

U.S. History: Conflict and Compromise

Coursebook



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Introduction

Welcome to *U.S. History: Conflict and Compromise*! In this course, you will explore historical events that have influenced the people of the United States and the world. You'll practice the skills of reading comprehension, knowledge retention, historical interpretation and reasoning, history and philosophy, historical subjectivity, constitutional history, chronological reasoning, compare and contrast, geographical analysis, and textual and visual analysis.

You'll also have the opportunity to complete projects based on primary source documents. In the primary source projects, you'll choose from a variety of options, giving you opportunities to write essays and works of historical fiction; make drawings, maps, and diagrams; create audio and video recordings; work on crafts and cooking; and complete other creative projects that directly use primary sources or are based on knowledge gained from primary sources and previous readings.

Course Materials

This full-year U.S. history course is divided into two semesters of 18 lessons each. The course will use the following materials:

- *These Truths: A History of the United States* by Jill Lepore (W. W. Norton & Co., 2023)

This text contains many useful maps, illustrations, and primary sources that will be extensively used in the course. Along with this primary text, optional readings from the following free online textbook are recommended:

- *The American Yawp* (www.americanyawp.com).

Although assignments will mainly refer to the content in *These Truths*, some students may wish to look at *The American Yawp* from time to time. This online textbook presents straightforward descriptions of certain topics and events.

This course also uses a variety of online resources (mostly from *The American Yawp*), which are listed in the lessons and can be easily accessed through Oak Meadow's Curriculum Links page (oakmeadow.com/curriculum-links). Take a moment to locate and bookmark this page for quick access to these online resources.

Course Structure

The course will follow a regular pattern: two lessons based on chapters from *These Truths*, followed by primary source projects (PSPs) in the third lesson. The PSPs will be based on the use and analysis of primary sources found in the textbook and other sources that have been referenced in the previous two lessons. The primary source projects provide a break from the substantial amount of reading required for this course and give you a chance to digest what you've learned and express yourself creatively while working with primary source documents. You will complete two projects in each PSP lesson.

For the final lesson of each semester (lessons 18 and 36), you will write a three-page essay or a five-page research paper to synthesize and reflect on what you've learned.

In addition, your teacher might offer the opportunity to complete an optional oral exam at the end of each semester. Potential exam questions are found at the beginning of each lesson's introduction, and your teacher might choose one or more questions from each lesson for the exam. If you are interested in this option, please discuss it with your teacher. The exam, if available, can be taken for extra credit, but you do not risk getting a lower grade by choosing to take or not take the exam.

This full-year course is divided into 36 lessons, and each lesson is designed to take about one week to complete (approximately five to seven hours per week). In the lessons, you will find the following sections (not every section will be found in every lesson):

An **Assignment Checklist** is included at the beginning of each lesson; you can see all your assignments at a glance and check them off as you complete each one. Assignments are fully explained in the lesson.

The **Learning Objectives** outline the main goals of the lesson and give you an idea of what to expect.

The **Lesson Introduction** provides an overview of the lesson's historical topics and themes. Pay particular attention to the boldface **key terms**, which draw your attention to some of the most important concepts, events, and individuals in each lesson.

Reading selections will provide essential knowledge that will be applied in the assignments.

Assignments are categorized to highlight the skills of a historian that you are learning.

Primary Source Projects (PSP) provide opportunities to creatively explore the many and varied perspectives of historical eras and events.

The **Share Your Work** section provides reminders and information for submitting your work to your teacher.

This course is designed for independent learning, so hopefully you will find it easy to navigate. However, it is assumed you will have an adult supervising your work and providing support and

feedback. (This person will be referred to as *your teacher* throughout this course.) If you have a question about your work, please ask them for help!

When you begin each lesson, scan the entire lesson first. Take a quick look at the number of assignments and amount of reading. Having a sense of the whole lesson will help you manage your time effectively.

Historical Subjectivity

Some of the assignments in this course fall under the category of “historical subjectivity,” meaning that they ask you to adopt the perspective of a historical person who is sometimes real and sometimes imagined. Of course, those of us living in the twenty-first century could never fully comprehend the radically different experiences of historical people, but the aim of these assignments and activities is to put you in their shoes so you might get a better understanding of the perspectives, motives, and sense of personal agency of those who lived through historical events and eras.

Furthermore, many of the historical people featured in these assignments were deprived of their own voice in the historical record. These assignments are meant to give a voice to the voiceless on the basis of what we do know about their views, motives, and experiences. Many of these historical people found themselves in extremely difficult circumstances, which can be hard to read about and imagine. If you would prefer not to complete certain assignments, there are usually other options, and you can always consult with your teacher about alternatives. However, most students find these assignments to be engaging and meaningful because they provide a great opportunity for creativity as you temporarily take on the role of a historical person.

A Note About the Workload

Students vary greatly in terms of reading speed, reading comprehension, and writing ability. Some may find the reading in this course takes less time than expected; others may find the writing assignments take a great deal of time. In general, you can expect to spend about five to seven hours on each weekly lesson.

Keep an eye on the workload as you progress through the course. If you find you are struggling to complete the work in a reasonable time frame, contact your teacher to discuss your options. Your teacher might modify lessons depending on particular learning goals or challenges you are facing.

Lesson

1

Old World Meets New World, to 1584

Learning Objectives

In this lesson, you will:

- Compare and contrast the prehistoric development in Afro-Eurasia with development in the Americas.
- Integrate information from multiple sources to consider various countries and their motivations for establishing trade.

Lesson Introduction

Big Picture

By completing the readings and assignments in this lesson, you will be able to provide knowledgeable answers to the following questions:

- Why did the peoples of the Americas and the peoples of Afro-Eurasia have separate histories prior to Columbus's voyage in 1492, and how were they different?
- Why did European powers seek to explore, conquer, and colonize the New World, and what were some of the different ways that the Spanish, French, Dutch, Portuguese, and English went about it?
- In what ways were Native Americans at a disadvantage in their encounters with invading Europeans, and what factors led to the success of European conquerors?

You may wish to write down your answers to these questions and keep them in a separate document, which will be useful as a general study guide and for the optional oral exams in lessons 18 and 36.

ASSIGNMENT CHECKLIST

- ☐ Read the lesson introduction.
- ☐ Complete the textbook reading.
- ☐ Historical Interpretation: Explain why and how cultural divergence and convergence occurred in Afro-Eurasia and the Americas.
- ☐ Geographical Analysis: Show how the natural world and political boundaries influenced cultural development of Native peoples.
- ☐ Chronological Reasoning: Highlight the connections between real and imagined historical events.
- ☐ Compare and Contrast: Evaluate different approaches to the exploration and exploitation of the Americas.

Key Places, Terms, Events, and Individuals

In this lesson, you will come across the following terms. If you aren't familiar with them or still have questions after encountering them in the reading, do some extra research to expand your understanding.

Places, Terms, and Events

- land bridge
- Afro-Eurasia
- Three Sisters
- Cahokia
- Aztecs
- Tenochtitlán
- People of the Longhouse
- New World
- Old World
- Hispaniola
- Columbian exchange
- Taíno people
- *encomienda*
- Northwest Passage
- New Amsterdam
- Atlantic slave trade
- Virginia Company

Individuals

- Christopher Columbus
- Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand
- Hernán Cortés
- Emperor Montezuma
- Bartolomé de Las Casas

The “Old World” and the “New World”

Around twenty thousand years ago, the Earth experienced its last ice age. Massive glaciers trapped so much of the world's water that global ocean levels were reduced, which resulted in the appearance of a **land bridge** across what is today the Bering Strait between Alaska and Russia, connecting the Asian and North American continents. This land bridge allowed ancient peoples to cross from Asia to America, where they would populate North and South America, creating complex, enduring societies and civilizations over the course of millennia. When the ice age ended more than twelve thousand years ago, Asia and America were once again separated by a great ocean, and the people in these two worlds developed simultaneous but distinct histories that diverged in profound ways while at the same time sharing some remarkable similarities.

Agriculture, for example, developed both in **Afro-Eurasia** (Africa, Europe, and Asia) and the Americas around the same time, though hunter-gatherer societies would remain more common in the Americas than they were in Afro-Eurasia at that time. Agriculture developed in different ways too; in the Americas, three native crops known as the “**Three Sisters**”—maize (corn), beans, and squash—would provide a nutritional base for burgeoning civilizations. But people in the Americas did not have the beasts of burden common in Afro-Eurasia that assisted in plowing and other agricultural activities, nor did they have the iron tools and other technologies that allowed for the rapid development of agriculture and expansion of civilization. Moreover, communal wealth was the norm while private property was a foreign concept among most Native American peoples, which meant that trading relationships did not develop to the extent that they did in Afro-Eurasia.

Nevertheless, there were great cities in the Americas, such as **Cahokia**, near present-day St. Louis, and the **Aztec** city of **Tenochtitlán**, which was populated by about a quarter million people at its peak, on the site of present-day Mexico City. Great civilizations emerged, such as the Maya on the Yucatán Peninsula, who made profound advancements in art, architecture, and astronomy and was one of the few societies in the Americas that had a sophisticated system of writing. There were also regional political organizations and alliances, such as the **People of the Longhouse** federation of Iroquois-speaking peoples living east of the Great Lakes. Among the peoples of the Americas, there was also warfare, violence, and slavery—though slavery, as practiced by the Native Americans, was not a permanent condition with a racial characteristic, as would be the case for the enslaved African people brought by European explorers, traders, and invaders who would begin to colonize the Americas in the sixteenth century.



Artist rendering of Tenochtitlán by Diego Rivera (Image credit: Wikimedia Commons)

That fateful encounter between the so-called **New World** of the Americas and the **Old World** of Afro-Eurasia was made possible in the fifteenth century CE, when European advancements in navigation and seafaring—such as the astrolabe and the caravel ship—made a transatlantic journey conceivable. As luck would have it, an Italian sailor named **Christopher Columbus** convinced **Queen Isabella** and **King Ferdinand** of Spain to sponsor an expedition to find a passage to Asia by sailing west rather than east, circumnavigating the globe. However, Columbus had vastly underestimated the size of the globe by about two-thirds, and so when he and his three ships with a crew of 90 men landed on an island somewhere in the Bahamas on October 12, 1492, they believed that they had reached Asia, and for that reason, Columbus called the **Taíno people** he encountered there “Indians.” (The term has since come to be accepted and may be used interchangeably with *Native Americans*, *Indigenous peoples*, or *First Nations* to refer to the peoples of the Americas who preceded the Europeans. Some people prefer other terms, and *Native Americans* is probably most common in the United States today, while *First Nations* is standard in Canada, though any of these terms may be used with respect.)

In fact, Columbus and his men had stumbled upon a continent that most Europeans—aside from some Viking adventurers who had established a short-lived settlement in Vinland (present-day Newfoundland) around 1000 CE—did not know existed. In 1507, a German cartographer named Martin Waldseemüller called this new continent America in honor of Amerigo Vespucci, an explorer from Florence.

European Exploration and Conquest

Thus began a period of European exploration, confrontation, and conquest in the so-called New World, driven by a multitude of motives, chief among which were the desire to accumulate wealth, exploit natural resources, and Christianize the pagan world. Tragically, because the peoples of the Americas had not been exposed to diseases such as smallpox that had been circulating for millennia in Afro-Eurasia, they had no immunity to these diseases and were highly susceptible to them. Nearly the entire population of **Hispaniola** would succumb to disease, almost completely wiping out an island that had been populated by perhaps more than a million people. All told, some scholars estimate that as much as 90 percent of the population of the Americas eventually died from imported Old World diseases. Invasive species, such as wild pigs, would also wreak havoc on the natural order of the New World. The intermingling of resources, plants, commodities, animal species, human populations, and viruses from the Old World and the New World is known as the **Columbian exchange**.

Spanish conquerors were the first Europeans to colonize the New World, based on a system of land expropriation and native labor exploitation called the **encomienda**. Having the advantage of advanced European weapons and horses, which had not existed in the Americas prior to European contact, the Spanish invaders overwhelmed the Indigenous peoples they encountered. **Hernán Cortés** and his army captured the Aztec emperor **Montezuma** and conquered Tenochtitlán in 1521, and in 1533, Francisco Pizarro toppled Cuzco, the capital of the Incan Empire in South America. The Spaniards established a hierarchical colonial society ordered along racial lines, with Spanish-born *peninsulares* at the top, followed by New World-born Spanish *criollos*, and finally *mestizos*, those of mixed Spanish and



(Image credit: Simeon Netchev)

Indian ancestry. Additionally, Spanish missionaries, mostly from the Franciscan order, worked to spread Catholicism in the New World, which justified the entire enterprise.

In addition to the Spanish, the French, Dutch, Portuguese, and English established their own colonial empires in the Americas. The French were in search of a fabled **Northwest Passage** to Asia, and engaged in the fur trade with Native peoples and establish settlements along the St. Lawrence River at Quebec and Montreal, around the Great Lakes, and down the Mississippi River to New Orleans. Relative to the Spanish, French settlers tended to favor alignment and integration with the Indigenous population over domination and control, and the Jesuit missionaries were more accommodating of native religions in their attempts at conversion. Like the French, the Dutch traded heavily with Native peoples in their New Netherland along the Hudson River down to **New Amsterdam**—modern-day New York City—which was largely built with the labor of enslaved people imported from Africa. In Brazil, the Portuguese used enslaved African laborers to a greater extent than any other colonial power to work in gold and silver mines and on sugar plantations, and the **Atlantic slave trade** itself became a major generator of wealth for the Portuguese.

The English came somewhat later to the New World colonial enterprise, motivated partly by competition with the Spanish, who were notorious for the "Black Legend" of their extreme cruelty and violence against Native peoples, a story popularized by the account of **Bartolomé de Las Casas** in 1542. The English crown chartered joint-stock companies that were charged with establishing colonies in the New World. The **Virginia Company** (named after Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen) was chartered in 1606,

and in the next lesson, we'll look at its stumbling efforts to establish an American trading outpost—the first permanent English settlement in North America.

Reading

1. In *These Truths*, read chapter 1, “Worlds and Time, to 1584.”
2. Optional reading: In *The American Yawp*, read the following:
 - Chapter 1, “Indigenous America”
 - Chapter 2, “Colliding Cultures,” sections I–IV

Assignments

1. **Historical Interpretation.** Over the course of millennia, the peoples of Afro-Eurasia and the Americas had distinct histories, yet there were also some common developments, such as agriculture. Citing specific examples from your reading of *These Truths* or *The American Yawp*, explain why you think there was a historical divergence (trending apart) in some areas and a historical convergence (trending together) in others. In your comparison, consider the map of Afro-Eurasia on page 20 and the map of the Americas on page 12 of *These Truths*.
2. **Geographical Analysis.** Consider the map labeled “Native Ways of Life, ca. 1500” on page 15 of *These Truths*.
 - a. Explain the relationship between the ways of life of Native peoples and the geographic features of the places they inhabited: oceans, lakes, rivers, mountains, coastlines, etc. Why, for example, might the peoples around the Great Lakes be fishers and wild-rice gatherers? Discuss at least three specific examples.
 - b. Next, consider the present-day political boundaries that have been superimposed on the map. Where do these political boundaries align with the ways of life of Native American peoples, and where do they diverge drastically? What does the divergence suggest about the nature of political boundaries?
3. **Chronological Reasoning.** Consider the time line on page 7 of *These Truths*. Complete the following tasks.
 - a. Remove one event of your choice from the list and explain how three subsequent events would change as a result.
 - b. Insert an event of your own invention (a counterfactual) wherever you like and explain how three subsequent events would change as a result. (The extent of the consequences will depend on the character of the event.)

4. Compare and Contrast. Complete the following tasks.

- a. Based on this lesson's readings, create a table titled "Modes of Exploration and Colonization" comparing the Spanish, French, Dutch, Portuguese, and English approaches to exploration, exploitation, and conquest in the New World. (See the example below.) Compare the following elements: motivations, relations with Native peoples, use of slavery, geographic region, and principal exports. You may add more criteria if you wish.

	Spanish	French	Dutch	Portuguese	English
Motivations					
Relations with Native peoples					
Use of slavery					
Geographic region					
Principal exports					

b. Once you've completed the table, answer the following questions:

- Which two European powers were most alike in their approach to colonization?
- Which two European powers were most different in their approach to colonization?

Make your case using evidence from your reading; there is no one correct answer.

SHARE YOUR WORK

When you have completed this lesson, share your work with your teacher for feedback. Your teacher will let you know the best way to submit your work and whether they prefer an alternative submission schedule.

The checklist below lists all the work that may be submitted for this lesson. Consult with your teacher so you know what is required for each lesson.

- Historical Interpretation
- Geographical Analysis
- Chronological Reasoning
- Compare and Contrast

At any time in the course, if you are unable to complete the assignments or activities as written, please connect with your teacher to arrange a different option.

If you have any questions about the lesson content, assignments, or submission methods, let your teacher know.

Lesson

2

England's American Colonies, 1590–1692

Learning Objectives

In this lesson, you will:

- Analyze the roots of conflicts between Native Americans and English colonists.
- Extract key information from the text and use logical reasoning to summarize your understanding.

Lesson Introduction

Big Picture

By completing the readings and assignments in this lesson, you will be able to provide knowledgeable answers to the following questions:

- What were the English seeking to accomplish through their North American colonies, and how were they helped and hindered by Native Americans in achieving their ends?
- What were some of the early forms of political organization accomplished by English colonists in North America, and how were they limited by the colonists' relationship to the English king and Parliament?
- How did Native Americans respond to English colonization?
- How did the English justify the taking of Indian lands and the enslavement of Native Americans and Africans?

You may wish to write down your answers to these questions and keep them in a separate document, which will be useful as a general study guide and for the optional oral exams in lessons 18 and 36.

ASSIGNMENT CHECKLIST

- ☐ Read the lesson introduction.
- ☐ Complete the textbook reading.
- ☐ Historical Subjectivity: Write a speech advising the Powhatan people on how to deal with the colonists.
- ☐ Chronological Reasoning: Explain how events during early British settlement in North America were connected.
- ☐ Geographical Analysis: Identify differences between colonies in North America.
- ☐ Historical Interpretation: Highlight key political events in England in the 1600s.
- ☐ History and Philosophy: Craft an argument against Locke's justification of slavery.

Key Places, Terms, Events, and Individuals

In this lesson, you will come across the following terms. If you aren't familiar with them or still have questions after encountering them in the reading, do some extra research to expand your understanding.

Places, Terms, and Events

- Plymouth Company
- Jamestown
- Powhatan people
- tobacco
- House of Burgesses
- pilgrims
- *Mayflower*
- Mayflower Compact
- Plymouth Colony
- Puritans
- New England
- "City on a Hill"
- predestination
- Magna Carta
- trial by jury
- commonwealth
- Navigation Act (1651)
- Glorious Revolution
- Quakers
- Metacom's War/King Philip's War
- Bacon's Rebellion
- Pueblo Revolt
- Pequot War
- Barbados
- Middle Passage

Individuals

- King James I
- Wahunsenacawh (Powhatan)
- John Smith
- Pocahontas
- John Rolfe
- John Winthrop
- King Charles I
- King Charles II
- King James II
- William and Mary
- William Penn
- Metacom/King Philip
- William Berkeley
- Nathaniel Bacon
- John Locke

The English in the New World

The English approached their explorations of the New World differently than the Spanish, French, Dutch, and Portuguese. England's **King James I** decreed the right of both the Virginia Company and the **Plymouth Company** to take land in North America, and the first permanent English settlement—**Jamestown**, founded in 1607—was named in his honor. Of course, the settlement was hardly on virgin territory; it was the land of the Algonquian-speaking peoples of the Chesapeake led by **Wahunsenacawh**, known to the English as **Powhatan**, after one of the peoples he led. The Virginia Company sought gold and profit from its North American venture, though the Jamestown settlers, led by **John Smith**, would prove to be woefully unprepared for the unfamiliar conditions and difficult life in this foreign land, and more than half would be dead after nine months.



Jamestown, 1630s: Harvey's Industrial Enclave by Keith Rocco
(Image credit: National Parks Gallery)

The pitiable Englishmen were, at first, helped by Wahunsenacawh because the Powhatan people welcomed the resources, such as ax-heads, tools, and guns, brought by the English, and they did not fear the small band of desperate, struggling foreigners. The “starving time” winter of 1609–1610 was particularly harsh, and only 60 of the 400 colonists survived it. Relations between the Powhatan and the English were normalized with the marriage of **Pocahontas**, daughter of Wahunsenacawh, to colonist **John Rolfe**, but the colonists struggled with their venture until they found a profitable export in

tobacco—a plant native to North America that had long been cultivated by Native Americans—which they first exported to England in 1617. By the summer of 1619, the Virginia Company had established a legislative body called the **House of Burgesses**, and a group of 20 enslaved Africans carried by a Dutch slave ship were sold to the English, the first in British North America.

Meanwhile, a group of religious dissidents from England who called themselves **pilgrims**, having made the grueling sixty-six-day voyage across the Atlantic on a ship called the **Mayflower**, agreed to a rudimentary political union called the **Mayflower Compact**. They founded the **Plymouth Colony** in 1620, having landed in Cape Cod rather than their intended destination of Virginia. While these pilgrims sought to fully separate from the Church of England, a larger group of so-called **Puritans** merely wanted to reform or purify the Church from its Catholic vestiges, and they planned to do this in their “**New England**” in North America. Among their leaders was **John Winthrop**, later the first governor of Massachusetts, who in 1630 proclaimed in an address called “A Model of Christian Charity” that the New England settlements would serve as an exemplary “**City on a Hill**” (a biblical reference to Jesus’s Sermon on the Mount) to inspire reformers back home. The Puritans believed in the Calvinist doctrine of **predestination**—that God had determined their fate—and they believed in an Elect group of people chosen by God for salvation. Tragically, the Native Americans they encountered in the Northeast had been ravaged by a smallpox epidemic in the previous decade, which had reduced their population by about 90 percent.



Reconstruction of the Plymouth Colony (1620–1691 CE), Plimoth Plantation, Plymouth, Massachusetts (Image credit: Dumphasizer)

The settlers in New England had fled King James I, whose sovereignty would be challenged in the 1620s by the revival of **Magna Carta**, a thirteenth-century text that came to be understood as an ancient English constitution that protected subjects from the arbitrary rule of kings by establishing such rights as **trial by jury**. But James died in 1625, and his successor—**Charles I**, his son—insisted on

the absolute power of kings. Charles I dissolved the Parliament in 1629, provoking a new wave of emigration to the New World in the 1630s. Civil war erupted in England in the 1640s, culminating in the ouster and execution of Charles I in 1649 and the establishment of the English republic, or **commonwealth**, under Oliver Cromwell. Even as a commonwealth, England affirmed its mercantilist authority over its colonies in 1651 with the passage of the **Navigation Act** (the first of several Navigation Acts), which required colonists to ship their goods to England on English ships. The English monarchy was restored with **Charles II** in 1660, though his successor, **James II**, would be overthrown in 1688 and replaced by the Dutch Prince **William** and James II's daughter, **Mary**, in an event known as the **Glorious Revolution**.

Colonization on Native Lands

England's colonization proceeded during this period of political turmoil. During the reign of Charles I, the colonies of Maryland, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire were founded. Maryland was a haven for Catholics, while Rhode Island was founded on the idea of religious freedom, and it would become a refuge for **Quakers** and Jews. England took New Netherland from the Dutch in 1664, establishing New York in its place, and the Duke of York granted lands between the Hudson and Delaware Rivers to English noblemen, which became East Jersey and West Jersey. West Jersey was extended westward by one of its proprietors, **William Penn**, creating Pennsylvania, a haven for Quakers. The southern colony of Carolina—later divided into North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia—completed English claims to the eastern coast of North America.

Of course, these settlements were on Native lands, and there were many conflicts with Native peoples. In 1675, a federation of Algonquin peoples led by **Metacom**—known to the English as **King Philip**—rose up against the English settlers. The uprising, known as **Metacom's War** or **King Philip's War**, resulted in the destruction or abandonment of more than half of the colonial towns in New England and left a legacy of hatred against Native peoples among many colonists. Around the same time, in Virginia, the governor **William Berkeley**'s refusal to launch indiscriminate reprisals against Indigenous groups, some of whom were friendly, provoked a bitter, paranoid colonist named **Nathaniel Bacon** to lead a violent revolt, known as **Bacon's Rebellion**, against the colonial leadership in Jamestown. The revolt subsided with Bacon's death in 1676 and with Berkeley's loss of the governorship, but the fear of insurrection remained and revealed a sharp divide among the colonists about how to properly engage with Native Americans. Around the same time, a revolt against Spanish colonizers by the Puebloan people in New Mexico, known as the **Pueblo Revolt**, succeeded in driving out the Spanish for twelve years until their reconquest in 1692.

European conflicts with Native Americans were tied up with the issue of slavery because colonists believed that captives taken in wars could be justifiably enslaved, as had occurred in New England during Metacom's War and an earlier conflict, the **Pequot War** in 1636–1637, which resulted in many Native Americans being sold into slavery in England's colonies in the Caribbean. Yet such Native captives could not begin to meet the demand for labor that would develop in the American colonies, and especially in Caribbean colonies like **Barbados**, where labor-intensive sugarcane was grown. To meet

this need, the Atlantic slave trade grew exponentially over the course of the seventeenth century, which would transfer hundreds of thousands of enslaved Africans—many of whom were war captives sold into slavery—to the Americas in bondage. The horrifying journey across the Atlantic, where as many as a third of the enslaved people aboard would die, became known as the **Middle Passage** (because the sea voyage was in the middle of the land voyages on either end). The great majority of those enslaved would go to colonies in South America and the islands of the Caribbean, but some went to England's North American colonies.

The existence of slavery and the seizure of Native American lands would seem to violate English conceptions of freedom and property rights, but it was defended by figures such as **John Locke**, an English philosopher and onetime secretary of the Carolina colony. Locke argued that because the Indigenous peoples were not Christians—and because he incorrectly understood that they did not cultivate their lands, but merely occupied them—they had no sovereignty or ownership over these lands, and so the English were justified in taking them. Slavery, for Locke, could be justified when it was the result of war between nations. Locke believed that the victors had the right to enslave captives taken in war. However, an insidious new kind of slavery was developing in the colonies, whereby children born to enslaved mothers would legally inherit the “condition” of their mothers, becoming the property of their mothers’ owners. This institution would develop alongside a new ideology that assigned people to hierarchical categories, free and enslaved, on the basis of inherited physical characteristics that would announce their social station: race.

Reading

1. In *These Truths*, read chapter 2, “The Rulers and the Ruled, 1590–1692.”
2. Optional reading: In *The American Yawp*, read the following:
 - Chapter 2, “Colliding Cultures,” sections V–VII
 - Chapter 3, “British North America”

Assignments

1. **Historical Subjectivity.** Imagine that you are Wahunsenacawh, head of the Powhatan people. The year is 1617, and you have observed the English colonists’ desperate attempts to establish a colony since the founding of Jamestown in 1607. You view them with a mix of pity, contempt, fear, and admiration, and your daughter, Pocahontas, has married an Englishman, John Rolfe. You are preparing to give a speech to a friendly inland tribe about your impressions of the colonists, and you wish to impart one key bit of advice about how to deal with them. Using what you’ve learned about the Powhatan people and the English colonists from *These Truths*, write your speech. If you wish, you may also make an audio recording of your speech.

2. **Chronological Reasoning.** Choose one event from the Chronology on page 57 of *These Truths*. Write a letter from an English colonist who witnessed the event to a friend in England, describing the event in detail. In your letter, refer to at least two previous events from the Chronology that created the conditions for the event being described. Explain how those earlier events led to the current event.
3. **Geographical Analysis.** Consider the map on page 73 of *These Truths*, “Eastern North America in the Seventeenth and Early Eighteenth Centuries.” Imagine that you are a spy for the Spanish Empire, and you have been tasked with making an overland journey from Savannah to Quebec, posing as an itinerant salesman of bibles. Record short journal entries for each colony you pass through, pointing out one or two of the most notable features of each of the English, Swedish, Dutch, and French colonies in terms of geography, culture, economy, the relations between Native Americans and the colonists, or whatever features might interest a competing colonial power.
4. **Historical Interpretation.** Imagine that you are the editor of a sensational London newspaper, *Merchant’s Mirror*, and you are preparing the front page for the January 1, 1700, edition of the paper with the headline “England’s Tumultuous Century,” summarizing the events of the previous 100 years. Write a list of the “Top Five Most Shocking Political Events” of the previous century accompanied by an ironic, snarky, or humorous editorial comment for each event.
5. **History and Philosophy.** The English philosopher John Locke justified the taking of Native lands by English colonists, arguing that God had given the world to humans for the use of the “Industrious and Rational,” and that uncultivated land cannot be said to be owned by anyone. (Locke was mistaken in his presumption that Native Americans did not cultivate the land.) Locke further argued that, although all humans were born equal with rights to life, liberty, and property, slavery was another matter because it was the continuation of the state of war between nations, with conquerors having the right to take captives.

Citing examples from *These Truths* about the early English colonies and the Atlantic slave trade, write a rebuttal to Locke, arguing that slavery and the taking of Native lands cannot be justified.

For an added challenge, you may refer to some of Locke’s writings on the origins and nature of private property, such as the following resource:

“Chapter V of *Property*”

All online resources in this course can be easily accessed through Oak Meadow’s Curriculum Links page (oakmeadow.com/curriculum-links).

SHARE YOUR WORK

When you have completed this lesson, share your work with your teacher for feedback. You can use the following checklist to organize your work submission.

- Historical Subjectivity
- Chronological Reasoning
- Geographical Analysis
- Historical Interpretation
- History and Philosophy

If you have any questions about the lesson content, assignments, or submission methods, let your teacher know.

Lesson

6

Primary Source Projects

Learning Objectives

In this lesson, you will:

- Interpret history by establishing connections, showing patterns, and noticing immediate and long-term consequences.
- Synthesize information from textbook readings and primary sources to support your logic and conclusions.
- Use creative skills (artistic, visual, and/or written) to create a unique and personal demonstration of learning.

ASSIGNMENT CHECKLIST

- ☐ Complete two primary source projects.

Project Choices

In this lesson, you will complete two projects of your choice. Choose projects from two of the three categories below. Read the instructions for each project option before making your selection. All online resources can be accessed at oakmeadow.com/curriculum-links.

Choose one project from two of the following categories.

Visualization	Writing	Multimedia
Boston Tea Party Graphic Novel Scene	Iroquois Perspectives on the Seven Years' War	Boston Massacre Engraving Internet Meme
Scene Drawing from Colonial Life	Freedom of Speech Essay	Great Speeches: The Great Awakening
	Runaway Slave Narrative	

Visualization

Project options in the visualization category:

- Boston Tea Party Graphic Novel Scene
- Scene Drawing from Colonial Life

Boston Tea Party Graphic Novel Scene

1. Read the following account of the Boston Tea Party:

“George R. T. Hewes, A Retrospect of the Boston Tea-Party, 1834”

2. Using details from Hewes’s account of the event, draw a graphic-novel style series of illustrations about the Boston Tea Party.

Scene Drawing from Colonial Life

1. Read the following diary entry written by Boston trader Sarah Knight, who recounts her travels in 1704:

“Boston Trader Sarah Knight on Her Travels in Connecticut, 1704”

2. Pick a scene from one of Knight’s entries and illustrate it in a way that approximates an eighteenth-century style. (You may do a Google image search for references.) Include a caption describing the scene.

Writing

Project options in the writing category:

- Iroquois Perspectives on the Seven Years’ War
- Freedom of Speech Essay
- Runaway Slave Narrative

Iroquois Perspectives on the Seven Years’ War

1. Using specific details from the Oneida Declaration of Neutrality and the accounts of Theyanoguin, Shingas, Minavavana, Pontiac, Alibamo Mingo, and Mary Jemison (reproduced in the “Weighing the Evidence” section of *These Truths*, pages 174–181), write a short history of the Seven Years’ War from the perspective of the peoples of the Iroquois Confederacy.

Although it is generally the goal to write objective histories including multiple perspectives, in this case, write an account that is biased in favor of these Indian nations, expressing great suspicion regarding the motives and actions of the British and French colonists. The history should be suitable for oration, and if you wish, you may record yourself reading your history aloud.

Freedom of Speech Essay

1. Consider the fifth particular from Benjamin Franklin’s “Apology for Printers” (1731) on page 140 of *These Truths*:

Printers are educated in the belief, that when men differ in opinion, both sides ought equally to have the advantage of being heard by the public; and that when truth and error have fair play, the former is always an overmatch for the latter. Hence they cheerfully serve

all contending writers that pay them well, without regarding on which side they are of the question in dispute.

2. Do you believe that Franklin is correct in his assertion that truth is always an “overmatch” for error when they have “fair play” in the sphere of public discourse?

In a three-paragraph essay, make the case either for or against Franklin’s contention that truth wins out when both sides are fairly heard. You may point to historical or present-day examples to make your case.

Runaway Slave Narrative

This activity explores the motivations and interests of an enslaved person fleeing slavery. Based on a primary source document, you’ll use the biographical details and vocational skills of an enslaved person to consider the possibilities and perils of life as a free African American under the watch of a surveillance state.

1. Consider Thomas Jefferson’s newspaper advertisement for the runaway slave Sandy, reproduced on page 134 of *These Truths*.
2. Using key details from the ad, write a first-person account from the perspective of Sandy, explaining his reasons for escaping slavery and his plans for the future.

Multimedia

Project options in the multimedia category:

- Boston Massacre Engraving Internet Meme
- Great Speeches: The Great Awakening

Boston Massacre Engraving Internet Meme

1. Consider the iconic engraving of the Boston Massacre by Paul Revere:

The Bloody Massacre Perpetrated in King Street Boston on March 5th 1770 by a Party of the 29th Regt.

2. Download the image and use it as the basis for three internet memes created from the perspective of the colonists, pointing out the cruelty and brutality of the British soldiers.

Great Speeches: The Great Awakening

1. Read Jonathan Edwards’s sermon, “Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God”:

“Jonathan Edwards Revives Enfield, Connecticut, 1741”

2. Record yourself reciting Edwards’s sermon or an excerpt from it. Use your best eighteenth-century oratory style.

SHARE YOUR WORK

When you have completed your primary source projects, share them with your teacher.

If you have any questions, let your teacher know.

Lesson

17

The Civil War, 1858–1865

Learning Objectives

In this lesson, you will:

- Interpret primary source documents and identify how historical figures drew different conclusions from the same text.
- Compare and contrast the U.S. Constitution and the Confederate Constitution and evaluate key points of opposition.

Lesson Introduction

Big Picture

By completing the readings and assignments in this lesson, you will be able to provide knowledgeable answers to the following questions:

- Why did Stephen Douglas support the principle of popular sovereignty with regard to the expansion of slavery in the United States, and why did Abraham Lincoln oppose it?
- What did public reactions to John Brown's raid reveal about the respective views and sympathies of Northerners and Southerners?
- Why did Southern states secede from the Union after the election of Abraham Lincoln, and what was the foundational character of their newly declared nation?
- Why did President Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation during the Civil War, and what was its effect?
- What motivated John Wilkes Booth to assassinate Abraham Lincoln?

You may wish to write down your answers to these questions and keep them in a separate document as a study guide and for future reference.

ASSIGNMENT CHECKLIST

- ☐ Read the lesson introduction.
- ☐ Complete the textbook reading.
- ☐ Textual Analysis: Examine key differences of opinion in the debate between Stephen Douglas and Abraham Lincoln.
- ☐ Compare and Contrast: Identify similarities and differences between the U.S. Constitution and the Confederate Constitution.
- ☐ Historical Subjectivity: Explain how the Emancipation Proclamation altered the role of African Americans in the Union Army.
- ☐ Historical Interpretation: Explain Lincoln's view of the cause and suffering of the Civil War, as expressed in his Second Inaugural Address.

Key Places, Terms, Events, and Individuals

Places, Terms, and Events

- Lincoln-Douglas Debates
- John Brown's raid
- Constitutional Union Party
- secession
- Confederate States of America (Confederacy)
- Fort Sumter
- Civil War
- Border States
- Anaconda Plan
- Battle of Antietam
- Emancipation Proclamation
- United States Colored Troops (USCT)
- Draft Riots
- Battle of Gettysburg
- Gettysburg Address
- Sherman's March to the Sea
- Thirteenth Amendment
- Appomattox

Individuals

- Abraham Lincoln
- John Brown
- Robert E. Lee
- John C. Breckinridge
- William Seward
- George B. McClellan
- Ulysses S. Grant
- William Tecumseh Sherman
- John Wilkes Booth

The Issue of Slavery Divides the Nation

There was a rising star in the antislavery Republican Party: **Abraham Lincoln**, a Kentucky-born lawyer who had represented Illinois's Seventh District in the U.S. House of Representatives. Illinois senator Stephen Douglas—a Democrat who supported the principle of popular sovereignty with regard to the expansion of slavery into new territories and states—was up for reelection in 1858, and Lincoln decided to challenge him for the seat. The two men faced off in a series of widely reported debates that year, known as the **Lincoln-Douglas Debates**, which centered on the issue of slavery that was deeply dividing the nation. Lincoln said that the United States could not remain as a “house divided against itself” over the issue of slavery, “half slave and half free.” It would not fall, he believed, but it would become “all one thing or all the other.” Although Lincoln lost the race against Douglas for the Senate seat, through the course of the campaign he raised his national profile and became recognized as one of the most articulate spokesmen for the antislavery cause that defined the Republican Party.

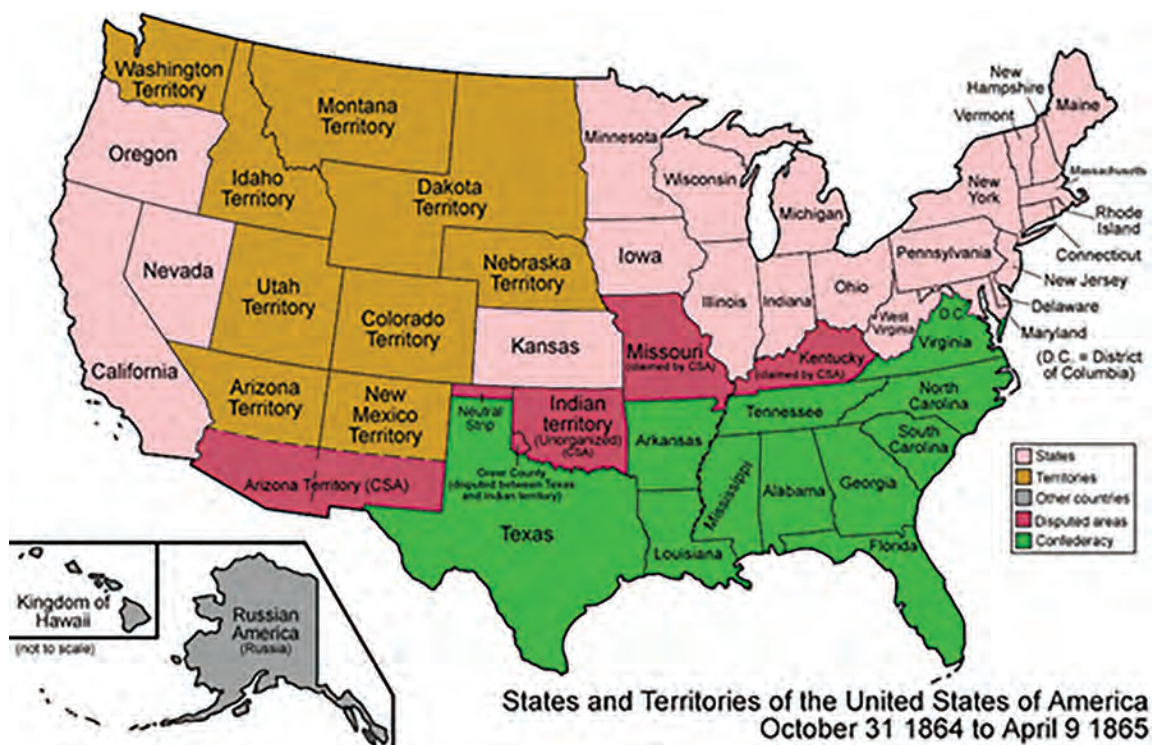
Sectional tensions flared in October 1859, when **John Brown**, a radical white abolitionist, attempted to provoke a slave insurrection by leading a group of rebels who seized a federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry,

Virginia (now West Virginia). **John Brown's raid** failed, and Brown was captured by U.S. forces led by **Robert E. Lee**. Brown was sentenced to death and went to the gallows in December. Southerners were horrified by the event, but were more shocked by many Northerners' evident sympathy for Brown. Southerners viewed him as a terrorist and insurrectionist, but many in the antislavery North treated him as a martyr.

The national divide came to a head in the presidential election of 1860, when the Democratic Party was split between its Southern and Northern factions. Northern Democrats favored Stephen Douglas, while Southern Democrats nominated **John C. Breckinridge**, vice president to James Buchanan and a supporter of the infamous *Dred Scott* decision of the Supreme Court. With the Democratic Party split—and with another group of pro-unionists choosing to join the **Constitutional Union Party**—the Republican candidate, Abraham Lincoln, won every Northern state, plus Oregon and California, and thus the election. (With the exception of Virginia, Southern states had not even put Lincoln's name on their ballots.)

Calls for Secession Lead to War

Immediately upon Lincoln's election, there were calls for **secession**—leaving the United States—from many Southerners who believed that their slave-based economy would not survive a Lincoln presidency. South Carolina was the first to secede, on December 20, 1860. Six other states—Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas—soon followed. In February 1861, just before Lincoln's inauguration in March, the seceding states met in Montgomery, Alabama, where they declared themselves to be a new nation, the **Confederate States of America**, also known as the **Confederacy**. They



A map of the United States and the Confederate States of America (Image credit: User:Golbez)

elected Jefferson Davis of Mississippi as their president. The Confederacy's newly drafted constitution had many similarities to the U.S. Constitution, but it differed starkly in that it specifically recognized and protected "negro slavery, as it now exists in the Confederate States."

The Confederacy seized federal property in the South, though some sites remained in control of the U.S. government, such as **Fort Sumter** in the harbor near Charleston, South Carolina. In April 1861, President Lincoln decided to send a ship to resupply the fort, and South Carolina responded by demanding the evacuation of the fort. When the commander of Fort Sumter, Major Robert Anderson, refused, the Confederates launched an attack, forcing Anderson to surrender on April 13 and evacuate his troops. In response, Lincoln called for a volunteer force of 75,000 to serve in the army and suppress the rebellion, thus beginning the **Civil War**. Shortly thereafter, the states of the Upper South—Arkansas, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Virginia—also seceded, and the capital of the Confederacy was moved to Richmond, Virginia. The slaveholding **Border States** of Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, Delaware, and the newly formed West Virginia—which would become a state in 1863—would remain part of the United States, referred to as the "Union" during the war.

The Union adopted a war strategy devised by General-in-Chief Winfield Scott called the **Anaconda Plan**, which sought to cut off trade and supplies to the Confederacy by setting up a naval blockade and seizing key waterways and ports, such as New Orleans. In the spring of 1862, New Orleans was captured, thereby squeezing the South dry and strangling it, just as an anaconda snake would do to its prey. The strategy would ultimately prove successful, but it would come at a tremendous cost. The Civil War was the deadliest war in American history, resulting in about 750,000 deaths, the majority of which were not from combat but from diseases, such as tuberculosis, measles, rheumatism, typhoid, malaria, and smallpox. Indeed, disease devastated both the North and the South as soldiers endured unsanitary camp conditions. Women served a major role in the war effort as nurses who tended to the sick and wounded in hospitals.

The Emancipation Proclamation

The war to preserve the Union would progressively transform into a war to defeat slavery. In the summer of 1862, Congress abolished slavery in the District of Columbia and authorized the emancipation of slaves that came under Union control. President Lincoln considered extending the emancipation order to the rebelling states, but he was advised by his secretary of state, **William Seward**, to refrain from such an order, which might seem like an act of desperation, until a decisive Union victory. Such a victory occurred in the fall of 1862 at the **Battle of Antietam** in Maryland, where General **George B. McClellan** led Union forces in a victory over General Robert E. Lee's Confederate forces. It was the bloodiest single day of fighting in American history, with approximately 6,000 killed and 17,000 wounded. Shortly thereafter, Lincoln, acting as Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy, announced the **Emancipation Proclamation**, which would free slaves in Confederate states on January 1, 1863. The moral dimension of the Proclamation would combine with the military strategy of depriving the Confederacy of its labor force, undermining its morale and providing the United States with a new pool of potential recruits for military service.

Following the Emancipation Proclamation, the Union Army began widespread enlistment of African American soldiers. About 180,000 eventually served, mostly in the **United States Colored Troops (USCT)**. Both the Union and the Confederacy would find it necessary to conscript (force) men to serve in their armies, which led to resentment in the North among the classes of immigrants and the poor who could not pay \$300 for substitutes. In July 1863, resentment over the draft as well as racial hostility caused **Draft Riots** in New York City, resulting in widespread destruction and dozens of deaths, including the lynching of 11 African Americans.



The 107th United States Colored Troops (USCT) at Fort Corcoran, Virginia, November 1865. The regiment participated in the Petersburg, Fort Fisher, and Carolina Campaigns in 1864–1865. After the surrender of Confederate forces in North Carolina in April 1865, the 107th was transferred to the Department of Washington to garrison the Defenses of Washington, including Fort Corcoran. (Image credit: National Parks Gallery)

A turning point in the war came that July with the three-day **Battle of Gettysburg** in Pennsylvania, the bloodiest battle of the war, with each side suffering more than 20,000 casualties. But the Union Army was better able to suffer the losses, and General Lee's Confederate Army was forced to retreat. Several months later, Lincoln visited the battlefield, where he offered a dedication to the fallen soldiers (known as the **Gettysburg Address**), pledging that their deaths shall not be in vain, for the nation would have a "new birth of freedom." The Union's victory at Gettysburg, along with General **Ulysses S.**

Grant's key strategic victories at Vicksburg, Mississippi, and Chattanooga, Tennessee, put the United States on the path to victory and convinced Lincoln to promote Grant to the position of general-in-chief of Union forces in 1864. General **William Tecumseh Sherman** had taken over for Grant in the West, and by the fall of 1864, Sherman's forces had captured Atlanta, which they burned upon their departure in November. In a march of death and destruction through Georgia to Savannah (known as **Sherman's March to the Sea**) and then through South Carolina, Sherman's forces further demoralized the Confederacy.

Lincoln won reelection—defeating his former general, the Democrat George B. McClellan—on November 8, 1864, which he interpreted as a mandate to more vigorously pursue his agenda, including the passage of the **Thirteenth Amendment** to the Constitution, which, when ratified, would finally outlaw slavery in the United States. In his second inaugural address on March 4, 1865, Lincoln promised to “bind up the nation's wounds” and achieve a “just and lasting peace.” On April 9, General Lee would finally surrender under favorable terms to General Grant at **Appomattox** Court House in Virginia, ending the Civil War. In a speech honoring the end of the war, Lincoln mentioned Black suffrage (voting rights) and participation in government. **John Wilkes Booth**, a Confederate sympathizer in the audience, was horrified by the prospect of the end of white supremacy and resolved to kill Lincoln, whom he hated. On April 14, while Lincoln was attending a play at Ford's Theatre in Washington, Booth shot Lincoln in the back of the head, causing his death shortly thereafter.

Reading

1. In *These Truths*, read chapter 12, “The Face of Battle, 1858–1865.”
2. Optional reading: In *The American Yawp*, read the following:
 - Chapter 13, “The Sectional Crisis,” section V
 - Chapter 14, “The Civil War”

Assignments

1. **Textual Analysis.** Consider the excerpts from the debate between Stephen Douglas and Abraham Lincoln (primary document 12.3, pages 557–558 in *These Truths*). According to Douglas, who was excluded from the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution? Why does Lincoln disagree with Douglas's characterization of the founding documents?
2. **Compare and Contrast.** Consider the United States Constitution and the Bill of Rights (*These Truths*, A-17–A-26) and the Confederate Constitution (A-45–A-49). Create a table comparing the two constitutions based on the following criteria:
 - the international slave trade
 - freedom of speech and religion

- property rights and escaped slaves
- enslaved people and the domestic institution of slavery

	U.S. Constitution	Confederate Constitution
International slave trade		
Freedom of speech and religion		
Property rights and escaped slaves		
Enslaved people and the domestic institution of slavery		

3. **Historical Subjectivity.** Read the following account of William Henry Singleton about his time serving for the United States Colored Troops:

“William Henry Singleton, a Formerly Enslaved Man, Recalls Fighting for the Union, 1922”

According to Singleton, why were he and the 1,000 formerly enslaved men he had assembled as a fighting force unable to fight for the Union Army at first, and how did the Emancipation Proclamation change that?

4. **Historical Interpretation.** Read Abraham Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address:

“Abraham Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address, 1865”

According to Lincoln, what was the cause of the Civil War, and why might the suffering it caused be understood as a form of divine justice or the judgment of God?

SHARE YOUR WORK

When you have completed this lesson, share your work with your teacher for feedback. You can use the following checklist to organize your work submission.

- Textual Analysis
- Compare and Contrast
- Historical Subjectivity
- Historical Interpretation

If you have any questions about the lesson content, assignments, or submission methods, let your teacher know.

Lesson

23

World War I and the 1920s, 1914–1929

Learning Objectives

In this lesson, you will:

- Interpret the historical documents and form a personal opinion about a person's rights; support your opinion with textual evidence and clear reasoning.
- Use textual evidence from primary and secondary source documents to build and support claims.

Lesson Introduction

Big Picture

By completing the readings and assignments in this lesson, you will be able to provide knowledgeable answers to the following questions:

- What events caused the United States to get involved in World War I?
- How did the American public contribute to the war effort at home, and what were the potential costs of opposing the war effort?
- What did Woodrow Wilson seek to achieve at the postwar Paris Peace Conference, and where did his plans fall short?
- How did cultural anxieties and the theories of race science contribute to the passage of the Immigration Act of 1924?
- How did the Scopes trial represent a conflict between science and religion?
- How did new industrial technologies create a consumer culture, and how did new media technologies create a shared mass culture?

ASSIGNMENT CHECKLIST

- ☐ Read the lesson introduction.
- ☐ Complete the textbook reading.
- ☐ Constitutional History: Justify or refute the 1919 Supreme Court ruling to restrict First Amendment rights during wartime.
- ☐ Historical Interpretation: Based on the Paris Peace Conference and the Treaty of Versailles, explain whether the outcome of WWI made the world “safe for democracy.”
- ☐ Textual Analysis: Analyze Thind’s argument for citizenship and the Supreme Court’s justification for ruling against him.
- ☐ Historical Subjectivity: Explain why Eastman views birth control and economic compensation for child-rearing as essential women’s rights.
- ☐ History and Philosophy: Explain Garvey’s philosophy of nationalism and Black nationalism.

- How did new rights and freedoms change life for women in the 1920s?
- What created the conditions for the Harlem Renaissance of the 1920s?
- How was Garveyism different from the integration promoted by groups like the NAACP?

You may wish to write down your answers to these questions and keep them in a separate document as a study guide and for future reference.

Key Places, Terms, Events, and Individuals

Places, Terms, and Events

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| • Allies | • Paris Peace Conference | • radio |
| • Central Powers | • Fourteen Points | • Nineteenth Amendment |
| • Great War/First World War/World War I | • national self-determination | • New Woman |
| • <i>Lusitania</i> | • League of Nations | • flappers |
| • Zimmerman Telegram | • Treaty of Versailles | • Eighteenth Amendment |
| • Selective Service Act | • Red Scare | • Prohibition |
| • Liberty Bonds | • Palmer Raids | • speakeasies |
| • victory gardens | • Immigration Act of 1924 (Johnson-Reed Act) | • Twenty-first Amendment |
| • War Industries Board | • eugenics | • New Negro |
| • National War Labor Board | • race science | • Harlem Renaissance |
| • Committee on Public Information | • Indian Citizenship Act of 1924 | • jazz |
| • Espionage and Sedition Acts | • Scopes trial | • Jazz Age |
| • <i>Schenck v. United States</i> | • American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) | • Tulsa race massacre |
| • trench warfare | • Christian Fundamentalism | • United Negro Improvement Association |
| • Russian Revolution | • consumer culture | • Black nationalism |
| • Bolsheviks | • assembly line | • back-to-Africa movement |
| • armistice | • mass culture | • Garveyism |
| • Spanish Flu | • film | • Teapot Dome Scandal |

Individuals

- George Creel
- Oliver Wendell Holmes
- Vladimir Lenin
- Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti
- Madison Grant
- John T. Scopes
- Clarence Darrow
- Henry Ford
- Charles Lindbergh
- Margaret Sanger
- Alain Locke
- Louis Armstrong
- Duke Ellington
- Marcus Garvey
- Warren G. Harding
- Calvin Coolidge

The World Goes to War

When the Bosnian Serb Gavrilo Princip assassinated the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, in Sarajevo on June 28, 1914, Europe would be thrust into a continental war by the fatal logic of its own system of imperial alliances. Austria-Hungary had annexed Bosnia in 1908, enraging Serbian nationalists, who (with Russia's support) wanted to unite the South Slavs of the Balkans as a nation independent from the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires. Austria-Hungary opposed such Slavic nationalism as an affront to its imperial rule, and it responded to the assassination by declaring war on Serbia on July 28. Serbia would be defended by Russia, which had formed a defensive alliance with France and Great Britain called the Triple Entente. Austria-Hungary, meanwhile, had formed a defensive alliance with Germany and Italy called the Triple Alliance. Adherence to the defensive alliances set the countries on a course for war. The Triple Entente would later be joined by Italy to become known as the **Allies**, while the Triple Alliance would be joined by the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria to become known as the **Central Powers**. Thus began the **Great War**, also known as the **First World War** or **World War I**.

At the time, the United States did not maintain a standing army, and it initially remained neutral in the European conflagration. However, the country's international ties would eventually draw it into the war. American banks were heavily invested in the Allied countries, and American merchant ships supplied Great Britain. These supply ships were sometimes attacked by German submarines, called U-boats. On May 17, 1915, one such U-boat attacked a passenger ship, the RMS *Lusitania*, killing more than 1,000 passengers, including 123 Americans. Calls for war against Germany grew, though President Wilson pledged to stay neutral and won the 1916 presidential contest on that promise. However, in January 1917, Great Britain intercepted a telegram from a German official, Arthur Zimmerman, which pledged to aid Mexico in reclaiming its lost territory in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona if it joined the war on Germany's side. The **Zimmerman Telegram** was publicized by the U.S. press, furthering the frenzy for war. When German U-boats resumed their attacks on American supply ships to Great Britain, Wilson asked for a declaration of war against Germany, and Congress delivered it on April 4, 1917. A month later, Congress passed the **Selective Service Act**, which created a draft to enlist young men into the military. Nearly three million men would be drafted into service by means of

a lottery system and local draft boards, while about two million volunteered. Women served in noncombatant roles, supporting the troops as nurses and radio operators, for example.

The war effort required a large-scale social mobilization of the American public. Ordinary citizens were encouraged to buy so-called **Liberty Bonds**, war bonds that were essentially loans to the government that also had the effect of reducing domestic consumption and redirecting industrial output toward the war effort. The Food Administration encouraged citizens to plant **victory gardens** to supplement domestic food consumption and ease the strain on agricultural production, while the **War Industries Board** coordinated industrial production toward the war effort. The **National War Labor Board** negotiated with labor and industry to create favorable working conditions so that strikes could be avoided. Many women joined the labor force, and many African Americans migrated to northern cities to work in war-related industries, further accelerating the Great Migration.

The government also created the **Committee on Public Information**, headed by newspaperman **George Creel**, which served as a propaganda arm for the war effort, spreading a prowar message to the American public through public speakers, songs, advertisements, and other means developed through the burgeoning art of mass publicity. The stated aim of the war was to make the world “safe for democracy,” but the peacetime freedoms of citizens were limited by the Espionage Act of 1917, which prevented Americans from aiding the enemy or interfering with the war effort, and the Sedition Act of 1918, which prohibited public protest and criticism of the war. Though the **Espionage and Sedition Acts** starkly limited freedom of speech as protected by the First Amendment, the Supreme Court upheld the acts in **Schenck v. United States** (1919), in which Justice **Oliver Wendell Holmes** wrote in the Court’s unanimous opinion that the freedom of speech was not absolute and would not protect, for example, “a man in falsely shouting fire in a theatre and causing a panic.” The government was justified in restricting speech, Holmes argued, in situations where such speech creates a “clear and present danger” to the public. Thousands would be charged with sedition.

New technologies, such as airplanes, machine guns, and armored tanks, made the war more horrible and deadly than any war ever experienced before. Stubborn stalemates, especially along the Western Front of the war between Germany and France, devolved into brutal **trench warfare** that lasted years. Russia exited the war after the **Russian Revolution** in 1917 that brought **Vladimir Lenin’s Bolsheviks** to



Advertisement for U.S. war bonds, created by J. C. Leyendecker, 1918 (Image credit: Boston Public Library)

power, resulting in a treaty that settled the Eastern Front and allowed Germany to focus its forces on the Western Front. The American Expeditionary Forces joined British and French forces and succeeded in pushing German lines back across territory that had been gained in France. The overwhelming force and the exhausted German military ultimately led to the abdication of Germany's Kaiser Wilhelm II, and Germany agreed to an **armistice** (cessation of fighting) on November 11, 1918. Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman Empire surrendered to the Allies, and the war was over. The United States had lost more than 100,000 men, hardly insignificant but relatively small compared to the millions of European combatants who perished in the war. Toward the end of the war, a deadly new influenza epidemic appeared, then known as the **Spanish Flu** (due to accounts that appeared in uncensored newspapers in neutral Spain), which would ravage the world and kill about 50 million people, including 675,000 Americans, before finally fading in the early 1920s.

The World After the Great War

The terms of peace were negotiated among the Allied powers at the **Paris Peace Conference**, which began in January 1919. President Wilson would present his **Fourteen Points**, a plan for the postwar world order that called for free trade, freedom of the seas, disarmament, adjustment of colonial claims, open (rather than secret) diplomacy, and **national self-determination**, whereby the boundaries of nation-states would align with ethnic or linguistic nations, as opposed to the multinational and multiethnic empires that had existed before the war. The centerpiece of Wilson's plan was the **League of Nations**, a governing body that would resolve international disputes and assure the "political independence and territorial integrity" of member states. Although Wilson's Fourteen Points would substantially shape the Paris negotiations, the resulting **Treaty of Versailles** that formally ended the war with Germany took a sharply more punitive approach, largely at the behest of France. Germany, which had no say in the negotiations, was forced to agree that its "aggression" had caused the war (called the "War Guilt" clause), and it was compelled to pay reparations to the victorious Allies in a sum so large (132 billion gold marks) that it was virtually designed to cripple the postwar German economy. When he returned home, Wilson faced opposition from Republicans in the Senate who believed that the League of Nations would rob the United States of its sovereignty. The Senate never ratified the Treaty of Versailles, which meant that the United States never joined the League of Nations, and a separate peace treaty was negotiated with the Central Powers.

The end of wartime price controls led to sharp inflation, which caused a wave of labor strikes across the United States from workers seeking higher wages to compensate for the diminished real value of their money. Combined with the turmoil caused by the Russian Revolution, the strike wave fueled widespread fears that a socialist or communist revolution might happen in the United States. This heightened anxiety over the prospect of radical ("leftist") agitation was known as the **Red Scare**, which culminated in the "Red Summer" of 1919. A rash of bombings amplified the panic, especially when one damaged the home of the attorney general, A. Mitchell Palmer, who responded with a series of raids on suspected radicals. The targets of the **Palmer Raids** were often immigrants, whom many suspected of harboring leftist sympathies. Simmering nativist and anti-communist popular sentiment crystallized

in the case of **Nicola Sacco** and **Bartolomeo Vanzetti**, two Italian anarchists convicted of murder on slim evidence and sentenced to death.

Rising nativism culminated in Congress's passage of the **Immigration Act of 1924** (also called the **Johnson-Reed Act**), which included an Asian Exclusion Act that extended the Chinese Exclusion Act to all of Asia, virtually shutting down immigration from that continent, and a National Origins Act, which limited annual European immigration to 150,000 and set quotas for each country on the basis of each national group's representation in the 1890 census, before the massive wave of immigration from southern and eastern Europe. The policy reflected the rising influence of **eugenics**, a movement that purported to "improve" the human race through selective breeding, and the dubious field of **race science**, led by figures such as **Madison Grant**, who proposed a hierarchy of races with northern Europeans, deemed the "Nordic race," at the top.

Despite all these new regulations, Mexican immigrants were not subject to immigration restrictions, due largely to the pressing need for agricultural laborers, and with the passage of the **Indian Citizenship Act of 1924**, Native Americans were finally granted U.S. citizenship.

Social and Cultural Shifts

The clash of science and traditional values came to a head with the **Scopes trial** (sometimes called the "Scopes Monkey Trial") of 1925. The state of Tennessee had passed a law banning the teaching of Charles Darwin's theory of human evolution or any theory that denied "the Divine Creation of man as taught in the Bible." Aided by the **American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU)**, a biology teacher, **John T. Scopes**, challenged the law by teaching evolutionary theory. The "trial of the century" that followed pitted Scopes, defended by **Clarence Darrow**, against the state of Tennessee's prosecutor, the famed politician and former presidential candidate William Jennings Bryan. Scopes would be found guilty and fined \$100 (though the case was later thrown out on a technicality), but the verdict was less significant than the drama of the conflict between modern science and **Christian Fundamentalism**, the belief that the Bible is the word of God and literally true.

Fundamentalism had arisen in reaction to the rapid social, cultural, technological, and industrial transformations occurring in the early part of the twentieth century. As the output and efficiency of manufacturing increased, so did the consumption of goods, and the great urban department stores that appeared around the turn of the century made consumption into a spectacle and a leisure activity. Railroads and sophisticated distribution networks allowed for the creation of national markets and branded goods, while mail-order catalogs allowed even rural denizens to participate in the burgeoning **consumer culture**. Nationally distributed magazines created venues for the mass advertising of such goods. In 1913, **Henry Ford** introduced the **assembly line**, which divided the manufacturing process into a series of discrete tasks and stages. The highly efficient process allowed for the mass production of automobiles that were accessible to middle-class Americans. New credit and installment plans allowed people to purchase goods before they even had the money to pay for them.

New technologies allowed for new kinds of cultural production, and ordinary people could take part in the entertainments of a truly **mass culture**. A cohort of largely first- and second-generation Jewish

immigrants developed the **film** industry in Los Angeles, founding studios like Warner Bros., Universal, Paramount, Columbia, and Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer (MGM). The studios constructed great theaters called “picture palaces” to exhibit their films across the country, and they equipped them to project not just light but also sound when motion pictures with synchronized sound (called “talkies”) debuted in 1927. The most prominent actors and actresses, such as Mary Pickford and Charlie Chaplin, became movie stars. **Radio** became widespread in American homes in the 1920s, and corporations such as the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) and the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) produced programming and created networks for national distribution. Professional sports gained popularity through radio broadcasting, and extraordinary athletes, such as the homerun-hitting baseballer Babe Ruth, became celebrities. The new media also provided ecstatic reports about the heroics of daredevils such as **Charles Lindbergh**, who completed the first solo transatlantic flight in 1927.

With the cultural shifts came changes in sexual norms and gender roles, particularly for women, who had finally won the right to vote with the ratification of the **Nineteenth Amendment** in 1920.

Margaret Sanger and her sister Ethel Byrne opened the first birth control clinic in Brooklyn, broaching a taboo subject that had such profound implications for women’s choices about their lives. An important freedom for the **New Woman** of the 1920s was the ability to pursue employment in occupations and professions that had been previously closed to them. New fashions were the outward manifestation of a more libertine culture, and many young women known as **flappers** took to bobbing their hair, wearing short dresses, and smoking cigarettes. Though the **Eighteenth Amendment**, ratified in 1919, prohibited the “manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors,” beginning the era of **Prohibition**, many women and men gathered in underground clubs and bars called **speakeasies** to enjoy the illicit pleasures of alcohol. (The thriving black market in alcohol and the corresponding rise in organized crime in this period would eventually lead to the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment by the **Twenty-first Amendment** in 1933.)



Prohibition agents destroying a bar, ca. 1920–1933
(Image credit: U.S. National Archives)

The figure of the New Woman was joined by the figure of the **New Negro**, a term popularized by the writer **Alain Locke**, as many African Americans who had migrated from the oppressive Jim Crow South to northern cities took advantage of less stifling conditions to participate in a flourishing arts movement. The most well-known Black district was New York’s Harlem, and for that reason, this explosion of creativity in African American arts and culture in the 1920s became known as the **Harlem Renaissance**. A new African American musical form, **jazz**, which had its roots in the ragtime and Dixieland music of New Orleans, would come to define the era to such an extent that it is often

referred to as the **Jazz Age**. Phenomenally talented jazz musicians, such as **Louis Armstrong** and **Duke Ellington**, became celebrities among Black and white people alike, and venues such as Harlem’s Cotton Club—where Black performers entertained white patrons—exemplified the persistence of racial segregation despite cultural integration.

Some Black activists rejected the push for integration promoted by groups like the NAACP and instead supported racial separation in the name of racial pride and progress. Horrific events—such as the **Tulsa race massacre** of 1921, when a white mob burned a prosperous Black district in Tulsa, Oklahoma, killing hundreds—seemed to indicate an insurmountable level of racial animosity. The Jamaican immigrant **Marcus Garvey** established an organization called the **United Negro Improvement Association** to promote Black unity and economic independence. As a proponent of **Black nationalism**, Garvey even established a short-lived transatlantic shipping service called the Black Star Line that would contribute to the **back-to-Africa movement** by providing passenger transport between North America and Africa. Though Garvey was imprisoned for mail fraud and later deported to Jamaica, his influential ideology of racial pride and separatism would become known as **Garveyism**.

The Republican **Warren G. Harding** won the 1920 presidential election on the promise of a “return to normalcy” following the era of Progressive social experimentation and the economic controls of the war, but the decade of dramatic cultural transformations that followed proved to be anything but normal. President Harding had put together an aggressively business-friendly cabinet of old friends known as the Ohio Gang, but Harding’s secretary of the interior, Albert B. Fall, took bribes for leasing federal lands, and he would go to prison for what came to be known as the **Teapot Dome Scandal** (named for a geological formation in the leased lands). Harding died suddenly while still in office in 1923, and he was replaced by his vice president, **Calvin Coolidge**, who went on to easily win the 1924 presidential election. Coolidge continued Harding’s hands-off approach to the regulation of big business, stating, “The chief business of the American people is business.”

Reading

1. In *These Truths*, read chapter 16, “The Nature of Prosperity, 1914–1929.”
2. Optional reading: In *The American Yawp*, read the following:
 - Chapter 21, “World War I and Its Aftermath”
 - Chapter 22, “The New Era”

Assignments

1. **Constitutional History.** In the case of *Schenck v. United States*, Charles Schenck was charged with violating the Espionage Act of 1917 for distributing leaflets that encouraged resistance to the military draft based on its supposed violation of the Thirteenth Amendment’s prohibition against “involuntary servitude.” The Supreme Court affirmed Schenck’s conviction, arguing that

he had indeed violated the Espionage Act and was not protected by the First Amendment. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes wrote in the unanimous decision:

The most stringent protection of free speech would not protect a man in falsely shouting fire in a theatre and causing a panic. It does not even protect a man from an injunction against uttering words that may have all the effect of force. [. . .] The question in every case is whether the words used are used in such circumstances and are of such a nature as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that Congress has a right to prevent. It is a question of proximity and degree. When a nation is at war, many things that might be said in time of peace are such a hindrance to its effort that their utterance will not be endured so long as men fight, and that no Court could regard them as protected by any constitutional right.

In your opinion, was the Court justified in its argument that First Amendment rights may be restricted during wartime? Support your answer with some reference to the specific circumstances of U.S. participation in World War I.

2. **Historical Interpretation.** In his request to Congress for a declaration of war against Germany on April 2, 1917, President Wilson stated:

The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.

Considering the successes and failures of the Paris Peace Conference and the Treaty of Versailles insofar as they were known at the time, to what extent did the United States and the Allies succeed in making the world “safe for democracy”? Support your answer with evidence from *These Truths*, *The American Yawp*, or another source.

3. **Textual Analysis.** Consider the primary documents pertaining to the case of Bhagat Singh Thind’s application for U.S. citizenship in *These Truths* (pages 763–69), in which he aims to prove that he is a “white” person:

- “Bhagat Singh Thind’s Statement Regarding His Race, 1918” (16.3)
- “Brief for Bhagat Singh Thind, *United States v. Bhagat Singh Thind*, 1923” (16.5)
- “Brief for the United States, *United States v. Bhagat Singh Thind*, 1923” (16.6)
- “Opinion of the Court, *United States v. Bhagat Singh Thind*, 1923” (16.7)

Respond to the following questions.

- a. Why does Thind believe himself to be a “pure Aryan,” and why does he believe that this makes him “white”?

- b. Why does the United States believe that Thind is not a “white person” and therefore ineligible for naturalization?
- c. Why did the Supreme Court rule against Thind?

4. **Historical Subjectivity.** Consider the following essay:

“Crystal Eastman, ‘Now We Can Begin’ (1920)”

Why does Eastman believe that voluntary motherhood, or “birth control,” and a “motherhood endowment” are essential to women’s rights, freedom, and independence after having won the right to vote with the ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment?

5. **History and Philosophy.** Consider the following document:

“Marcus Garvey, Explanation of the Objects of the Universal Negro Improvement Association (1921)”

Citing evidence from this text, explain how Garvey understands nationalism in general and Black nationalism specifically.

SHARE YOUR WORK

When you have completed this lesson, share your work with your teacher for feedback. You can use the following checklist to organize your work submission.

- Constitutional History
- Historical Interpretation
- Textual Analysis
- Historical Subjectivity
- History and Philosophy

If you have any questions about the lesson content, assignments, or submission methods, let your teacher know.



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