

The History of the United States of America (AD 1492-Present)

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1. **European Colonization (AD 1492-1750)**. The first successful English settlement is established in America in 1607 after a period of exploration sponsored by major European nations. The Europeans bring horses, cattle, and hogs to the Americas and, in turn, take back maize, turkeys, tomatoes, potatoes, tobacco, beans, and squash to Europe. After being exposed to new diseases in the Americas, many explorers and early settlers die.

However, the effects of the new Eurasian diseases carried by the colonists, especially smallpox and measles, are much worse for the Native Americans, because they have no immunity to them. As a consequence, they suffer epidemics and die in very large numbers, usually before large-scale European settlement has begun, which disrupts and hollows out their societies by the scale of the deaths.

2. ***First Settlements (AD 1492-1665).*** After the expeditions of Christopher Columbus (*AD 1492-1540*) establishes possessions in the Caribbean, including the modern-day U.S. territories of Puerto Rico, and (partly) the U.S. Virgin Islands, Spanish explorers are the first Europeans to reach the present-day United States. Juan Ponce de León lands in Florida in 1513, and Spanish expeditions quickly reach the Appalachian Mountains, the Mississippi River, the Grand Canyon, and the Great Plains.

Hernando de Soto explores the Southeast extensively in 1539, and a year later Francisco Coronado searches for gold from Arizona to central Kansas. Horses escape from Coronado's party and spread over the Great Plains, and the Plains Indians master horsemanship within a few generations. Early small Spanish settlements eventually grow to become important cities, such as San Antonio, Albuquerque, Tucson, Los Angeles, and San Francisco.

- a. ***Dutch Mid-Atlantic (AD 1609-1664).*** In 1609, explorer Henry Hudson is sent by The Dutch West India Company to search for a Northwest Passage to Asia. In 1621, New Netherland is established by the company to capitalize on the North American fur trade. At first, growth is slow due to Dutch mismanagement and Native American conflicts.

The Dutch purchases the island of Manhattan from the Native Americans for a reported price of US\$24, and the land is named New Amsterdam and becomes the capital of New Netherland. The town expands rapidly, and in the mid-1600s, it becomes an important trading center and port. Although the Dutch are Calvinists and build the Reformed Church in America, they are tolerant of other religions and cultures and trade with the Iroquois to the north.

A series of wars is fought because the Dutch colony serves as a barrier to British expansion from New England. The colony is taken over by Britain in 1664 and its capital is renamed New York City. Nevertheless, New Netherland leaves an enduring legacy on American cultural and political life, marked by religious tolerance and sensible trade in urban areas, as well as rural traditionalism in the countryside.

- b. ***Swedish Settlement (AD 1638-1655).*** Swedish, Dutch, and German stockholders form the New Sweden Company to trade furs and tobacco in North America during the early years of the Swedish Empire. Peter Minuit, the former governor of New Netherland from 1626 to 1631, who left after a dispute with the Dutch government, leads the company's first expedition, which lands in Delaware Bay in March 1638. Fort Christina is founded by the settlers at the site of modern-day Wilmington, Delaware, and makes treaties with the indigenous groups for land ownership on both sides of the Delaware River.

Settlers are brought to New Sweden from the Swedish Empire (which also includes contemporary Finland, Estonia, and portions of Latvia, Norway, Russia, Poland, and Germany) over the next seventeen years in 12 additional expeditions. The Swedish

colony establishes 19 permanent settlements along with many farms, which extend into modern-day Maryland, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. After a Dutch invasion from the neighboring New Netherland colony during the Second Northern War, the colony is incorporated into New Netherland in 1655.

3. ***French and Spanish Conflicts (AD 1524-1565).*** Giovanni da Verrazzano is the first European to sail into New York Harbor and Narragansett Bay, and he lands in North Carolina in 1524. Jacques Cartier sails in search of the Northwest Passage a decade later, but instead discovers the Saint Lawrence River and lays the foundation for French colonization of the Americas in New France.

In the 1540s, after the collapse of the first Quebec colony, French Huguenots settle at Fort Caroline near present-day Jacksonville in Florida. Spanish forces led by Pedro Menéndez destroy the settlement in 1565 and establishes the first European settlement at St. Augustine, which will become a part of the United States.

The French mostly remain in Quebec and Acadia after this conflict, but spread their influence through far-reaching trade relationships with Native Americans throughout the Great Lakes and Midwest. French colonists live in farming communities and small villages along the Mississippi and Illinois rivers that serve as a grain source for Gulf Coast settlements. Along with settling New Orleans, Mobile, and Biloxi, the French establish plantations in Louisiana.

4. ***British Colonies (AD 1585-1750).*** Drawn in by the raids of Francis Drake on Spanish treasure ships leaving the New World, the English settle the strip of land along the east coast of America in the 1600s. Walter Raleigh establishes the first British colony in North America at Roanoke in 1585, but it fails. Twenty years will pass before another attempt is made.

The early British colonies, which are established by private groups seeking profit, are marked by starvation, disease, and Native American attacks. Many of these immigrants include people seeking religious freedom, people escaping political oppression, peasants displaced by the Industrial Revolution, or those simply seeking adventure and opportunity.

Native Americans teach the colonists how to plant and harvest the native crops in some areas, but in other areas, they attack the settlers. The virgin forests provide an ample supply of building material and firewood, and the natural inlets and harbors that line the coast provide easy ports for essential trade with Europe. Because of this, settlements remain close to the coast, and also due to Native American resistance and the Appalachian Mountains that are found in the interior.

- a. ***First Settlement in Jamestown (AD 1607-1624).*** Jamestown is the first successful English colony, established by the Virginia Company in 1607 on the James River in Virginia. The colonists are ill-equipped for life in the New World and are preoccupied with the search for gold. In the first year, Captain John Smith holds the

fledgling Jamestown together, and when he returns to England two years later, the colony descends into anarchy and nearly fails.

In 1612, John Rolfe begins experimenting with tobacco from the West Indies and by 1614 the first shipment arrives in London. Within a decade, tobacco becomes the chief source of revenue for Virginia. In 1624, King James I revokes the charter of the Virginia Company and makes Virginia a royal colony, after years of disease and Indian attacks, including the Powhatan attack of 1622.

- b. *New England (AD 1620-1675).*** Puritans fleeing religious persecution are the initial primary settlers of New England. The Pilgrims sail on the Mayflower for Virginia in 1620, but are knocked off course by a storm and land at Plymouth, where they agree to a social contract of rules in the Mayflower Compact. Plymouth suffers from disease and starvation just like Jamestown, but local Wampanoag Indians teach the colonists how to farm maize.

The Plymouth Colony is followed by the Puritans and the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1630. They elect founder John Winthrop as the governor for most of its early years and maintain a charter for self-government separate from England.

Roger Williams establishes the colony of Providence Plantations, later Rhode Island, on the basis of freedom of religion, because he opposes Winthrop's treatment of Native Americans and religious intolerance.

Settlements are established by other colonists in the Connecticut River Valley, and on the coasts of present-day New Hampshire and Maine. Native American attacks continue, with the most significant being the Pequot War of 1637 and the King Philip's War of 1675.

Due to the poor, mountainous soil making agriculture difficult, New England becomes a center of commerce and industry. The numerous harbors facilitate trade, and the rivers are harnessed to power grain mills and sawmills. Boston becomes one of America's most important ports, and tight-knit villages develop around these industrial centers.

- c. *Middle Colonies (AD 1660-1681).*** In the 1660s, the Middle Colonies of New York, New Jersey, and Delaware are established in the former Dutch New Netherland, and are characterized by a large degree of ethnic and religious diversity. At the same time, the Iroquois of New York, strengthened by years of fur trading with Europeans, form the powerful Iroquois Confederacy.

The last colony in this region is Pennsylvania, which is established in 1681 by William Penn as a home for religious dissenters, including Quakers, Methodists, and the Amish. The capital of the colony, Philadelphia, becomes a dominant commercial center in a few short years, with busy docks and brick houses. While

Quakers populate the city, German immigrants begin to flood into the Pennsylvanian hills and forests, while the Scots-Irish push into the far western frontier.

- d. ***Southern Colonies (AD 1632-1732).*** The Northern Colonies contrast significantly with the extremely rural Southern Colonies. The first British colony outside of Virginia and south of New England is Maryland, which is established as a Catholic haven in 1632.

The economy of the two colonies of Virginia and Maryland is built entirely on yeoman farmers and planters. The planters establish themselves in the Tidewater region of Virginia, developing massive plantations with slave labor, while the small-scale farmers make their way into political office.

The Province of Carolina is established in 1670, and Charleston becomes the great trading port of the region. The economy of Carolina is very diversified, exporting rice, indigo, and lumber, while Virginia's economy is based on tobacco.

The Province of Carolina is split in two in 1712, creating North and South Carolina. James Oglethorpe establishes the Georgia Colony in 1732, which is the last of the Thirteen Colonies, as a border to Spanish Florida and as a reform colony for former prisoners and the poor.

- e. ***Religion.*** Religiosity expands greatly after the First Great Awakening (1730-1755), which is a series of Christian revivals that sweep Britain and the thirteen North American colonies from the 1730s to about 1755.

This revival movement permanently affects Protestantism, as adherents strive to renew their individual reverence to God and religious devotion. This revival is led by preachers such as Jonathan Edwards and George Whitefield.

The American Evangelicals who are affected by the Awakening add a new emphasis to the divine outpourings of the Holy Spirit and conversions that implant new believers with an intense love for God. Revivals condense these concepts and carry the newly created evangelicalism into the early republic, which sets the stage for the Second Great Awakening that begins in the late 1790s.

Evangelicals in the South, such as Methodists and Baptists, preach for religious freedom and the abolition of slavery in the early stages. Many slaves are converted, and some are recognized as preachers.

- f. ***Government.*** The governmental structure of each of the 13 American colonies is slightly different. Typically, the control of the executive administration of each colony is ruled by a governor appointed from London, who relies upon a locally elected legislature to vote on taxes and make laws.

By the 18th century, as a result of low death rates along with ample supplies of land and food, the American colonies are growing very rapidly. The colonies attract a steady flow of immigrants, especially teenagers who arrive as indentured servants, and the colonies are more prosperous than most parts of Britain.

- g. ***Servitude and Slavery.*** Indentured servants make up over half of all European immigrants to Colonial America. This form of unfree labor provides a means to immigrate, because few could afford the cost of the journey to America. Typically, these people will sign a contract agreeing to a set term of labor, usually four to seven years, and in return, they will receive transport to America and a piece of land at the end of their servitude.

In some cases, the captains of ships receive rewards for the delivery of poor migrants, and as a consequence, extravagant promises and kidnapping are common. The Virginia Company and the Massachusetts Bay Company also use indentured servant labor.

In 1619, just twelve years after the founding of Jamestown, the first African slaves are brought to Virginia. They are initially regarded as indentured servants who can buy their freedom, but as the demand for labor on tobacco and rice plantations grows in the 1660s, the institution of slavery begins to harden, and the involuntary servitude becomes lifelong.

Slavery becomes identified with brown skin color and the “black race,” and the children of slave women are born slaves (*partus sequitur ventrem*). By the 1770s, one-fifth of the American population is comprised of African slaves.

As long as the colonies need British military support against the French and Spanish powers, the question of independence from Britain does not arise. By 1765, those threats are gone, but London continues to regard the American colonies as existing for the benefit of the mother country in a policy known as mercantilism.

Colonial America is defined by a severe labor shortage that uses forms of unfree labor, such as slavery and indentured servitude. The British colonies are also marked by a policy of avoiding strict enforcement of parliamentary laws, known as salutary neglect, which permits the development of an American spirit distinct from that of its European founders.

5. **Road to Independence (1750-1775).** With wealth based on large plantations operated by slave labor, an upper class emerges in South Carolina and Virginia. In upstate New York, a unique class system operates where Dutch tenant farmers rent land from very wealthy Dutch proprietors, such as the Van Rensselaer family.

Pennsylvania is representative of the other colonies, which are more democratic. Pennsylvania, by the mid-18th century, is basically a middle-class colony with limited respect for its small upper class. A writer in the *Pennsylvania Journal* in 1756 wrote:

The People of this Province are generally of the middling Sort, and at present pretty much upon a Level. They are chiefly industrious Farmers, Artificers, or Men in Trade; they enjoy and are fond of Freedom, and the meanest among them thinks he has a right to Civility from the greatest.

- a. ***Political Integration and Autonomy (1754-1765).*** A watershed event in the political development of the colonies is the French and Indian War (1754-1763), which is part of the larger Seven Years' War. The French and Native Americans are the main rivals of the British Crown in the colonies and Canada, and the war significantly reduces their influence, as the territory of the Thirteen Colonies expands into New France, both in Canada and Louisiana.

The war effort also results in a greater political integration of the colonies, which is reflected in the Albany Congress and symbolized by Benjamin Franklin's call for the colonies to "Join, or Die." One of Franklin's many inventions is the concept of a United States of America, which emerges after 1765 and will be realized a decade later.

- b. ***Taxation Without Representation (1763-1775).*** King George III issues the Royal Proclamation of 1763 following Britain's acquisition of French territory in North America. His goal is to organize the new North American empire and protect the Native Americans from colonial expansion into western lands beyond the Appalachian Mountains. Strains develop in the relations between the colonists and the Crown in the following years.

The British Parliament passes the Stamp Act of 1765, which imposes a tax on the colonies, without going through the colonial legislatures. The issue is whether Parliament has the right to tax Americans who are not represented in it? Crying "No taxation without representation," the colonists refuse to pay the taxes and tensions escalate in the late 1760s and early 1770s.

The Boston Tea Party in 1773 is a direct action by activists in the town of Boston to protest against the new tax on tea. Parliament quickly responds the next year with the Intolerable Acts, which strips Massachusetts of its historic right of self-government and puts it under military rule, which sparks outrage and resistance in all thirteen colonies.

The First Continental Congress is convened by Patriot leaders from every colony to coordinate their resistance to the Intolerable Acts. The Congress publishes a list of rights and grievances, and petitions the king to rectify these grievances, and calls for a boycott of British trade. When this appeal to the Crown has no effect, the Second Continental Congress is convened in 1775 to organize the defense of the colonies against the British Army.

Even though they are unfamiliar with the ideological rationales being offered, the common people become insurgents against the British. They have a very strong sense

of "rights" that they feel the British are deliberately violating, the rights that stress local autonomy, fair dealing, and government by consent.

The issue of tyranny is highly sensitive to them because they have seen it manifested by the arrival in Boston of the British Army to punish the Bostonians. Their sense of violated rights is heightened, leading to rage and demands for revenge, and they have faith that God is on their side.

6. ***Revolution and Independence (1775-1783)***. In April 1775, the American Revolutionary War begins when the British try to seize ammunition supplies and arrest the Patriot leaders at Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts. The political values of the Americans are largely united on a concept called Republicanism, which rejects aristocracy and emphasizes civic duty and a fear of corruption.

According to one team of historians, for the Founding Fathers, "republicanism represented more than a particular form of government. It was a way of life, a core ideology, an uncompromising commitment to liberty, and a total rejection of aristocracy."

The Thirteen Colonies begin their rebellion against British rule in 1775 and proclaim their independence in 1776 as the United States of America. During the American Revolutionary War (1775–1783), the Americans capture the British invasion army at Saratoga in 1777, secure the Northeast, and encourage the French to make a military alliance with the United States. The French alliance brings in Spain and the Netherlands, which balances the military and naval forces on each side, as Britain has no allies.

- a. ***George Washington (1775-1783)***. General George Washington proves to be an excellent organizer and administrator who works successfully with Congress and the state governors, selects and mentors his senior officers, supports and trains his troops, and maintains an idealistic Republican Army.

His biggest challenge is logistics, because neither Congress nor the states have the funding to provide adequately for the equipment, munitions, clothing, paychecks, or even the food supply of the soldiers.

As a battlefield tactician, Washington is often outmaneuvered by his British counterparts. As a strategist, however, he has a better idea of how to win the war than they do. The British send four invasion armies.

Washington's strategy forces the first army out of Boston in 1776, and is responsible for the surrender of the second and third armies at Saratoga (1777) and Yorktown (1781). He limits the control of the British to New York City and a few other places, while keeping Patriot control of the great majority of the population.

- b. ***Loyalists and Britain (1775-1783)***. The British count heavily upon the Loyalists, who comprise about 20% of the population, but they suffer from weak organization.

In November 1783, as the war ends, the final British army sails out of New York City, taking the Loyalist leadership with them.

Instead of seizing power for himself, Washington unexpectedly retires to his farm in Virginia. Political scientist Seymour Martin Lipset observes, "The United States was the first major colony successfully to revolt against colonial rule. In this sense, it was the first 'new nation'."

- c. ***Declaration of Independence (1776)***. On July 2, 1776, the Second Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia and declares the independence of the colonies by adopting the resolution from Richard Henry Lee, which states:

That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; that measures should be immediately taken for procuring the assistance of foreign powers, and a Confederation be formed to bind the colonies more closely together.

On July 4, 1776, they adopt the Declaration of Independence, and this date is celebrated as the nation's birthday. Congress shortly thereafter officially changes the name of the nation to the "United States of America" from the "United Colonies of America."

The new nation is founded on the Enlightenment ideals of liberalism and what Thomas Jefferson calls the unalienable rights to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." It is dedicated strongly to republican principles, which emphasizes that people are sovereign (not hereditary kings), demands civic duty, fears corruption, and rejects any aristocracy.

7. ***Early Years of the Republic (1783-1812)***. In the 1780s, the national government is able to settle the issue of the western regions of the young United States by the states ceding the western regions to Congress, and they become territories. Soon, these territories become states, with the migration of settlers to the Northwest.

The Nationalists worry that the new nation is too fragile to withstand an international war or internal revolts, such as the Shays' Rebellion of 1786 in Massachusetts, in which citizens revolt against the state government.

The Nationalists, who are mostly war veterans, organize in every state and convince Congress to call the Philadelphia Convention in 1787. The delegates from every state write a new constitution that creates a much more powerful and efficient central government, with a strong president and the powers of taxation.

The new government reflects the prevailing republican ideals, which guarantee individual liberty but constrain the power of government through a system of separation of powers.

In 1787, the Congress is given authority to ban the international slave trade after 20 years, which it does in 1807. A compromise allows the Congressional apportionment from the Southern states to include three-fifths of the number of slaves in each state's total population.

This provision increases the political power of southern representatives in Congress, especially as slavery is extended into the Deep South, after the removal of Native Americans, and the transportation of slaves by an extensive domestic slave trade.

In 1791, the nation adopts the United States Bill of Rights to appease the Anti-Federalists who fear a too-powerful national government. They comprise the first ten amendments to the Constitution, and guarantee individual liberties, such as freedom of speech and religious practice, jury trials, and state rights (which are not specified).

a. *President George Washington (1789-1794)*. In 1789, George Washington becomes the first President of the United States under the new Constitution. He is a renowned hero of the American Revolutionary War, commander-in-chief of the Continental Army, and president of the Constitutional Convention. In 1790, the national capital is moved from New York to Philadelphia, and finally settles in Washington, D.C. in 1800.

The creation of a strong national government that is recognized without question by all Americans is the major accomplishment of the Washington Administration. His government, under the vigorous leadership of Treasury Secretary Alexander Hamilton, which assumes the debts of the states (the debt holders receive federal bonds).

The government also creates the Bank of the United States to stabilize the financial system, and sets up a uniform system of tariffs (taxes on imports) and other taxes to pay off the debt and provide a financial infrastructure.

Hamilton creates a new political party called the Federalist Party to support his programs, which is the first political party in the world based on voter support.

b. *Two-party System (1794-1820)*. Thomas Jefferson and James Madison form an opposition Republican Party (usually called the Democratic-Republican Party by political scientists). In 1794, Hamilton and Washington present the Jay Treaty to the country, which reestablishes good relations with Britain. The Jeffersonians vehemently protest the treaty, and the voters align behind one party or the other, which sets up the First Party System.

The Federalists promote business, financial, and commercial interests, and want more trade with Britain. The Republicans accuse the Federalists of plans to establish a monarchy, turn the rich into a ruling class, and make the United States a pawn of the British. Although the treaty passes, politics become intensely heated.

- c. ***Challenges to the Federal Government (1794-1798)***. There are serious challenges to the new federal government, including the Northwest Indian War, the ongoing Cherokee/American wars, and the 1794 Whiskey Rebellion, in which western settlers protest against a federal tax on liquor.

Washington calls in the state militia and personally leads an army against the settlers, which causes the insurgents to melt away and firmly establishes the power of the national government.

Washington sets a precedent by refusing to serve more than two terms. In his famous farewell address, Washington extols the benefits of the federal government and the importance of ethics and morality, while warning against foreign alliances and the formation of political parties.

In the 1796 election, John Adams, a Federalist, defeats Thomas Jefferson. As war looms with France, the Federalists use the opportunity to try to silence the Republicans with the Alien and Sedition Acts.

The Acts make it harder for an immigrant to become a citizen (Naturalization Act), allows the president to imprison and deport non-citizens who are known as dangerous (the "Alien Friends Act" of 1798) or who are from a hostile nation ("Alien Enemies Act" of 1798), and criminalizes the making of 'false statements' critical of the federal government ("Sedition Act" of 1798).

The "Alien Friends Act" expires two years after its passage, while the "Sedition Act" expires on March 3, 1801. In contrast, the "Naturalization Act" and the "Alien Enemies Act" have no expiration clause.

The Federalists also build up a large army headed by Alexander Hamilton in preparation for a French invasion. However, there is division among the Federalists after Adams sends a successful peace mission to France that ends the Quasi-War of 1798.

- d. ***The Increasing Demand for Slave Labor (1792-1807)***. There is a dramatic change in the status of slavery among the states during the first two decades after the Revolutionary War, in that there is an increase in the number of freed blacks. The northern states abolish slavery because they are inspired by the revolutionary ideals of equality and are influenced by their lesser economic reliance on slavery.

The states of the Upper South make manumission easier, which results in an increase in the proportion of free blacks in the Upper South (as a percentage of the total non-white population) from less than one percent in 1792 to more than 10 percent by 1810. By 1810, the total of all blacks (as a percentage of the total non-white population) in the United States who are free is 13.5 percent.

After 1810, the number of manumissions decline sharply, because the demand for slaves is on the rise in the Deep South as the cultivation of cotton is expanding. The internal U.S. slave trade becomes an important source of wealth for many planters and traders after Congress severs the involvement of the U.S. with the Atlantic slave trade in 1807.

- e. ***Louisiana and Jeffersonian Republicanism (1801-1809)***. In the 1800 election, Thomas Jefferson defeats John Adams for the presidency. The major achievement of the presidency of Jefferson is the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, which provides U.S. settlers with a vast potential for expansion west of the Mississippi River.

As a scientist, Jefferson supports expeditions to explore and map the new territory, most notably the Lewis and Clark Expedition. Jefferson believes deeply in republicanism and argues that it should be based on the independent yeoman farmer and planter, because he distrusts cities, factories, and banks. He also distrusts the federal government and judges and tries to weaken the judiciary.

However, Jefferson meets his match in Chief Justice John Marshall (1801-1835), a Federalist from Virginia. Although the Constitution specifies a Supreme Court, the court's functions are vague until Chief Justice Marshall defines them.

This is especially evident in the Court's power to overturn acts of Congress or state laws that violate the Constitution, as first enunciated in 1803 in *Marbury v. Madison*.

- 8. ***The War of 1812 and Beyond (1812-1815)***. In 1812, America has several grievances against Britain which include: (1) the British violation of the rights of American ships to be neutral in Britain's war with France; (2) the impressment (seizure) of 10,000 American sailors needed by the British Royal Navy to fight Napoleon; and (3) British support for hostile Indians attacking American settlers in the Midwest with the goal of creating a pro-British Indian barrier state to block American expansion westward.

Although this is still heavily debated, the British may also have desired to annex all or part of British North America. Congress declares war against Britain on June 18, 1812, despite strong opposition from the Northeast, especially from Federalists who do not want to disrupt trade with Britain.

The war is frustrating for both sides, as each side tries to invade the other and is repulsed. The American high command is incompetent until the last year of the war, because the American militia is reluctant to leave home, and efforts to invade Canada fail repeatedly. The blockade by the British ruins American commerce, bankrupts the Treasury, and further angers New Englanders, who smuggle supplies to Britain.

The Americans finally gain naval control of Lake Erie under General William Henry Harrison and defeat the Indians under Tecumseh in Canada, while Andrew Jackson ends

the Indian threat in the Southeast. Although the Indian threat to expansion into the Midwest is permanently ended, the British are able to invade and occupy much of Maine.

The British raid and burn Washington, DC, but are repelled at Baltimore in 1814, where the "Star Spangled Banner" is written to celebrate the success of America. A major British invasion of New York State in upstate New York is turned back at the Battle of Plattsburgh. In early 1815, a major British invasion at the Battle of New Orleans is decisively defeated by Andrew Jackson, making him the most famous war hero.

In early 1815, with Napoleon (apparently) gone, the major causes of the war have evaporated and America and Britain both agree to a peace that leaves the prewar boundaries intact. The Americans claim victory on February 18, 1815, as news of Jackson's victory in New Orleans comes almost simultaneously with the peace treaty that leaves the prewar boundaries in place.

Americans are swelled with pride at their success in the "second war of independence." The naysayers of the antiwar Federalist Party are put to shame, and the party never recovers. The war helps lead to an emerging American identity that strengthens national pride over state pride.

The British war goal of granting the Indians a barrier state to block further American westward settlement is never achieved, and this allows settlers to pour into the Midwest without fear of a major threat. The War of 1812 also helps to dispel America's negative perception of a standing army, which is proven to be useful in many areas against the British.

The War Department officials decide later in the war to place regular troops as the nation's primary defense, as opposed to ill-equipped and poorly trained militias in the early months of the war.

a. ***Second Great Awakening (1790-1840).*** A Protestant revival movement known as the Second Great Awakening affects the entire nation during the early 19th century, leading to rapid church growth. The movement begins in around 1790, gains momentum by 1800, and membership grows rapidly among Baptist and Methodist congregations after 1820, as their preachers lead the movement. By the 1840s, the movement is past its peak.

The movement leads to the formation of new denominations, and it enrolls millions of new members in existing evangelical denominations. Many converts believe that the Awakening has heralded a new millennial age.

Many reform movements are stimulated by the Second Great Awakening, which includes the abolitionist movement and temperance, which is designed to remove the evils of society before the anticipated Second Coming of Jesus Christ.

- b. ***Era of Good Feelings (1815-1836)***. In 1814, the Federalists, who were strong opponents of the war, hold their Convention in Hartford, and it hints at disunion. The national euphoria created by the victory at New Orleans ruins the prestige of the Federalists, and they no longer play a significant role as a political party.

President Madison and most Republicans believe they were foolish to let the Bank of the United States close down, because the absence of the Bank greatly hindered the financing of the war. In 1816, with the support of foreign bankers, Congress charters the Second Bank of the United States.

To protect the infant industries that are created when Britain is blockading the U.S. during the war, the Republicans impose tariffs on imports. With the systematic policy of President James Monroe (1817 - 1825) to downplay partisanship, the collapse of the Federalists party, and the adoption of many Federalist principles by the Republicans, the nation enters an Era of Good Feelings. There is far less partisanship than before (or after), which closes out the First Party System.

In 1823, the Monroe Doctrine proclaims the opinion of the United States that European powers should no longer colonize or interfere in the Americas, which is a defining moment in the foreign policy of the United States. The Monroe Doctrine is adopted in response to American and British fears of an expansion of Russia and France into the Western Hemisphere.

In 1832, President Andrew Jackson, the 7th President of the United States, runs for a second term under the slogan "Jackson and no bank" and does not renew the charter of the Second Bank of the United States of America, which ends the Bank in 1836. Jackson is convinced that the central bank is being used by the elite to take advantage of the average American, and he implements state banks instead, which are popularly known as "pet banks."

- c. ***Indian Removal (1830-1850)***. In 1830, the Indian Removal Act is passed by Congress, authorizing the president to negotiate treaties that exchange Native American tribal lands in the eastern states for lands west of the Mississippi River. The primary goal of the act is to remove Native Americans, including the Five Civilized Tribes, from the land in the Southeast that the settlers want.

The Jacksonian Democrats demand that the native populations who refuse to acknowledge state laws to relocate to reservations in the West or be forcibly removed. Although the Whig Party and religious leaders oppose the move as inhumane, thousands of deaths result from the relocations, as seen in the Cherokee Trail of Tears.

The estimated number of deaths along the Trail of Tears ranges from 2000 to 8000 of the 16,543 Cherokee who were relocated. Many of the Seminole Indians in Florida refuse to move west, and they fight the Army for years in the Seminole Wars.

9. **Second Party System (1828-1850).** The stage is set for the emergence of a new party system after the First Party System, comprising Federalists and Republicans, withers away in the 1820s. The new party system is based on well-organized local parties that appeal to the votes of (almost) all adult white men, which causes the former Jeffersonian (Democratic-Republican) party to split into factions.

The party splits over the choice of a successor to President James Monroe, and the faction that supports many of the old Jeffersonian principles, led by Andrew Jackson and Martin Van Buren, becomes the Democratic Party.

The opposing factions, led by Henry Clay, help to form the Whig Party. The Democratic Party has a slight but decisive advantage over the Whig Party until the 1850s, when the Whigs fall apart over the issue of slavery.

There is a widely shared political outlook that characterizes the platforms issued by the Democratic state and national parties. The Democrats represent a wide range of views but share a fundamental commitment to the Jeffersonian concept of an agrarian society. They view the central government as the enemy of individual liberty. The 1824 "corrupt bargain" strengthens their suspicion of Washington politics.

Jacksonians fear the concentration of economic and political power, and they believe that government intervention in the economy benefits special interest groups and creates corporate monopolies that favor the rich. They seek to restore the independence of the individual (the "common man," i.e., the artisan and the ordinary farmer) by ending federal support of banks and corporations and restricting the use of paper currency, which they distrust.

Their definition of the proper role of government tends to be negative, and Jackson's political power is largely expressed in hostile acts. He exercises the veto more than all the previous presidents combined. Jackson and his supporters also oppose reform as a movement because reformers are eager to turn their programs into legislation that calls for a more active government.

However, the Democrats tend to oppose programs such as educational reform and the establishment of a public education system. For example, they believe that public schools restrict individual liberty by interfering with parental responsibility and undermine freedom of religion by replacing church schools.

Jackson does not share the humanitarian concerns of reformers because he has no sympathy for American Indians when initiating the removal of the Cherokees along the Trail of Tears. The large majority of anti-slavery activists, such as Abraham Lincoln, believe that slavery is an unfortunate social evil, and not a sin, which is a rejection of Garrison's theology.

Note: William Lloyd Garrison's theology of the United States is deeply intertwined with his abolitionist stance and centers on the concept that Garrison views slavery not only as a grave moral wrong but also as a national sin, believing it violates God's law and will

invite divine judgment upon the nation. This conviction leads him to condemn the U.S. Constitution as a "covenant with death" and "an agreement with Hell," because it sanctioned the institution of slavery.

10. **Westward Expansion and Manifest Destiny (1830-1869)**. The first settlers in the West are the Spanish in New Mexico, known as "Californios," followed by over 100,000 California Gold Rush miners, known as '49ers. California grows rapidly, and by 1880, San Francisco becomes the economic hub of the Pacific Coast, with a diverse population of a quarter of a million.

From the early 1830s to 1869, the Oregon Trail and its offshoots are used by over 300,000 settlers headed to California, Oregon, and other points in the far west. Wagon trains take five or six months on foot.

- a. ***Manifest Destiny*** is the belief that American settlers are destined to expand across the continent. Manifest Destiny is rejected by modernizers, especially the Whigs like Henry Clay and Abraham Lincoln, who want to build cities and factories, not more farms.

Democrats strongly favor expansion and win the key election of 1844. After a bitter debate in Congress, the Republic of Texas is annexed in 1845, leading to the Mexican-American War. The U.S. Army invades Mexico at several points, capturing Mexico City, and winning the war decisively.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo ends the war in 1848. Many Democrats want to annex all of Mexico, but that idea is rejected by White Southerners, who argue that incorporating millions of Mexican people, mainly of mixed race, will undermine the U.S. as an exclusively white republic. Instead, the U.S. takes Texas and the lightly settled northern parts (California and New Mexico). Simultaneously, gold is discovered in California in 1848. To clear the state for settlers, the U.S. government begins a policy of extermination, which is termed the California genocide.

- b. ***California Genocide (1846-1873)***. The California genocide is a series of genocidal massacres of the indigenous peoples of California by United States soldiers and settlers during the 19th century. It begins following the American conquest of California in the Mexican-American War and the subsequent influx of American settlers to the region as a result of the California gold rush.

Between 1846 and 1873, it is estimated that settlers kill between 9,492 and 16,094 Californian Natives; up to several thousand are also starved or worked to death. Forced labor, kidnapping, rape, child separation, and forced displacement are widespread during the genocide, and are encouraged, tolerated, and even carried out by American government officials and military commanders.

- c. ***British Compromise***. A peaceful compromise with Britain results in the U.S. gaining ownership of the Oregon Country, which is subsequently renamed the Oregon

Territory. The demand for guano, prized as an agricultural fertilizer, leads the U.S. to pass the Guano Islands Act in 1856, which enables U.S. citizens to take possession, in the name of the country, of unclaimed islands containing guano deposits. Under the act, the U.S. annexes nearly 100 islands in the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea. By 1903, 66 of these islands are recognized as U.S. territories.

- d. ***Women's Suffrage (1848-1850)***. The women's suffrage movement begins with the 1848 National Convention of the Liberty Party. Presidential candidate Gerrit Smith established women's suffrage as a party goal. One month later, the Seneca Falls Convention is organized, with the signing of the Declaration of Sentiments, which demands equal rights for women, including the right to vote.

The women's rights campaign during first-wave feminism is led by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucy Stone, and Susan B. Anthony, among others. Stone and Paulina Wright Davis organizes the prominent and influential National Women's Rights Convention in 1850.

11. **Sectional Conflicts before the Civil War (1848-1860)**. After 1848, the central issue in the U.S. is the expansion of slavery, which pits the anti-slavery elements in the North against the pro-slavery elements that dominate the South. A small number of Northerners are active abolitionists who declare that ownership of slaves is a sin (in terms of Protestant theology) and demand the immediate abolition of slavery.

A much larger number of Northerners are against the expansion of slavery, and their goal is to put it on a pathway to extinction, so that America will be committed to free land (for low-cost family-owned farms), free labor, and free speech (to allow the distribution of abolitionist material in the South).

The Southern white Democrats contend that slavery is of economic, social, and cultural benefit to all whites (and even to the slaves themselves), and condemn all anti-slavery spokesmen as "abolitionists."

The justifications of slavery include economics, history, religion, legality, social good, and even humanitarianism. The defenders of slavery argue that the sudden end to the slave economy will have a profound and devastating economic impact on the South, where the reliance on slave labor is the foundation of their economy, and if all the slaves are freed, there will be widespread unemployment and chaos.

The religious activists are split on slavery, with the Methodists and Baptists dividing into northern and southern denominations. The Methodists, Congregationalists, and the Quakers in the North include many abolitionists, especially among women activists. The Catholic, Episcopal, and Lutheran denominations largely ignore the slavery issue.

12. **Compromise of 1850 and Popular Sovereignty (1820-1860)**. The Compromise of 1850, brokered by Whig Henry Clay and Democrat Stephen Douglas, is a series of five bills that seemingly settle the issue of slavery in the new territories. The Compromise

includes the admission of California as a free state in exchange for no federal restrictions on slavery in Utah or New Mexico.

The Fugitive Slave Act is the point of contention, because it increases federal enforcement and requires even free states to cooperate in turning over fugitive slaves to their owners. The Act is pounced on by abolitionists in their attack on the institution of slavery, which is symbolized by the best-selling anti-slavery novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe.

The Compromise of 1820 admits Missouri as a slave state and Maine as a free state in exchange for legislation that prohibits slavery in the remaining Louisiana Purchase lands north of the 36°30' parallel.

However, the Compromise of 1820 is repealed in 1854 by the Kansas–Nebraska Act, which Senator Douglas promotes in the name of "popular sovereignty" and democracy. Under popular sovereignty, the citizens of each territory, rather than Congress, will determine whether slavery will be allowed. It permits the voters in each territory to decide on the legality of slavery, which allows Douglas to adopt a position of neutrality on the issue of slavery.

The new Republican Party is formed by anti-slavery forces who arise in anger and alarm. Pro- and anti-slavery contingents rush to Kansas to vote slavery up or down, which results in a miniature civil war called Bleeding Kansas.

The young Republican Party is able to dominate nearly all of the northern states and the electoral college by the late 1850s, and it insists that slavery will never be allowed to expand (and thus will slowly die out).

a. *The Plantation Economy (1790-1860)*. Based on their cotton and other agricultural commodity production, the Southern slavery-based societies have become wealthy, and some have profited particularly from the internal slave trade. Cities in the North, such as Boston and New York, and regional industries, are tied economically to slavery by banking, shipping, and manufacturing, including textile mills.

There are four million slaves in the South by 1860, which is nearly eight times as many as there were in the whole nation in 1790. Due to the heavy European demand for raw cotton, the plantations are very profitable. The majority of the profits are invested in new lands and the purchase of additional slaves, who are primarily drawn from the declining tobacco-producing regions.

For 50 of the first 72 years of the nation's existence, a slaveholder serves as President of the United States, and, during that period, only slaveholding presidents are able to be re-elected to second terms. In addition, the southern states benefit from their increased apportionment in Congress due to the partial counting of slaves in their populations (each slave represents two-thirds of a person).

- b. ***Slave Rebellions (1800-1859)***. There are slave rebellions by Gabriel Prosser (1800), Denmark Vesey (1822), Nat Turner (1831), and most famously by John Brown (1859), which cause fear in the white South, and stricter oversight is imposed on slaves, and the rights of free blacks are reduced.

After the Nat Turner rebellion, southern legislatures pass new laws prohibiting the education of enslaved people and free Black people, and restricting the rights of assembly and other civil liberties for free Black people.

Northerners are outraged by the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, which requires the states to cooperate with slave owners when they are attempting to recover escaped slaves. Under the Missouri Compromise, an escaped slave who reaches a non-slave state is presumed to have attained sanctuary and freedom.

- c. ***The Dred Scott v. Sandford Supreme Court decision of 1857***. (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dred_Scott_v._Sandford). The Dred Scott v. Sandford Supreme Court decision involves the case of Dred Scott, an enslaved black man whose owners have taken him from Missouri, a slave-holding state, into Illinois and the Wisconsin Territory, where slavery is illegal.

When his owners later bring him back to Missouri, Scott sues for his freedom and claims that because he has been taken into "free" U.S. territory, he has automatically been freed and is legally no longer a slave.

Scott sues first in the Missouri state court, which rules that he is still a slave under its law. He then sues in a U.S. federal court, which rules against him by deciding that it has to apply Missouri law to the case. He then appeals to the U.S. Supreme Court.

In March 1857, the Supreme Court issues a 7–2 decision against Scott. In an opinion written by Chief Justice Roger B. Taney, the Court rules that people of African descent "are not included, and were not intended to be included, under the word 'citizens' in the Constitution, and can therefore claim none of the rights and privileges which that instrument provides for and secures to citizens of the United States;" more specifically, that African Americans are not entitled to "full liberty of speech ... to hold public meetings ... and to keep and carry arms" along with other constitutionally protected rights and privileges.

Taney supports his ruling with an extended survey of American state and local laws from the time of the Constitution's drafting in 1787 that purports to show that a "perpetual and impassable barrier was intended to be erected between the white race and the one which they had reduced to slavery."

Because the Court rules that Scott is not an American citizen, he is also not a citizen of any state and, accordingly, can never establish the "diversity of citizenship" that Article III of the U.S. Constitution requires for a U.S. federal court to be able to exercise jurisdiction over a case.

After ruling on those issues surrounding Scott, Taney strikes down the Missouri Compromise because, by prohibiting slavery in U.S. territories north of the 36°30' parallel, it interferes with slave owners' property rights under the Fifth Amendment to the United States Constitution.

After the Supreme Court's decision, the former master's sons purchase Scott and his wife and set them free. Dred Scott dies nine months later.

Although Taney and several other justices hope the decision will settle the slavery controversy, which is increasingly dividing the American public, the decision only intensifies interstate tensions. Taney's majority opinion suits the slaveholding states, but is intensely denounced in all the other states.

The decision inflames the national debate over slavery and deepens the divide that leads ultimately to the American Civil War. During the United States election of 1860, Republicans reject the ruling as being corrupted by partisanship and non-binding because the court has no jurisdiction.

Their presidential nominee, Abraham Lincoln, states he will not permit slavery anywhere in the country except where it already exists, which directly contradicts the court's ruling. His election is considered the final event that leads the Southern states to secede from the Union, igniting the American Civil War.

The decision is generally considered the worst in the Supreme Court's history, being widely denounced for its overt racism, judicial activism, and poor legal reasoning. It *de facto* nationalizes slavery and thus plays a crucial role in the events that lead to the American Civil War four years later.

- 13. President Abraham Lincoln and Secession (1860).** After Abraham Lincoln wins the 1860 election, seven Southern states (SC, MS, FL, AL, GA, LA, and TX) secede from the union and set up a new nation, the Confederate States of America (Confederacy), on February 8, 1861. The Confederacy attacks Fort Sumter, a U.S. Army fort in South Carolina, which ignites the war.

When Lincoln calls for troops to suppress the Confederacy in April 1861, four more states (VA, AR, TN, and NC) secede and join the Confederacy. A few of the (northernmost) "slave states" do not secede and become known as the border states: Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri. During the war, the northwestern portion of Virginia secedes from the Confederacy and becomes the new Union state of West Virginia, which is usually associated with the border states.

- a. *The Civil War (1861-1865)*.** On April 12, 1861, the Civil War begins when Confederate forces attack a U.S. military installation at Fort Sumter, South Carolina. In response, Lincoln calls on the states to send troops to recapture the forts, protect the capital, and "preserve the Union," which, in his view, still exists intact despite the actions of the seceding states.

The two armies have their first major confrontation at the First Battle of Bull Run, which proves to both sides that the war will be much longer and bloodier than originally anticipated. In the Western Theater, the Union is relatively successful, with major battles such as Perryville and Shiloh, along with Union gunboat dominance of navigable rivers, which produces strategic Union victories and disrupts major Confederate operations.

However, warfare in the Eastern Theater begins poorly for the Union. In his Peninsula Campaign, U.S. General George B. McClellan fails to capture the Confederate capital of Richmond, Virginia, and retreats after attacks from Confederate General Robert E. Lee.

Meanwhile, in 1861-1862, both sides concentrate in on raising and training new armies. The primary action is the Union's success in controlling the border states, with Confederates being largely driven out of these areas.

The Confederate retreat at the Battle of Antietam in the autumn of 1862 leads to Lincoln's warning that he will issue an Emancipation Proclamation in January 1863 if the states do not return. This makes slavery a central war goal and ends the chance that Britain and France will intervene, and energizes the Republicans in the North, as well as their enemies, the anti-war Copperhead Democrats.

In late 1862 and the Spring of 1863, the smaller army of Lee wins battles, but he pushes too hard and ignores the Union threat in the west. Lee invades Pennsylvania in search of supplies and to cause war-weariness in the North. However, Lee's army is badly beaten at the July 1863 Battle of Gettysburg and barely makes it back to Virginia, which is perhaps the turning point of the war.

Also in July 1863, at the Battle of Vicksburg, Union forces under General Ulysses S. Grant gain control of the Mississippi River, which splits the Confederacy. Union General William Tecumseh Sherman marches south in 1864 from Chattanooga to capture Atlanta, which is a decisive victory that helps Lincoln win re-election and ends war jitters among Republicans in the North.

Industrial expansion in the North increases dramatically on the Home Front, as it utilizes its extensive railroad service and relocates its industrial workers into munitions factories. There is an increase in foreign trade, as the United States provides both food and cotton to Britain. Britain sends in manufactured products and thousands of volunteers to the Union Army, as well as a few to the Confederacy.

Britain operates blockade runners that bring in food, luxury items, and munitions to the Confederacy, and trades them for tobacco and cotton. But over time, the Union blockade increasingly shuts down the Confederate ports, and by late 1864, the blockade runners are usually captured before they can make very many runs.

The last two years of the war are bloody for both sides. Sherman marches almost unopposed through the southern states, burning cities, destroying plantations, ruining railroads and bridges, but avoiding civilian casualties.

He demonstrates that the South is unable to resist a Union invasion and destroys much of the Confederate heartland, such that it can no longer provide the desperately needed supplies to its armies. General Grant launches a war of attrition in the spring of 1864 and pursues General Lee to the Appomattox Campaign, which results in the surrender of Lee in April 1865.

The American Civil War is the earliest industrial war in the world. It includes the extensive use of railroads, the telegraph, steamships, and mass-produced weapons. The mobilization of civilian factories, mines, shipyards, banks, transportation, and food supplies is a prelude to the impact of industrialization in World War I.

The Civil War remains the deadliest war in American history, resulting in the deaths of about 750,000 soldiers and an undetermined number of civilian casualties. The war deaths include about ten percent of all Northern males 20–45 years old, and about 30 percent of all Southern white males aged 18–40.

The legacy of the war includes the abolition of slavery in the United States, the restoration of the Union, and the expansion of the federal government's role.

- b. *Emancipation (1863-1865)*.** On January 1, 1863, President Abraham Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation as an executive order. It immediately changes the legal status, as recognized by the U.S. government, of 3 million slaves in designated areas of the Confederacy from "slave" to "free."

It has the practical effect that as soon as a slave escapes the control of the Confederate government, by running away or through the advancing of federal troops, that slave becomes legally and actually free.

The slave owners are never compensated, and the plantation owners, realizing that emancipation will destroy their economic system, sometimes move their slaves as far as possible out of the reach of the Union army. By June 1865, the Union Army is in control of the Confederacy, and it liberates all of the designated slaves.

Large numbers of slaves are moved into camps run by the Freedmen's Bureau, where they are given food, shelter, medical care, and arrangements are made for their employment. The severe dislocation of the war and Reconstruction has a large negative impact on the black population, which results in a large amount of sickness and death.

- c. *Reconstruction (1863-1877)*.** Reconstruction lasts from Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863, to the Compromise of 1877. The major issues faced by Lincoln are the status of the ex-slaves ("Freedmen"), the loyalty and civil rights of

ex-rebels, the status of the 11 ex-Confederate states, the powers of the federal government needed to prevent a future civil war, and the question of whether Congress or the President will make the major decisions.

The severe threats of starvation and displacement of the unemployed Freedmen are met by the first major federal relief agency, the Freedmen's Bureau, operated by the Army.

Three "Reconstruction Amendments" are passed to expand civil rights for black Americans: the Thirteenth Amendment outlaws slavery; the Fourteenth Amendment guarantees equal rights for all and citizenship for blacks; and the Fifteenth Amendment prevents race from being used to disenfranchise men.

- d. ***Radical Reconstruction (1866-1877)***. After the Civil War, ex-Confederates remain in control of most Southern states for over two years, but changes dramatically when the Radical Republicans gain control of Congress in the 1866 elections.

President Andrew Johnson, who seeks easy terms for reunions with ex-rebels, is virtually powerless in the face of the Radical Republican Congress. He is impeached, but the attempt by the Senate to remove him from office fails by one vote.

Congress enfranchises black men and temporarily strips many ex-Confederate leaders of the right to hold office. New Republican governments come to power in the South based on a coalition made up of Freedmen, Carpetbaggers (new arrivals from the North), and Scalawags (native white Southerners), which is backed by the U.S. Army. The opponents of the coalitions say they are corrupt and violate the rights of whites.

- e. ***The KKK and the Rise of Jim Crow (1877-1956)***. State by state, the New Republican governments lose power to a conservative-Democratic coalition, which gains control of the entire South by 1877. In 1867, the Ku Klux Klan (KKK) emerges in response to Radical Reconstruction, as a white-supremacist organization opposed to black civil rights and Republican rule. The Ku Klux Klan Act of 1870 is vigorously enforced by President Ulysses Grant, which temporarily shuts down the Klan, and it disbands.

In about 1874, paramilitary groups, such as the White League and Red Shirts, emerge that work openly to use intimidation and violence to suppress black voting to regain white political power in states across the South during the 1870s.

Reconstruction ends after the disputed 1876 election. The Compromise of 1877 gives Republican candidate Rutherford B. Hayes the White House in exchange for removing all remaining federal troops from the South. After the federal government withdraws its troops from the South, the Southern Democrats take control of every Southern state.

From 1890 to 1908, the southern states effectively disenfranchise most black voters and many poor whites voters by making voter registration more difficult through poll

taxes, literacy tests, and other arbitrary devices. They pass segregation laws and impose second-class status on all blacks in a system known as Jim Crow that lasts until the Civil Rights Movement in the late 1950s.

14. **Growth and Industrialization (1880-1914)**. The rapid development and settlement of the far West occurs during the latter half of the nineteenth century, which begins with the wagon trains and riverboats and then is aided by the completion of the transcontinental railroad system in 1869 and beyond.

Europeans, especially from Germany and Scandinavia, immigrate in large numbers and settle in low-cost or free farms in the Prairie States. The Mountain West is opened up by the mining of silver and copper.

- a. ***The Indian Wars (1789-1894)***. As settlers encroach on the traditional lands of Native Americans, the United States Army fights frequent small-scale Indian wars. Gradually, the U.S. purchases all the Native American tribal lands, extinguishes their claims, and forces most tribes onto subsidized reservations by 1830.

According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census for 1894, during the period from 1789 to 1894, the government of the United States is involved in more than 40 Indian wars, which cost the lives of about 19,000 white men, women, and children, including those killed in individual combats, and the lives of about 30,000 Indians.

- b. ***The Gilded Age (1870-1920)***. Mark Twain used the term "Gilded Age" to describe the period from about 1870 to 1900, when there is a dramatic expansion of American wealth and prosperity, which is highlighted by massive corruption in the government. The political reforms during this period include the Civil Service Act of 1883, which mandates a competitive examination for applicants for government jobs.

Other important legislation during this period includes the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887, which ended the discrimination against small shippers by railroads, and the Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890, which outlawed monopolies in business. Mark Twain believes that this period is being corrupted by land speculators, scandalous politics, and unethical business practices.

Since the days of Charles A. Beard (1874 - 1948), the historian who questions the philosophical motivations of the Founding Fathers, and Matthew Josephson (1899 - 1978), the American journalist who popularizes the term "robber baron," some historians argue that the United States is effectively plutocratic (government by the wealthy) for at least part of the Gilded Age and Progressive Era.

By the late 19th century, the term "robber baron" is typically applied to businessmen who allegedly use exploitative practices to amass their wealth. These practices include exerting control over natural resources, influencing high-level government officials, paying only subsistence wages, squashing competition by acquiring their

competitors to create monopolies that raise prices, and selling stock at inflated prices to unsuspecting investors.

As financiers and industrialists such as J.P. Morgan and John D. Rockefeller begin to amass vast fortunes, many U.S. observers are concerned that the nation is losing its pioneering democratic spirit.

By 1890, the industrial production and per capita income of America exceed those of all other world nations. Additionally, due to heavy debts and declining farm prices, wheat and cotton farmers from the Southern and Western states join the new Populist Party.

From 1880 to 1914, the peak years of European immigration, more than 22 million people migrate to the United States. This extraordinary wave of immigration from Europe provides the labor for American industry and, at the same time, creates diverse communities in previously undeveloped areas.

Most of these immigrants are unskilled workers who quickly find jobs in mines, mills, and factories. However, many immigrants are craftsmen, especially from Britain and Germany, who bring human skills, and others are farmers, especially from Germany and Scandinavia, who purchase inexpensive land on the Prairies from the railroads, which send agents to Europe.

The working conditions of immigrants result in poverty, growing inequality, and dangerous working environments, which combine with socialist and anarchist ideas that spread among European immigrants, leading to the rise of the labor movement, often marked by violent strikes.

- c. ***Unions and Strikes (1863-1920)***. In industrial areas of the Northeast, skilled workers band together to control their crafts and raise their wages by forming labor unions. Prior to 1930, very few factory workers join the unions as part of the labor movement. The Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions is established in 1881 under the leadership of Samuel Gompers, which is a federation of different unions that does not directly enroll workers.

Its original goals are to encourage the formation of trade unions and to attain legislation, such as the prohibition of child labor, a national eight-hour day, and the exclusion of Chinese and other foreign contract workers.

By the 1880s, strikes organized by labor unions have become routine events. Between 1881 and 1905, approximately 37,000 strikes occurred, with the largest number in the building trades, followed by coal miners.

The primary goal of the strikes is to control working conditions, which include establishing uniform wage scales, protesting the firing of a member, and determining which rival union is in control. Most of these strikes are very short in duration.

In times of depression, the strikes are more violent but less successful, as the company is already losing money. However, they are successful in times of prosperity when the company is losing profits and wants to settle quickly.

During this period, industrial growth is rapid, led by John D. Rockefeller in oil and Andrew Carnegie in steel. Both men become leaders of philanthropy as espoused in Carnegie's 1889 article "The Gospel of Wealth," by giving away their fortunes to create a modern system of hospitals, universities, libraries, and foundations.

In 1893, a severe nationwide depression known as the Panic of 1893 occurs, impacting farmers, workers, and businessmen as prices, wages, and profits decline. Many railroads become bankrupt, and the resultant political reaction falls on the Democratic Party, which is led by President Grover Cleveland, who shoulders much of the blame.

There is significant labor unrest, involving numerous strikes, most notably the violent Pullman Strike of 1894, which was shut down by federal troops under Cleveland's orders.

The new Populist Party gains strength among the cotton and wheat farmers, as well as coal miners, but is surpassed by the even more popular Free Silver movement, which demands that silver be used to enlarge the money supply, leading to inflation that the silverites promise will end the depression. The financial, railroad, and business communities fight back hard, arguing that only the gold standard will save the economy.

In the 1896 election, the most intense in the nation's history, the conservative Republican William McKinley defeats the silverite William Jennings Bryan, who ran on the Democratic, Populist, and Silver Republican tickets. Bryan sweeps the South and West, but McKinley runs up landslides among the middle class, industrial workers, cities, and among upscale farmers in the Midwest.

Under McKinley, prosperity returns to the nation, the gold standard is enacted, and the tariff is raised. By 1900, the U.S. has the strongest economy in the world. Besides the two short recessions in 1907 and 1920, the overall economy remains prosperous and growing until 1929, which the Republicans credit to the policies of President McKinley.

On September 6, 1901, shortly after winning his second term in office in 1900, President McKinley is shot twice in the abdomen at close range by an assassin. On September 14, 1901, he dies of gangrene and Vice-President Theodore Roosevelt completes his second term in office. In the 1904 presidential election, Theodore Roosevelt wins his first full term in office by defeating the Democratic candidate, Alton B. Parker.

- d. ***Imperialism (1890-1914)***. After 1890, the United States emerges as a world economic and military power. The main event of this period is the Spanish–American War of 1898, which begins when Spain refuses American demands to reform its oppressive policies in Cuba. The "splendid little war," as one official calls it, involves a series of quick American land and sea victories. The war ends at the Treaty of Paris Peace Conference, where the United States acquires the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Guam.

Cuba becomes an independent nation under close American supervision. The peace terms prove to be controversial, although the war itself is widely popular. William Jennings Bryan leads the Democratic Party in opposition to the control of the Philippines, which he denounces as imperialism unbecoming to American democracy.

President William McKinley defends the acquisition and is riding high as the nation has returned to prosperity and feels triumphant in the war. In the 1900 presidential election, McKinley easily defeats Bryan in a rematch.

After defeating an insurrection by Filipino nationalists, the United States achieves little in the Philippines except in education and public health. It also builds roads, bridges, and wells, but other infrastructural developments lose much of their early vigor with the failure of the railroads.

By 1908, Americans had lost interest in empire-building and turned their international attention to the Caribbean, particularly the construction of the Panama Canal. The canal opens in 1914 and increases trade with Japan and the rest of the Far East.

A key innovation is the Open Door Policy, which grants the imperial powers (France, Germany, Britain, Italy, Japan, and Russia) equal access to Chinese business, with none of them allowed to take control of China.

15. ***The Progressive Era (1896-1916)***. The Progressive Era is a period of widespread social activism and political reform across the United States, spanning from the 1890s to World War I. The main objectives of the Progressive movement are to address the problems caused by industrialization, urbanization, immigration, and political corruption.

Social reformers are primarily middle-class citizens who target political machines and their leaders. Their goal is to remove these corrupt representatives from office to establish an additional means of direct democracy within the nation.

They also seek the regulation of monopolies through methods such as trustbusting and antitrust laws, which are seen as ways to promote equal competition in the interest of legitimate competitors. They advocate for new governmental roles and regulations, as well as new agencies to carry out those roles, such as the Food and Drug Administration (FDA).

The dynamic Progressive Movement is the result of the growing middle class's dissatisfaction with the corruption and inefficiency of politics as usual, as well as the failure of politicians to address increasingly pressing urban and industrial problems.

In every major city and state, as well as at the national level, and in education, medicine, and industry, progressives call for the modernization and reform of outdated institutions, the elimination of corruption in politics, and the introduction of efficiency as a criterion for change.

The leading politicians from both parties, which include Theodore Roosevelt, Charles Evans Hughes, and Robert La Follette on the Republican side, and William Jennings Bryan and Woodrow Wilson on the Democratic side, take up the cause of progressive reform.

Women become especially involved in the demands for women's suffrage, prohibition, and better schools. The most prominent leader of the women's movement is Jane Addams of Chicago, who creates settlement houses.

Corruption in business and government, along with rampant inner-city poverty, are exposed by journalists such as Upton Sinclair, Lincoln Steffens, and Jacob Riis. Progressives implement antitrust laws and regulate industries as meatpacking, pharmaceuticals, and railroads. The Sixteenth through Nineteenth Amendments to the Constitution result from progressive activism, which led to the implementation of the federal income tax, the direct election of Senators, prohibition, and women's suffrage.

During this period, a major transformation of the U.S. banking system occurs with the creation of the Federal Reserve System in 1913 and the introduction of cooperative banking to the U.S. in 1908, marked by the founding of the first credit union. The Progressive Movement lasts until the Stock Market crash in 1929, but the most active period is 1900–1918.

Note: The Federal Reserve System (Fed) is owned by the banks and is supervised by a seven-member Federal Reserve Board, whose members are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The Fed was created to protect banks when their depositors try to withdraw their money faster than some banks can pay it out, as banks create money “out of thin air” through the practice of fractional reserve banking.

- a. ***The Women's Suffrage Movement (1848-1920).*** In June 1848, the women's suffrage movement begins with the National Convention of the Liberty Party. Gerrit Smith, the presidential candidate for the party, argues for and establishes women's suffrage as a party plank.

One month later, his cousin, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, joins with Lucretia Mott and other women to organize the Seneca Falls Convention, which features the Declaration of Sentiments that demands equal rights for women and the right to vote.

Many of these activists have become politically aware during the abolitionist movement. Stanton, Lucy Stone, and Susan B. Anthony, among many others, are the leaders of the women's rights campaign during "first-wave feminism." In 1850, Stone and Paulina Wright Davis organize the prominent and influential National Women's Rights Convention.

After the Civil War, the movement reorganizes and gains experienced campaigners, many of whom have worked for prohibition within the Women's Christian Temperance Union. By the end of the 19th century, a few Western states have granted women full voting rights, and women have achieved significant legal victories by gaining rights in areas such as property and child custody.

In about 1912, the feminist movement begins to reawaken, emphasizing its demands for equality and arguing that the corruption of American politics necessitates purification by women, as men are unable to do the job. As suffragette Alice Paul leads parades through the capital and major cities, protests become increasingly common.

Paul splits from the large National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA) led by Carrie Chapman Catt, which favors a more moderate approach and supports the Democratic Party and Woodrow Wilson, and forms the more militant National Woman's Party. Suffragists are arrested during their "Silent Sentinels" pickets at the White House on January 10, 1917, and are taken as political prisoners, which is the first time such a tactic is used.

The old anti-suffragist argument that only men can fight a war, and therefore only men deserve the right to vote, is refuted by the enthusiastic participation of tens of thousands of American women on the home front during World War I. Across the world, grateful nations give women the right to vote.

Likewise, most Western states have already granted women the right to vote in state and national elections, and representatives from these states demonstrate that women's suffrage is a success, including Jeannette Rankin of Montana, the first woman to be elected to the U.S. House of Representatives in 1916.

The main resistance comes from the South, where white leaders are worried about the threat of black women voting. In 1920, the Nineteenth Amendment granted women the right to vote.

NAWSA becomes the League of Women Voters, and the National Woman's Party begins lobbying for full equality and the Equal Rights Amendment, which will pass Congress during the second wave of the women's movement in 1972, but will fail to obtain the ratification of the required number of states.

Politicians respond to the new electorate by emphasizing issues of special interest to women, which include prohibition, child health, and world peace. The main surge of

women voting comes in the 1928 presidential election, when the big-city machines realize they need the support of women to elect Al Smith, a Catholic from New York City. Meanwhile, Protestants mobilize women to support prohibition and vote for Republican Herbert Hoover, who wins the election.

16. World War I, Prosperity, and Depression (1914-1939). President Woodrow Wilson takes full control of foreign policy as World War I rages in Europe from 1914. He declares neutrality, but warns Germany that resumption of unrestricted submarine warfare against American ships supplying goods to Allied nations will mean war.

Germany decides to take the risk and try to win the war by cutting off supplies to Britain through the sinking of ships such as the RMS Lusitania. The U.S. declares war on Germany in April 1917, primarily in response to the threat posed by the Zimmermann Telegram, a message from German Foreign Secretary Arthur Zimmermann that proposes a German alliance with Mexico to attack the U.S.

American money, food, and munitions quickly arrive in Europe, but American troops have to be drafted and trained. By the summer of 1918, soldiers under the American Expeditionary Forces of General John J. Pershing arrive in Europe at the rate of 10,000 a day, at a time when Germany is unable to replace its losses.

Dissent in America against the war is suppressed by the Sedition Act of 1918 and the Espionage Act of 1917. German-language leftist and pacifist publications are suppressed, and over 2,000 dissidents are imprisoned for speaking out against the war. U.S. President Warren G. Harding later releases the political prisoners.

The result is an Allied victory over Germany in November 1918. President Wilson demands that Germany depose the Kaiser and accept his terms of peace that he announced in a Fourteen Points speech. Wilson dominates the 1919 Paris Peace Conference.

However, Germany is treated very harshly by the Allies in the 1919 Treaty of Versailles, as Wilson puts all his hopes in the new League of Nations. Wilson refuses to compromise with Senate Republicans over the issue of Congressional power to declare war, and the Senate rejects the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations.

a. *The Roaring Twenties (1920-1929).* During the 1920s, the U.S. grows steadily in stature as an economic and military world power. The United States Senate does not ratify the Treaty of Versailles, which is imposed by its Allies on Germany and the other defeated Central Powers, but chooses to pursue unilateralism instead.

The aftershock of Russia's October 1917 Revolution results in real fears of Communism in the United States, which leads to a Red Scare and the deportation of aliens who are considered subversive.

In 1918 and 1919, while public health facilities grow rapidly during the Progressive Era, and hospitals and medical schools are modernized, the nation loses approximately 675,000 lives to the Spanish flu pandemic.

In 1920, due to the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment, the manufacture, sale, import and export of alcohol are prohibited. The result is that in cities, illegal alcohol becomes a big business, which racketeers largely control.

The second Ku Klux Klan grows rapidly from 1922 to 1925, then collapses as a result of internal divisions, criminal behavior by leaders, especially D.C. Stephenson's conviction for the abduction, rape, and murder of Madge Oberholtzer, and external opposition.

Immigration laws are passed to strictly limit the number of new entries to the U.S. The 1920s are known as the Roaring Twenties due to the tremendous economic prosperity that occurred during this period. Jazz becomes popular among the younger generation during the 1920s, a decade often referred to as the Jazz Age.

The Great Depression of 1929-1939 and the New Deal of 1933-1936 are pivotal moments in the political, economic, and social history of America, having both reshaped the nation.

- b. *The Great Depression and the New Deal (1929-1939).*** The nation enjoys widespread prosperity during the 1920s, except for a weakness in agriculture. A financial bubble is fueled by an inflated stock market, which later leads to the Stock Market Crash on October 29, 1929. This event, along with many other economic factors, triggers a worldwide depression known as the Great Depression.

During this period, the United States experiences deflation in prices, unemployment soars from 3% in 1929 to 25% in 1933, farm prices fall by half, and manufacturing output plunges by one-third.

In 1932, the Democratic presidential nominee, Franklin D. Roosevelt (1932-1945), promises a "a New Deal for the American people," which becomes the enduring label for his domestic policies. The result is a series of permanent reform programs that include relief for the unemployed, assistance for the elderly, jobs for young men, social security, unemployment insurance, public housing, bankruptcy insurance, farm subsidies, and regulation of financial securities.

The state governments also add new programs and introduce the sales tax to pay for them. The New Deal revolution ideologically establishes modern liberalism in the United States and keeps the Democrats in power in Washington almost continuously for three decades as a result of the New Deal Coalition of ethnic whites, blacks, blue-collar workers, labor unions, and white Southerners.

It provides relief to the long-term unemployed through numerous programs, such as the Works Progress Administration (WPA) and the Civilian Conservation Corps, which was specifically designed for young men. The Public Works Administration establishes large-scale spending projects designed to provide private-sector construction jobs and rebuild the infrastructure of the nation.

In 1935 and 1936, the Second New Deal marks a turn to the left by strengthening labor unions through the Wagner Act, which guarantees the right of private sector employees to organize into trade unions, engage in collective bargaining, and take collective action, such as strikes. Central to the act is a ban on company-organized unions.

Unions become a powerful element of the merging New Deal Coalition, which wins reelection for Roosevelt in 1936, 1940, and 1944 by mobilizing union members, blue-collar workers, relief recipients, big city machines, ethnic and religious groups (especially Catholics and Jews), and the white South, along with blacks in the North (where they can vote).

Roosevelt seriously weakens his second term by a failed effort to pack the Supreme Court, which has been a center of conservative resistance to his programs. Most of the relief programs are dropped after 1938 and into the 1940s when the conservatives regain power in Congress through the Conservative Coalition.

Of special significance is the enactment of the Social Security Program in 1935. By 1936, the economy had basically recovered, but experiences a sharp, short recession in 1937-1938. However, long-term unemployment remains a persistent problem until it is addressed through wartime spending.

At the beginning of his first term, in an effort to denounce past U.S. interventionism and subdue any subsequent fears of Latin Americans, Roosevelt announces his foreign policy on March 4, 1933, during his inaugural address.

He announces that, "In the field of World policy, I would dedicate this nation to the policy of the good neighbor, the neighbor who resolutely respects himself and, because he does so, respects the rights of others, the neighbor who respects his obligations and respects the sanctity of his agreements in and with a World of neighbors."

To create a friendly relationship between the United States and Central and South American countries, Roosevelt seeks to avoid using military force in the region. In December 1933, this position is affirmed by Cordell Hull, Roosevelt's Secretary of State, at a conference of American states in Montevideo.

17. **World War II (1939-1945)**. During the Depression years, the United States remains focused on domestic concerns while democracy is declining across the world and many countries are falling under the control of dictators.

Imperial Japan asserts dominance in East Asia and the Pacific. Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy militarize and threaten overthrows, while Britain and France attempt to appease them to avert another war in Europe.

The U.S. legislation in the 1935-1939 Neutrality Acts seek to avoid foreign conflicts. However, this policy clashes with increasing anti-Nazi feelings following the German invasion of Poland in September 1939, which started World War II.

At the beginning of the war, Roosevelt positions the U.S. as the "Arsenal of Democracy" and pledges full-scale financial and munitions support for the Allies, including Lend-Lease agreements, but with no involvement of military personnel. Japan tries to neutralize America's power in the Pacific by attacking Pearl Harbor in 1941, but instead, it intensifies American support to enter the war.

The main contributions of the U.S. to the Allied war effort comprise money, industrial output, food, petroleum, technological innovation, and military personnel. Much of the focus of the U.S. government is on maximizing the national economic output, which causes a dramatic increase in GDP, the export of vast quantities of supplies to the Allies and American forces overseas, the end of unemployment, and a rise in civilian consumption, even as 40% of the GDP goes to the war effort.

Tens of millions of workers move from low-productivity occupations to high-efficiency jobs, which improves productivity through better technology and management. Students, retirees, housewives, and the unemployed join the active labor force.

The War Production Board manages economic mobilization, and a wartime production boom leads to full employment, which eliminates this vestige of the Great Depression. Labor shortages encourage industry to look for new sources of workers, which provide new roles for women and Blacks.

Most durable goods become unavailable, and essential items such as meat, clothing, and gasoline are tightly rationed. Housing is in short supply in industrial areas, as people often share living quarters. Prices and wages are controlled, and Americans save a large portion of their incomes, which leads to renewed growth after the war, instead of a return to depression.

Americans tolerate the extra work on the home front because of patriotism, increased pay, and the confidence that it is only "for the duration," and life will return to normal as soon as the war is won.

The Allies, comprising the United States, Britain, the Soviet Union, and other countries, view Germany as the primary threat in the war and assign the highest priority to Europe. The U.S. dominates the war against Japan and stops Japanese expansion in the Pacific in 1942.

After America loses Pearl Harbor and the Philippines, and manages a draw in the Battle of the Coral Sea (May 1942), the American Navy inflicts a decisive blow to Japan at Midway (June 1942).

American ground forces participate in the North African Campaign, which culminates in the collapse of Mussolini's fascist government in 1943, as Italy switches sides to the Allies. A more significant European front is opened on D-Day, June 6, 1944, in which American and Allied forces are able to invade Nazi-occupied France from Britain.

War fervor inspires anti-Japanese sentiment in the United States, which leads to the internment of Japanese Americans. Roosevelt's Executive Order 9066 results in over 120,000 Americans of Japanese descent being removed from their homes and placed in internment camps. Two-thirds of those who are interned are American citizens, and half of them are children.

Military research and development also increases, which leads to the Manhattan Project, a secret effort to harness nuclear fission to produce atomic bombs. The first nuclear device ever detonated is conducted on July 16, 1945.

The Allies push the Germans out of France but the western front stopped short and leaves Berlin to the Soviets, as the Nazi regime formally capitulates in May 1945, which ends the war in Europe. In the Pacific, the U.S. implements an island-hopping toward Tokyo.

The Philippines is eventually reconquered, after Japan and the United States fight in history's largest naval battle, "The Battle of Leyte Gulf." The war wipes out all the development the United States has invested in the Philippines, as cities and towns are completely destroyed.

The United States then establishes airfields for bombing runs against mainland Japan from the Mariana Islands, and achieve hard-fought victories at Iwo Jima and Okinawa in 1945.

Bloodied at Okinawa, the U.S. prepares to invade Japan's home islands when the decision is made to use B-29s to drop atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945, which compels Japan to surrender and end World War II. The U.S. occupies Japan (and part of Germany) and restructures Japan along American lines.

During the war, Roosevelt coins the term "Four Powers" to refer to the four major Allies of World War II: the United States, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, and China, which later become the foundation of the United Nations Security Council.

Although the nation loses more than 400,000 military personnel and civilians in the war, the U.S. mostly prospers, untouched by the devastation of the war that inflicts a heavy toll on Europe and Asia.

The Participation of America in postwar foreign affairs marks the end of predominant American isolationism. The threat of nuclear weapons inspires both optimism and fear. Nuclear weapons have not been used since the end of World War II, and a "long peace" begins between the global powers in an era of competition that comes to be known as the Cold War. Despite the absence of a global war during this period, there have been regional wars in Korea and Vietnam.

The Truman Doctrine, announced to Congress on March 12, 1947, marks the beginning of the Cold War reality. The Truman Doctrine implies American support for other nations that may be threatened by Soviet communism. The Truman Doctrine becomes the foundation of American foreign policy and leads to the formation of NATO in 1949, a military alliance that remains in existence.

18. The Cold War, Counterculture, and Civil Rights (1945-2000). After World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union emerge as the two dominant superpowers in the world. The U.S. is approved for participation in the United Nations (UN) by the U.S. Senate in a bipartisan vote, marking a shift away from traditional isolationism and a move toward increased international involvement.

The primary goals of America in the 1945-1948 period are to rescue Europe from the devastation of World War II and to contain the expansion of Communism, which the Soviet Union represents.

U.S. foreign policy during the Cold War is built around supporting Western Europe and Japan, along with the containment policy of communism. The U.S. joins the wars in Korea and Vietnam and topples the left-wing governments in third-world countries to try to stop the spread of communism.

To counteract the threat of Communist expansion in the Balkans, the Truman Doctrine of 1947 provides military and economic aid to Greece and Turkey. In 1948, piecemeal financial aid programs are replaced with a comprehensive U.S. Marshall Plan, which pumps money into the economies of Western Europe and removes trade barriers, while modernizing the managerial practices of businesses and governments.

The \$13 billion Marshall Plan budget compares to a 1948 U.S. GDP of \$258 billion and is in addition to the \$12 billion in American aid provided to Europe between the end of the war and the start of the Marshall Plan.

Joseph Stalin, the Soviet head of state, prevents his satellite states from participating in the Plan, and Eastern Europe, with inefficient centralized economies, falls further and further behind Western Europe in terms of economic development and prosperity.

In 1949, the United States rejects the long-standing policy of no military alliances in peacetime and forms the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) alliance, which has continued until the present time.

In response, the Soviet Union forms the Warsaw Pact of communist states, which leads to the "Iron Curtain," a term describing the political boundary that divides Europe into two separate areas at the end of World War II.

The Soviet Union tests its first nuclear weapon in August 1949, which escalates the risk of warfare. However, the threat of mutually assured destruction prevents both superpowers from going to nuclear war, and results in proxy wars, especially in Korea and Vietnam, in which the two sides do not directly confront each other.

President Dwight D. Eisenhower is elected in a landslide, marking the first time a Republican has been elected president since 1932, and he has a lasting impact on American life and politics. He ends the Korean War and avoids any other major conflicts.

He relies on very high technology to cut military spending, such as the use of long-range bombers and intercontinental missiles to carry nuclear weapons. He provides strong support to the NATO alliance and establishes other alliances along similar lines, but they never become particularly effective.

Eisenhower works to develop friendlier relations with the Soviet Union after Stalin's death in 1953. At home, he ends McCarthyism, expands the Social Security program, and presides over a decade of bipartisan harmony. He promotes civil rights cautiously by sending in the Army when trouble is threatened over racial integration in Little Rock, Arkansas.

The Space Race begins when the Soviet Union unexpectedly leapfrogs American technology in 1957 by launching Sputnik, the first Earth satellite. America wins the Space Race in 1969 when Apollo 11 lands astronauts on the Moon.

The concern about the weaknesses of American education leads to large-scale federal support for science education and research. In the decades after World War II, the U. S. becomes a global influence in economic, political, military, cultural, and technological affairs.

John F. Kennedy is elected President in 1960, and his administration sees the acceleration of the role of the nation in the Space Race, the escalation of the role of America in the Vietnam War, the Bay of Pigs Invasion, the Cuban Missile Crisis, and the jailing of Martin Luther King Jr. during the Birmingham protests. The nation is left in profound shock by the assassination of President Kennedy on November 22, 1963, and Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson succeeds him.

a. ***The Great Society (1963-1968)***. President Lyndon B. Johnson secures congressional passage of his Great Society programs in the mid-1960s. These programs include civil rights, the end of legal segregation, Medicare, the extension of welfare, federal aid to education at all levels, subsidies for the arts and humanities, environmental activism, and a series of programs designed to eradicate poverty.

According to later historians, liberal intellectuals gradually develop a new vision for achieving economic and social justice during the early 1960s, which contains no hint of radicalism, little disposition to revive New Deal era crusades against the concentration of economic power, and no intention to redistribute wealth or restructure existing institutions.

Internationally, the vision is strongly anti-Communist, and aims to defend the free world, to encourage economic growth at home, and to ensure that the resulting prosperity is fairly distributed.

The agenda of this liberalism is influenced by Keynesian economic theory, which envisions massive public expenditure to accelerate economic growth, thereby providing the public with resources to fund larger welfare, housing, health, and educational programs.

In the 1964 election, Johnson wins an electoral landslide against conservative Barry Goldwater, which breaks the decades-long control of Congress by the Conservative Coalition. However, the Republicans bounce back in 1966 and elect President Richard Nixon in the 1968 election.

Nixon largely continues the New Deal and Great Society programs he inherits, but conservative reaction will return with the election of Ronald Reagan in 1980. Meanwhile, the American people complete the great migration from farms to the cities and experience a period of sustained economic expansion.

- b. *Civil Rights Movement (1954-1968)*.** Starting in the mid-1950s, institutionalized racism across the United States is increasingly challenged by the growing Civil Rights Movement, especially in the South. The activism of African-American leaders Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King Jr. lead to the Montgomery bus boycott, which launches the movement.

For years, African Americans will struggle with violence against them, but will achieve great strides toward equality with Supreme Court decisions, which include Brown v. Board of Education and Loving v. Virginia, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Fair Housing Act of 1968, all of which end the Jim Crow laws that legalized racial segregation between whites and blacks.

Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., who wins the 1964 Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts to achieve equality of the races, is assassinated in 1968. Following his death, others lead the movement, most notably Coretta Scott King, the widow of Dr. King, who is also active, like her husband, in the Opposition to the Vietnam War and the Women's Liberation Movement.

There are 164 riots in 128 American cities in the first nine months of 1967 as a result of frustrations with the seemingly slow progress of the integration movement, which

leads to the emergence of more radical discourses during the early 1960s, and the rise of the Black Power Movement of the late 1960s and early 1970s.

The 1960s will ultimately bring about significant strides toward integration, particularly in government service, sports, and entertainment. Native Americans turn to the federal courts to fight for their land rights. They hold protests against the failure of the federal government to honor its treaties with Native Americans. The American Indian Movement (AIM) is one of the most outspoken of these Native American groups.

In the 1960s, Cesar Chavez begins organizing poorly paid Mexican-American farm workers in California, which includes a five-year-long strike by grape pickers. Then Chávez forms the first successful farm workers' union in the nation. His United Farm Workers of America (UFW) falters after a few years, but after Chavez dies in 1993, he becomes an iconic "folk saint" among Mexican Americans.

- c. ***The Women's Liberation Movement (1963-1973)***. Starting with the 1963 publication of Betty Friedan's best-seller, *The Feminine Mystique*, a new consciousness of the inequality faced by American women begins to sweep the nation.

The book explains how many housewives feel trapped and unfulfilled and assaults American culture for its creation of the notion that women can only find fulfillment through their roles as wives, mothers, and keepers of the home.

It further argues that women are as capable as men to perform every type of job. In 1966, the National Organization for Women (NOW) is established by Friedan and others to advocate for women, much like the NAACP does for African Americans.

Protests begin, and the new women's liberation movement grows in size and power, through much media attention, and by 1968, it has replaced the Civil Rights Movement as the main social revolution in America.

Marches, parades, rallies, boycotts, and pickets bring out thousands and sometimes millions. There are outstanding gains for women in medicine, law, and business, but only a few are elected to public office.

Early on, the women's movement is split into factions by political ideology, with NOW on the left, the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) on the right, the National Women's Political Caucus (NWPC) in the center, and more radical groups formed by younger women on the far-left.

The proposed Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) to the Constitution, which is passed by Congress in 1972, is defeated by a conservative coalition mobilized by Phyllis Schlafly, which argues that it degrades the position of the housewife and makes young women susceptible to the military draft.

However, many laws have been enacted in support of women's equal rights. Federal laws are passed that include those that equalize pay, employment, education, employment opportunities, and credit; those that end pregnancy discrimination; and those that require NASA, the Military Academies, and other organizations to admit women.

State laws are passed that end spousal abuse and marital rape, and the Supreme Court rules that the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment applies to women, and state ERAs establish women's equal status under the law.

As a result of these laws and rulings, the social customs and national consciousness regarding women's equality have begun to change. However, the controversial issue of abortion, deemed by the Supreme Court as a fundamental right in Roe v. Wade (1973), is still being debated today.

- d. ***Counterculture and Cold War Détente (1960-1979)***. During the Cold War, the United States enters the Vietnam War, the growing unpopularity of which feeds the existing social movements, including those among women, minorities, and young people. The Great Society social programs of President Lyndon B. Johnson, along with numerous rulings by the Warren Court, contribute to the wide range of social reforms during the 1960s and 1970s.

As progress continues toward civil rights for all Americans, feminism and the environmental movement become political forces. The Counterculture Revolution involves new cultural forms and a dynamic subculture that celebrates experimentation and unconventional lifestyles.

The rise of the hippie and other alternative lifestyles sweeps through the nation and much of the Western world in the late 1960s and early 1970s, further dividing Americans in a "culture war" but also bringing forth more liberated social views.

In 1969, President Johnson is succeeded by Republican Richard Nixon, who attempts to turn the war over to the South Vietnamese forces gradually. He negotiates a peace treaty in 1973, which secures the release of POWs and leads to the withdrawal of U.S. troops.

The war has cost the lives of 58,000 American troops. Nixon manipulates the fierce distrust between the Soviet Union and China to the advantage of the United States by achieving *détente* with both parties.

The Watergate scandal, which involves Nixon's cover-up of the break-in of his operatives into the Democratic National Committee headquarters at the Watergate office complex, destroys his political base, sends many of his aides to prison, and forces Nixon's resignation on August 9, 1974.

Vice President Gerald Ford succeeds him. The Fall of Saigon in 1975 ends the Vietnam War and results in the reunification of North and South Vietnam, and communist victories also occur in the same year in neighboring Cambodia and Laos.

The 1973 OPEC oil embargo, which is targeted at nations that supported Israel during the 1973 Yom Kippur War, marks a long-term economic transition. For the first time, energy prices skyrocket, and American factories face serious competition from foreign automobiles, clothing, electronics, and consumer goods.

By the late 1970s, the American economy suffers an energy crisis, slow economic growth, high unemployment, and very high inflation, coupled with high interest rates (the term stagflation is coined). At this time, economists generally agree on the wisdom of deregulation, and many of the New Deal-era regulations dealing with transportation, banking, and telecommunications have been repealed.

In the presidential election of 1976, Jimmy Carter runs as someone who is not a part of the Washington political establishment and is elected president. On the world stage, Carter brokers the Camp David Accords between Israel and Egypt. In 1979, Iranian students storm the U.S. embassy in Tehran and take 66 Americans hostage, which results in the Iranian hostage crisis.

With the Iranian hostage crisis and continuing stagflation, President Carter loses the 1980 presidential election to the Republican Ronald Reagan. On January 20, 1981, minutes after Carter's term in office ends, the remaining U.S. captives held at the U.S. embassy in Iran are released, ending the 444-day Iranian hostage crisis.

- e. ***Rise of Conservatism and the End of the Cold War (1980-2000).*** Ronald Reagan produces a major political realignment with his landslide election victories in 1980 and 1984. The economic policies of Reagan (dubbed "Reaganomics") and the implementation of the Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 lowers the top marginal tax rate from 70% to 28% over the course of seven years.

Reagan continues to downsize governmental taxation and regulation. The U.S. experiences a recession in 1982, but the negative indicators reverse, with the inflation rate decreasing from 11% to 2%, the unemployment rate declining from 10.8% in December 1982 to 7.5% in November 1984, and the economic growth rate increasing from 4.5% to 7.2%.

Reagan orders a buildup of the U.S. military and incurs additional budget deficits. He introduces a complicated missile defense system known as the Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) (dubbed "Star Wars" by opponents) in which, theoretically, the U.S. will be able to shoot down missiles with laser systems in space.

The Soviet Union reacts harshly because they believe SDI will violate the 1972 Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty and will upset the balance of power by giving the U.S. a significant military advantage. For years, Soviet General Secretary Mikhail

Gorbachev argues vehemently against SDI. However, by the late 1980s, he decides that the system will never work and should not be used to block disarmament deals with the U.S.

Historians debate the impact of the SDI threat on the Soviet Union, specifically whether it was sufficient to compel Gorbachev to initiate radical reforms, or whether the deterioration of the Soviet economy alone prompted the reforms.

There is agreement that the Soviets recognize they are significantly behind the Americans in military technology, and it will be very expensive to catch up. Furthermore, the country's military expenses already place a heavy burden on the Soviet economy.

The 1983 Invasion of Grenada and 1986 bombing of Libya are popular in the U.S, though his backing of the Contra rebels in Nicaragua during the 1980s is mired in the controversy over the Iran–Contra affair.

President Reagan meets four times with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, who ascends to power as General Secretary of the Communist Party in 1985, and their summit conferences lead to the signing of the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty.

Gorbachev tries to save Communism in the Soviet Union by first ending the expensive nuclear arms race with America, and then by detaching from the East European empire in 1989. The Soviet Union collapses on Christmas Day 1991, marking the end of the Cold War between the U.S. and the Soviet Union.

During the 1990s, the United States emerges as the world's only remaining superpower and continues to intervene in international affairs, which includes the 1991 Gulf War against Iraq led by President George H. W. Bush.

Following his election in 1992, President Bill Clinton oversees one of the longest periods of economic expansion and unparalleled gains in the Stock Market, which is a side effect of the digital revolution and new business opportunities created by the Internet. He also works with the Republican Congress to pass the first balanced federal budget in 30 years.

In 1998, President Clinton is impeached by the House of Representatives on charges of lying under oath about a sexual relationship with White House intern Monica Lewinsky. He is acquitted by the Senate. The failure of the Clinton impeachment and the Democratic gains in the 1998 election force Speaker of the House Newt Gingrich, a Republican, to resign from Congress.

After 1968 (except for 1976), the Republican Party expands its base throughout the South, primarily to its strength among socially conservative white Evangelical

Protestants and traditionalist Roman Catholics, who complement its traditional strength in the business community and suburbs.

The South takes on the two-party structure that characterizes most of the nation, as white Democrats in the South lose their dominance of the Democratic Party in the 1990s. By 1980, the central leader of the Republican Party is Ronald Reagan, whose conservative policies call for reduced government spending and regulation, lower taxes, and a strong anti-Soviet foreign policy.

The iconic status of Ronald Reagan in the party persists into the 21st century, as practically all Republican Party leaders acknowledge his stature. Social scientists Theodore Caplow and others argue that, "The Republican party, nationally, moved from right-center toward the center in the 1940s and 1950s, then moved right again in the 1970s and 1980s."

They add: "The Democratic party, nationally, moved from left-center toward the center in the 1940s and 1950s, then moved further toward the right-center in the 1970s and 1980s."

19. **George W. Bush (2000-2008)**. The close presidential election in 2000 between Governor George W. Bush and Vice President Al Gore helps to lay the seeds for the political polarization that later comes to the nation. The election results in the decisive states of New Mexico and Florida are extremely close, producing a dramatic dispute over the counting of votes.

Including the 2000 election, the Democrats have had a majority of the national vote in every election from 1992 to 2020, except for the 2004 election.

- a. ***The 21st Century and the War on Terror (2001-2007)***. The United States is struck by a terrorist attack on September 11, 2001 ("9/11") when 19 al-Qaeda hijackers commandeer four airliners to be used in suicide attacks. They intentionally crash two airliners into both twin towers of the World Trade Center and the third into the Pentagon, killing 2,937 victims, 206 aboard the three airliners, 2,606 who were in the World Trade Center and on the ground, and 125 who were in the Pentagon.

The fourth plane is retaken by the passengers and crew of the airliner. Although they are not able to land the plane safely, they are able to retake control of the aircraft and crash it into an empty field in Pennsylvania, killing all 44 people, including the four terrorists on board, which saves whatever target the terrorists are aiming for. Both Twin Towers of the World Trade Center collapse entirely within two hours, causing massive damage to the surrounding area and blanketing Lower Manhattan in toxic dust clouds.

A total of 2,977 victims perish in the attacks, and, in response, President George W. Bush announces a "War on Terror" on September 20, 2001. On October 7, 2001, the

United States and NATO then invade Afghanistan to overthrow the Taliban regime, which has provided a safe haven to al-Qaeda and its leader, Osama bin Laden.

To prevent future terrorist attacks, the federal government establishes new domestic security procedures. The 2001 USA Patriot Act enhances the government's ability to monitor communications and removes legal restrictions on information sharing between federal law enforcement and intelligence services. The U.S. Department of Homeland Security is created to lead and coordinate federal counter-terrorism activities.

Since 2002, the indefinite detention of terrorism suspects captured abroad by the U.S. government at the Guantanamo Bay detention camp, a prison at the U.S. naval base in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, leads to allegations of human rights abuses and violations of international law.

From March 19 to May 1, 2003, the United States launches an invasion of Iraq, which leads to the collapse of the Iraq government and the eventual capture of Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein, with whom the U.S. has had long-standing tense relations.

The reasons for the invasion cited by the Bush Administration include the spreading of democracy, the liberation of the Iraqi people, and the elimination of weapons of mass destruction (a key demand of the UN as well), but later investigations find that parts of the intelligence reports are inaccurate.

Although there are some initial successes early in the invasion, the continued Iraq War fuels international protests and gradually sees domestic support decline, as many people begin to question whether or not the invasion is worth the cost.

In 2007, after years of violence by the Iraqi insurgency, President Bush deploys more troops in a strategy dubbed "the surge," which reduces the death toll, but the political stability of Iraq remains in doubt.

20. **Barack Obama (2009-2016)**. In the 2008 presidential election, the unpopularity of President Bush and the Iraq war, along with the 2008 financial crisis, leads to the election of President Barack Obama, the first multiracial president, with African-American ancestry.

President Obama reluctantly continues the war effort in Iraq after his election until August 31, 2010, when he declares that combat operations are ended. However, 50,000 American soldiers and military personnel are kept in Iraq to assist Iraqi forces, help protect withdrawing forces, and work on counter-terrorism until December 15, 2011, when the war is declared formally over and the last troops leave the country.

At the same time, President Obama increases American involvement in Afghanistan by starting a surge strategy using an additional 30,000 troops, while proposing to begin withdrawing troops sometime in December 2014.

In 2009, on his second day in office, he issues an executive order banning the use of torture, which is codified into law in 2016. Obama also orders the closing of secret CIA-run prisons overseas ("black sites").

President Obama seeks to close the Guantanamo Bay detention camp "as soon as practicable," and over his tenure, the population of the detention camp declines from 242 inmates to 45 inmates, and the Guantanamo Review Task Force clears many prisoners for release and resettlement abroad. Obama's efforts to close the prison entirely are stymied by Congress, which in 2011 enacts a measure that blocks Obama from transferring any Guantanamo detainees to U.S. facilities.

In May 2011, after nearly a decade in hiding, Osama bin Laden, the founder and leader of Al Qaeda, is killed in Pakistan in a raid conducted by U.S. naval special forces acting under President Obama's direct orders.

Although Al Qaeda is near collapse in Afghanistan, affiliated organizations continue to operate in Yemen and other remote areas, as the CIA uses drones to hunt down and remove its leadership.

The Boston Marathon bombing is a bombing incident, followed by subsequent related shootings, that occurs when two pressure cooker bombs explode during the Boston Marathon on April 15, 2013. The bombs explode near the finish line of the marathon and kills 3 people and injures an estimated 264 others.

The Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant rise to prominence in September 2014. In addition to taking control of much of Western Iraq and Eastern Syria, ISIS also beheads two American journalists and one British journalist, which lead to a major military offensive by the United States and its allies in the region.

On December 28, 2014, President Obama officially ends the combat mission in Afghanistan and promises a withdrawal of all remaining U.S. troops at the end of 2016, with the exception of the embassy guards, but the U.S. military mission does not formally end until August 30, 2021.

a. *The Great Recession (2007-2016)*. In September 2008, the United States and most of Europe enters the longest recession since World War II, which is often called the "Great Recession." Multiple overlapping crises are involved, which include the housing market crisis, a subprime mortgage crisis, soaring oil prices, an automotive industry crisis, rising unemployment, and the worst financial crisis since the Great Depression.

The stability of the entire economy is threatened in September 2008 by a financial crisis when Lehman Brothers fails and other giant banks are in grave danger. Starting in October, the federal government lends \$245 billion to financial institutions through

the Troubled Asset Relief Program which is passed by bipartisan majorities and signed by President Bush.

Following his election victory in November 2008 by a wide margin, President Barack Obama signs into law the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, a \$787 billion economic stimulus program designed to help the economy recover from the deepening recession.

Obama takes steps to rescue the auto industry and prevent future economic meltdowns, which include a bailout of General Motors and Chrysler by temporarily placing their ownership in the hands of the government, as well as the "Cash for Clunkers" program, which temporarily boosts new car sales.

In June 2009, the recession officially ends, and the economy begins to slowly expand again. Beginning in December 2007, the unemployment rate steeply rises from around 5% to a peak of about 10% in 2009 before falling as the economy and labor markets experience a recovery.

The economic expansion that follows the Great Recession is the longest in U.S. history, and strong growth leads to a 50-year low in the unemployment rate in 2019.

Despite the strong economy, increases in wages are being surpassed by increases in the costs of housing, childcare, higher education, and out-of-pocket healthcare expenses, which some refer to as an *affordability crisis*.

The economic expansion comes to an end in early 2020, primarily due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which causes a sharp economic contraction with a serious impact in the United States.

- b. *Legislation and Congressional Gridlock (2009-2016)*.** From 2009 to 2010, the 111th Congress passes major legislation, which includes the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (informally known as Obamacare), the Dodd–Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act, and the Don't Ask, Don't Tell Repeal Act, which is signed into law by President Obama.

Following the 2010 midterm elections, which result in a Republican-controlled House of Representatives and a Democratic-controlled Senate, Congress presides over a period of elevated gridlock, which includes heated debates over whether or not to raise the debt ceiling, extend tax cuts for citizens making over \$250,000 annually, and many other key issues.

These ongoing debates lead to President Obama signing the Budget Control Act of 2011 to resolve the debt-ceiling crisis. Following the re-election of President Obama in 2012, the Congressional gridlock continues as congressional Republicans' call for the repeal of the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, along with other demands.

This results in the first government shutdown since the Clinton administration and nearly leads to the first default on U.S. debt since the 19th century. The approval ratings of Congress fall to record lows as a result of growing public frustration with both parties in Congress.

- c. ***New Political Movements and Social Discontent (2009-2016)***. Recent events include the rise of new political movements, such as the conservative Tea Party Movement and the liberal Occupy Movement.

The Tea Party Movement calls for lower taxes and for a reduction in the national debt and the federal budget deficit through decreased government spending. The liberal Occupy Movement expresses opposition to social and economic inequality and to the lack of perceived "real democracy" around the world.

The debate over the issue of rights for the LGBT community, including same-sex marriage, begins to shift in favor of same-sex couples. President Obama becomes the first president to support same-sex marriage in 2012 openly, and the Supreme Court provides for federal recognition of same-sex unions and then legalizes gay marriage nationwide in 2015.

Political debate continues over tax reform, immigration reform, income inequality, and U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East. Of particular concern is the impact of global terrorism, the rise of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant, and the existing climate of Islamophobia.

The late 2010s are marked by widespread social upheaval and change in the United States, which includes the #MeToo Movement that exposes alleged sexual harassment and abuse in the workplace, and involves multiple prominent celebrities who are accused of misconduct or rape. The Black Lives Matter Movement also gains support online, and it is intensified by the police killings of multiple black Americans.

21. ***Donald J. Trump (2017-2020)***. In 2016, Republican Donald Trump is elected president following a contentious election against former Secretary of State Hillary Clinton.

The results of the election are called into question, and U.S. intelligence agencies conclude that associates of the Russian government interfered in the election "to undermine public faith in the U.S. democratic process." This leads to investigations by the FBI and Congress, which include questions about potential collusion between the Trump campaign and Russian officials.

A day after his inauguration on January 21, 2017, the Women's March protest against Trump's presidency is one of the largest protests in American history.

President Trump espouses an "America First" ideology during his presidency, which includes the placement of restrictions on asylum seekers and imposing a widely controversial ban on immigration from seven Muslim-majority nations. Many of his executive orders and other actions are challenged in court, and he engages the United States in a trade war with China by imposing a wide range of tariffs on Chinese products.

In 2018, the Trump administration's "zero tolerance" policy towards illegal immigrants erupts into controversy over the separation of thousands of undocumented children from their parents. Trump rescinds this policy after an outcry from the public. Trump's term in office sees the confirmation of three new justices to the Supreme Court, which cements a conservative majority in the court.

- a. ***The Issue of Gun Violence (2016-Present)***. After 2016, there are increased calls for gun control and reform when a mass shooting in the Pulse Nightclub in Orlando, Florida on June 12, 2016, kills 49 and wounds 53, and a mass shooting in Las Vegas on October 1, 2017 kills 60 and wounds 411.

Following the Stoneman Douglas High School shooting in Parkland, Florida, on February 14, 2018, gun control advocates organize the March for our Lives, where millions of students across the country walk out of school to protest gun violence.

- b. ***The Issue of Political Corruption (2019)***. In 2019, a whistleblower complaint alleges that President Trump withholds foreign aid from Ukraine under the demand that they investigate the business dealings of the son of Joe Biden, Trump's presidential opponent in the 2020 election.

As a result, Trump is impeached for the abuse of power and the obstruction of Congress, and becomes the third president to have been impeached, but he is acquitted by the Senate.

- c. ***The COVID-19 Pandemic (2020-Present)***. In January 2020, the arrival of the worldwide COVID-19 pandemic in the United States is first confirmed. As of June 23, 2022, at 5:37 PM ET, the U.S. has suffered more coronavirus deaths than any other nation, with the death toll of 1,010,089, which surpasses the number of U.S. deaths in the Korean War and Vietnam War combined.

In 2020, the life expectancy in the U.S. falls by over one year, and unemployment rates rise to the worst rates since the Great Depression as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. The murder of George Floyd in May 2020 causes mass protests and riots in many major cities over police brutality, which causes many states to call in the National Guard.

There is a rise in domestic terrorist threats and widespread conspiracy theories around mail-in voting and COVID-19 in 2020. A fringe far-right political movement among some ardent conservatives called the QAnon conspiracy theory gains publicity, and

multiple major cities are hit by rioting and brawls between far-left antifascist affiliated groups and far-right groups such as the Proud Boys.

22. Joe Biden (2021-2024). In the 2020 presidential election, Democrat Joe Biden defeats President Trump, which is the first defeat of an incumbent president since 1992. There is a historically high voter turnout with an exceptional amount of voting by mail and early voting due to the danger of contracting COVID-19 at traditional voting booths.

Trump then repeatedly makes false claims of massive voter fraud and election rigging, which leads to the January 6, 2021, storming of the United States Capitol by supporters of Trump and right-wing militias.

That storming of the Capital leads to the second impeachment of Trump, who becomes the only U.S president to be impeached twice. Although some members of his own Republican party vote against him, the Senate acquits Trump again.

On December 14, 2020, the largest mass vaccination campaign in U.S history kicks off when ICU nurse Sandra Lindsay becomes the first person in the U.S to receive the Pfizer-BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine.

As of June 8, 2022, about 78% of the U.S population aged 5 years and older has received at least one dose of vaccine, about 71% has received the primary series of vaccinations, and about 66.7% has been fully vaccinated.

Following the election of President Biden, the date for U.S. troops to withdraw from Afghanistan is moved back from April to August 31, 2021. In Afghanistan, the U.S. withdrawal coincides with the 2021 Taliban offensive, which culminates in the fall of Kabul. The U.S. military mission in Afghanistan formally ends on August 30, 2021, following a massive airlift of over 120,000 people.

On March 11, 2021, the American Rescue Plan Act of 2021 is signed into law by President Biden, which is a \$1.9 trillion stimulus bill that temporarily establishes expanded unemployment insurance and, in response to continued economic pressure from COVID-19, sends \$1,400 stimulus checks to most Americans.

A ten-year plan is brokered by Biden alongside Democrats and Republicans in Congress, resulting in his signing of the bipartisan Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act of 2021, which invests in American roads, bridges, public transit, ports, and broadband access. Biden also appoints Ketanji Brown Jackson to the U.S. Supreme Court, the first Black woman to serve on the court.

The Build Back Better Act is proposed by Biden to significantly expand the U.S. social safety net, but these efforts, along with voting rights legislation, fail in Congress. However, the Inflation Reduction Act of 2022 is signed in August 2022 by Biden, which is a domestic appropriations bill that includes some of the provisions of the Build Back Better Act after the entire bill failed to pass.

This Act includes significant federal investment in climate and domestic clean energy production, tax credits for solar panels, electric cars, and other home energy programs, as well as a three-year extension of the subsidies for the Affordable Care Act.

Starting in June 2022, Biden accomplished a string of legislative achievements, which include the signing of the bipartisan Safer Communities Act of 2022, the CHIPS and Science Act of 2022, a massive investment in the Semiconductor industry and manufacturing, the Honoring our PACT Act of 2022, an expansion of veterans healthcare, the Respect for Marriage Act of 2022, which repeals the Defense of Marriage Act, and codifying Same-sex and Interracial marriage.

In a landmark ruling on June 24, 2022, the Supreme Court determined that abortion is not a protected right under the Constitution. The ruling, which sparked protests outside of the Supreme Court building and across the country, overturned *Dobbs v. Jackson Women's Health Organization*, *Roe v. Wade*, and *Planned Parenthood v. Casey*.

On June 30, 2022, Ketanji Brown Jackson succeeds Justice Breyer upon his retirement from the court. She becomes the first black woman and the first former federal public defender to serve on the Supreme Court upon her swearing-in.

In 2023, Trump begins appearing in court as a defendant in multiple notable criminal trials, including alleged federal crimes, while he is campaigning for the 2024 presidential election. Meanwhile, the U.S. begins supporting Israel in the Israel-Hamas war and protecting shipping in the Red Sea from attacks by the Yemeni Houthis.

In June 2024, Trump becomes the first president convicted of a crime when he is found guilty of 34 felony counts for falsifying business documents related to his paying off of Stormy Daniels in 2016.

In July, the Supreme Court rules in *Trump v. United States* that presidents are somewhat immune from criminal prosecution, aiding Trump prior to his planned election subversion trial. Later in July, Biden drops out of the 2024 race and endorses his running mate, Kamala Harris, for president.

During the election season, there are two assassination attempts on Trump. Trump wins the 2024 presidential election. Biden delivers his farewell address from the Oval Office on January 15, 2025. He opened by announcing that a hostage release deal had been reached between Israel and Hamas. Additionally, he advocates for continued renewable energy investment, strengthening checks and balances in government, and warns against the dangers of what he termed the 'tech-industrial complex.'

- 23. Donald J. Trump (2025-2028).** In November 2024, Trump is elected to a nonconsecutive second term as president. The election is certified by Congress on January 6, 2025, and Trump assumes office on January 20. On his first day, Trump pardons about 1,500 people convicted of offenses in the January 6 Capitol attack of 2021. Within his first

month, he signs approximately 70 executive orders (far more than any of his recent predecessors), some of which are being challenged in court.

On immigration, he signs executive orders blocking asylum-seekers from entry to the U.S., reinstates the national emergency at the Mexico–U.S. border, designates drug cartels as terrorist organizations, and attempts to end birthright citizenship. He signs the Laken Riley Act as the first legislation of his term. Trump establishes the Department of Government Efficiency (DOGE), led by the businessman Elon Musk, which is tasked with cutting spending by the federal government, limiting bureaucracy, and has overseen mass layoffs of civil servants.

The Laken Riley Act is a United States law that requires the detention, without bond, of non-citizens admitting to, charged with, or convicted of theft-related crimes, assaulting a police officer, or a crime that results in death or serious bodily injury, like drunk driving. The Act also allows states to sue the Department of Homeland Security for alleged failures in immigration enforcement.

The bill is introduced following the murder of Laken Riley by an undocumented immigrant who had previously been cited for theft on the campus of the University of Georgia in Athens, Georgia. On January 22, 2025, the House agrees to the Senate's version of the bill with a 263–156 vote. President Donald Trump signs the bill into law on January 29, 2025.

In international affairs, Trump withdraws the United States from the World Health Organization and the Paris Climate Accords. He initiates a trade war with Canada and Mexico, while continuing the ongoing trade war with China. He repeatedly expresses interest in annexing Canada, Greenland, and the Panama Canal. In response to the Gaza War, he proposes an American takeover of the Gaza Strip, forcibly relocating the Palestinian population to other Arab states, and rebuilding Gaza into a tourist resort.

Amid the Russian invasion of Ukraine, the Trump administration temporarily suspends the provision of intelligence and military aid to Ukraine, offers concessions to Russia, requests half of Ukraine's oil and minerals as repayment for American support, and says that Ukraine bears partial responsibility for the Russian invasion of its country. The administration resumes the aid after Ukraine agrees to a potential ceasefire.

On July 4, 2025, President Trump enacts the controversial One Big Beautiful Bill Act, which significantly reshapes the federal government's budget. The legislation cuts 1.7 million people off Medicaid because the administration claims they are illegal immigrants. The law also boosts funding significantly for ICE agents and raises the deficit by \$4 trillion. These are the most contentious, but the omnibus legislation also reduces funding for the Green New Deal and SNAP programs. Democrats universally opposed it.