard Taft**, an experienced diplomat, to run for president. In the election of 1908, Taft easily defeated Democrat William Jennings Bryan.

Although he had none of Roosevelt's flair, Taft carried out—and went beyond—many of Roosevelt's policies. The **Taft administration won more antitrust cases in four years than Roosevelt had won in seven**. Taft also favored the introduction of **safety standards for mines and railroads**. **Taft supported the Sixteenth Amendment**, which gave **Congress the power to tax people's incomes to generate revenue for the federal-outraged** when the owners refused to negotiate..

The split in the Republican Party hurt both Taft and Roosevelt. While Republicans and Progressives battled each other at the polls, **Democrat Woodrow Wilson** gathered enough support to defeat them in the election. **Wilson had acquired a reputation as a progressive reformer** while serving as president of Princeton University and governor of New Jersey. Wilson gained 42 percent of the popular vote, with Roosevelt receiving 27 percent and Taft 23 percent. However, Wilson won the presidency

During his campaign Woodrow Wilson had criticized big government as well as big business. **Wilson called his program the “New Freedom.”** In 1913, Wilson achieved a long-awaited progressive goal—**tariff reform**. He persuaded the Democrat-controlled Congress to adopt a **lower tariff on imported goods such as sugar, wool, steel, and farm equipment**. Wilson believed that the pressure of **foreign competition** would lead American manufacturers to improve their products and lower their prices. The government income lost by lowering tariffs would be replaced by the new income tax.

That same year Congress also passed the **Federal Reserve Act to regulate banking**. By creating 12 regional banks supervised by a central board in Washington, D.C., the act gave the government more control over banking activities. Banks that operated nationally were required to join the Federal Reserve System and abide by its regulations.

Wilson also worked to strengthen government control over business. In 1914, Congress established the **Federal Trade Commission (FTC)** to investigate corporations for unfair trade practices. Wilson also supported the **Clayton Antitrust Act** of 1914, which joined the **Sherman Antitrust Act** as one of the government’s chief weapons against trusts. The **government also tried to regulate child labor**. The **Keating-Owen Act of 1916** banned goods produced by child labor from being sold in interstate commerce. The act was struck down as unconstitutional just two years later.

By the end of Wilson’s first term, progressives had won many victories. The Progressive movement lost some of its momentum as Americans turned their attention to world affairs—especially the war that had broken out in Europe in 1914

A) Prejudice and Discrimination

During the 1800s the overwhelming majority of **Americans were white** and **Protestant** and had been **born in the United States**. Many Americans believed that the United States should **remain a white, Protestant nation**. Nonwhite, non-Protestant, and non-native residents often faced **discrimination**—unequal treatment because of their race, religion, ethnic background, or place of birth. The government rarely interfered with this discrimination.

In 1908, violence erupted in Springfield, **Illinois**, when a **white woman claimed to have been attacked by an African American man**. Authorities jailed the man, but by that time, white townspeople had formed an angry mob. Armed with axes and guns, the mob stormed through African American neighborhoods, destroying businesses and driving people from their homes. Rioters lynched two African American

men and injured dozens more. Yet no one was ever punished for these violent crimes. Later, the **woman who claimed she was attacked admitted that her accusation was untrue.**

The Springfield riot shocked the nation and highlighted the deep racial divisions in American life. The **riot took place in the hometown of Abraham Lincoln, the president who signed the Emancipation Proclamation.** African Americans were no longer enslaved—but they were still pursued by prejudice and racial hatred

B) Anti-Catholicism

Some Americans faced discrimination because of their religion. America's largely Protestant population feared that Catholic immigrants threatened the "American" way of life. Anti-Catholic Iowans formed the American Protective Association (APA) in 1887. By the mid-1890s, the APA claimed a membership of two million across the nation. Among other activities, the APA spread rumors that Catholics were preparing to take over the country.

C) Anti-Semitism

Many **Jewish immigrants** came to the United States to escape prejudice in their homelands. Some of them found the same anti-Semitic attitudes in America. Landlords, employers, and schools discriminated against Jews. Eastern European Jews faced prejudice both as Jews and as eastern Europeans, whom **many Americans regarded as more "foreign" than western Europeans.**

D) Anti-Asian Policies

Discrimination was also based on race. In California and other western states, Asians struggled against prejudice and resentment. White Americans claimed that **Chinese immigrants**, who worked for lower wages, took away jobs. Congress passed the **Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882 to prevent Chinese immigrants from entering the United States.**

America's westward expansion created opportunities for thousands of Japanese immigrants who came to the United States to work as railroad or farm laborers. Like the Chinese before them, **Japanese immigrants encountered prejudice.** California would not allow them to become citizens. In 1906, in San Francisco, the school board tried to make **Japanese children** and **Asians** **to attend a separate school until President Roosevelt stepped in to prevent such segregation.**

E) Discrimination Against African Americans

African Americans faced **discrimination in both the North** and the **South.** Although officially free, African Americans were systematically denied basic rights and restricted to **second-class citizenship.** **Four-fifths** of the nation's African Americans lived in the South. Most **worked as rural share-croppers** or in **low-paying jobs** in the cities. They were **separated from white society** in their own neighborhoods,

schools, parks, restaurants, theaters, and even cemeteries. In 1896, the Supreme Court legalized segregation which recognized “**separate but equal**” facilities.

The Ku Klux Klan, which had terrorized African Americans during Reconstruction, was reborn in **Georgia in 1915**. It is the name of several past and present organizations in the United States that have advocated white supremacy, anti-Semitism, anti-Catholicism, racism, homophobia, anti-Communism and nativism. These organizations have often **used terrorism, violence, and acts of intimidation**, such as cross burning and lynching, to oppress African Americans and other social or ethnic groups. The first branch of the Ku Klux Klan was established in Pulaski, Tennessee, in May, 1866. A year later a general organization of local Klans was established in Nashville in April, 1867.

The new Klan wanted to restore white, Protestant America. The Klan lashed out against minorities—Catholics, Jews, and immigrants, as well as African Americans. Calling for “100 percent Americanism,” the Klan kept growing and claimed more than two million members by 1924, many of them in Northern cities and towns.

F) Struggle for Equal Opportunity

Often excluded from progressive organizations because of prejudice, minorities **battled for justice and opportunity on their own**. African Americans, Hispanics, and Native Americans took steps to improve their lives. African Americans rose to the challenge of achieving equality.

Washington believed that if **African Americans had more economic power** they **would be in a better position** to demand social equality and civil rights. Washington founded the **National Negro Business League** to promote business development among African Americans. He argued that equality would be achieved when African Americans gained the education and skills to become valuable members of their community.

Some African Americans thought that they would be better off in separate societies, either in the United States or in Africa. They founded organizations to establish African American towns and promoted a back-to-Africa movement. These movements were not popular, however, and their goals gained few supporters.

During the early 1900s, African Americans achieved success in a variety of professions. Chemist **George Washington Carver**, director of agricultural research at Tuskegee Institute, helped improve the economy of the South through his discoveries of **plant products**. **Maggie Lena** founded the St. Luke Penny **Savings Bank** in Richmond, Virginia. She was the **first American woman to serve as a bank president**.

G) Native Americans Seek Justice

The federal government's efforts to assimilate Native Americans into white society threatened to break down traditional native cultures. In 1911, Native American leaders from around the country formed the Society of American Indians to seek justice for Native Americans, to improve their living conditions, and to educate white Americans about different Native American cultures.

I) Mexican Americans Work Together

Immigrants from Mexico had long come to the United States as laborers, especially in the West and Southwest. Between 1900 and 1914, the Mexican American population grew dramatically as people crossed the border to escape revolution and economic troubles in Mexico.

Like the Japanese and other immigrant groups, **Mexican Americans encountered discrimination** and violence. Relying on themselves to solve their problems, they **formed mutuality as self-defense associations** to raise money for insurance and legal help. In labor camps and Mexican neighborhoods called barrios, mutuality as organized self-help groups to deal with **overcrowding, poor sanitation, and inadequate public services**. Widespread prejudice excluded Mexican Americans from many reform groups.

Unit Seven : Crusade and Disillusion

7.1. America in World War I Era (1914-1920)

The First World War broke out in August 1914. It immediately created great problems for the American people and for Wilson. **Wilson proclaimed American neutrality** at the outset, and nearly everyone in the country supported him. The **USA was a 'melting-pot'** of Europe's peoples, and could hardly take sides in a war between two groups of those peoples.

11,700,000 of America's citizens in 1910 had been born in Europe. By tradition she was neutral, and she had kept clear of Europe's affairs since 1814. **Monroe's famous Doctrine** had stated that the USA would not interfere in Europe. Moreover, American trade might reasonably be expected to benefit from a policy of neutrality. For these reasons American public opinion was overwhelmingly neutral in 1914. **Wilson** used his position **to mediate between the Allies** and the **Central Powers**. He was unsuccessful in this, but he remained in his neutrality.

But Americans-Wilson included- were much more sympathetic towards the Allies than towards the Central Powers. The most reasons of these were:

- **Language and tradition:** British and Americans **shared a common language**, even if there were many different peoples in the USA, and they shared, too, a **common political tradition**, that of **self-government**. This link was effective in innumerable ways, notably through the press and in the persons of American statesmen. Wilson himself, a student of English literature and history, was from the start much more sympathetic towards the Allies.
- A second factor which made the USA more sympathetic towards Britain was **propaganda**. From the start of both sides set out to capture American opinion by any means possible – **lectures, press articles, rumors**, and **atrocities stories**. British propaganda was thorough and imaginative. Moreover, Britain had one great advantage on her side; she controlled all the news that went into the USA.
- Third important link between the Allies and the USA was **trade**. Trade between the Allies and America rose steadily. Its **most important commodity was munitions**. In 1914, the USA exported \$1, 290,000,000 worth. This trade went steadily on, despite British interference with American ships carrying cargoes to the neutral countries of Europe. British orders in council, issued in 1914, established a blockade of Germany. The list of **contraband articles** gradually grew longer, and eventually included food.

It was the **submarine** that ultimately brought the USA into the war. Germany began submarine warfare in February 1915 and in the following month the first American lost his life as a result of submarine action. May brought the sinking of an American tanker, followed by an event which aroused very bitter feeling in the USA- the sinking without warning of the British liner Lusitania. Over **1100 people** were drowned: **128** of them were Americans. Wilson addressed strong notes to Germany.

1917 was the year of decision for the USA. Two further events precipitated the American decision.

- **The first is that in February Britain passed on to the American government the German Foreign minister, Arthur Zimmermann note, an offer from Germany to Mexico that in the event of German victory in a war with the USA she should have Texas, New Mexico and Arizona that Mexico lost during the Mexican-American War 70 years earlier. British intelligence intercepted**

the telegram and passed the information on to Washington. Wilson released the Zimmerman note to the public and Americans saw it as a casus belli—a cause for war. **The note was an** encoded telegram known as the Zimmermann Telegram, which was intercepted by British Intelligence. Publication of that communiqué outraged Americans just as German U-boats started sinking American merchant ships in the North Atlantic. In January 1917, Germany resumed unrestricted submarine warfare and sank seven US merchant ships.

The second is that in March came the first Russian Revolution and the dethronement of the Tsar , which meant that if the USA joined the Allies she would not do so as an ally of the corrupt and autocratic Tsardom. Wilson then asked Congress for "a war to end all wars" that would "make the world safe for democracy", and Congress voted to declare war on Germany on April 6, 1917. On December 7, 1917, the US also declared war on Austria-Hungary but never made declarations of war against the other Central Powers, Bulgaria, the Ottoman Empire or the various co-belligerents allied with the Central Powers. Thus, the United States remained uninvolved in the military campaigns in central and eastern Europe, the Middle East, the Caucasus, North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and the Pacific.

7.1.1. Home front

The home front saw a systematic mobilization of the entire population and the entire economy to produce the soldiers, food supplies, munitions, and money needed to win the war. Although the United States entered the war in 1917, there had been **very little planning**, or even recognition of the problems that the British and other Allies had to solve on their home fronts. As a result, the level of confusion was high in the first 12 months, then efficiency took control.

The war came in the midst of the Progressive Era, when efficiency and expertise were highly valued. Therefore, the federal government set up a multitude of temporary agencies with 500,000 to 1,000,000 new employees to bring together the expertise necessary to redirect the economy into the production of munitions and food necessary for the war, as well as for propaganda purposes.

Propaganda:-Crucial to US participation was the **sweeping domestic propaganda campaign** executed by the Committee on Public Information. The campaign consisted of tens of thousands of government-selected community leaders giving brief carefully scripted pro-war speeches at thousands of public gatherings. Along with other branches of government and private vigilante groups like the American Protective League, it also included the general repression and harassment of people either opposed to American entry into the war or of German heritage. Newsreels, photos, large-print posters, designed by several well-known illustrators of the day, magazine and newspaper articles, and billboards were other forms of propaganda.

Children:-The nation placed a great importance on the role of children, teaching them patriotism and national service and asking them to encourage war support and educate the public about the importance of the war. The Boy Scouts of America helped distribute war pamphlets, helped sell **war bonds**, and helped to drive nationalism and support for the war.

7.1. 2. **The USA at War (1917-18)**

The US played decisive part in the First World War. She made its major contributions in terms of supplies, raw material and money, starting in 1917. Her contribution was twofold. First, she loaned to the Allies vast sums of money. The total Allied debt at the end of the war was estimated at over \$ 10,000,000,000. The Allies spent most of it in America. Secondly, she contributed man power. After the passage of the Selective Service Act in 1917, it drafted 4 million men into military service. Her navy joined the British in the campaign against submarines. On land the USA raised a vast army within eighteen months, by a series of conscription acts. Under which 24,000,000 men were registered. Of these 2,180,000 were taken which with regulars and volunteers totaled 4,000,000. 2,000,000 of them went overseas, and 1,390,000 fought in France.

The first American troops arrived in France in June 1917. However, large numbers arrived on the Western Front in 1918. By the summer of 1918, about 2 million US soldiers had arrived in France, about half of whom eventually saw front-line service. Under General Pershing, they took part in the Allied resistance to the German spring offensive in 1918; in the decisive Second Battle of the Marne in July; and in the successful advance of the autumn. Their arrival was a vital factor in the German defeat. They were fresh, fitter and less war-weary than both Allied and German troops. During the war, the U.S. mobilized over 4 million military personnel and suffered 110,000 deaths, including around 45,000 who died due to the 1918 Spanish influenza outbreak (30,000 before they even reached France). Their losses, considering the short period during which they were in the front line, were not small; 50,000 men were killed, and 206,000 wounded. Financing of the war costed the USA over \$ 20,000,000,000. The government controlled American industry under a War Industries Board which fixed a limit to the production of all essential goods and shut down non-essential industries.

A ceasefire and Armistice was declared on November 11, 1918. Before entering the war, the U.S. had remained neutral, though it had been an important supplier to Great Britain and the other Allied powers.

After the war the government promptly cancelled wartime contracts, ended the draft, and started to bring home its troops from Europe as fast as transport became available. However, there was no financial or educational benefits for veterans, and the lack became a major political issue, especially for the large veterans' groups such as the Veterans of Foreign Wars and the new American Legion. The readjustment period was marked by soaring unemployment, massive strikes, and race riots in 1919.

7.1.3. The USA and the Peace Treaty

The Allies attained their immediate object when in October 1918 the new German Chancellor, Prince **Max of Baden**, asked for peace terms. Now, Wilson accepted this. In January 1918, he stated **Fourteen Points** upon which he believed it would be possible to make peace. These points are summarized as follows:

1. An **open treaty**, not a secret one decided by diplomatists among themselves.
2. **Freedom of the seas** for all shipping.
3. Equality of **trade** between nations.
4. Reduction of **armaments**.
5. A settlement of colonial problems, paying attention to the peoples of the **colonies**.
6. The evacuation of Russian, French, and Belgian territory by Germans.
7. **Self-determination**, which is the right to choose their own form of government for themselves, for the peoples of Austria-Hungary and Turkey.
8. The **independence of Poland** with free access to the sea.
9. The establishment of a 'general **association**' of **nations**, in order to safeguard the independence of each nation.

It offered, in Wilson's view, the hope of a new world, free from the threat of war. Wilson decided to go to Europe himself to negotiate the peace settlement, which was to be made at **Versailles**. Before he left, he had his opponents, the **Republicans**; a majority in both Houses; to show their support for his policy. It was a sign of the steady growth of American feeling against Wilson, caused partly by a belief that he was likely to treat the Germans too leniently. But **in Europe, he received an amazing welcome**. Millions of Europeans hailed him as the savior who had come to give them the lasting peace.

The **peace conference began in January 1919**. The Peace Treaty was made by the 'Big Four', the representatives of France, Britain, Italy, and the USA. Two of these men, Clemenceau of France and Lloyd George of Britain differed from the idea of Wilson.

The Treaty of Versailles, from Wilson's stand point, a mixture of good and bad.

- Germany had to restore all land she had occupied.
- The idea of self-determination was recognized, and new national states like Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia replaced the old Hapsburg Empire.
- **Germany was stripped of her colonies**, but they were handed over ;

On the other hand, the Treaty contained clauses quite contrary to Wilson's aims:

- The clause insisting that Germany should pay a vast sum as **reparations** for war damage.
- Germany was compelled to admit herself **guilty of causing the war**.

- The Treaty had been hardly agreed with the first of the Fourteen Points, stipulating open treaties, while there was no 'equality of trade' so far as Germany was concerned.

Wilson sailed home in June 1919. During his absence, the **Republicans had carried on a campaign against the suggestion that the USA should join the League of Nations**. They said that to do so would be to break with the American tradition of isolation from Europe. The history of the Treaty was soon ended. The **Senate rejected it**; they passed instead a resolution for a separate peace with Germany, which Wilson vetoed. The final blow was the election of 1920, in which the Republican candidate Warren Harding overwhelmed the Democrat. Wilson had failed.

The Wartime Changes

The war altered American life in many ways, like government control of food, railroads, industry, and public opinion, which were introduced to mobilize American resources. Three of these may be noted here:

- In 1917 an **Immigration Act** was passed, whose object was to restrict the entry of immigrants. It forbade the entry of all aliens over sixteen who were unable to read. There had been earlier laws about immigration. Congress had at various times forbidden the entry of persons considered undesirable—for example, idiots, paupers, drunkards, anarchists, and Chinese labors (the last were unpopular in the western states).
- In 1919, the **18th Amendment** to the Constitution was ratified. This forbade 'the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within the USA.
- Another is the **19th amendment** came in 1920. This gave the **vote to women** by saying that 'the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex.

7.2. The Decade of Normalcy (1920-1928)

A "return to normalcy" was United States presidential candidate **Warren G. Harding's** campaign promise in the election of 1920. Harding's promise was to **return the United States to pre-world war mentality**; without the thought of war tainting the minds of the American people. He states, "America's present need is not heroics, but healing; not nostrums, but normalcy; not revolution, but restoration; not agitation, but adjustment; not surgery, but serenity; not the dramatic, but the dispassionate; not experiment, but equipoise; not submergence in internationality, but sustainment in triumphant nationality," to sum up his points.

During the war the **government had extended its control over industry**. When the war was ended it began to abandon such restrictions on industry and private enterprise. The Republicans and their three presidents, **Harding Coolidge and Hoover, pursued this policy**. Indeed, the government actively encouraged private enterprise in several ways. Three of these were particularly important. First,

high tariffs continued. Second, **taxes were reduced**; prosperity brought a great increase in the revenue. Thirdly, Hoover, at the department of commerce **encouraged the great business cooperation** to join together in even greater combines.

The years from 1923 to 1929 were a **period of soaring trade returns, high profits, rising wages, and great speculation.** There were several reasons for this prosperity. Countries overseas, reconstructing after the war, brought large quantities of American goods; and American financiers loaned them cash to enable them to do so. Further, American **industrial methods were developing fast**; it was estimated that the average production per man in American industry increased 53 percent between 1919 and 1929.

It is described that the 1920s were an era of growth and increased wealth for the United States. This was the reason that **America had suffered comparatively little from the course of the global war.** Many Americans began buying consumer products. During this time, many black people moved out of the South and into large cities such as New York City, Chicago, St. Louis and Los Angeles. The 1920s were also the **Prohibition Era** after the **Eighteenth Amendment passed.** During the 1920s, **drinking alcohol was illegal.**

Racism was strong in the 1920s. The **Ku Klux Klan was powerful once again**, and attacked black people, Catholics, Jews and immigrants. People blamed the war and problems in business on immigrants and labor leaders, whom they said were Bolsheviks (Russian communists). Many people also thought that the United States had lost touch with religion. They handled that by changing religion, and some of them by attacking science.

After World War I, the United States **had an isolationist foreign policy.** That meant it did not want to enter into another global war. It passed laws and treaties that supposedly would end war forever, and refused to sell weapons to its former allies.

In 1921, Warren G. **Harding became President.** He believed that the best way to make the economy good was for the government to be friendly to big business by **cutting taxes** and regulating less. While the economy was doing very well under these policies, **America had the largest difference between the rich and the poor.** Harding died in 1923, and **Calvin Coolidge became President.** Coolidge believed that the government should keep out of business, just like Harding, and **continued many of Harding's policies.** Coolidge chose not to seek the presidency in 1928 and **Herbert Hoover became president.**

Foreign Policy under Harding and Coolidge:- 'Normalcy' in foreign affairs meant **freedom from entanglements with other countries.** It meant that America would do what she had before 1914- **isolate herself**, as far as possible, from all dangerous connections with other powers. The most striking example of this isolation was the **Senate's refusal in 1919 to ratify the treaty of Versailles** with its clause committing the USA to membership of the League of Nations. Instead the USA made a separate peace with Germany in 1921.

But in fact **many forces were pulling the USA into world affairs**. The **re-building of world trade after the war was the greatest**; the USA, like other manufacturing countries, was hunting for new markets and new supplies of raw materials and this brought her into contact with other powers. One method of increasing her trade was by overseas investment. Americans in this period of prosperity had plenty of money available for investing. By 1930 over \$ 3, 000,000,000 of American money was invested in South America , and over \$ 3,900,000,000 in Canada; the figure in Europe was huge still. This meant that **Americans owned industries, mines, shops forests, and land in South America, Canada in Europe and elsewhere all over the world**.

Moreover, the war itself had left behind a link tying America to Europe. The Allies owed \$10,000,000,000 to the United States. The problem of these war debts was a persistent source of irritation throughout the Post war years. It soon became clear that the **Allies were not very anxious to pay their debts**. They argued that the **American loans were really part of the American war effort**; that money had been spent in America, and that the Americans had done very well out of it. **Three facts** made the position awkward. First, the **total debt was a huge sum**, difficult to pay in normal times, and almost impossible at the end of a great war. Secondly, the **Allies hoped to get the money to pay the Americans out of the reparations** which the Germans had been ordered to pay to the Allies. If the Germans did not pay reparations, then, the Allies maintained, they could not pay War Debts. Americans did not accept this argument that the payment of War Debts depended on the payment of reparations. Nevertheless, the Germans were, in fact, unable to pay reparations, which had been fixed at a higher figure; and so the Allies argued that they were unable to pay War Debts. Thirdly, the **American tariff was a hindrance to payment**. In the long run the **debts could only be paid by sending goods from the Allied countries to America**.

The areas in which the USA was most directly interested were still Central America and the Pacific. Her various activities had brought the steady growth of American investment in Central America. The total of these had reached over \$ 1,000,000,000 by 1930. Such a vast investment in a comparatively small area necessarily meant an extension of American control.

United States interests in the Pacific were the occasion of the Washington Conference of 1921-22.

This was the most important single event in American foreign policy in these years. It was a meeting of representatives of all the powers with interests in the Pacific.

The **Washington Conference produced two treaties** dealing with the Far East. The **Four-Power Treaty** (1921) was signed by the USA ,Japan, Britain and France.; each of these powers agreed to recognize the **rights of others in their island possessions in the Pacific Ocean**. All the Pacific powers signed the **Nine-Power Treaty**(1922). This **guaranteed the independence of China** , and **recognized the 'Open Door'**. Further ,**Japan agreed to evacuate both Shantung and Eastern Siberia**. A third treaty,

the **FivePower Treaty** , was signed by the USA, Japan, Britain France and Italy, the five greatest naval powers. They agreed to a plan outlined by **Hughes**, the American Secretary of State. No battleships were to be built for ten years; while the total tonnage of Japanese naval ships was to be three-fifths of that of the USA, which was in turn to be equal to that of Britain. The Washington Conference was hailed at the time as a great success , and the **Senate ratified the treaties**. It limited armaments and restated the principle of the 'Open Door' , making nine powers responsible for maintaining China's independence. Events were to show that this success was only temporary . **It gave Japan the opportunity to dominate the western Pacific.**

7.3. The Great Depression (1929-1932)

***Write the term, causes and effects of the Great Economic Depression**

Most economists agree that **over production was a key cause of the depression**. More efficient machinery increased the production capacity of both factories and farms. Prosperity in the USA seemed limitless before the Great Depression struck. Over production and **agricultural problems** contributed to the economic catastrophe. Millions of Americans lost their jobs and life savings.

Most Americans did not earn enough money to buy up the flood of goods they helped produce. While manufacturing output per person –hour rose 32%, the average workers wage increased only 8%. In 1930, **1352 banks suspended operations**, more than twice the number of bank failures in 1929. The Depression grew steadily worse during **Hoover's administration**. In 1932 ,some **30, 000 companies went out of business**. By 1933 more than **9,000 banks had failed**. On the same year, **12 million workers were unemployed** –about one fourth of the workforce.

People without jobs often went hungry. Whenever possible they **joined breadlines** to receive a free handout of food or **lined up outside soup kitchens**, which private charities set up to give poor people a meal. **Families** or individuals who would not pay their rent or mortgage **lost their homes**. Some of them, paralyzed by fear and humiliation over their sudden misfortune, simply would not or could not move. In search of work better life many homeless and **unemployed Americans began to wonder** around the country.

Consequences of overproduction and decline in agricultural output that brought about the great depression can be profoundly seen as follows:-

A) The Long Bull Market

The wave of optimism that swept Hoover into the White House also drove stock prices to new heights. The stock market was established as a system for buying and selling shares of companies. Sometimes circumstances in the stock market lead to a long period of rising stock prices, which is known as a **bull**

market. In the late 1920s, a prolonged bull market convinced many Americans to invest heavily in stocks.

B) The Great Crash

The bull market lasted only as long as investors continued putting new money into it. By the latter half of 1929, the market was running out of new customers. **Prices slipped.** Other investors sold shares to pay the interest on their brokerage loans. Prices fell further. The stock market crash was not the major causes of the Great Depression, but it undermined the economy's ability to hold out against its other weaknesses.

C) Banks in a Tailspin

The market crash severely weakened the nation's bank into:

- First, many banks lent money to stock speculations;
- Second, **many banks had invested depositors'** money in the stock market, hoping for higher returns than they could get by using their money for conventional loans.

When stock values collapsed, the banks lost money on their investments, and the speculators defaulted on their loans. Having suffered serious losses, many banks cutback drastically on the loans they made. With less credit available, consumers and businesses were unable to borrow as much money as they had previously. This helped to put the economy into a recession.

A **bank run takes place when many depositors decided to withdraw their money at a time**, usually for fear the bank is going to collapse. Most banks make a profit by lending money received from depositors and collecting interest on the loans. Ordinarily that reserve is enough to meet the bank's needs but if too many people withdraw their money, the bank will eventually collapse.

The **bank failure in 1929 and early 1930 triggered a crisis of confidence in the banking system.** During the first two years of the Depression, more than 30,000 banks-over 10% of the nation's total- were forced to close.

D) The Loss of Export Sales

As the bull market of the 1920s accelerated, US banks made high interest loans to stock speculators instead of lending money to foreign companies. Without these loans from US banks, foreign companies purchased fewer products from American manufacturers. Matters grew worse after June 1930, when Congress passed the **Hawley-Smoot Tariff** raising the average tariff rate to the highest level in American history.

Rates went upon more than 900 manufactured items. The Tariff aimed to protect American manufacturers from foreign competition, but it damaged American sales abroad because imports now cost much more. Americans bought fewer of them. Foreign countries responded by rising their own tariffs

against American products, and this **caused fewer American products to be sold overseas**. In 1932, US exports fell to about one fifth of what they had been in 1929, which hurt both American companies and farmers .It was the most spectacular piece of evidence that the USA was entering a disastrous commercial and industrial depression , the **worst in its history** , which would bring unemployment to about **14,000.000** of its people. The reasons were numerous and complicated :

First, **it was a depression which hit not America alone** , But Britain, Europe , and the world as well. In a way it was a kind of delayed action result of the dislocation which the Great war brought to world trade. Secondly , the fact that **American manufacturers** , encouraged by the high profits of these years of prosperity, **had made too many goods**. This **overproduction led them eventually to start cutting down the number of goods** they made ; and this means dismissing workmen . Unemployed men had less to spend ;this meant fewer goods sold, and this in turn meant further lowering of the number of goods made -and more workmen unemployed-and so the process continued.

Thirdly, there was a **limit to the manufacturers** could have sold many more goods. So the fact that the profits of industry went to a very small proportion of the people meant less profits. By 1929 American industry was feeling the effects of this. Moreover, **many of the American farmers** , who formed a considerable part of that domestic market , **were very poor** throughout the prosperity period.

Fourthly, **American foreign trade had fallen off** .This was partly a result of the American tariff. Since the USA erected a tariff barrier against goods coming from foreign countries, these countries retaliated by erecting tariff barriers against American goods. In 1930, Congress passed the **Hawley -Smoot Tariff Act** which raised the level of duties on a great many imported goods. This provoked further retaliation, and the quantity of American goods sold overseas fell lower after 1930.

Fifthly, the **growth of speculation** on the stock market was only one example of a general readiness to gamble on the future. Two other examples were the **vast growth of debts**, among huge industrial combines as well as among private individuals; and the **habit of buying goods on the installment system**. Americans were banking heavily on prosperity in the future. **When the prosperity began to fail, the whole of this greater structure of debt collapsed**. Companies went bankrupt, and their stock holders were ruined; innumerable Americans found themselves with **houses, motorcars, carpet-sweepers, wireless sets, furniture** on which they **could not pay the remaining installments**.

The Depression, beginning in 1929, grew deeper as Hoover's term of office went on. Unemployment was its most obvious sign, and in most terrible result. **By 1930 there were 3,000,000 unemployed; by 1933, about 14,000,000**. American factories in 1933 were producing about half the amount of goods they were producing in 1929. American trade with overseas countries in 1932 was **less than one-third** of what it was in 1929. Behind this lies mills and mines lying idle, of banks with closed doors, of families plunged from comfort into poverty, of bread queues in the cities, of people starving.

Unit Eight: Times of Crises (1932-1960)

President Hoover tried to do something about the Depression, but it did not work. In 1932, he was defeated and Franklin D. Roosevelt, who created the New Deal, became President.

8.1. The New Deal (1932-1939)

The New Deal was a series of government programs. It had three main aims: **relief, recovery,** and **reform. Relief was the first-** those millions of Americans who were in desperate need of food and cash

had to be helped. Roosevelt wanted to **help the poor**- not only poor people throughout the country , but also **poverty stricken -industries** and **poverty stricken regions** like the farmlands of South and West. He wanted to **attack the rich employers** and **financiers** and to help the workmen to organize themselves into trade unions in order to be able to bargain fairly their employers. He wanted to **safeguard democracy**, '**government of the people, by the people, for the people**', against the power of the rich. He made full **use of expert advisers**. He collected round him a group of comparatively young men, college professors, experts in finance, economists and similar subjects. This group, known as the '**Brains Trust**', planned many of the details of the New Deal. He also cleverly used **his own genius** for winning popularity in order to gain popular support for his policy. Examples this were the '**fireside chats**' and the **White House Press Conference**. In the fireside chats' Roosevelt **spoke over the radio** to his fellow countrymen as an American sitting by his own fireside and talking over their common problems with them. At the **press conferences, held twice a week** at the White House, he let the journalists crowd into his study and fire off at him whatever questions they liked. His **quick answers**, his **great friendliness**, and his **willingness to crack jokes** ,**cheerful smile and handshake, the joking replies to the journalists** won him popularity among the pressmen. Ambitious , energetic, resourceful, and full of common sense, **Roosevelt** possessed a remarkable charm of manner.

Recovery was the second - the government had to lead the country out of depression which means that to make the economy better. **Reform** was the third -glaring wrongs had to be set right in order that the USA might go forward to a new future ,i.e.to make sure a depression never happens again.

The **New Deal had many programs** such as :-

- **Social Security**,
- the **National Recovery Administration** (regulated wages),
- **Works Progress Administration** (built roads, schools, government buildings and works of art),
- **the Civilian Conservation Corps** (gave young people jobs to help the environment), and
- **Tennessee Valley Authority** (built dams and electric lines in the South).

These programs put millions of Americans to work, though often at low pay. Many of these programs were started early in Roosevelt's term in a time called the "**Hundred Days**" or in 1935 in a time called the "**Second New Deal**". Programs like Social Security grew out of populist movements by people such as Huey Long that were called "Share Our Wealth" and "Ham and Eggs". The New Deal also led to the **rise of worker's unions** such as the **Congress of Industrial Organizations**.

The New Deal is often called the period that "**saved capitalism**", and stopped America from becoming a Communist or Fascist state. Although the New Deal improved the economy, it did not end the Great Depression. The Great Depression was ended by World War II.

What has been known as the **First 'New Deal'** lasted from 1933 to 1935 and concentrated mainly on the immediate problems - :

- of restoring the banking system,
- providing jobs for the unemployed,
- raising agricultural prices to help the farmers,
- setting industries on their feet again.

The '**second New Deal**,' from 1935 to 1938 brought more measures of lasting reform :-

- involved heavy expenditure and an unbalanced budget ,
- higher taxation of the rich; and
- showed far less sympathy to businesses and more to such groups as trade unions.

Roosevelt's policies encountered strong opposition on the part of certain important quarters identified with American monopoly capital. For instance , the **US Supreme Court**, which became the nucleus of this opposition , rescinded a number of laws passed by Congress. However, Roosevelt's popularity grew accordingly: he was **re-elected in 1936**; and he **won the elections of 1940 and 1944**, which was **something unprecedented in the US history**. He **enjoyed the support of the country's progressive elements**. He **had shown a realistic approach** in his foreign policies, for example, by re-establishing, in 1933, diplomatic **relations with the Soviet Union**.

8.2. World War II, 1933-1945 Tons of the Course

As World War II was beginning, the United States said they would not get involved in it. Most Americans thought the United States should remain neutral, and some people thought the United States should enter the war on the side of the Germans. Eventually, the U.S. did try to help the Allied Powers (Soviet Union, Britain, and France) with the **Lend Lease Act**. It gave the Allies a lot of money and guns in trade for use of air bases throughout the world.

On December 7, 1941, **Japan attacked Pearl Harbor**, a U.S. Naval base in Hawaii. The U.S. was no longer neutral, and it declared war on the Axis Powers (Germany, Japan, Italy). The U.S. entering World War II ended the Great Depression because the war created many jobs. While some of the battles the U.S. fought in were air and naval battles with Japan, the **U.S. mainly fought in Europe and Africa**. The U.S. opened up several fronts, including in North Africa and Italy. The U.S. also bombed Germany from airplanes, blowing up German cities and factories. On June 6, 1944 (**D-Day**), American and British forces invaded Normandy. A year later, the Allies had freed France and taken Berlin. In 1945, **Roosevelt died**, and **Harry Truman** became president. The U.S. decided to drop two atomic bombs on Japan. Japan gave up soon afterwards, and the war ended.

The war meant different things for women and minorities. **During the war, many women worked in weapons factories.** They were symbolized by a character called "**Rosie the Riveter**". Many African-Americans served in the army, but often in segregated units with white officers. Japanese-Americans on the West Coast were forced to live in internment camps, though a few also served in the Army.