#### UNIT



CHAPTER 24
An Age of Limits
1968-1980

CHAPTER 25
The Conservative
Tide
1980–1992

CHAPTER 26
The United States
in Today's World
1992-Present

EPILOGUE
Issues for the 21st
Century

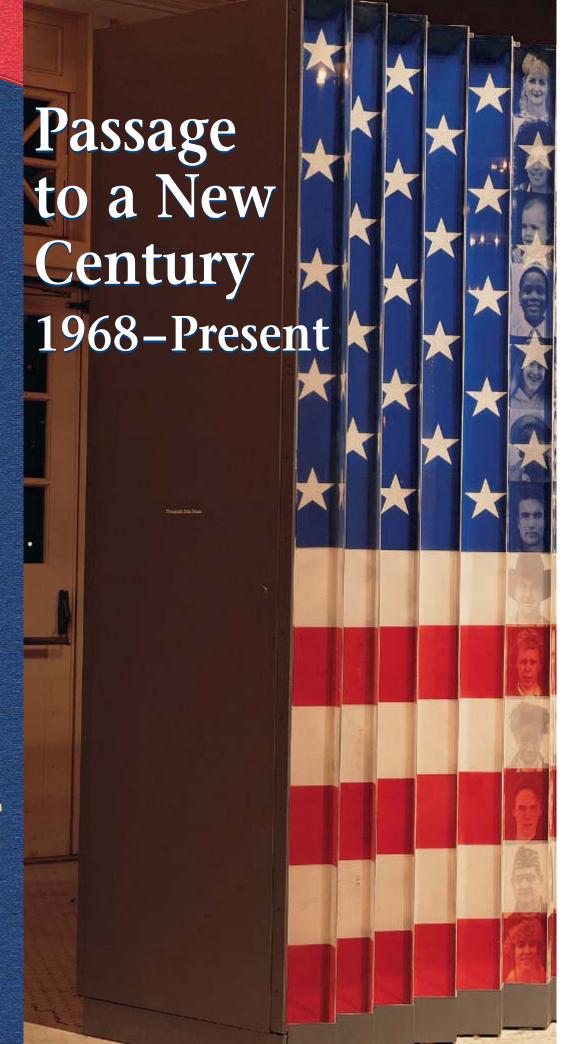
UNIT

PROJECT

#### Campaign Scrapbook

As you read this unit, choose a candidate for political office whom you would like to support. Create a scrapbook that recounts your experiences on the campaign trail.

Exhibit at the Ellis Island Immigration Museum, design by MetaForm; portraits in flag by Pablo Delano Photograph © Norman McGrath







# AN AGE OF LIMITS

#### **Essential Question**

What were the political, social, and economic events of the 1970s?



#### **What You Will Learn**

In this chapter you will learn about the successes and failures of the Nixon, Ford, and Carter administrations.

#### **SECTION 1: The Nixon** Administration

Main Idea President Richard M. Nixon tried to steer the country in a conservative direction and away from federal control.

#### SECTION 2: Watergate: Nixon's **Downfall**

Main Idea President Richard Nixon's involvement in the Watergate scandal forced him to resign from office.

#### **SECTION 3: The Ford and Carter Years**

Main Idea The Ford and Carter administrations attempted to remedy the nation's worst economic crisis in decades.

#### **SECTION 4: Environmental Activism**

Main Idea During the 1970s, Americans strengthened their efforts to address the nation's environmental problems.

**Richard Nixon leaves the White** House after resigning as president on Friday, August 9, 1974.

1968 Richard M. Nixon is elected president.

1969 Astronaut Neil Armstrong becomes the first person to walk on the moon.



1970 America celebrates the first Earth Day.

1972 Nixon visits China and the Soviet Union.

**1972** Nixon is

1973 Energy crisis begins, and gasoline prices soar.

WORLD

1968

1969

1972

1973

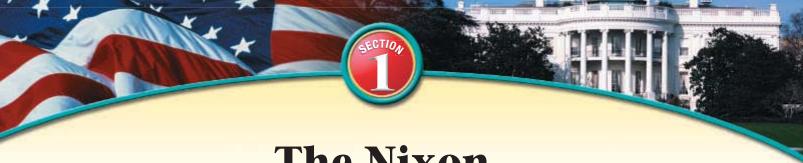
two pandas.

1972 Terrorists kill eleven Israeli athletes at the XX Olympiad in Munich.

1972 China gives the U.S.

1973 War breaks out in the Middle East when seven Arab states attack : Israel on Yom Kippur.





## The Nixon Administration

#### MAIN IDEA

President Richard M. Nixon tried to steer the country in a conservative direction and away from federal control.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

American leaders of the early 1970s laid the foundations for the broad conservative base that exists today.

#### Terms & Names

- Richard M. Nixon
- New Federalism
- revenue sharing
- Family Assistance Plan (FAP)
- Southern strategy
- stagflation
- OPEC
- (Organization of Petroleum
- **Exporting Countries)**
- realpolitik
- détente
- SALT I Treaty

#### One American's Story

hmhsocialstudies.com` Use the graphic

organizer online to take notes on Richard's Nixon's policies and whether they promoted or slowed change.

In November of 1968, Richard M. Nixon had just been elected president of the United States. He chose Henry Kissinger to be his special adviser on foreign affairs. During Nixon's second term in 1972, as the United States struggled to achieve an acceptable peace in Vietnam, Kissinger reflected on his relationship with Nixon.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE HENRY KISSINGER

"I . . . am not at all so sure I could have done what I've done with him with another president. ... I don't know many leaders who would entrust to their aide the task of negotiating with the North Vietnamese, informing only a tiny group of people of the initiative."

-quoted in The New Republic, December 16, 1972



President Nixon (right) confers with Henry Kissinger.

Nixon and Kissinger ended America's involvement in Vietnam, but as the war wound down, the nation seemed to enter an era of limits. The economic prosperity that had followed World War II was ending. President Nixon wanted to limit the federal government to reduce its power and to reverse some of Johnson's liberal policies. At the same time, he would seek to restore America's prestige and influence on the world stage—prestige that had been hit hard by the Vietnam experience.

#### **Nixon's New Conservatism**

President Richard M. Nixon entered office in 1969 determined to turn America in a more conservative direction. Toward that end, he tried to instill a sense of order into a nation still divided over the continuing Vietnam War.

#### **Analyzing**

#### **Political Cartoons**

#### "DOMESTIC LIFE"

Pulitzer Prize—winning cartoonist Paul Szep frequently used Nixon as the subject of his cartoons. Although President Nixon focused his domestic policy on dismantling a number of Great Society social programs, his chief interest was foreign policy.

#### **SKILLBUILDER**

#### **Analyzing Political Cartoons**

- 1. What does the cartoonist suggest about Nixon by showing him leaving with his bags packed?
- 2. Whom do the children represent in this cartoon?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R24.



MAIN IDEA

Summarizing

A What was the goal of Nixon's New Federalism?

**NEW FEDERALISM** One of the main items on President Nixon's agenda was to decrease the size and influence of the federal government. Nixon believed that Lyndon Johnson's Great Society programs, by promoting greater federal involvement with social problems, had given the federal government too much responsibility. Nixon's plan, known as **New Federalism**, was to distribute a portion of federal power to state and local governments. **A** 

To implement this program, Nixon proposed a plan to give more financial freedom to local governments. Normally, the federal government told state and local governments how to spend their federal money. Under **revenue sharing**, state and local governments could spend their federal dollars however they saw fit within certain limitations. In 1972, the revenue-sharing bill, known as the State and Local Fiscal Assistance Act, became law.

**WELFARE REFORM** Nixon was not as successful, however, in his attempt to overhaul welfare, which he believed had grown cumbersome and inefficient. In 1969, the president advocated the so-called **Family Assistance Plan (FAP).** Under the FAP, every family of four with no outside income would receive a basic federal payment of \$1,600 a year, with a provision to earn up to \$4,000 a year in supplemental income. Unemployed participants, excluding mothers of preschool children, would have to take job training and accept any reasonable work offered them.

Nixon presented the plan in conservative terms—as a program that would reduce the supervisory role of the federal government and make welfare recipients responsible for their own lives. The House approved the plan in 1970. However, when the bill reached the Senate, lawmakers from both parties attacked it. Liberal legislators considered the minimum payments too low and the work requirement too stiff, while conservatives objected to the notion of guaranteed income. The bill went down in defeat.

**NEW FEDERALISM WEARS TWO FACES** In the end, Nixon's New Federalism enhanced several key federal programs as it dismantled others. To win backing for his New Federalism program from a Democrat-controlled Congress, Nixon supported a number of congressional measures to increase federal spending for some social programs. Without fanfare, the Nixon administration increased Social

#### HISTORICAL SPOTLIGHT

#### AMERICANS WALK ON THE MOON

Not all was political war during the Nixon administration. On July 20, 1969, one of America's longheld dreams became a reality.

Nearly ten years after John F. Kennedy challenged America to put a person on the moon, astronaut Neil Armstrong climbed down the ladder of his lunar module and stepped onto the surface of the moon. "That's one small step for man," Armstrong said, "one giant leap for mankind." Americans swelled with pride and accomplishment as they watched

the historic moon landing on their televisions. Speaking to the astronauts from the White House, President Nixon said, "For every American, this has to be the proudest day of our lives."

Security, Medicare, and Medicaid payments and made food stamps more accessible.

However, the president also worked to dismantle some of the nation's social programs. Throughout his term, Nixon tried unsuccessfully to eliminate the Job Corps program that provided job training for the unemployed and in 1970 he vetoed a bill to provide additional funding for Housing and Urban Development. Confronted by laws that he opposed, Nixon also turned to a little-used presidential practice called impoundment. Nixon impounded, or withheld, necessary funds for programs, thus holding up their implementation. By 1973, it was believed that Nixon had impounded almost \$15 billion, affecting more than 100 federal programs, including those for health, housing, and education.

The federal courts eventually ordered the release of the impounded funds. They ruled that presidential impoundment was unconstitutional and that only Congress had the authority to decide how federal funds should be spent. Nixon did use his presidential authority to abolish the Office of Economic Opportunity, a cornerstone of Johnson's antipoverty program. B

LAW AND ORDER POLITICS As President Nixon fought with both houses of Congress, he also battled the more liberal elements of society, including the antiwar movement. Nixon had been elected in 1968 on a dual promise to end the war in Vietnam and mend the divisiveness within America that the war had created. Throughout his

first term, Nixon aggressively moved to fulfill both pledges. The president de-escalated America's involvement in Vietnam and oversaw peace negotiations with North Vietnam. At the same time, he began the "law and order" policies that he had promised his "silent majority"—those middle-class Americans who wanted order restored to a country beset by urban riots and antiwar demonstrations.

To accomplish this, Nixon used the full resources of his office—sometimes illegally. Nixon and members of his staff ordered wiretaps of many left-wing individuals and the Democratic Party offices at the Watergate office building in Washington, D.C. The CIA also investigated and compiled documents on thousands of American dissidents—people who objected to the government's policies. The administration even used the Internal Revenue Service to audit the tax returns of antiwar and civil rights activists. Nixon began building a personal "enemies list" of prominent Americans whom the administration would harass.

Nixon also enlisted the help of his combative vice-president, Spiro T. Agnew, to denounce the opposition. The vice-president confronted the antiwar protesters and then turned his scorn on those who controlled the media, whom he viewed as liberal cheerleaders for the antiwar movement. Known for his colorful quotes, Agnew lashed out at the media and liberals as "an effete [weak] corps of impudent snobs" and "nattering nabobs of negativism."

#### **Neil Armstrong's** photograph of **Buzz Aldrin on the** moon



#### **Nixon's Southern Strategy**

Even as President Nixon worked to steer the country along a more conservative course, he had his eyes on the 1972 presidential election. Nixon had won a slim majority in 1968—less than one percent of the popular vote. As president, he began

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing

B In what ways did Nixon both strengthen and weaken federal programs?

working to forge a new conservative coalition to build on his support. In one approach, known as the **Southern strategy**, Nixon tried to attract Southern conservative Democrats by appealing to their unhappiness with federal desegregation policies and a liberal Supreme Court. He also promised to name a Southerner to the Supreme Court.

A NEW SOUTH Since Reconstruction, the South had been a Democratic strong-hold. But by 1968 many white Southern Democrats had grown disillusioned with their party. In their eyes, the party—champion of the Great Society and civil rights—had grown too liberal. This conservative backlash first surfaced in the 1968 election, when thousands of Southern Democrats helped former Alabama governor George Wallace, a conservative segregationist running as an independent, carry five Southern states and capture 13 percent of the popular vote.

Nixon wanted these voters. By winning over the Wallace voters and other discontented Democrats, the president and his fellow Republicans hoped not only to keep the White House but also to recapture a majority in Congress. **C** 

**NIXON SLOWS INTEGRATION** To attract white voters in the South, President Nixon decided on a policy of slowing the country's desegregation efforts. In September of 1969, less than a year after being elected president, Nixon made clear his views on civil rights. "There are those who want instant integration and those who want segregation forever. I believe we need to have a middle course between those two extremes," he said.

Throughout his first term, President Nixon worked to reverse several civil rights policies. In 1969, he ordered the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) to delay desegregation plans for school districts in South Carolina and Mississippi. Nixon's actions violated the Supreme Court's second *Brown* v. *Board of Education* ruling—which called for the desegregation of schools "with all deliberate speed." In response to an NAACP suit, the high court ordered Nixon to abide by the second Brown ruling. The president did so reluctantly, and by 1972, nearly 90 percent of children in the South attended desegregated schools—up from about 20 percent in 1969.

In a further attempt to chip away at civil rights advances, Nixon opposed the extension of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The act had added nearly one million African Americans to the voting rolls. Despite the president's opposition, Congress voted to extend the act. **D** 

CONTROVERSY OVER BUSING President Nixon then attempted to stop

yet another civil rights initiative—the integration of schools through busing. In 1971, the Supreme Court ruled in *Swann* v. *Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* that school districts may bus students to other schools to end the pattern of all-black or all-white educational institutions. White students and parents in cities such as Boston and Detroit angrily protested busing. One South Boston mother spoke for other white Northerners, many of whom still struggled with the integration process.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE

"I'm not against any individual child. I am not a racist, no matter what those high-and-mighty suburban liberals with their picket signs say. I just won't have my children bused to some . . . slum school, and I don't want children from God knows where coming over here."

—A South Boston mother quoted in *The School Busing* Controversy, 1970–75 A demonstrator in Boston protests court-ordered school busing during the early 1970s.

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### MAIN IDEA Analyzing

MAIN IDEA

Generalizations

**Forming** 

C Why had many Democratic

voters in the

Republican

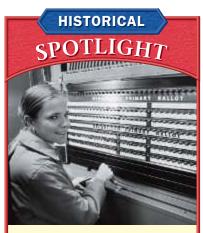
1968?

supporters by

South become potential

Motives
D Why did
President Nixon
oppose the
extension of the
Voting Rights Act?





#### THE TWENTY-SIXTH AMENDMENT

During President Nixon's first term, the Twenty-sixth Amendment was ratified in 1971, extending voting rights to Americans 18 years or older. The amendment was one example of efforts in the 1960s and 1970s to expand opportunities to participate in government.

At the time, liberals supported the amendment because they believed that young people were more likely to be liberal. Conservatives opposed it because they didn't want to extend the vote to more liberals.

Opponents also argued that the amendment would be too expensive for states to administer and that 18-year-olds were not mature enough for the responsibility. Many Americans, however, considered it unfair to be asked to fight and die for their country in Vietnam without being allowed to vote.

Nixon also opposed integration through busing and went on national television to urge Congress to halt the practice. While busing continued in some cities, Nixon had made his position clear to the country—and to the South.

A BATTLE OVER THE SUPREME COURT During the 1968 campaign, Nixon had criticized the Warren Court for being too liberal. Once in the White House, Nixon suddenly found himself with an opportunity to change the direction of the court. During Nixon's first term, four justices, including chief justice Earl Warren, left the bench through retirement. President Nixon quickly moved to put a more conservative face on the Court. In 1969, the Senate approved Nixon's chief justice appointee, U.S. Court of Appeals judge Warren Burger.

Eventually, Nixon placed on the bench three more justices, who tilted the Court in a more conservative direction. However, the newly shaped Court did not always take the conservative route—for example, it handed down the 1971 ruling in favor of racially integrating schools through busing.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

E What was Nixon's Southern strategy and how did he implement it?

#### **Confronting a Stagnant Economy**

One of the more pressing issues facing Richard Nixon was a troubled economy. Between 1967 and 1973, the United States faced high inflation and high unemployment—a situation economists called **stagflation**.

THE CAUSES OF STAGFLATION The economic problems of the late 1960s and early 1970s had several causes. Chief among them were high inflation—a result of Lyndon Johnson's policy to fund the war and social programs through deficit spending. Also, increased competition in international trade, and a flood of new workers, including women and baby boomers, led to stagflation. Another cause of the nation's economic woes was its heavy dependency on foreign oil. During the 1960s, America received much of its petroleum from the oil-producing countries of the

Dependent on foreign oil, Americans in 1979 wait in line for gas during the oil embargo.



**Vocabulary** cartel: a bloc of independent business organizations that controls a service or business

Middle East. Many of these countries belonged to a cartel called OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries). During the 1960s, OPEC gradually raised oil prices. Then in 1973, Egypt and Syria started the Yom Kippur War against Israel. When the United States sent massive military aid to Israel, its longtime ally, Arab oilproducing nations responded by cutting off all oil sales to the United States. When they resumed selling oil to the United States in 1974, the price had quadrupled. This sharp rise in oil prices only worsened the problem of inflation.

NIXON BATTLES STAGFLATION President Nixon took several steps to combat stagflation, but none met with much success. To reverse deficit spending, Nixon attempted to raise taxes and cut the budget. Congress, however, refused to go along with this plan. In another effort to slow inflation, Nixon tried to reduce the amount of money in circulation by urging that interest rates be raised. This measure did little except drive the country into a mild recession, or an overall slowdown of the economy.

In August 1971, the president turned to price and wage controls to stop inflation. He froze workers' wages as well as businesses' prices and fees for 90 days. Inflation eased for a short time, but the recession continued.

#### **Nixon's Foreign Policy Triumphs**

Richard Nixon admittedly preferred world affairs to domestic policy. "I've always thought this country could run itself domestically without a president," he said in 1968. Throughout his presidency, Nixon's top priority was gaining an honorable peace in Vietnam. At the same time, he also made significant advances in America's relationships with China and the Soviet Union.

**KISSINGER AND REALPOLITIK** The architect of Nixon's foreign policy was his adviser for national security affairs, Henry Kissinger. Kissinger, who would later become Nixon's secretary of state, promoted a philosophy known

as **realpolitik**, from a German term meaning "political realism." According to realpolitik, foreign policy should be based solely on consideration of power, not ideals or moral principles. Kissinger believed in evaluating a nation's power, not its philosophy or beliefs. If a country was weak, Kissinger argued, it was often more practical to ignore that country, even if it was Communist.

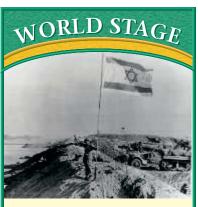
Realpolitik marked a departure from the former confrontational policy of containment, which refused to recognize the major Communist countries. On the other hand, Kissinger's philosophy called for the United States to fully confront the powerful nations of the globe. In the world of realpolitik, however, confrontation largely meant negotiation as well as military engagement.

Nixon shared Kissinger's belief in realpolitik, and together the two men adopted a more flexible approach in dealing with Communist nations. They called their policy **détente**—a policy aimed at easing Cold War tensions. One of the most startling applications of détente came in early 1972 when President Nixon—who had risen in politics as a strong anti-Communist—visited Communist China. **G** 

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing **Causes**

What factors brought on the country's economic problems in the late 1960s and early 1970s?



#### THE YOM KIPPUR WAR

On October 6, 1973, Syria and Egypt invaded Israel on Yom Kippur, the most sacred Jewish holiday. The war—the climax of years of intense border disputes was short but brutal. Even though fighting lasted only three weeks, as many as 7,700 Egyptians, 7,700 Syrians, and 4,500 Israelis were killed or wounded.

Although the United States supplied massive amounts of military aid to Israel, U.S. officials also worked to broker a cease-fire between the warring nations. In what became known as "shuttle diplomacy," Secretary of State Henry Kissinger traveled back and forth between Middle Eastern countries in an attempt to forge a peace agreement. Kissinger's diplomatic efforts finally paid off. Israel signed a cease-fire with Egypt in January 1974. Four months later in May, Israel signed a cease-fire with Syria.

MAIN IDEA **Summarizing** G What was the philosophy of realpolitik?



**President Nixon** tours the Great Wall as part of his visit to China in 1972.

CHARD M. NIXON 1913-1994

The hurdles that Richard Nixon overcame to win the presidency in 1968 included his loss in the 1960 presidential race and a 1962 defeat in the race for governor of California.

Nixon faced many obstacles from the start. As a boy, he rose every day at 4 A.M. to help in his father's grocery store. Nixon also worked as a janitor, a bean picker, and a barker at an amusement park.

The Nixon family suffered great tragedy when one of Nixon's brothers died from meningitis and another from tuberculosis.

None of these traumatic experiences, however, dulled the future president's ambition. Nixon finished third in his law class at Duke University, and after serving in World War II, he launched his political career.

After winning a seat in Congress in 1946, Nixon announced, "I had to win. That's the thing you don't understand. The important thing is to win."

NIXON VISITS CHINA Since the takeover of mainland China by the Communists in 1949, the United States had not formally recognized the Chinese Communist government. In late 1971, Nixon reversed that policy by announcing to the nation that he would visit China "to seek the normalization of relations between the two countries."

By going to China, Nixon was trying, in part, to take advantage of the decade-long rift between China and the Soviet Union. China had long criticized the Soviet Union as being too "soft" in its policies against the West. The two Communist superpowers officially broke ties in 1960. Nixon had thought about exploiting the fractured relationship for several years. "We want to have the Chinese with us when we sit down and negotiate with the Russians," he told a reporter in 1968. Upon his arrival at the Beijing Airport in February, 1972, Nixon recalls his meeting with Chinese premier Zhou En-lai.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE RICHARD M. NIXON

"I knew that Zhou had been deeply insulted by Foster Dulles's refusal to shake hands with him at the Geneva Conference in 1954. When I reached the bottom step, therefore, I made a point of extending my hand as I walked toward him. When our hands met, one era ended and another began."

—The Memoirs of Richard Nixon

Besides its enormous symbolic value, Nixon's visit also was a huge success with the American public. Observers noted that it opened up diplomatic and economic relations with the Chinese and resulted in important agreements

between China and the United States. The two nations agreed that neither would try to dominate the Pacific and that both would cooperate in settling disputes peacefully. They also agreed to participate in scientific and cultural exchanges as well as to eventually reunite Taiwan with the mainland. H

**NIXON TRAVELS TO MOSCOW** In May 1972, three months after visiting Beijing, President Nixon headed to Moscow—the first U.S. president ever to visit the MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Effects**

**H**) How did Nixon's trip change the United States' relationship with China?



**The Soviet Union** regularly displayed its military strength in parades, Shown here is an ICBM in a 1965 parade through Moscow's Red Square.

Soviet Union. Like his visit to China, Nixon's trip to the Soviet Union received wide acclaim. After a series of meetings called the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT), Nixon and Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev signed the SALT I Treaty. This five-year agreement limited the number of intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) and submarine-launched missiles to 1972 levels.

The foreign policy triumphs with China and the Soviet Union and the administration's announcement that peace "is at hand" in Vietnam helped reelect Nixon as president in 1972.

But peace in Vietnam proved elusive. The Nixon administration grappled with the war for nearly six more months before withdrawing troops and ending America's involvement in Vietnam. By that time, another issue was about to dominate the Nixon administration—one that would eventually lead to the downfall of the president.



#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - Richard M. Nixon
  - New Federalism
  - revenue sharing
- Family Assistance Plan
- (FAP)
- Southern strategy
- stagflation
- OPEC (Organization of **Petroleum Exporting**
- **Countries**)
- realpolitik
- détente

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

In a two-column chart similar to the one shown, list the policies of Richard Nixon that promoted change and those that slowed it down.

Promoted Change	Slowed Change
Policies:	Policies:
^ ^ ^	

In what ways do you think Nixon was most conservative? In what ways was he least conservative? Explain.

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. ANALYZING EFFECTS

What were the effects of the Arab OPEC oil embargo on the United States?

#### 4. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

Why was the timing of Nixon's foreign policy achievements particularly important? Relate his achievements to other events.

#### 5. EVALUATING DECISIONS

In your opinion, did Nixon's policy of détente help solve the country's major foreign policy problems? Support your answer with evidence from the text. Think About:

- · the definition and origin of détente
- · the effect of détente on U.S. dealings with Communist countries
- the effect of détente on the American public



#### MAIN IDEA

**President Richard Nixon's** involvement in the Watergate scandal forced him to resign from office.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Nixon's Downfall

The Watergate scandal raised questions of public trust that still affect how the public and media skeptically view politicians.

#### Terms & Names

- impeachment
- Watergate · H. R. Haldeman
- John Ehrlichman John Mitchell
- Committee to Reelect the President
- John Sirica
- Saturday Night Massacre

#### One American's Story



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the Watergate scandal. On July 25, 1974, Representative Barbara Jordan of Texas, a member of the House Judiciary Committee, along with the other committee members, considered whether to recommend that President Nixon be impeached for "high crimes and misdemeanors." Addressing the room, Jordan cited the Constitution in urging her fellow committee members to investigate whether impeachment was appropriate.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE BARBARA JORDAN

"'We the people'—it is a very eloquent beginning. But when the Constitution of the United States was completed . . . I was not included in that 'We the people'. . . . But through the process of amendment, interpretation, and court decision,

I have finally been included in 'We the people'. . . . Today . . . [my] faith in the Constitution is whole. It is complete. It is total. I am not going to sit here and be an idle spectator in the diminution, the subversion, the destruction of the Constitution. . . . Has the President committed offenses . . . which the Constitution will not tolerate?"



**U.S.** Representative Barbara Jordan, 1974.

-quoted in Notable Black American Women

The committee eventually voted to recommend the impeachment of Richard Nixon for his role in the Watergate scandal. However, before Congress could take further action against him, the president resigned. Nixon's resignation, the first by a U.S. president, was the climax of a scandal that led to the imprisonment of 25 government officials and caused the most serious constitutional crisis in the United States since the impeachment of Andrew Johnson in 1868.

#### **President Nixon and His White House**

The **Watergate** scandal centered on the Nixon administration's attempt to cover up a burglary of the Democratic National Committee (DNC) headquarters at the Watergate office and apartment complex in Washington, D.C. However, the

Watergate story began long before the actual burglary. Many historians believe that Watergate truly began with the personalities of Richard Nixon and those of his advisers, as well as with the changing role of the presidency.

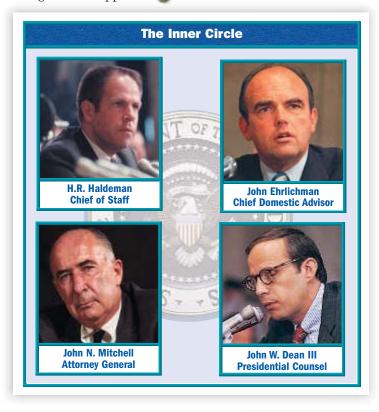
AN IMPERIAL PRESIDENCY When Richard Nixon took office, the executive branch—as a result of the Great Depression, World War II, and the Cold War had become the most powerful branch of government. In his book The Imperial Presidency, the historian Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., argued that by the time Richard Nixon became president, the executive branch had taken on an air of imperial, or supreme, authority.

President Nixon settled into this imperial role with ease. Nixon believed, as he told a reporter in 1980, that "a president must not be one of the crowd. . . . People ... don't want him to be down there saying, 'Look, I'm the same as you.'" Nixon expanded the power of the presidency with little thought to constitutional checks, as when he impounded funds for federal programs that he opposed, or when he ordered troops to invade Cambodia without congressional approval.

MAIN IDEA **Summarizing** A) What is meant by "imperial presidency"?

THE PRESIDENT'S MEN As he distanced himself from Congress, Nixon confided in a small and fiercely loyal group of advisers. They included H. R. Haldeman, White House chief of staff; John Ehrlichman, chief domestic adviser: and John Mitchell, Nixon's former attorney general. These men had played key roles in Nixon's 1968 election victory and now helped the president direct White House policy.

These men also shared President Nixon's desire for secrecy and the consolidation of power. Critics charged that these men, through their personalities and their attitude toward the presidency, developed a sense that they were somehow above the law. This sense would, in turn, prompt President Nixon and his advisers to cover up their role in Watergate, and fuel the coming scandal.



#### The Drive Toward Reelection

Throughout his political career, Richard Nixon lived with the overwhelming fear of losing elections. By the end of the 1972 reelection campaign, Nixon's campaign team sought advantages by any means possible, including an attempt to steal information from the DNC headquarters.

A BUNGLED BURGLARY At 2:30 A.M., June 17, 1972, a guard at the Watergate complex in Washington, D.C., caught five men breaking into the campaign headquarters of the DNC. The burglars planned to photograph documents outlining Democratic Party strategy and to place wiretaps, or "bugs," on the office telephones. The press soon discovered that the group's leader, James McCord, was a former CIA agent. He was also a security coordinator for a group known as the **Committee to** Reelect the President (CRP). John Mitchell, who had resigned as attorney general to run Nixon's reelection campaign, was the CRP's director. **B** 



Nixon campaign team take such a risky action as breaking into the opposition's headquarters?

**HISTORY** 

Iohn Dean on

Nixon's Secrets

nmhsocialstudies.com

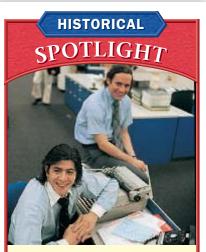
**VIDEO** 

Just three days after the burglary, H. R. Haldeman noted in his diary Nixon's near obsession with how to respond to the break-in.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE H. R. HALDEMAN

"The P[resident] was concerned about what our counterattack is. . . . He raised it again several times during the day, and it obviously is bothering him. . . . He called at home tonight, saying that he wanted to change the plan for his press conference and have it on Thursday instead of tomorrow, so that it won't look like he's reacting to the Democratic break-in thing."

—The Haldeman Diaries



#### WOODWARD **AND BERNSTEIN**

Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein of the Washington Post seemed an unlikely team. Woodward, 29 (at right in the photo above), had graduated from Yale, while the 28-year-old Bernstein was a college dropout.

As the two men dug deeper into the Watergate break-in, a mysterious inside source helped them to uncover the scandal. For more than 30 years the reporters refused to identify their source. Then in June 2005, W. Mark Felt, the No. 2 man at the FBI at the time of Watergate, stepped forward and identified himself as the inside source of the reporters' information.

While people lauded the two reporters for their dogged determination, some Nixon officials remain bitter toward them.

Woodward defended the reporters' work, saying, "We tried to do our job and, in fact, if you look at it, our coverage was pretty conservative."

The cover-up quickly began. Workers shredded all incriminating documents in Haldeman's office. The White House, with President Nixon's consent, asked the CIA to urge the FBI to stop its investigations into the burglary on the grounds of national security. In addition, the CRP passed out nearly \$450,000 to the Watergate burglars to buy their silence after they were indicted in September of 1972. C

Throughout the 1972 campaign, the Watergate burglary generated little interest among the American public and media. Only the Washington Post and two of its reporters, Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein, kept on the story. In a series of articles, the reporters uncovered information that linked numerous members of the administration to the burglary. The White House denied each new Post allegation. Upon learning of an upcoming story that tied him to the burglars, John Mitchell told Bernstein, "That's the most sickening thing I ever heard."

The firm White House response to the charges, and its promises of imminent peace in Vietnam, proved effective in the short term. In November, Nixon was reelected by a landslide over liberal Democrat George S. McGovern. But Nixon's popular support was soon to unravel.

#### The Cover-Up Unravels

In January 1973, the trial of the Watergate burglars began. The trial's presiding judge, John Sirica, made clear his belief that the men had not acted alone. On March 20, a few days before the burglars were scheduled to be sentenced, James McCord sent a letter to Sirica, in which he indicated that he had lied under oath. He also hinted that powerful members of the Nixon administration had been involved in the break-in.

THE SENATE INVESTIGATES WATERGATE McCord's revelation of possible White House involvement in the burglary aroused public interest in Watergate. President Nixon moved quickly to stem the growing concern. On April 30, 1973, Nixon dismissed White House counsel John Dean and announced the resignations of Haldeman, Ehrlichman, and Attorney General Richard Kleindienst, who had recently

replaced John Mitchell following Mitchell's resignation. The president then went on television and denied any attempt at a cover-up. He announced that he was

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Chronological **Order**

C) What steps did the White House take to cover up its involvement in the Watergate break-in?

appointing a new attorney general, Elliot Richardson, and was authorizing him to appoint a special prosecutor to investigate Watergate. "There can be no whitewash at the White House," Nixon said.

The president's reassurances, however, came too late. In May 1973, the Senate began its own investigation of Watergate. A special committee, chaired by Senator Samuel James Ervin of North Carolina, began to call administration officials to give testimony. Throughout the summer millions of Americans sat by their televisions as the "president's men" testified one after another.

"Divine right went out with the American Revolution and doesn't belong to White House aides."

**SENATOR SAM ERVIN** 

**STARTLING TESTIMONY** John Dean delivered the first bomb. In late June, during more than 30 hours of testimony, Dean provided a startling answer to Senator Howard Baker's repeated question, "What did the president know and when did he know it?" The former White House counsel declared that President Nixon had been deeply involved in the cover-up. Dean referred to one meeting in which he and the president, along with several advisers, discussed strategies for continuing the deceit.

The White House strongly denied Dean's charges. The hearings had suddenly reached an impasse as the committee attempted to sort out who was telling the truth. The answer came in July from an unlikely source: presidenaide Alexander Butterfield. Butterfield stunned the committee when he revealed that Nixon had taped virtually all of his presidential conversations. Butterfield later claimed that the taping system was installed "to help Nixon write his memoirs." However, for the Senate committee, the tapes were the key to revealing what Nixon knew and when he knew it. **D** 



MAIN IDEA

#### **Drawing Conclusions**

What was significant about the revelation that Nixon taped his conversations?

MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

E) What events led to the Saturday Night Massacre?

#### THE SATURDAY NIGHT MASSACRE

A year-long battle for the "Nixon tapes" followed. Archibald Cox, the special prosecutor whom Elliot Richardson had appointed to investigate the case, took the president to court in October 1973 to obtain the tapes. Nixon refused and ordered Attorney General Richardson to fire Cox. In what became known as the Saturday Night Massacre, Richardson refused the order and resigned. The deputy attorney general also refused the order, and he was fired. Solicitor General Robert Bork finally fired Cox. However, Cox's replacement, Leon Jaworski, proved equally determined to get the tapes. Several months after the "massacre," the House Judiciary Committee began examining the possibility of an impeachment hearing. **E** 

The entire White House appeared to be under siege. Just days before the Saturday Night Massacre, Vice President Spiro Agnew had resigned after it was revealed that he had accepted bribes from engineering firms while governor of Maryland. Agnew pleaded nolo contendere (no contest) to the charge. Acting under the Twenty-fifth

The Watergate hearings were chaired by **Senator Sam** Ervin, shown (top left) with Sam Dash, chief counsel to the Senate Watergate Committee. John Dean's testimony (above) stunned the nation.

Amendment, Nixon nominated the House minority leader, Gerald R. Ford, as his new vice-president. Congress quickly confirmed the nomination.

#### The Fall of a President

In March 1974, a grand jury indicted seven presidential aides on charges of conspiracy, obstruction of justice, and perjury. The investigation was closing in on the president of the United States.



**NIXON RELEASES THE TAPES** In the spring of 1974, President Nixon told a television audience that he was releasing 1,254 pages of edited transcripts of White House conversations about Watergate. Nixon's offering failed to satisfy investigators, who demanded the unedited tapes. Nixon refused, and the case went before the Supreme Court. On July 24, 1974, the high court ruled unanimously that the president must surrender the tapes. The Court rejected Nixon's argument that doing so would violate national security. Evidence involving possible

criminal activity could not be withheld, even by a president. President Nixon maintained that he had done nothing wrong. At a press conference in November 1973, he proclaimed defiantly, "I am not a crook."

**THE PRESIDENT RESIGNS** Even without holding the original tapes, the House Judiciary Committee determined that there was enough evidence to impeach Richard Nixon. On July 27, the committee approved three articles of impeachment, charging the president with obstruction of justice, abuse of power, and contempt of Congress for refusing to obey a congressional subpoena to release the tapes.

#### **Background**

Although historians sued for access to thousands of hours of tapes, it was not until some 21 years later, in 1996, that an agreement was made for over 3,700 hours of tape to be made public.

#### Analyzing

recorder and

tape from the

1970s.

#### **Political Cartoons**

#### THE WHITE HOUSE TAPES

During the Watergate hearings a bombshell exploded when it was revealed that President Nixon secretly tape-recorded all conversations in the Oval Office. Although Nixon hoped the tapes would one day help historians document the triumphs of his presidency, they were used to confirm his guilt.

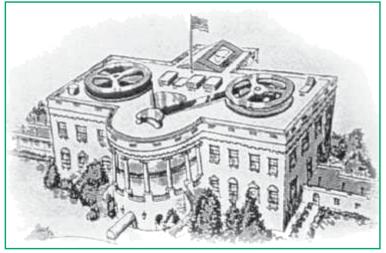
#### **SKILLBUILDER**

#### **Analyzing Political Cartoons**

- 1. What does this cartoon imply about privacy during President Nixon's term in office?
- 2. What building has been transformed into a giant tape recorder?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R24.



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On August 5, Nixon released the tapes. They contained many gaps, and one tape revealed a disturbing 18½-minute gap. According to the White House, Rose Mary Woods, President Nixon's secretary, accidentally erased part of a conversation between H. R. Haldeman and Nixon. More importantly, a tape dated June 23, 1972—six days after the Watergate break-in that contained a conversation between Nixon and Haldeman, disclosed the evidence investigators needed. Not only had the president known about the role of members of his administration in the burglary, he had agreed to the plan to obstruct the FBI's investigation.

The evidence now seemed overwhelming. On August 8, 1974, before the full House vote on the articles of impeachment began, President

Nixon announced his resignation from office. Defiant as always, Nixon admitted no guilt. He merely said that some of his judgments "were wrong." The next day, Nixon and his wife, Pat, returned home to California. A short time later, Gerald Ford was sworn in as the 38th president of the United States.

**THE EFFECTS OF WATERGATE** The effects of Watergate have endured long after Nixon's resignation. Eventually, 25 members of the Nixon Administration were convicted and served prison terms for crimes connected to Watergate. Along with the divisive war in Vietnam, Watergate produced a deep disillusionment with the "imperial" presidency. In the years following Vietnam and Watergate, the American public and the media developed a general cynicism about public officials that still exists today. Watergate remains the scandal and investigative story against which all others are measured.





With wife Pat looking on, Richard Nixon bids farewell to his staff on his final day as president. Nixon's resignation letter is shown above.



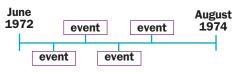
#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - impeachment
- Watergate
- · H. R. Haldeman
- John Ehrlichman
- John Mitchell
- Committee to Reelect the
- **President**
- John Sirica
- Saturday Night Massacre

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Use a time line like the one below to trace the events of the Watergate scandal.



Which event made Nixon's downfall certain?

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. HYPOTHESIZING

If Nixon had admitted to and apologized for the Watergate breakin, how might subsequent events have been different? Explain.

#### Think About:

- the extent of the cover-up
- the impact of the cover-up
- Nixon's public image

#### 4. ANALYZING EVENTS

How did the Watergate scandal create a constitutional crisis?

#### 5. EVALUATING

Do you think that Nixon would have been forced to resign if the tapes had not existed? Explain your answer.

## **Television Reflects American Life**

From May until November 1973, the Senate Watergate hearings were the biggest daytime TV viewing event of the year. Meanwhile, television programming began to more closely reflect the realities of American life. Shows more often addressed relevant issues, more African-American characters appeared, and working women as well as homemakers were portrayed. In addition, the newly established Public Broadcasting System began showing many issue-oriented programs and expanded educational programming for children.

#### **DIVERSITY**

Chico and the Man was the first series set in a Mexican-American barrio, East Los Angeles. The program centered on the relationship between Ed Brown, a cranky garage owner, and Chico Rodriguez, an optimistic young mechanic Brown reluctantly hired.



# 808 CHAPTER 24

#### **<b>■ SOCIAL VALUES**

All in the Family was the most popular series of the 1970s. It told the story of a working-class family, headed by the bigoted Archie Bunker and his long-suffering wife, Edith. Through the barbs Bunker traded with his son-in-law and his African-American neighbor, George Jefferson, the show dealt openly with the divisions in American society.

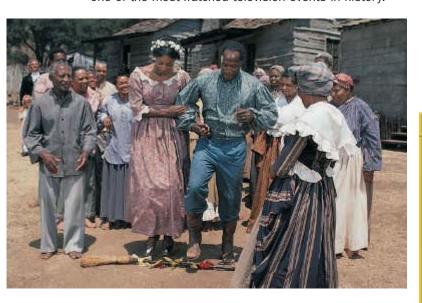


#### **INDEPENDENT WOMEN**

The Mary Tyler Moore Show depicted Mary Richards, a single woman living in Minneapolis and working as an assistant manager in a local TV news department. Mary symbolized the young career woman of the 1970s.

#### **▼ CULTURAL IDENTITY**

The miniseries Roots, based on a book by Alex Haley, told the saga of several generations of an African-American family. The eight-part story began with Kunta Kinte, who was captured outside his West African village and taken to America as a slave. It ended with his greatgrandson's setting off for a new life as a free man. The groundbreaking series, broadcast in January 1977, was one of the most-watched television events in history.

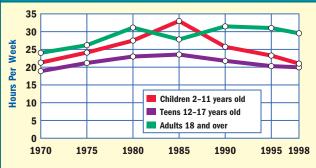


## DATA

#### TV EVENTS OF THE 1970s

- A congressional ban on TV cigarette commercials took effect in 1971.
- ABC negotiated an \$8-million-a-year contract to televise Monday Night Football, first broadcast in September 1970.
- In 1972, President Nixon, accompanied by TV cameras and reporters from the major networks, made a groundbreaking visit to China.
- Saturday Night Live—a show that would launch the careers of Dan Aykroyd, Jane Curtin, Eddie Murphy, and many other comic actors—premiered in October 1975.
- WTCG-TV (later WTBS) in Atlanta, owned by Ted Turner, became the basis of the first true satellitedelivered "superstation" in 1976.
- In November 1979, ABC began broadcasting latenight updates on the hostage crisis in Iran. These reports evolved into the program Nightline with Ted Koppel.





Source: Nielsen Media Research

#### THINKING CRITICALLY

#### **CONNECT TO HISTORY**

1. Analyzing Causes In what ways did television change to reflect American society in the 1970s? What factors might have influenced these changes?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R7.

#### **CONNECT TO TODAY**

2. Creating a Graph Use the Internet or an almanac to find data on the number of televisions owned in the United States and the number of hours of TV watched every day. Make a graph that displays the data.



## The Ford and **Carter Years**

#### MAIN IDEA

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

#### Gerald R. Ford

- The Ford and Carter administrations attempted to remedy the nation's worst economic crisis in decades.
- Maintaining a stable national economy has remained a top priority for every president since Ford and Carter.
- Jimmy Carter
- National Energy Act

Terms & Names

- human rights
- Camp David Accords
- Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini

#### **One American's Story**

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the major events of the Ford and Carter administrations.

James D. Denney couldn't believe what he was hearing. Barely a month after Richard Nixon had resigned amid the Watergate scandal, President Gerald R. Ford had granted Nixon a full pardon. "[S]omeone must write, 'The End," Ford had declared in a televised statement. "I have concluded that only I can do that." Denney wrote a letter to the editors of Time magazine, in which he voiced his anger at Ford's decision.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE JAMES D. DENNEY

"Justice may certainly be tempered by mercy, but there can be no such thing as mercy until justice has been accomplished by the courts. Since it circumvented justice, Mr. Ford's act was merely indulgent favoritism, a bland and unworthy substitute for mercy."

-Time, September 23, 1974

James Denney's feelings were typical of the anger and the disillusionment with the presidency that many Americans felt in the aftermath of the Watergate scandal. During the 1970s, Presidents Gerald Ford and Jimmy Carter sought to restore America's faith in its leaders. At the same time, both men had to focus much of their attention on battling the nation's worsening economic situation.



Two women protest President Ford's pardon of Richard Nixon.

#### **Ford Travels a Rough Road**

Upon taking office, Gerald R. Ford urged Americans to put the Watergate scandal behind them. "Our long national nightmare is over," he declared. The nation's nightmarish economy persisted, however, and Ford's policies offered little relief.

"A FORD, NOT A LINCOLN" Gerald Ford seemed to many to be a likable and honest man. Upon becoming vice president after Spiro Agnew's resignation, Ford candidly admitted his limitations. "I'm a Ford, not a Lincoln," he remarked. On September 8, 1974, President Ford pardoned Richard Nixon in an attempt to move the country beyond Watergate. The move cost Ford a good deal of public support.

FORD TRIES TO "WHIP" INFLATION By the time Ford took office, America's economy had gone from bad to worse. Both inflation and unemployment continued to rise. After the massive OPEC oil-price increases in 1973, gasoline and heating oil costs had soared, pushing inflation from 6 percent to over 10 percent by the end of 1974. Ford responded with a program of massive citizen action, called "Whip Inflation Now" or WIN. The president called on Americans to cut back on their use of oil and gas and to take other energy-saving measures.

In the absence of incentives, though, the plan fell flat. Ford then tried to curb inflation through a "tight money" policy. He cut government spending and encouraged the Federal Reserve Board to restrict credit through higher interest rates. These actions triggered the worst economic recession in 40 years. As Ford implemented his economic programs, he continually battled a Democratic Congress intent on pushing its own economic agenda. During his two years as president, Ford vetoed more than 50 pieces of legislation. A

#### **Ford's Foreign Policy**

Ford fared slightly better in the international arena. He relied heavily on Henry Kissinger, who continued to hold the key position of secretary of state.

**CARRYING OUT NIXON'S FOREIGN POLICIES** Following Kissinger's advice, Ford pushed ahead with Nixon's policy of negotiation with China and the Soviet Union. In November 1974, he met with Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev. Less than a year later, he traveled to Helsinki, Finland, where 35 nations, including the Soviet Union, signed the Helsinki Accords—a series of agreements that promised greater cooperation between the nations of Eastern and Western Europe. The Helsinki Accords would be Ford's greatest presidential accomplishment.

ONGOING TURMOIL IN SOUTHEAST ASIA Like presidents before him, Ford encountered trouble in Southeast Asia. The 1973 cease-fire in Vietnam had broken down. Heavy fighting resumed and Ford asked Congress for over \$722 million to help South Vietnam. Congress refused. Without American financial help, South Vietnam surrendered to the North in 1975. In the same year, the Communist government of Cambodia seized the U.S. merchant ship *Mayagüez* in the Gulf of Siam. President Ford responded with a massive show of military force to rescue 39 crew members aboard the ship. The operation cost the lives of 41 U.S. troops. Critics argued that the mission had cost more lives than it had saved.

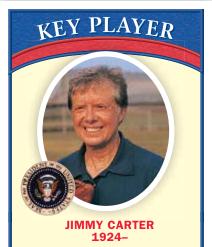




President Ford's pardon of Richard Nixon outraged many Americans. But President Ford argued that the pardon of Richard Nixon was in the country's best interest. In the event of a Watergate trial, Ford argued, "ugly passions would again be aroused. . . . And the credibility of our free institutions . . . would again be challenged at home and abroad." Ford called the pardon decision "the most difficult of my life, by far."

In 2001, after more than 25 years, Ford received the John F. Kennedy Profiles in Courage Award for his courageous decision in the face of public opposition.

- **1.** How might the country have been affected if a former United States president had gone on trial for possible criminal wrongdoing?
- 2. If you had been in President Ford's position, would you have pardoned Richard Nixon? Why or why not?



James Earl Carter, Jr., was born into relative prosperity. His father, Earl Carter, was a disciplinarian who tried to instill a sense of hard work and responsibility in his son.

To earn money for himself, Carter undertook a variety of jobs selling peanuts, running a hamburger and hot dog stand, collecting newspapers and selling them to fish markets, and selling scrap iron.

Before entering politics, Carter joined the navy, where he excelled in electronics and naval tactics. In 1952, he joined a select group of officers who helped develop the world's first nuclear submarines. The group's commander was Captain Hyman G. Rickover. Carter later wrote that Rickover "had a profound effect on my life—perhaps more than anyone except my own parents. . . . He expected the maximum from us, but he always contributed more.'

This 1976 campaign toy exaggerates **Jimmy Carter's** well-known smile and parodies his occupation as a peanut farmer.



#### **Carter Enters the White House**

Gerald Ford won the Republican nomination for president in 1976 after fending off a powerful conservative challenge from former California governor Ronald Reagan. Because the Republicans seemed divided over Ford's leadership, the Democrats confidently eyed the White House. "We could run an aardvark this year and win," predicted one Democratic leader. The Democratic nominee was indeed a surprise: a nationally unknown peanut farmer and former governor of Georgia, Jimmy Carter.

MR. CARTER GOES TO WASHINGTON During the post-Watergate era, cynicism toward the Washington establishment ran high. The soft-spoken, personable man from Plains, Georgia, promised to restore integrity to the nation's highest office, "I will never tell a lie to the American people."

Throughout the presidential campaign, Carter and Ford squared off over the key issues of inflation, energy, and unemployment. On Election Day, Jimmy Carter won by a narrow margin, claiming 40.8 million popular votes to Ford's 39.1 million. B)

From the very beginning, the new first family brought a down-to-earth style to Washington. After settling into office, Carter stayed in touch with the people by holding Roosevelt-like "fireside chats" on radio and television.

Carter failed to reach out to Congress in a similar way, refusing to play the "insider" game of deal making. Relying mainly on a team of advisers from Georgia, Carter even alienated congressional Democrats. Both parties on Capitol Hill often joined to sink the president's budget proposals, as well as his major policy reforms of tax and welfare programs.

#### **Carter's Domestic Agenda**

Like Gerald Ford, President Carter focused much of his attention on battling the country's energy and economic crises but was unable to bring the United States out of its economic slump.

**CONFRONTING THE ENERGY CRISIS** Carter considered the energy crisis the most important issue facing the nation. A large part of the problem, the president believed, was America's reliance on imported oil. On April 18, 1977, during a fireside chat, Carter urged his fellow Americans to cut their consumption of oil and gas.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE JIMMY CARTER

"The energy crisis . . . is a problem . . . likely to get progressively worse through the rest of this century. . . . Our decision about energy will test the character of the American people. . . . This difficult effort will be the 'moral equivalent of war,' except that we will be uniting our efforts to build and not to destroy."

-quoted in Keeping Faith

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing **Causes**

**B** What factors played a significant role in Carter's election?

#### Vocabulary

lobby: a specialinterest group that tries to influence the legislature

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

C How did the National Energy Act help ease America's energy crisis?

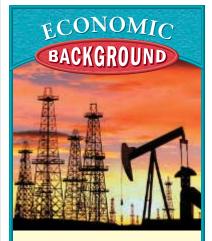
In addition, Carter presented Congress with more than 100 proposals on energy conservation and development. Representatives from oil- and gas-producing states fiercely resisted some of the proposals. Automobile manufacturers also lobbied against gas-rationing provisions. "It was impossible for me to imagine the bloody legislative battles we would have to win," Carter later wrote.

Out of the battle came the **National Energy Act.** The act placed a tax on gas-guzzling cars, removed price controls on oil and natural gas produced in the United States, and extended tax credits for the development of alternative energy. With the help of the act, as well as voluntary conservation measures, U.S. dependence on foreign oil had eased slightly by 1979. C

THE ECONOMIC CRISIS WORSENS Unfortunately, these energy-saving measures could do little to combat a sudden new economic crisis. In the summer of 1979, renewed violence in the Middle East produced a second major fuel shortage in the United States. To make matters worse, OPEC announced another major price hike. In 1979 inflation soared from 7.6 percent to 11.3 percent.

Faced with increasing pressure to act, Carter attempted an array of measures, none of which worked. Carter's scattershot approach convinced many people that he had no economic policy at all. Carter fueled this feeling of uncertainty by delivering his now-famous "malaise" speech, in which he complained of a "crisis of spirit" that had struck "at the very heart and soul of our national will." Carter's address made many Americans feel that their president had given up.

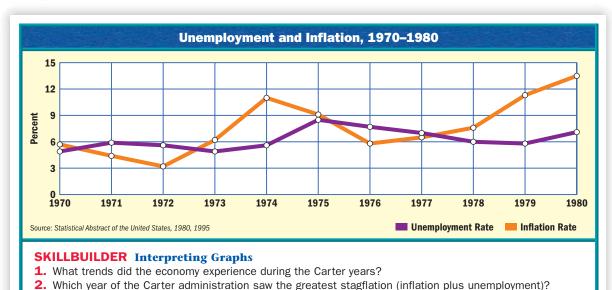
By 1980, inflation had climbed to nearly 14 percent, the highest rate since 1947. The standard of living in the United States slipped from first place to fifth place in the world. Carter's popularity slipped along with it. This economic downswing—and Carter's inability to solve it during an election year-was one key factor in sending Ronald Reagan to the White House.

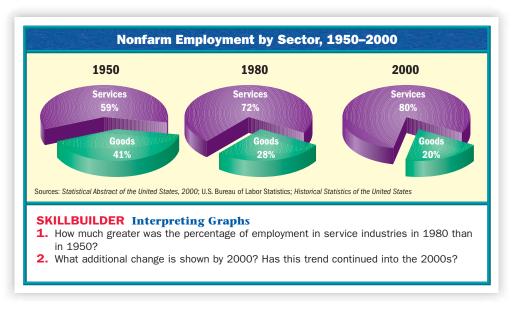


#### **THE 1980s TEXAS OIL BOOM**

The economic crisis that gripped the country in the late 1970s was, in large part, caused by the increased cost of oil. Members of the OPEC cartel raised the price of oil by agreeing to restrict oil production. The resulting decrease in the supply of oil in the market caused the price to go up.

Most Americans were hurt by the high energy prices. However, in areas that produced oil, such as Texas, the rise in prices led to a booming economy in the early 1980's. For example, realestate values—for land on which to drill for oil, as well as for office space in cities like Houston and Dallas-increased markedly.





**A CHANGING ECONOMY** Many of the economic problems Jimmy Carter struggled with resulted from long-term trends in the economy. Since the 1950s, the rise of automation and foreign competition had reduced the number of manufacturing jobs. At the same time, the service sector of the economy expanded rapidly. This sector includes industries such as communications, transportation, and retail trade.

The rise of the service sector and the decline of manufacturing jobs meant big changes for some American workers. Workers left out of manufacturing jobs faced an increasingly complex job market. Many of the higher-paying service jobs required more education or specialized skills than did manufacturing jobs. The lower-skilled service jobs usually did not pay well.

Growing overseas competition during the 1970s caused further change in America's economy. The booming economies of West Germany and countries on the Pacific Rim (such as Japan, Taiwan, and Korea) cut into many U.S. markets. Many of the nation's primary industries—iron and steel, rubber, clothing, automobiles—had to cut back production, lay off workers, and even close plants. Especially hard-hit were the automotive industries of the Northeast. There, high

energy costs, foreign competition, and computerized production led companies to eliminate tens of thousands of jobs. **D** 

**CARTER AND CIVIL RIGHTS** Although Carter felt frustrated by the country's economic woes, he took special pride in his civil rights record. His administration included more African Americans and women than any before it. In 1977, the president appointed civil rights leader Andrew Young as U.S. ambassador to the United Nations. Young was the first African American to hold that post. To the judicial branch alone, Carter appointed 28 African Americans, 29 women (including 6 African Americans), and 14 Latinos.

However, President Carter fell short of what many civil rights groups had expected in terms of legislation. Critics claimed that Carter—preoccupied with battles over energy and the economy—

failed to give civil rights his full attention. Meanwhile, the courts began to turn against affirmative action. In 1978, in the case of *Regents of the University of California* v. *Bakke*, the Supreme Court decided that the affirmative action policies of the university's medical school were unconstitutional. The decision made it more difficult for organizations to establish effective affirmative action programs. (See *Regents of the University of California* v. *Bakke*, page 818.)



Andrew Young stands outside the United Nations in New York City, in 1997.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Causes

**D** What factors played a role in America's economic stagnation?

#### **A Human Rights Foreign Policy**

Jimmy Carter rejected the philosophy of realpolitik—the pragmatic policy of negotiating with powerful nations despite their behavior—and strived for a foreign policy committed to human rights.

ADVANCING HUMAN RIGHTS Jimmy Carter, like Woodrow Wilson, sought to use moral principles as a guide for U.S. foreign policy. He believed that the United States needed to commit itself to promoting human rights—such as the freedoms and liberties listed in the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights—throughout the world.

Putting his principles into practice, President Carter cut off military aid to Argentina and Brazil, countries that had good relations with the United States but had imprisoned or tortured thousands of their own citizens. Carter followed up this action by establishing a Bureau of Human Rights in the State Department.

Carter's philosophy was not without its critics. Supporters of the containment policy felt that the president's policy undercut allies such as Nicaragua, a dictatorial but anti-Communist country. Others argued that by supporting dictators in South Korea and the Philippines, Carter was acting inconsistently. In 1977, Carter's policies drew further criticism when his administration announced

YIELDING THE PANAMA CANAL Since 1914, when the United States obtained full ownership over the Panama Canal, Panamanians had resented having their nation split in half by a foreign power. In 1977, the two nations agreed to two treaties, one of which turned over control of the Panama Canal to Panama on December 31, 1999.

that it planned to give up ownership of the Panama Canal.

In 1978, the U.S. Senate, which had to ratify each treaty, approved the agreements by a vote of 68 to 32—one more vote than the required two-thirds. Public opinion was also divided. In the end, the treaties did improve relationships between the United States and Latin America.

THE COLLAPSE OF DÉTENTE When Jimmy Carter took office, détente—the relaxation of tensions between the world's superpowers—had reached a high point. Beginning with President Nixon and continuing with President Ford, U.S. officials had worked to ease relations with the Communist superpowers of China and the Soviet Union.

However, Carter's firm insistence on human rights led to a breakdown in relations with the Soviet Union. President Carter's dismay over the Soviet Union's treatment of dissidents, or opponents of the government's policies, delayed a second round of SALT negotiations. President Carter and Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev finally met in June of 1979 in Vienna, Austria, where they signed an agreement known as SALT II. Although the agreement did not reduce armaments, it did provide for limits on the number of strategic weapons and nuclear-missile launchers that each side could produce.

The SALT II agreement, however, met sharp opposition in the Senate. Critics argued that it would put the United States at a military disadvantage. Then, in December 1979, the Soviets invaded the neighboring country of Afghanistan. Angered over the invasion, President Carter refused to fight for the SALT II agreement, and the treaty died. [5]

MAIN IDEA

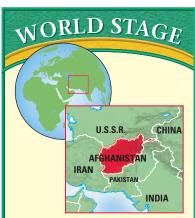
#### Identifying **Problems**

**E** What problems did critics have with Carter's foreignpolicy philosophy?

MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Causes**

What led to the collapse of détente with the Soviet Union?

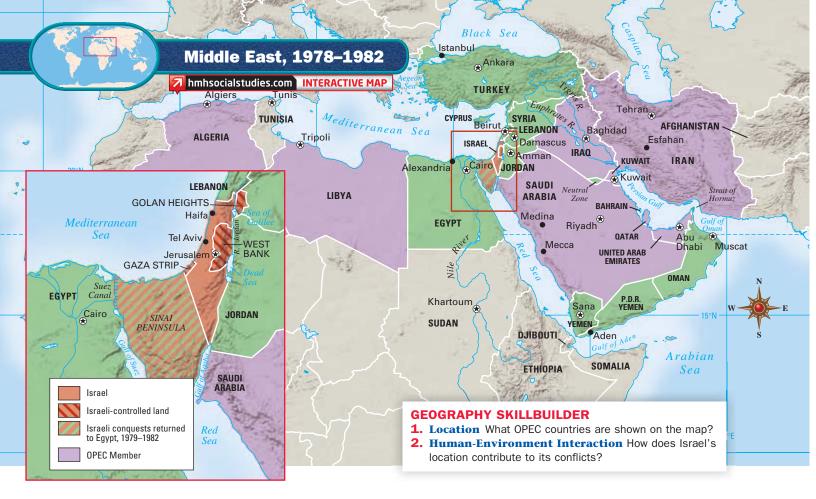


#### **SOVIET-AFGHANISTAN WAR**

Afghanistan, an Islamic country along the southern border of the Soviet Union, had been run by a Communist, pro-Soviet government for a number of years. However, a strong Muslim rebel group known as the mujahideen was intent on overthrowing the Afghan government. Fearing a rebel victory in Afghanistan, the Soviet Union sent troops to Afghanistan in late 1979.

While the Soviets had superior weaponry, the rebels fought the Soviets to a stalemate by using guerrilla tactics and intimate knowledge of the country's mountainous terrain.

After suffering thousands of casualties, the last Soviet troops pulled out of Afghanistan in February 1989. Fighting between rival factions continued for years. By 2000, the Taliban, a radical Muslim faction, controlled 90 percent of Afghanistan.



President Carter, President Anwar el-Sadat, and Prime Minister Menachem Begin reach a peace agreement in 1978.

#### **Triumph and Crisis in the Middle East**

Through long gasoline lines and high energy costs, Americans became all too aware of the troubles in the Middle East. In that area of ethnic, religious, and economic conflict, Jimmy Carter achieved one of his greatest diplomatic triumphs—and suffered his most tragic defeat.

**THE CAMP DAVID ACCORDS** Through negotiation and arm-twisting, Carter helped forge peace between long-time enemies Israel and Egypt. In 1977, Egyptian

president Anwar el-Sadat and Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin met in Jerusalem to discuss an overall peace between the two nations. In the summer of 1978, Carter seized on the peace initiative. When the peace talks stalled, he invited Sadat and Begin to Camp David, the presidential retreat in Maryland.

After 12 days of intense negotiations, the three leaders reached an agreement that became known as the **Camp David Accords.** Under this first signed peace agreement with an Arab country, Israel agreed to withdraw from the Sinai Peninsula, which it had captured from Egypt during the Six-Day War in 1967. (See inset map above.) Egypt, in turn, formally recognized Israel's right to exist. **G** 



#### MAIN IDEA

#### Summarizing

**G** What was the significance of the Camp David Accords?

Joking at the hard work ahead, Carter wrote playfully in his diary, "I resolved to do everything possible to get out of the negotiating business!" Little did the president know that his next Middle East negotiation would be his most painful.

THE IRAN HOSTAGE CRISIS By 1979, the shah of Iran, an ally of the United States, was in deep trouble. Many Iranians resented his regime's widespread corruption and dictatorial tactics.

In January 1979, revolution broke out. The Muslim religious leader **Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini** (ī'yə-tō'lə rōō-hō'lə kō-mā'nē) led the rebels in overthrowing the shah and establishing a religious state based on strict obedience to the Qur'an, the sacred book of Islam. Carter had supported the shah until the very end. In October 1979, the president allowed the shah to enter the United States for cancer treatment, though he had already fled Iran in January 1979.

The act infuriated the revolutionaries of Iran. On November 4, 1979, armed students seized the U.S. embassy in Tehran and took 52 Americans hostage. The militants demanded that the United States send the shah back to Iran in return for the release of the hostages.

Carter refused, and a painful yearlong standoff followed, in which the United States continued quiet but intense efforts to free the hostages. The captives were finally released on January 20, 1981, shortly after the new president, Ronald Reagan, was sworn in. Despite the hostages' release after 444 days in captivity,



**U.S.** hostages were blindfolded and paraded through the streets of Tehran.

the crisis in Iran seemed to underscore the limits that Americans faced during the 1970s. Americans also realized that there were limits to the nation's environmental resources. This realization prompted both citizens and the government to actively address environmental concerns.



#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - Gerald R. Ford
- National Energy Act
- Camp David Accords

- Jimmy Carter
- ·human rights
- · Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Create a time line of the major events of the Ford and Carter administrations, using a form such as the one below.



Which two events do you think were the most important? Why?

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. EVALUATING DECISIONS

Do you think that Ford made a good decision in pardoning Nixon? Explain why or why not.

#### 4. COMPARING

How were the actions taken by Presidents Ford and Carter to address the country's economic downturn similar? How did they differ?

#### **5. ANALYZING ISSUES**

Do you agree with President Carter that human rights concerns should steer U.S. foreign policy? Why or why not? Think About:

- · the responsibility of promoting human rights
- the loss of good relations with certain countries
- the collapse of détente with the Soviet Union



#### REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA v. BAKKE (1978)

**ORIGINS OF THE CASE** In 1973, Allan Bakke applied to the University of California at Davis medical school. The school had a quota-based affirmative-action plan that reserved 16 out of 100 spots for racial minorities. Bakke, a white male, was not admitted to the school despite his competitive test scores and grades. Bakke sued for admission, arguing that he had been discriminated against on the basis of race. The California Supreme Court agreed with Bakke, but the school appealed the case.

THE RULING The Court ruled that racial quotas were unconstitutional, but that schools could still consider race as a factor in admissions.



Allan Bakke receives his degree in medicine from the medical school at U.C. Davis on June 4, 1982.

#### **LEGAL REASONING**

The Court was closely divided on whether affirmative-action plans were constitutional. Two different sets of justices formed 5-to-4 majorities on two different issues in Bakke.

Five justices agreed the quota was unfair to Bakke. They based their argument on the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Justice Lewis Powell, writing for the majority, explained their reasoning.

"The guarantee of equal protection cannot mean one thing when applied to one individual and something else when applied to a person of another color. If both are not accorded the same protection, then it is not equal."

The four justices that joined Powell in this part of the decision said race should never play a part in admissions decisions. Powell and

the other four justices disagreed. These five justices formed a separate majority, arguing that "the attainment of a diverse student body . . . is a constitutionally permissible goal for an institution of higher education." In other words, schools could have affirmative-action plans that consider race as one factor in admission decisions in order to achieve a diverse student body.

#### **LEGAL SOURCES**

#### **LEGISLATION**

#### U.S. CONSTITUTION. FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT (1868)

"No state shall . . . deprive any person of life, liberty. or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

#### **RELATED CASES**

#### UNITED STEELWORKERS OF AMERICA v. WEBER (1979)

The Court said a business could have a short-term program for training minority workers as a way of fixing the results of past discrimination.

#### ADARAND CONSTRUCTORS v. PENA (1995)

The Court struck a federal law to set aside 10 percent of highway construction funds for minority-owned businesses. The Court also said that affirmative-action programs must be focused to achieve a compelling government interest.



On October 8, 1977, protestors march in suppport of affirmative action at a park in Oakland, California.

#### WHY IT MATTERED

Many people have faced discrimination in America. The struggle of African Americans for civil rights in the 1950s and 1960s succeeded in overturning Jim Crow segregation. Even so, social inequality persisted for African Americans, as well as women and other minority groups. In 1965, President Lyndon Johnson explained why more proactive measures needed to be taken to end inequality.

"You do not take a person who for years has been hobbled by chains and . . . bring him up to the starting line of a race and then say, 'you are free to compete with all the others' and still justly believe that you have been completely fair."

As a result, Johnson urged companies to begin to take "affirmative action" to hire and promote African Americans, helping them to overcome generations of inequality. Critics quickly opposed affirmative action plans as unfair to white people and merely a replacement of one form of racial discrimination with another.

University admissions policies became a focus of the debate over affirmative action. The Court's ruling in Bakke allowed race to be used as one factor in admissions decisions. Schools could consider a prospective student's race, but they could not use quotas or use race as the only factor for admission.

#### HISTORICAL IMPACT

Since Bakke, the Court has ruled on affirmative action several times, usually limiting affirmative-action plans. For example, in Adarand Constructors v. Pena (1995), the Court struck a federal law to set aside "not less than 10 percent" of highway construction funds for businesses owned by "socially and economically disadvantaged individuals." The Court said that affirmative-action programs must be narrowly focused to achieve a "compelling government interest."

On cases regarding school affirmative-action plans, the courts have not created clear guidelines. The Supreme Court refused to hear an appeal of a 1996 lower court ruling that outlawed any consideration of race for admission to the University of Texas law school. Yet in the 2003 decision in Grutter v. Bollinger, the Court protected a University of Michigan law school admissions policy that required the admissions committee to consider the diversity of its student body. The Court reaffirmed the Bakke view that "student body diversity is a compelling state interest."

Since the Grutter decision, several states have passed laws or constitutional amendments requiring race-blind admissions—effectively barring affirmative action. These laws were passed by ballot initiative, reflecting a popular view that sees affirmative action as "reverse discrimination."

#### THINKING CRITICALLY

#### **CONNECT TO HISTORY**

**1. Evaluating** Research articles about *Bakke* in the library or on the Internet. Read the articles and write a paragraph for each one explaining the writer's point of view on the case. Conclude by telling which article gives the best discussion of the case. Cite examples to support your choice.

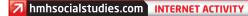


SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R16.

#### CONNECT TO TODAY



2. Visit the links for Historic Decisions of the Supreme Court to research and read about Proposition 209, California's 1996 law banning affirmative action at state universities. Prepare arguments for an in-class debate about whether the law will have a positive or negative long-term effect.





#### MAIN IDEA

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

#### Terms & Names

**During the 1970s, Americans** strengthened their efforts to address the nation's environmental problems.

The nation today continues to struggle to balance environmental concerns with industrial growth.

- Rachel Carson
- Earth Day environmentalist
- Environmental **Protection** Agency (EPA)
- Three Mile Island

**One American's Story** 

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on how concern for the environment grew in the United States.

In 1972, Lois Gibbs and her family moved to Niagara Falls, New York. Underneath this quiet town, however, was a disaster in the making. In the 1890s, the Love Canal had been built to provide hydroelectric power for the Niagara Falls area. Chemical companies were dumping hazardous waste into the canal. In 1953, bulldozers filled in the canal. Shortly thereafter, a school and rows of homes were built nearby.

In 1977, when Lois Gibbs's son fell sick, she decided to investigate. She eventually uncovered the existence of the toxic waste and mobilized the community to demand government action. In 1980, President Carter authorized funds for many Niagara Falls families to move to safety. Years later, Lois Gibbs wrote a book detailing her efforts.

#### A Personal Voice Lois GIBBS

"I want to tell you our story—my story—because I believe that ordinary citizens—using the tools of dignity, self-respect, common sense, and perseverance—can influence solutions to important problems in our society. . . . In solving any difficult problem, you have to be prepared to fight long and hard, sometimes at great personal cost; but it can be done. It must be done if we are to survive . . . at all."

-Love Canal: My Story

Lois Gibbs's concerns about environmental hazards were shared by many Americans in the 1970s. Through the energy crisis, Americans learned that their natural resources were limited; they could no longer take the environment for granted. Americans—from grassroots organizations to the government—began to focus on conservation of the environment and new forms of energy.

#### The Roots of Environmentalism

The widespread realization that pollution and overconsumption were damaging the environment began in the 1960s. One book in particular had awakened



**Lois Gibbs** 

America's concerns about the environment and helped lay the groundwork for the activism of the early seventies.

**RACHEL CARSON AND SILENT SPRING** In 1962, **Rachel Carson**, a marine biologist, published a book entitled *Silent Spring*. In it, she warned against the growing use of pesticides—chemicals used to kill insects and rodents. Carson argued that pesticides poisoned the very food they were intended to protect and as a result killed many birds and fish.

Carson cautioned that America faced a "silent spring," in which birds killed off by pesticides would no longer fill the air with song. She added that of all the weapons used in "man's war against nature," pesticides were some of the most harmful.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE RACHEL CARSON

"These sprays, dusts, and aerosols . . . have the power to kill every insect, the 'good' and the 'bad,' to still the song of birds and the leaping of fish in the streams, to coat the leaves with a deadly film, and to linger on in soil—all this though the intended target may be only a few weeds or insects. Can anyone believe it is possible to lay down such a barrage of poisons on the surface of the earth without making it unfit for all life?"

-Silent Spring

Within six months of its publication, *Silent Spring* sold nearly half a million copies. Many chemical companies called the book inaccurate and threatened legal action. However, for a majority of Americans, Carson's book was an early warning about the danger that human activity posed to the environment. Shortly after the book's publication, President Kennedy established an advisory committee to investigate the situation.

**RACHEL CARSON** 1907-1964 The marine biologist Rachel Carson was born far from the sea, in the small town of Springdale, Pennsylvania. Carson was a sickly child who often had to remain at home, where her mother tutored her. Throughout her youth and into her college years, Carson was a studious, but quiet and aloof, person. Carson entered college intent on becoming a writer. During her sophomore year, she took a biology class to fulfill her science requirement and quickly fell in love with the study of nature. By the next year Carson switched her major from English to zoologythe study of animals.

KEY PLAYER

MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Effects

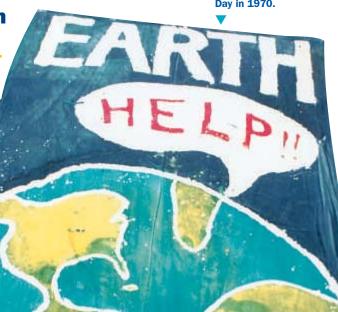
A What effects did Rachel Carson's book have on the nation as a whole? With Rachel Carson's prodding, the nation slowly began to focus more on environmental issues. Although Carson would not live to see the U.S. government outlaw DDT in 1972, her work helped many Americans realize that their everyday behavior, as well as the nation's industrial growth, had a damaging effect on the environment.

Environmental Concerns in the 1970s

During the 1970s, the administrations of Richard Nixon and Jimmy Carter confronted such environmental issues as conservation, pollution, and the growth of nuclear energy.

THE FIRST EARTH DAY The United States ushered in the 1970s—a decade in which it would actively address its environmental issues—fittingly enough with the first Earth Day celebration. On that day, April 22, 1970, nearly every community

A flag celebrating the first Earth Day in 1970.



in the nation and more than 10,000 schools and 2,000 colleges hosted some type of environmental-awareness activity and spotlighted such problems as pollution, the growth of toxic waste, and the earth's dwindling resources. The Earth Day celebration continues today. Each year on April 22, millions of people around the world gather to heighten public awareness of environmental problems.

**THE GOVERNMENT TAKES ACTION** Although President Nixon was not considered an **environmentalist**, or someone who takes an active role in the protection of the environment, he recognized the nation's growing concern about the environment. In an effort to "make our peace with nature," President Nixon set out on a course that led to the passage of several landmark measures. In 1970, he consolidated 15 existing federal pollution programs into the **Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)**. The new agency was given the power to set and enforce pollution standards, to conduct environmental research, and to assist state and local governments in pollution control. Today, the EPA remains the federal government's main instrument for dealing with environmental issues.

In 1970 Nixon signed a new Clean Air Act that added several amendments to the Clean Air Act of 1963. The new act gave the government the authority to set air standards. Following the 1970 Clean Air Act, Congress also passed the Endangered Species Act, in addition to laws that limited pesticide use and curbed strip mining—the practice of mining for ore and coal by digging gaping holes in the land. Some 35 environmental laws took effect during the decade, addressing every aspect of conservation and clean-up, from protecting endangered animals to regulating auto emissions. **B** 

**BALANCING PROGRESS AND CONSERVATION IN ALASKA** During the 1970s, the federal government took steps to ensure the continued well-being of Alaska, the largest state in the nation and one of its most ecologically sensitive.

The discovery of oil there in 1968, and the subsequent construction of a massive pipeline to transport it, created many new jobs and greatly increased state revenues. However, the influx of new development also raised concerns about Alaska's wildlife, as well as the rights of its native peoples. In 1971, Nixon signed

the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act, which turned over millions of acres of land to the state's native tribes for conservation and tribal use. In 1978, President Carter enhanced this conservation effort by setting aside an additional 56 million acres in Alaska as national monuments. In 1980, Congress added another 104 million acres as protected areas.

**THE DEBATE OVER NUCLEAR ENERGY** As the 1970s came to a close, Americans became acutely aware of the dangers that nuclear power plants posed to both humans and the environment. During the 1970s, as America realized the drawbacks to its heavy dependence on foreign oil for energy, nuclear power seemed to many to be an attractive alternative.

Opponents of nuclear energy warned the public against the industry's growth. They contended that nuclear plants, and the wastes they produced, were potentially dangerous to humans and their environment.

**THREE MILE ISLAND** In the early hours of March 28, 1979, the concerns of nuclear energy opponents were validated. That morning, one of the nuclear reactors at a plant on **Three Mile Island** near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, malfunctioned. The reactor overheated after its cooling system failed, and fear quickly arose that radiation might escape and spread over the region. Two days later,

The Trans-Alaska Pipeline, stretching across hundreds of miles of tundra, was completed in 1977.





#### Vocabulary

toxic: capable of causing injury or death, especially by chemical means; poisonous

MAIN IDEA

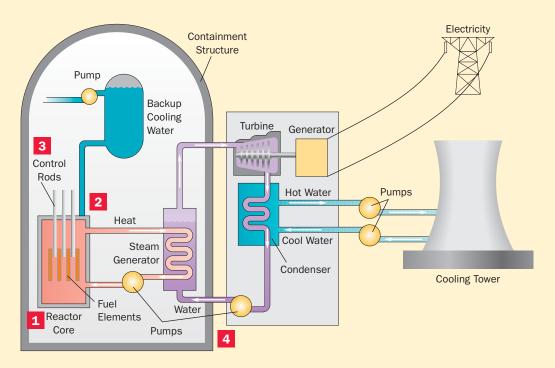
#### **Summarizing**

**B** What were the environmental actions taken during the Nixon administration?



#### THE ACCIDENT AT THREE MILE ISLAND

A series of human and mechanical errors that caused the partial meltdown of the reactor core brought the Three Mile Island nuclear power plant to the brink of disaster. The accident at Three Mile Island caused widespread concern about nuclear power throughout the American public.



#### REACTOR MELTDOWN

- 1 The radioactive reactor core generates heat as its atoms split during a controlled chain reaction.
- 2 An inoperative valve releases thousands of gallons of coolant from the reactor core.
- 3 Half of the 36,816 exposed fuel rods melt in temperatures above five thousand degrees.
- 4 The melted material burns through the lining of the reactor chamber and spills to the floor of the containment structure.



low-level radiation actually did escape from the crippled reactor. Officials evacuated some residents, while others fled on their own. One homemaker who lived near the plant recalled her desperate attempt to find safety.

#### A Personal Voice

"On Friday, a very frightening thing occurred in our area. A state policeman went door-to-door telling residents to stay indoors, close all windows, and turn all air conditioners off. I was alone, as were many other homemakers, and my thoughts were focused on how long I would remain a prisoner in my own home. . . . Suddenly, I was scared, real scared. I decided to get out of there, while I could. I ran to the car not knowing if I should breathe the air or not, and I threw the suitcases in the trunk and was on my way within one hour. If anything dreadful happened, I thought that I'd at least be with my girls. Although it was very hot in the car, I didn't trust myself to turn the air conditioner on. It felt good as my tense muscles relaxed the farther I drove."

—an anonymous homemaker quoted in Accident at Three Mile Island: The Human Dimensions

In all, more than 100,000 residents were evacuated from the surrounding area. On April 9, the Nuclear Regulatory Commission, the federal agency that monitors the nuclear power industry, announced that the immediate danger was over.

The events at Three Mile Island rekindled the debate over nuclear power. Supporters of nuclear power pointed out that no one had been killed or seriously injured. Opponents countered by saying that chance alone had averted a tragedy.

#### **Background**

In 2010. President Obama established a commission to develop a longterm plan for the management of used nuclear fuel. This plan, he said. would include not only ideas on disposal, but also ways to reprocess and recycle this waste.

#### **History Through**

#### **HOLLYWOOD AND NUCLEAR FEARS**

At the end of the 1970s and in the early 1980s, Hollywood responded to Americans' concerns over nuclear power by making pointed social-awareness films exposing dangers in the nuclear industry. These films alerted the public to the importance of regulations in the relatively new field of atomic energy.

> In 1979, The China Syndrome, starring Jane Fonda and Jack Lemmon, became the movie everyone was talking about. Only 12 days after the film's release, a serious accident similar to the one portrayed in the movie occurred at the Three Mile Island nuclear power plant.





In 1983, on her way to meet with a reporter from the New York Times, Karen Silkwood, a worker at a nuclear power facility, was hit and died in a car crash. In the film dramatization, Silkwood (1983), Meryl Streep played Karen, and Kurt Russell and Cher, her co-workers.

#### **SKILLBUILDER** Interpreting Visual Sources

- 1. Why do you think movies based on real events are popular with the general public?
- 2. How do you think these films influenced present-day nuclear energy policy?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R23.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing **Effects**

C) How did the Three Mile Island incident affect the use of nuclear power in America? They demanded that the government call a halt to the construction of new power plants and gradually shut down existing nuclear facilities.

While the government did not do away with nuclear power, federal officials did recognize nuclear energy's potential danger to both humans and the environment. As a result of the accident at Three Mile Island, the Nuclear Regulatory Commission strengthened its safety standards and improved its inspection procedures. **c** 

#### **A Continuing Movement**

Although the environmental movement of the 1970s gained popular support, opponents of the movement also made their voices heard. In Tennessee, for example, where a federal dam project was halted because it threatened a species of fish, local developers took out ads asking residents to "tell the government that the size of your wallet is more important than some two-inch-long minnow." When confronted with environmental concerns, one unemployed steelworker spoke for others when he remarked, "Why worry about the long run, when you're out of work right now."

The environmental movement that blossomed in the 1970s became in the 1980s and 1990s a struggle to balance environmental concerns with jobs and progress. In the years since the first Earth Day, however, environmental issues have gained increasing attention and support.

#### HISTORICAL SPOTLIGHT

#### PRIVATE CONSERVATION **GROUPS**

As concerns about pollution and the depletion of nonrenewable resources grew, so did membership in private, nonprofit organizations dedicated to the preservation of wilderness and endangered species. Many of these groups lobbied government for protective legislation. Some filed lawsuits to block projects such as road or dam construction or logging that would threaten habitats. The Environmental Defense Fund (today Environmental Defense) brought lawsuits that led to the bans on DDT and on leaded gasoline.

Radical groups also emerged. Members of Greenpeace risked their lives at sea to escort whales and protect them from commercial hunters.



#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- Rachel Carson
- Earth Day
- environmentalist
- Three Mile Island
- Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Re-create the web below on your paper and fill in events that illustrate the main idea in the center.



#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. ANALYZING CAUSES

How much should the United States rely on nuclear power as a source of energy? Explain your view.

#### Think About:

- the safety of nuclear power
- the alternatives to nuclear power
- · U.S. energy demands

#### 4. ANALYZING VISUAL SOURCES

What message does this 1969 poster from the Environmental Protection Agency give about the government's role in pollution?



#### **TERMS & NAMES**

For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance to the Nixon, Ford, or Carter administrations.

- 1. Richard M. Nixon
- 2. stagflation
- 3. OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries)
- 4. SALT I Treaty
- 5. Watergate

- 6. Saturday Night Massacre
- 7. Camp David Accords
- 8. Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini
- 9. Rachel Carson
- **10.** Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)

#### **MAIN IDEAS**

Use your notes and the information in the chapter to answer the following questions.

#### **The Nixon Administration** (pages 794–801)

- **1.** In what ways did President Nixon attempt to reform the federal government?
- 2. How did Nixon try to combat stagflation?

#### Watergate: Nixon's Downfall (pages 802–807)

- **3.** In what ways did the participants in Watergate attempt to cover up the scandal?
- 4. What were the results of the Watergate scandal?

#### The Ford and Carter Years (pages 810–817)

- **5.** What were Gerald Ford's greatest successes as president?
- **6.** How did President Carter attempt to solve the energy crisis?

#### Environmental Activism (pages 820–825)

- 7. What factors increased Americans' concerns about environmental issues during the 1960s and 1970s?
- 8. What was the impact of the Three Mile Island incident?

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

1. USING YOUR NOTES In a chart like the one shown, identify one major development for each issue listed that occurred between 1968 and 1980. Indicate whether you think the impact of the development was positive (+) or negative (-).

Issue	Development	Impact
Economic conditions		
Democratic government		
Efficient energy use		
Environmental protection		

- 2. ANALYZING EVENTS Between 1972 and 1974, Americans were absorbed by the fall of President Nixon in the Watergate scandal. What might Americans have learned about the role of the executive office? Explain.
- **3. INTERPRETING GRAPHS** Study the graph on page 813. Describe the changes in unemployment as compared to inflation from 1970 to 1980.

# VISUAL SUMMARY AN AGE OF LIMITS

#### THE NIXON ADMINISTRATION

- Revenue sharing
- · Law-and-order politics
- Integration delays
- Inflation, recession, and unemployment
- Opening to China
- · Détente with the Soviet Union
- Watergate scandal
- Nixon resignation



#### THE FORD ADMINISTRATION

- · Unelected president
- Nixon pardon
- Whip Inflation Now program
- Economic recession
- Mayagüez incident
- Helsinki Accords



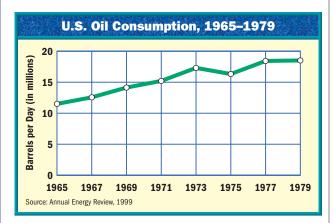
#### THE CARTER ADMINISTRATION

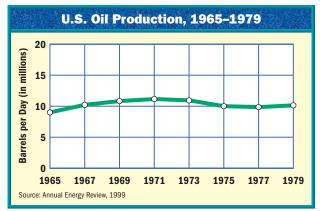
- Energy crisis
- Worsening inflation
- · Panama Canal Treaties
- Camp David Accords
- Nuclear power
- Iran hostage crisis



#### STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

Use the two graphs below and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer question 1.





- 1. The OPEC oil embargo hit the United States so hard in 1973 because —
  - A domestic oil consumption decreased as production decreased.
  - **B** domestic oil consumption remained steady as production decreased.
  - **C** domestic oil consumption increased while production decreased slightly.
  - **D** domestic oil consumption increased, although consumption increased faster.
- 2. How did Watergate affect the presidents who followed after Richard Nixon?
  - F It caused them to be less trusted and less
  - **G** It made them reluctant to oppose Congress.
  - **H** It made them more popular with the media.
  - J It caused them to rely less on the counsel of cabinet members.
- 3. Which of the following is a contribution made by Rachel Carson to the American environmental movement?
  - **A** Carson researched "cleaner" sources of energy.
  - **B** Carson lobbied for the passage of the National Energy Act.
  - C Carson lobbied for making April 22, 1970, the first Earth Day.
  - **D** Carson published a book on the hazards of pesticide use.

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#### **INTERACT WITH HISTORY**

Recall the issues that you explored at the beginning of the chapter. Now that you've learned how your country's highest office holder, President Nixon, lost the nation's trust after the Watergate scandal, would you change your response? Discuss your suggestions with a small group. Then create a list, ranking the misuses from least to most severe.

#### **FOCUS ON WRITING**

Based on what you have read in this chapter, write a paragraph that describes the American public's reaction to President Ford's pardon of Richard Nixon.

#### COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

In a small group, discuss possible environmental problems in each group member's neighborhood, listing them on a sheet of paper. Compare lists with other groups to determine the most common problems. List possible solutions for each problem.



#### **Essential Question**

What were the key political and social events of the 1980s and early 1990s?



#### **What You Will Learn**

In this chapter you will learn how conservatives sought to address political issues and social concerns in the 1980s and 1990s.

# SECTION 1: A Conservative Movement Emerges

Main Idea Conservatism reached a high point with the election in 1980 of President Ronald Reagan and Vice-President George Bush.

#### SECTION 2: Conservative Policies Under Reagan and Bush

Main Idea Presidents Reagan and Bush pursued a conservative agenda that included tax cuts, budget cuts, and increased defense spending.

# SECTION 3: Social Concerns in the 1980s

Main Idea Beneath the surge of prosperity that marked the conservative era of the 1980s lay serious social problems.

# SECTION 4: Foreign Policy After the Cold War

Main Idea The end of the Cold War, marked by the breakup of the Soviet Union in 1991, led to a redirection of many U.S. goals and policies.

Ronald Reagan addresses the 1980 Republican convention.

1980 Ronald Reagan is elected president. 1981 Sandra Day
O'Connor
becomes the
first woman
appointed to the
Supreme Court.

1982 Equal Rights
Amendment fails to
win ratification.

1984
President
Reagan is
reelected.

USA WORLD

1980

1982

1984

1980 Zimbabwe claims independence.

1982 Great Britain and Argentina go to war over the Falkland Islands.



1984 South African Bishop Desmond Tutu receives the Nobel Peace Prize.





#### MAIN IDEA

Conservatism reached a high

point with the election in

1980 of President Ronald

George Bush.

**Reagan and Vice-President** 

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

In the early 21st century, conservative views strongly influenced both major political parties.

#### Terms & Names

- entitlement program
- New Right
- affirmative action
   Ronald Reagan
- reverse discrimination
- conservative coalition
- Moral Majority

## **One American's Story**

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on conservative issues. Peggy Noonan grew up with a strong sense of social and political justice. As a child, she idolized the liberal Kennedys; as a teenager, she devoured articles on social and political issues. After college, Noonan went to work for CBS.

Over the years, Noonan's political views became increasingly conservative. She eventually won a job as a speechwriter for Ronald Reagan, whose commitment to his conservative values moved her deeply. Noonan recalled that her response to Reagan was not unusual.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE PEGGY NOONAN

"The young people who came to Washington for the Reagan revolution came to make things better. . . . They looked at where freedom was and . . . where freedom wasn't and what that did, and they wanted to help the guerrilla fighters who were trying to overthrow the Communist regimes that had been imposed on them. . . . The thing the young conservatives were always talking about, . . . was freedom, freedom:

we'll free up more of your money, we'll free up more of the world,

freedom freedom-

It was the drumbeat that held a disparate group together, the rhythm that kept a fractious, not-made-in-heaven alliance in one piece."

-What I Saw at the Revolution: A Political Life in the Reagan Era

**Peggy Noonan** 

Like millions of other Reagan supporters, Noonan agreed with the slogan that was the heart of Reagan's political creed: "Government is not the solution to our problem. Government is the problem."

# The Conservative Movement Builds

Ever since Senator Barry Goldwater of Arizona had run for president in 1964, conservatives had argued that state governments, businesses, and individuals needed more freedom from the heavy hand of Washington, D.C. By 1980, government spending on **entitlement programs**—programs that provide guaranteed benefits to particular groups—was nearly \$300 billion annually. The costs together with stories of fraudulently-obtained benefits caused resentment among many taxpayers.

In addition, some people had become frustrated with the government's civil rights policies. Congress had passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in an effort to eliminate racial discrimination. Over the years, however, judicial decisions and government regulations had broadened the reach of the act. A growing number of Americans viewed with skepticism what had begun as a movement toward equal opportunity. Although many people had rejected separate schools for blacks and whites as unfair and unequal, few wanted to bus their children long distances to achieve a fixed ratio of black and white students.

THE NEW RIGHT As the 1970s progressed, rightwing grass-roots groups across the country emerged to support and promote single issues that reflected their key interests. These people became known as the New Right. The New Right focused its energy on controversial social issues, such as opposing abortion, blocking the Equal Rights Amendment, and evading court-ordered busing. It also called for a return to school prayer, which had been outlawed by the Supreme Court in 1962.

Many in the New Right criticized the policy of affirmative action. Affirmative action required employers and educational institutions to give special consideration to women, African Americans, and other minority groups, even though these people were not necessarily better qualified. Many conser-

vatives saw affirmative action as a form of **reverse discrimination**, favoring one group over another on the basis of race or gender. To members of the New Right, liberal positions on affirmative action and other issues represented an assault on traditional values.

THE CONSERVATIVE COALITION Beginning in the mid-1960s, the conservative movement in the United States grew in strength. Eventually conservative groups formed the conservative coalition—an alliance of business leaders, middle-class voters, disaffected Democrats, and fundamentalist Christian groups.

Conservative intellectuals argued the cause of the conservative coalition in newspapers such as The Wall Street Journal and magazines such as the National Review, founded in 1955 by conservative William F. Buckley, Jr. Conservative think tanks, such as the American Enterprise Institute and The Heritage Foundation, were founded to develop conservative policies and principles that would appeal to the majority of voters.

THE MORAL MAJORITY Religion, especially evangelical Christianity, played a key role in the growing strength of the conservative coalition. The 1970s had brought a huge religious revival, especially among fundamentalist sects. Each week, millions of Americans watched evangelist preachers on television or listened to them on the radio. Two of the most influential televangelists were Jerry Falwell and Pat Robertson. Falwell formed an organization called the Moral Majority. The Moral Majority consisted mostly of evangelical and fundamentalist Christians who interpreted



Several high school students in New York hold a prayer meeting in 1973.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Issues

A) What was the agenda of the New Right?

#### **Goals of the Conservative Movement**

- Shrink the size of the federal government and reduce spending
- Promote family values and patriotic ideals
- Stimulate business by reducing government regulations and lowering taxes
- · Strengthen the national defense

the Bible literally and believed in absolute standards of right and wrong. They condemned liberal attitudes and behaviors and argued for a restoration of traditional moral values. They worked toward their political goals by using direct-mail campaigns and by raising money to support candidates. Jerry Falwell became the spokesperson for the Moral Majority. **B** 

#### MAIN IDEA

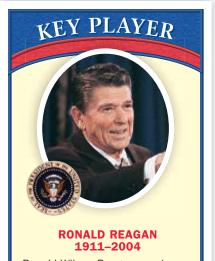
Summarizing

**B** What were the main concerns of the Moral Majority?

#### A PERSONAL VOICE REVEREND JERRY FALWELL

"Our nation's internal problems are the direct result of her spiritual condition. . . . Right living must be reestablished as an American way of life. . . . Now is the time to begin calling America back to God, back to the Bible, back to morality."

As individual conservative groups formed networks, they created a movement dedicated to bringing back what they saw as traditional "family values." They hoped their ideas would help to reduce the nation's high divorce rate, lower the number of out-of-wedlock births, encourage individual responsibility, and generally revive bygone prosperity and patriotic times.



Ronald Wilson Reagan was born in 1911 in Tampico, Illinois. He grew up in Dixon, Illinois, graduated from nearby Eureka College, and then worked as a sports announcer in lowa. In 1937, Reagan moved to Hollywood and became a movie actor, eventually making more than 50 films. As president of the Screen Actors Guild, he worked actively to remove alleged Communist influences from the movie industry.

Reagan had the ability to express his ideas in simple and clear language that the average voter could understand. When he proposed a 10 percent cut in government spending on social programs, he stated, "We can lecture our children about extravagance until we run out of voice and breath. Or we can cure their extravagance by simply reducing their allowance."

# Conservatives Win Political Power

In 1976, **Ronald Reagan** lost the Republican nomination to the incumbent, Gerald Ford, in a very closely contested race. Four years later in a series of hard-fought primaries, Reagan won the 1980 nomination and chose George H. W. Bush as his running mate. Reagan and Bush ran against the incumbent president and vice-president, Jimmy Carter and Walter Mondale, who were nominated again by the Democrats despite their low standing in the polls.

REAGAN'S QUALIFICATIONS Originally a New Deal Democrat, Ronald Reagan had become a conservative Republican during the 1950s. He claimed that he had not left the Democratic Party but rather that the party had left him. As a spokesman for General Electric, he toured the country making speeches in favor of free enterprise and against big government. In 1964, he campaigned hard for Barry Goldwater, the Republican candidate for president. His speech supporting Goldwater in October 1964 made Reagan a serious candidate for public office. In 1966, Reagan was elected governor of California, and in 1970, he was reelected.

**THE 1980 PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION** In 1980, Reagan ran on a number of key issues. Supreme Court decisions on abortion, pornography, the teaching of evolution, and prayer in public schools all concerned conservative voters, and they rallied to Reagan. The prolonged Iranian hostage crisis and the weak economy under Carter, particularly the high rate of inflation, also helped Reagan.

Thanks in part to his acting career and his long experience in the public eye, Reagan was an extremely effective candidate. In contrast to Carter, who often seemed stiff and nervous, Reagan was relaxed, charming, and affable. He loved making quips: "A recession is when your neighbor loses his job. A depression is when you lose yours. And recovery is

when Jimmy Carter loses his." Reagan's long-standing skill at simplifying issues and presenting clearcut answers led his supporters to call him the Great Communicator, Also, his commitment to military and economic strength appealed to many Americans.

Only 52.6 percent of American voters went to the polls in 1980. Reagan won the election by a narrow majority; he got 44 million votes, or 51 percent of the total. His support, however, was spread throughout the country, so that he carried 44 states and won 489 electoral votes. Republicans also gained control of the Senate for the first time since 1954. As Reagan assumed the presidency, many people were buoyed by his genial smile and his assertion that it was "morning again in America." C

Now, conservatives had elected one of their own—a true believer in less government, lower taxes, and traditional values. Once elected, Reagan worked to translate the conservative agenda into public policy.

#### **Presidential Election of 1980** Electoral Popular **Party** Candidate Votes Votes 489 43,904,153 Republican Ronald Reagan Democratic Jimmy Carter 35,483,883 Independent John Anderson 5,720,060 4 5 8 26 10 Not shown: 3 Alaska 4 Hawaii 3 District of Columbia **GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER 1. Location** Which states and/or district voted for Jimmy Carter in 1980? 2. Region Which region of the country—North, South, East, or West-voted exclusively for Ronald Reagan?



MAIN IDEA

C) What factors led to Reagan's

victory in 1980?

Analyzing

**Causes** 



#### ASSESSMENT

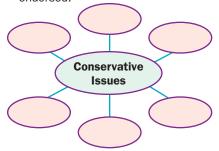
- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - entitlement program
- affirmative action reverse discrimination
- conservative coalition
- Moral Majority
- Ronald Reagan

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

New Right

Use a cluster diagram to record the issues that conservatives strongly endorsed.



Choose one issue and explain in a paragraph the conservative position on that issue.

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. ANALYZING MOTIVES

How did the leaders of the conservative movement of the 1980s want to change government? **Think About:** 

- the difference between the conservative view of government and the liberal view
- the groups that made up the conservative coalition
- · conservatives' attitudes toward existing government programs

#### 4. ANALYZING EFFECTS

What role did the Moral Majority play in the conservative movement of the 1970s and early 1980s?

#### 5. EVALUATING LEADERSHIP

What personal qualities in Ronald Reagan helped him to win election as president in 1980?



# **Conservative Policies Under Reagan and Bush**

#### MAIN IDEA

**Presidents Reagan and Bush** pursued a conservative agenda that included tax cuts, budget cuts, and increased defense spending.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

The conservative views of Reagan and Bush created policies and priorities that affect government spending and budgeting today.

#### Terms & Names

- Reaganomics
- supply-side economics
- Strategic Defense Agency (EPA) Initiative
- Sandra Day O'Connor
- deregulation
- Environmental **Protection**
- Geraldine Ferraro
- George Bush

## **One American's Story**



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the effects of Reagan's economic policies.

Throughout the 1980 presidential campaign and in the early days of his administration, President Reagan emphasized the perilous state of the economy during the Carter administration. In a speech to the nation on February 5, 1981—his first televised speech from the White House— Reagan announced his new economic program. He called for a reduction in income tax rates for individuals and a big reduction in government spending.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE RONALD REAGAN

"I'm speaking to you tonight to give you a report on the state of our nation's economy. I regret to say that we're in the worst economic mess since the Great Depression. . . .

It's time to recognize that we've come to a turning point. We're threatened with an economic calamity of tremendous proportions, and the old business-as-usual treatment can't save us. Together, we must chart a different course."

—televised speech to the nation, February 5, 1981



**President Ronald Reagan** 

President Reagan would deal with these problems by consistently stressing a sweeping package of new economic policies. These economic policies, dubbed "Reaganomics," consisted of three parts: (1) budget cuts, (2) tax cuts, and (3) increased defense spending.

# "Reaganomics" Takes Over

As soon as Reagan took office, he worked to reduce the size and influence of the federal government, which, he thought, would encourage private investment. Because people were anxious about the economy in 1980, their concern opened the door for new approaches to taxes and the federal budget.

**BUDGET CUTS** Reagan's strategy for downsizing the federal government included deep cuts in government spending on social programs. Yet his cuts did not affect all segments of the population equally. Entitlement programs that benefited the middle class, such as Social Security, Medicare, and veterans' pensions, remained intact. On the other hand, Congress slashed by 10 percent the budget for programs that benefited other groups: urban mass transit, food stamps, welfare benefits, job training, Medicaid, school lunches, and student loans.

TAX CUTS "Reaganomics" rested heavily upon supply-side economics. This theory held that if people paid fewer taxes, they would save more money. Banks could then loan that money to businesses, which could invest the money in resources to improve productivity. The supply of goods then would increase, driving down prices. At Reagan's urging, Congress lowered income taxes by about 25 percent over a three-year period. Reagan based his ideas for supply-side economics on the work of economists such as George Gilder and Arthur Laffer. A

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

A) What are the main ideas of supply-side economics?

#### A PERSONAL VOICE ARTHUR LAFFER

"The most debilitating act a government can perpetrate on its citizens is to adopt policies that destroy the economy's production base, for it is the production base that generates any prosperity to be found in the society. U.S. tax policies over the last decade have had the effect of damaging this base by removing many of the incentives to economic advancement. It is necessary to restore those incentives if we are to cure our economic palsy."

—The Economics of the Tax Revolt: A Reader

**INCREASED DEFENSE SPENDING** At the same time, Reagan authorized increases in military spending that more than offset cuts in social programs. Between 1981 and 1984, the Defense Department budget almost doubled. Indeed, the president revived two controversial weapons systems—the MX missile and the B-1 bomber. In 1983, Reagan asked the country's scientists to develop a defense system that

would keep Americans safe from enemy missiles. Officially called the **Strategic Defense Initiative**, or SDI, the system quickly became known as Star Wars, after the title of a popular movie. The Defense Department estimated that the system would cost trillions of dollars.

**RECESSION AND RECOVERY** While Reagan was charting a new course for the American economy, the economy itself was sinking into recession. Lasting from July 1981 until November 1982, it was the most severe recession since the Great Depression. However, early in 1983, an economic upturn began as consumers went on a spending spree. Their confidence in the economy was bolstered by tax cuts, a decline in interest rates, and lower inflation. The stock market surged, unemployment declined, and the gross national product went up by almost 10 percent. The stock market boom lasted until 1987, when the market crashed, losing 508 points in one day. This fall was due in large part to automated and computerized buying and selling systems. However, the market recovered and then continued its upward climb.

THE NATIONAL DEBT CLIMBS Beneath the surface of recovery lay problems that continued to plague the economy. Tax cuts had helped the rich, while social welfare cuts had hurt the poor. Despite large reductions in parts of the

# ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

#### THE "TRICKLE-DOWN" THEORY

Ronald Reagan's budget director, David Stockman, used supplyside economics to draft the Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981. His tax package cut income taxes and business taxes by an average of 25 percent; the largest tax cuts went to those with the highest incomes. Administration officials defended the plan by claiming that as prosperity returned, the profits at the top would trickle down to the middle class and even the poor.

Despite Reagan's "trickle-down" theory, the wealthy gained the most from these tax cuts. In the 1980s, the rich got richer as poverty deepened for many others.

## **Analyzing**

# **Political Cartoons**

#### "THE INFLATION STAGECOACH"

During Reagan's first term, federal spending far outstripped federal revenue and created a huge budget deficit. In this cartoon, Reagan (with budget director David Stockman sitting beside him on the inflation stagecoach) sees something that "shouldn't be there."

#### **SKILLBUILDER**

#### **Analyzing Political Cartoons**

- 1. What is the meaning of the wheel flying off the stagecoach?
- 2. Whom do the passengers inside the stagecoach represent?



**Anita Hill and** 

**Clarence Thomas** testify before the

**Senate Judiciary** 

**Committee in** 

**October 1991.** 

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R24.



budget, federal spending still outstripped federal revenue. Budget deficits were growing. Even though Reagan backed away from supply-side economics in 1982 and imposed new taxes, they were not enough to balance the budget. By the end of his first term, the national debt had almost doubled. B

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Effects**

B) What were some of the effects of "Reaganomics"?

# **Judicial Power Shifts to the Right**

One of the most important ways in which Reagan accomplished his conservative goals was through his appointments to the Supreme Court. Reagan nominated Sandra Day O'Connor, Antonin Scalia, and Anthony M. Kennedy to fill seats left by retiring judges. O'Connor was the first woman to be appointed to the Court. He also nominated Justice William Rehnquist, the most conservative justice on the court at the time, to the position of chief justice.



President Bush later made the Court even more conservative when David H. Souter replaced retiring justice William Brennan. Bush also nominated Clarence Thomas to take the place of Thurgood Marshall. However, controversy exploded when law professor Anita Hill testified that Thomas had sexually harassed her when she worked for him in the 1980s. During several days of televised Senate hearings, committee members questioned Thomas, Hill, and witnesses for each side. Thomas eventually won approval by a final vote of 52 to 48.

The Reagan and Bush appointments to the Supreme Court ended the liberal control over the Court that had begun under Franklin Roosevelt. These appointments became increasingly significant as the Court revisited constitutional issues related to such topics as discrimination, abortion, and affirmative action. In 1989, the Court, in a series of rulings, restricted a woman's right to an abortion. The Court also imposed new restrictions on civil rights laws that had been designed to protect the rights of women and minorities. During the 1990–1991 session, the Court narrowed the rights of arrested persons.

# **Deregulating the Economy**

Reagan achieved one of his most important objectives—reducing the size and power of the federal government—in part by cutting federal entitlement programs but also through **deregulation**, the cutting back of federal regulation of industry. As part of his campaign for smaller government, he removed price controls on oil and eliminated federal health and safety inspections for nursing homes. He deregulated the airline industry (allowing airlines to abandon unprofitable air routes) and the savings and loan industry. One of the positive results of this deregulation was that it increased competition and often resulted in lower prices for consumers.

In a further effort at deregulation, President Reagan cut the budget of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), which had been established

in 1970 to fight pollution and conserve natural resources. He ignored pleas from Canada to reduce acid rain and appointed opponents of the regulations to enforce them. For example, James Watt, Reagan's secretary of the interior, sold millions of acres of public land to private developersoften at bargain prices. He opened the continental shelf to oil and gas drilling, which many people thought posed environmental risks. Watt also encouraged timber cutting in national forests and eased restrictions on coal mining.

# **Conservative Victories** in 1984 and 1988

It was clear by 1984 that Reagan had forged a large coalition of conservative voters who highly approved of his policies.

These voters included the following:

- businesspeople—who wanted to deregulate the economy
- Southerners—who welcomed the limits on federal power
- Westerners—who resented federal controls on mining and grazing
- Reagan Democrats—who agreed with Reagan on limiting federal government and thought that the Democratic Party had drifted too far to the left

#### THE 1984 PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION In

1984, Reagan and Bush won the Republican nominations for reelection without challenge. Walter Mondale, who had been vice-president under President Carter, won the Democratic Party's nomination and chose Representative **Geraldine Ferraro** of New York as his running mate. Ferraro became the first woman on a major party's presidential ticket.

In 1984 the economy was strong. Reagan and Bush won by a landslide, carrying every state but Mondale's home state of Minnesota and the District of Columbia.



#### **VIDEO**

President Reagan Shot

hmhsocialstudies.com

# **HISTORICAL** SPOTLIGHT

#### **AN ASSASSINATION ATTEMPT**

On March 30, 1981, President Reagan and other members of his staff were shot by a mentally unbalanced man named John Hinckley, Jr. While being wheeled into surgery to have a bullet removed, the president said to his wife, "Honey, I forgot to duck" (a line first used by boxer Jack Dempsey in the 1920s, after losing his heavyweight title). In the operating room, Reagan said to the team of surgeons, "I hope you fellas are Republicans." Reagan recovered speedily and his popularity grew.



President Reagan is pushed into a presidential limousine after being shot by a deranged man.



George Bush announces his presidential candidacy at a rally in 1987.

#### THE 1988 PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION

In 1988, a majority of Americans were economically comfortable, and they attributed their comfort to Reagan and Bush. When Michael Dukakis, the Democratic governor of Massachusetts, ran for the presidency in 1988 against George Bush, Reagan's vice-president, most voters saw little reason for change.

George Bush simply built on President Reagan's legacy by promising, "Read my lips: no new taxes" in his acceptance speech at the Republican Convention. He

stressed his commitment to the conservative ideas of the Moral Majority. Though Bush asserted that he wanted a "kinder, gentler nation," his campaign sponsored a number of negative "attack ads" aimed at his opponents. He told audiences that Dukakis was an ultraliberal whose views were

outside the mainstream of American values. In particular, Bush suggested that Dukakis was soft on crime and unpatriotic.

Some commentators believed that the negative ads contributed to the lowest voter turnout in 64 years. Only half of the eligible voters went to the polls in 1988. Fifty-three percent voted for George Bush, who won 426 electoral votes. Bush's electoral victory was viewed, as Reagan's had been, as a mandate for conservative social and political policies. C

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Causes

C) What factors contributed to Reagan's victory in 1984 and Bush's victory in 1988?



"Read my lips:

**GEORGE BUSH** 

no new taxes."

## ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - Reaganomics
- Sandra Day O'Connor
- supply-side economics deregulation
- **Environmental Protection** Agency (EPA)

Geraldine Ferraro

# Strategic Defense Initiative **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Use a diagram like the one below to explore the effects of "Reaganomics."

# **DEFINITION OF REAGANOMICS Short-Term Effects Long-Term Effects**

Explain in a paragraph whether you think "Reaganomics" was good or bad for the economy.

#### CRITICAL THINKING

#### 3. ANALYZING MOTIVES

Why did President Reagan and President Bush think it was important to appoint conservative justices to the Supreme Court?

#### 4. EVALUATING

In your opinion, was Reagan's first term a success? Think About:

- how his tax cuts impacted the rich and the poor
- the economy
- the federal budget

#### 5. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

George Bush

Read the following excerpt from Ronald Reagan's speech at the 1992 Republican Convention.

"We mustn't forget . . . the very different America that existed just 12 years ago; an America with 21 percent interest rates and . . . double-digit inflation; an America where mortgage payments doubled, paychecks plunged, and motorists sat in gas lines; an America whose leaders told us . . . that what we really needed was another good dose of government control and higher taxes."

What picture did Reagan paint of the Carter administration?



# **Social Concerns** in the 1980s

#### MAIN IDEA

Beneath the surge of prosperity that marked the conservative era of the 1980s lay serious social problems.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Issues involving health care, education, civil rights, and equal rights for women continue to challenge American society.

#### Terms & Names

- AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome)
- pay equity
- L. Douglas Wilder
- Jesse Jackson Lauro Cavazos
- Antonia Coello Novello

## **One American's Story**

hmhsocialstudies.com

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on social problems and government responses during the Reagan and Bush vears.

Trevor Ferrell lived an ordinary life in Gladwyne, an affluent suburb 12 miles from downtown Philadelphia. Trevor had brothers and sisters, his own room, a favorite pillow, a fondness for video games, and a bike. In short, he seemed like a typical 11-year-old boy until he watched a television news report about homeless people.

Trevor was astonished. "Do people really live like that?" he asked his parents. "I thought they lived like that in India, but not here, I mean in America." Trevor convinced his parents to drive downtown that night, where he gave a pillow and a blanket to the first homeless man he saw. Soon he and his family were collecting food and clothes to give to the homeless.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE TREVOR FERRELL

"They have to live on the streets, and right after you see one of them, you see somebody in a limousine pull up to a huge, empty mansion. It's such a difference. Some people can get anything they want, and these other people couldn't get a penny if they needed one."

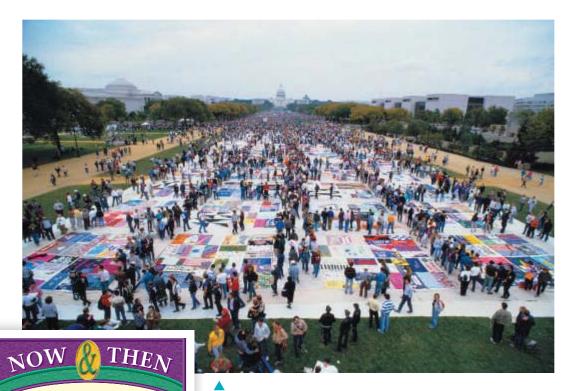
-quoted in Trevor's Place

**Trevor Ferrell** offers clothes to a homeless person in Philadelphia, 1983.

As Trevor saw, the restored American economy of the 1980s did not mean renewed prosperity for everyone. As Presidents Reagan and Bush pursued conservative domestic policies, people disagreed about the impact of these policies.

# **Health, Education, and Cities in Crisis**

In the 1980s, both in the cities and in rural and suburban areas, local governments strove to deal with crises in health, education, and safety. Americans directed their attention to issues such as AIDS, drug abuse, abortion, and education.



#### **AIDS WORLDWIDE**

In the year 2008, it was estimated that 2.7 million people worldwide became infected with HIV/AIDS. Impoverished countries that lie in sub-Saharan Africa remain hardest hit by the deadly pandemic, accounting for an estimated 1.9 million, or 70 percent, of new cases during the year. At the end of 2008, the number of adults and children living with HIV/AIDS worldwide was estimated at 33.4 million people, of whom the proportions of males and females were almost equal.

The AIDS quilt was displayed on the National Mall in Washington, D.C., in 1987. Each panel honors a person who died of AIDS.

**HEALTH ISSUES** One of the most troubling issues that concerned Americans in the 1980s was AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome). Possibly beginning as early as the 1960s, AIDS spread rapidly throughout the world. Caused by a virus that destroys the immune system, AIDS weakens the body so that it is prone to infections and normally rare cancers.

AIDS is transmitted through bodily fluids, and most of the early victims of the disease were either homosexual men or intravenous drug users who shared needles. However, many people also contracted AIDS through contaminated blood transfusions, and children acquired it by being born to infected mothers. As the 1980s progressed,

increasing numbers of heterosexuals began contracting AIDS. As the epidemic grew, so did concern over prevention and cure.

**ABORTION** Many Americans were concerned about abortion in the 1980s. Abortion had been legal in the United States since 1973, when the Supreme Court ruled in Roe v. Wade that first-trimester abortions were protected by a woman's right to privacy. Opponents of legalized abortion quickly organized under the pro-life banner. They argued that human life begins at conception and that no woman has the right to terminate a human life by her individual decision. Proponents of legalized abortion described themselves as pro-choice. They argued that reproductive choices were personal health-care matters and noted that many women had died from abortions performed by unskilled people in unsterile settings before the procedure was legalized.

In July 1989, the Supreme Court ruled in Webster v. Reproductive Health Care Services that states had the right to impose new restrictions on abortion. As a result, abortion restrictions varied from state to state. A



**DRUG ABUSE** Battles over abortion rights sometimes competed for public attention with concerns about rising drug abuse. A few people argued that drugs should be legalized to reduce the power of gangs who made a living selling illegal drugs. Others called for

"Just say no!" **NANCY REAGAN, SLOGAN** IN THE WAR ON DRUGS

treatment facilities to treat addictions. The Reagan administration launched a war on drugs and supported moves to prosecute users as well as dealers. First Lady Nancy Reagan toured the country with an antidrug campaign that admonished students to "Just say no!" to drugs.

**EDUCATION** Education became another issue that stirred people's concerns. In 1983, a federal commission issued a report on education titled A Nation at Risk. The report revealed that American students lagged behind students in most other industrialized nations. In addition, the report stated that 23 million Americans were unable to follow an instruction manual or fill out a job application form.

The commission's findings touched off a debate about the quality of education. The commission recommended more homework, longer school days, and an extended school year. It also promoted increased pay and merit raises for teachers, as well as a greater emphasis on basic subjects such as English, math, science, social studies, and computer science.

In April 1991, President Bush announced an education initiative, "America 2000." He argued that choice was the salvation of American schools and recommended allowing parents to use public funds to send their children to schools of their choice—public, private, or religious. First Lady Barbara Bush toured the country to promote reading and writing skills. B

**THE URBAN CRISIS** The crisis in education was closely connected to the crisis in the cities. Many undereducated students lived in cities such as Baltimore, Chicago, Detroit, Philadelphia, and Washington, D.C. During the 1970s, the United States had become increasingly suburbanized as more and more white families responded to the lure of new homes, big lawns, shopping malls, and well-equipped schools outside the cities. Businesses moved, too, taking jobs and tax revenue with them.

Poor people and racial minorities were often left in cities burdened by high unemployment rates, crumbling infrastructures, inadequate funds for sanitation and health services, deteriorating schools, and growing social problems. By 1992, thousands of people were homeless, including many families with children. Cities were increasingly divided into wealthy neighborhoods and poverty-stricken areas.

One poverty-stricken area, south-central Los Angeles (which had erupted in violence in 1965 and 1968) erupted again in 1992. Four white police officers had been videotaped beating an African-American man named Rodney King, who had been fleeing from the officers in a speeding car. An all-white jury found the officers not guilty on charges of brutality. This verdict resulted in riots that lasted five days and caused the deaths of 53 people.



#### **Identifying Problems**

**B** What problems in education emerged during the 1980s?

# **DIFFICULT** DECISIONS



#### **SENDING MONEY INTO SPACE**

Under the Reagan administration, the government shifted the emphasis of the space program from scientific to military and commercial applications.

Beginning in 1981, NASA directed a series of space shuttle flights. The agency hoped to establish a space station and have the shuttle ferry workers and materials to it.

The explosion of the space shuttle Challenger in 1986 in which the crew was killed (crew shown above) caused a reexamination of ventures into space. Many people thought the money spent on space should be spent on social needs.

- 1. Should the federal government spend money on space exploration when so many American citizens require basic assistance?
- 2. If you were a legislator being asked to vote in favor of funding space exploration today, how would you vote? Why?

# **The Equal Rights Struggle**

Within this environment of dwindling resources and social struggle, women worked to achieve economic and social gains.



**Geraldine Ferraro speaks** at the 1984 Democratic Convention.

POLITICAL LOSSES AND GAINS During the early 1980s, women's rights activists worked to obtain ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). Although Congress had passed the amendment in 1972, it had not yet been ratified, or approved, by three-fourths of the states. Supporters of the amendment had until June 30, 1982, to gain ratification from 38 states. They obtained only 35 of the 38 ratifications they needed, and the ERA did not become law. With the failure of the Equal Rights Amendment, women's organizations began to concentrate on electing women to public office. More women candidates began to run for office, and in 1984 the Democrats chose Geraldine Ferraro as their vice-presidential candidate. She had spoken of the necessity for women to continue working for equal opportunities in American society.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE GERALDINE FERRARO

"It is not just those of us who have reached the top who are fighting this daily battle. It is a fight in which all of us—rich and poor, career and home oriented, young and old-participate, simply because we are women.

-quoted in Vital Speeches of the Day

#### **Women's and Men's Average Yearly Earnings in Selected Careers, 1982**

Career	Women	Men
Accountant	\$19,916	\$25,272
Advertising Manager	19,396	32,292
Computer Operator	13,728	17,992
Cook	8,476	9,880
Engineer	26,052	31,460
Financial Manager	19,136	30,004
High School Teacher	18,980	21,424
Insurance Salesperson	15,236	22,152
Lawyer	30,264	34,008
Personnel Specialist	17,836	26,832
Physician	21,944	26,884
Police/ Detective	15,548	20,072
Real Estate Salesperson	16,432	24,076
Registered Nurse	20,592	20,696
Retail Sales Worker	8,736	13,728
Social Worker	15,600	20,436
University Professor	20,748	26,832

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey, 1983-1989.

#### **SKILLBUILDER Interpreting Charts**

- 1. Name one career that paid men and women almost equally.
- 2. What conclusion can you draw from this chart?

In the November 1992 election, the number of women in the House of Representatives increased from 23 to 47, and the number of women senators tripled—from two to six. President Reagan also had earlier named two women to his cabinet: In 1983, Elizabeth Dole became secretary of transportation, and Margaret Heckler became secretary of health and human services. Nevertheless, women remained underrepresented in political affairs. C

**INEQUALITY** Several factors contributed to what some called the "feminization of poverty." By 1992, 57.8 percent of the nation's women were part of the work force, and a growing percentage of women worked as professionals and managers. However, in that year women earned only about 75 cents for every dollar men earned. Female college graduates earned only slightly more than male high-school graduates. Also, about 31 percent of female heads of households lived in poverty, and among African-American women, the poverty rate was even higher. New trends in divorce settlements aggravated the situation. Because of no-fault divorce, fewer women won alimony payments, and the courts rarely enforced the meager child support payments they awarded.

To close the income gap that left so many women poor, women's organizations and unions proposed a system of pay equity. Jobs would

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

C) What steps did women take to help them move forward after the ERA failed to pass?

be rated on the basis of the amount of education they required, the amount of physical strength needed to perform them, and the number of people that an employee supervised. Instead of relying on traditional pay scales, employers would establish pay rates that reflected each job's requirements. By 1989, 20 states had begun adjusting government jobs to offer pay equity for jobs of comparable worth.

MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Issues**

D) What gains did women make during the 1980s and early 1990s?

Women also fought for improvements in the workplace. Since many working women headed single-parent households or had children under the age of six, they pressed for family benefits. Government and corporate benefit packages began to include maternity leaves, flexible hours and workweeks, job sharing, and work-at-home arrangements. Some of these changes were launched by individual firms, while others required government intervention. Yet the Reagan administration sharply cut the budget for daycare and other similar programs. **D** 

# The Fight for Rights Continues

Cuts in government programs and the backlash against civil rights initiatives, such as affirmative action, affected other groups as well.

**AFRICAN AMERICANS** African Americans made striking political gains during the 1980s, even though their economic progress suffered. By the mid-1980s, African-American mayors governed many cities, including Los Angeles, Detroit, Chicago, Atlanta, New Orleans, Philadelphia, and Washington, D.C. Hundreds of communities in both the North and the South had elected African Americans to serve as sheriffs, school board members, state legislators, and members of

Congress. In 1990, L. Douglas Wilder of Virginia became the nation's first African-American governor. The Reverend Jesse **Jackson** ran for the Democratic presidential nomination in 1984 and 1988.

Middle-class African Americans often held professional and managerial positions. But the poor faced an uncertain future of diminishing opportunities. In 1989, the newly conservative Supreme Court handed down a series of decisions that continued to change the nation's course on civil rights. In the case of Richmond v. J. A. Croson Company, for example, the Court further limited the scope of affirmative action, policies that were designed to correct the effects of discrimination in the employment or education of minority groups or women. Other decisions by the Court outlawed contracts

set aside for minority businesses. Sylvester Monroe, an African-American correspondent for Newsweek magazine, commented on the way in which some African Americans saw the backlash against affirmative action.

A PERSONAL VOICE SYLVESTER MONROE

"There's a finite pie and everybody wants his piece. Everybody is afraid of losing his piece of the pie. That's what the fight against affirmative action is all about. People feel threatened. As for blacks, they're passé. They're not in any more. Nobody wants to talk about race."

-quoted in The Great Divide

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Issues

What political gains did African Americans make during the 1980s?

Jesse Jackson

campaigns for

the Democratic presidential

nomination in 1984.



Dr. Antonia Coello Novello served as surgeon general under President George Bush.

GAINS FOR LATINOS Latinos became the fastest growing minority during the 1980s. By 1990, they constituted almost nine percent of the population, and demographers estimated that Latinos would soon outnumber African Americans as the nation's largest minority group. About two out of three Latinos were Mexican Americans, who lived mostly in the Southwest. A Puerto Rican community thrived in the Northeast, and a Cuban population was concentrated in Florida. Like African Americans, Latinos gained political power during the 1980s. Toney Anaya became governor of New Mexico, while Robert Martinez became

governor of Florida. In August 1988, President Reagan appointed Lauro Cavazos as secretary of education. In 1990, President Bush named Dr. Antonia Coello **Novello** to the post of surgeon general.

Many Latinos supported bilingual education. They feared that abandoning Spanish would weaken their distinctive culture. In the words of Daniel Villanueva, a television executive, "We want to be here, but without losing our language and our culture. They are a richness, a treasure that we don't care to lose." The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 and the 1975 amendent to the Voting Rights Act enabled Spanish speakers to attend school and vote in their own language, but by the mid-1980s opposition to bilingualism was rising. Critics argued that it slowed the rate at which Spanish-speaking people entered mainstream American life. They also feared that the nation would become split between English speakers and Spanish speakers.

NOW THEN

#### AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Affirmative action refers to the effort to provide education and employment opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups, such as women and racial and ethnic minorities. The federal government first instituted affirmative action policies under the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Presidents Reagan and Bush actively opposed affirmative action and racial quotas. Today the future of affirmative action is uncertain. In 2001, President Bush expressed support for equal opportunity, but his first attorney general, John Ashcroft, was denounced by civil rights groups, in part because of his anti-affirmative action record. In 2003 the Supreme Court protected the University of Michigan's race-conscious admissions policy. But in 2007, initiative campaigns to prohibit affirmative action were active in several states.

**NATIVE AMERICANS SPEAK OUT** Native Americans also became more self-conscious of their dignity and more demanding of their rights. In the 1970s, they organized schools to teach young Native Americans about their past. They also began to fight for the return of ancestral lands wrongfully taken from them.

During the 1980s, the Reagan administration slashed aid to Native Americans for health, education, and other services. Driven to find new sources of revenue, Native Americans campaigned for gambling casinos on their land as a way to bring in money. After the Supreme Court ruled in favor of Native Americans, many tribes opened Las Vegas-style casinos, which provided additional funding for the tribes that operated them. Nonetheless, the long-term problems faced by Native Americans have not been solved by gambling casinos, although the new wealth has helped to some extent. **F** 

#### AN EXPANDING ASIAN-AMERICAN POPULATION Asian

Americans were the second fastest growing minority in the United States during the 1980s. By 1982, the U.S. population included about 8.3 million Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders. Asian Americans constituted 3.25 percent of the population.

Some have cited Asian Americans as an example of how minorities can succeed in the U.S. Yet while Asian Americans have low crime rates, low school dropout rates, and low divorce rates, Asian-American unemployment and poverty have been higher than the national figures.

Vocabulary demographer: a person who studies the characteristics of human population, such as growth, density, and distribution

MAIN IDEA

Identifying **Problems** 

What problems did **Native Americans** face in the 1980s?



A gay rights march in Washington, D.C., October 1987

THE GAY RIGHTS MOVEMENT ADVANCES During the 1970s and 1980s, gay men and lesbians began to fight openly for civil rights. While the gay rights movement suffered a setback during the early 1980s in the face of conservative opposition and the AIDS crisis, by the late 1980s and early 1990s a new surge of gay activism was under way in the country. Direct action groups sprang up throughout the country, calling for an end to anti-gay discrimination. Although several speakers at the 1992 Republican National Convention condemned gay activism, these speakers were unable to slow the pace of change. By the year 1993, seven states and 110 communities had outlawed such discrimination.



- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome)
- pay equity
- lesse Jackson
- Antonia Coello Novello

- L. Douglas Wilder
- Lauro Cavazos

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Use a chart like the one below to list some of the social problems of the Reagan and Bush years and how the government responded to them.

S	•
Social	Government
Problems	Responses
	h ~ ^ ^

Choose one issue and write other responses the government might have made.

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. PREDICTING EFFECTS

How might improvements in the educational system help solve other social problems? Think About:

- the impact education might have on health-related problems
- the impact that education might have on urban problems
- the impact that education might have on unemployment

#### 4. COMPARING

Compare the political gains and losses experienced by various groups during the Reagan and Bush administrations.

#### **5. FORMING GENERALIZATIONS**

Why might a widening gap between the richest and poorest citizens of a country be a cause for concern about that country's future?

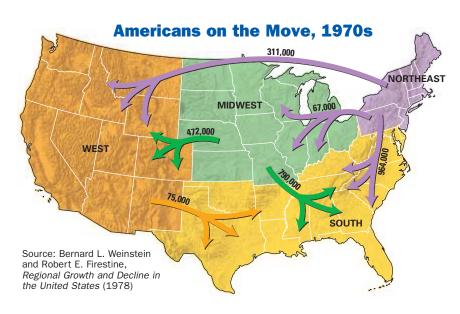


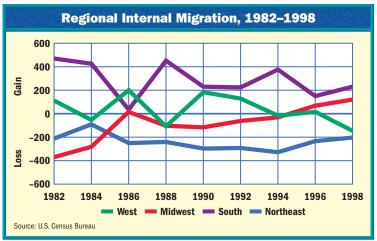
# Sunbelt, Rustbelt, Ecotopia

In the 1970s, people on the move created new names for areas to which they moved. The West was sometimes called *Ecotopia* because of its varied scenery and ecological attractions. The South and Southwest were called the *Sunbelt* because of their warm climate. The North Central and Northeast regions were called the *Rustbelt* because many of their aging factories had been closed.

As a geographical term, *region* is used to designate an area with common features or characteristics that set it apart from its surroundings. For example, the Mississippi Valley is a large physical region; Warren Woods is a small physical region. The term is often used for groups of states that share an area and certain characteristics.

As people move from state to state, and from region to region, they gradually transform the balance of political and economic power in the nation. Each census in recent times has recorded how certain states have gained population and others have lost population. If the gains or losses are large enough, a state's representation in the U.S. House of Representatives will increase or decrease commensurately.





#### **REGIONAL EXCHANGES**

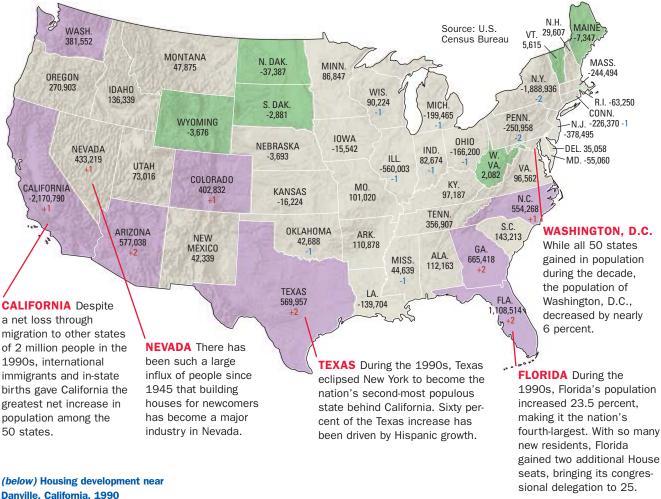
Between 1970 and 1975, the population center of the United States, which had generally moved westward for 17 decades, suddenly moved southward as well. The arrows show the net number of Americans who migrated and their patterns of migration in the early 1970s. The West gained 311,000 from the Northeast plus 472,000 from the North Central region, for a total of 783,000 people. However, it also lost 75,000 people to the South. During the 1980s and 1990s the southward and westward shift continued.



#### Americans on the Move, 1990–2000

Between 1990 and 2000, our country's population grew by a record 32.7 million people to 281.4 million. For the first time in the 20th century, all 50 states gained people between census years. But because of internal migration (see graph on page 846) and other factors, 10 states lost and 8 states gained seats in the 2000 Congressional apportionment.

- Population increase > 1 million Population increase < 100,000 Net gain/loss from domestic 5,615 migration
  - Gain in apportioned Representatives
  - Loss in apportioned Representatives



Danville, California, 1990



#### THINKING CRITICALLY

- 1. Analyzing Distributions Which states lost the most people between 1990 and 2000? Which states gained the most people?
- 2. Creating a Graph Choose one of the most populous states and then pose a historical question about population in that state. Create a graph or graphs that show various aspects of population for the state you have chosen. Be sure that the graph(s) help to answer the question you posed. Then display the graph(s) and the question in the classroom.



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R28.

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# Foreign Policy After the Cold War

#### MAIN IDEA

The end of the Cold War, marked by the breakup of the Soviet Union in 1991, led to a redirection of many U.S. goals and policies.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

After the Cold War, the United States provided and continues to provide substantial economic support to the new capitalistic and democratic nations.

#### Terms & Names

- Mikhail Gorbachev
- glasnost
- perestroika
- INF Treaty
- Tiananmen Square
- Sandinistas
- Contras
- Operation **Desert Storm**

## One American's Story



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on U.S. foreign policy.

Colin Powell did not start out in life with any special privileges. He was born in Harlem and raised in the Bronx, where he enjoyed street games and tolerated school. Then, while attending the City College of New York, he joined the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC). He got straight A's in ROTC, and so he decided to make the army his career.

Powell served first in Vietnam and then in Korea and West Germany. He rose in rank to become a general; then President Reagan made him national security adviser. In this post, Powell noted that the Soviet Union was a factor in all the administration's foreign policy decisions.

#### A Personal Voice colin powell

"Our choosing sides in conflicts around the world was almost always decided on the basis of East-West competition. The new Soviet leader, Mikhail Gorbachev, however, was turning the old Cold War formulas on their head. . . . Ronald Reagan . . . had the vision and flexibility, lacking in many knee-jerk Cold Warriors [participants in the Cold War between the U.S. and the USSR], to recognize that Gorbachev was a new man in a new age offering new opportunities for peace."

-My American Journey

Though U.S. foreign policy in the early 1980s was marked by intense hostility toward the Soviet Union, drastic economic problems in the Soviet Union destroyed its ability to continue the Cold War standoff.



**Colin Powell** 

## The Cold War Ends

In March of 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev became the general secretary of the Communist Party in the Soviet Union. His rise to power marked the beginning of a new era in the Soviet Union.

**GORBACHEV INITIATES REFORM** Gorbachev had inherited a host of problems in the Soviet Union. Many of them revolved around the Soviet economy, which was under a great amount of stress. Reagan added pressure by increasing U.S. defense spending. When the Soviets attempted to keep up, their economy was pushed to the brink of collapse.

A skilled diplomat and political leader, Gorbachev advocated a policy known as glasnost (Russian for "openness"). He allowed open criticism of the Soviet government and took steps toward freedom of the press. In 1985, he outlined his plans for **perestroika**, a restructuring of Soviet society. He called for less government control of the economy, the introduction of some private enterprise, and steps toward establishing a democratic government.

Gorbachev recognized that better relations with the United States would allow the Soviets to reduce their military spending and reform their economy. As a result, he initiated a series of arms-control meetings that led to the INF **Treaty (Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty)** signed on December 8, 1987. The treaty eliminated two classes of weapons systems in Europe and allowed each nation to make on-site inspections of the other's military installations. A

**THE SOVIET UNION DECLINES** Gorbachev's introduction of democratic ideals led to a dramatic increase in nationalism on the part of the Soviet Union's non-Russian republics. In December 1991, 14 non-Russian republics declared their independence from the Soviet Union. Muscled aside by Russian reformers who thought he was working too slowly toward democracy, Gorbachev resigned as Soviet president. After 74 years, the Soviet Union dissolved.

A loose federation known as the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) took the place of the Soviet Union. In February 1992, President George Bush and Russian president Boris Yeltsin issued a formal statement declaring an end to the Cold War that had plagued the two nations and divided the world since 1945. In January 1993,

Yeltsin and Bush signed the START II pact, designed to cut both nations' nuclear arsenals by two-thirds.

THE COLLAPSE OF COMMUNIST REGIMES Before his resignation, Gorbachev had encouraged the people of East Germany and Eastern Europe to go their own ways. In 1988, when the Soviet Union was still intact, he reduced the number of Soviet troops in Eastern Europe and allowed non-Communist parties to organize in satellite nations, such as East Germany and Poland. He encouraged the satellite nations to move toward democracy.

During a speech given at the Berlin Wall in 1987, President Reagan challenged Gorbachev to back up his reforms with decisive action.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Evaluating** Leadership

A Which evidence in the text supports the viewpoint that Gorbachev was a skilled politician and diplomat?



#### **DEMOCRATIC ELECTIONS** IN RUSSIA

After the Soviet Union dissolved in 1991, Boris Yeltsin continued as president of Russia. Yeltsin ended price controls and increased private business ownership. The Russian parliament opposed Yeltsin's policies, even though a majority of voters supported them.

In December 1993, Russian voters installed a new parliament and approved a new constitution, parts of which resembled the U.S. Constitution. In 1996, Yeltsin won reelection as president of Russia. He was succeeded in 2000 by Vladimir Putin.

## A PERSONAL VOICE RONALD REAGAN

"General Secretary Gorbachev, if you seek peace, if you seek prosperity for the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, if you seek liberalization: Come here to this gate! Mr. Gorbachev, open this gate! Mr. Gorbachev, tear down this wall!"

-speech, June 12, 1987



A demonstrator pounds away on the Berlin Wall as East German border guards look on from above at the Brandenberg Gate, on November 11, 1989.

In October 1989, East Germans startled the world by repudiating their Communist government. On November 9, 1989, East Germany opened the Berlin Wall, allowing free passage between the two parts of the city for the first time in 28 years. East German border guards stood by and watched as Berliners pounded away with hammers and other tools at the despised wall. In early 1990, East Germany held its first free elections, and on October 3 of that year, the two German nations were united. **B** 

Other European nations also adopted democratic reforms. Czechoslovakia withdrew from the Soviet bloc. The Baltic states of Latvia, Estonia, and Lithuania declared their independence from the Soviet Union. Hungary, Bulgaria, and Romania made successful transitions from communism.

Yugoslavia, however, collapsed. Four of its six republics seceded. Ethnic rivalries deteriorated into a

brutal war among Muslims, Orthodox Serbs, and Roman Catholic Croats, who were dividing Yugoslavia, each claiming parts of it. Serbia backed Serb minorities that were stirring up civil unrest in Croatia and Bosnia.

**COMMUNISM CONTINUES IN CHINA** Even before perestroika unfolded in the Soviet Union, economic reform had begun in China. Early in the 1980s, the Chinese Communist government loosened its grip on business and eliminated some price controls. Students in China began to demand freedom of speech and a greater voice in government.

In April 1989, university students in China held marches that quickly grew into large demonstrations in Beijing's **Tiananmen** (tyän'än'mĕn') **Square** and on the streets of other cities. In Tiananmen Square, Chinese students constructed a version of the Statue of Liberty to symbolize their struggle for democracy.

China's premier, Li Peng, eventually ordered the military to crush the protesters. China's armed forces stormed into Tiananmen Square, slaughtering unarmed students. The world's democratic countries watched these events in horror on television. The collapse of the pro-democracy movement left the future in China uncertain. As one student leader said, "The government has won the battle here today. But they have lost the people's hearts."



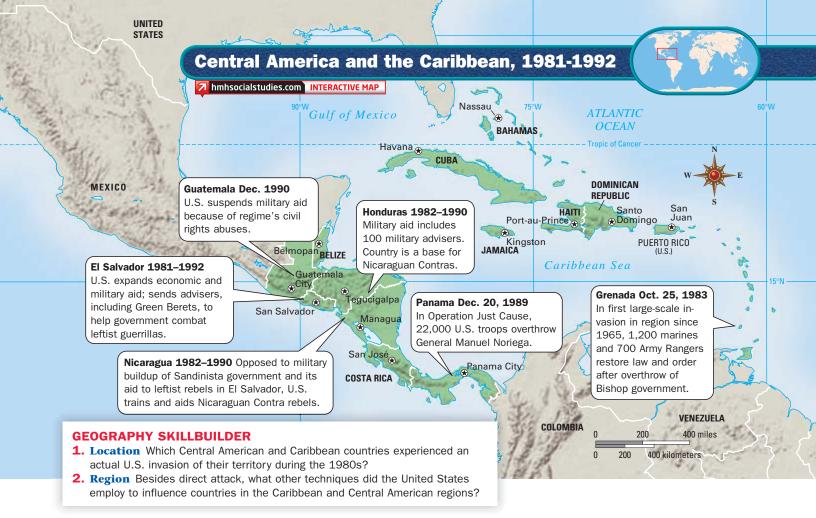
A Chinese protester defies the tanks in Tiananmen Square in 1989.



#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Events

**B** What signs signaled that the Cold War had come to an end?



# **Central American and Caribbean Policy**

Cold War considerations during the Reagan and Bush administrations continued to influence affairs in Central America and the Caribbean. In these places, the United States still opposed left-leaning and socialist governments in favor of governments friendly to the United States.

**NICARAGUA** The United States had had a presence in Nicaragua ever since 1912, when President Taft sent U.S. Marines to protect American investments there. The marines left in 1933, but only after helping the dictator Anastasio Somoza come to power.

The Somoza family ruled Nicaragua for 42 years. To keep control of its business empire, the family rigged elections and assassinated political rivals. Many people believed that only a revolution would end the Somoza dictatorship.

Between 1977 and 1979, Nicaragua was engulfed in a civil war between Somoza's national guard and the *Sandinistas*, rebels who took their name from a rebel leader named Sandino who had been killed in 1934. When Sandinista rebels toppled the dictatorship of Somoza's son in 1979, President Carter recognized the new regime and sent it \$83 million in economic aid. The Soviet Union and Cuba sent aid as well.

In 1981, however, President Reagan charged that Nicaragua was a Soviet outpost that was exporting revolution to other Central American countries. Reagan cut all aid to the Sandinista government and threw his support to guerrilla forces known as the *Contras* because they were against the Sandinistas. By 1983, the Contra army had grown to nearly 10,000 men, and American officials from the CIA had stationed themselves to direct operations—without congressional approval. In response, Congress passed the Boland Amendment, banning military

aid to the Contras for two years. However, Reagan's administration still found ways to negotiate aid to the Contras.

On February 25, 1990, Nicaraguan president Daniel Ortega held free elections, and Violeta de Chamorro, a Contra supporter, was elected the nation's new president. Chamorro's coalition was united only in opposition to the Sandinistas; it was too weak and divided to solve Nicaragua's ongoing problems.

GRENADA On the tiny Caribbean island of Grenada, the United States used direct military force to accomplish its aims. After noting that the island was developing ties to Communist Cuba, President Reagan sent approximately 2,000 troops to the island in 1983. There they overthrew the pro-Cuban government, which was replaced by one friendlier to the United States. Eighteen American soldiers died in the attack, but Reagan declared that the invasion had been necessary to defend U.S. security.

PANAMA Six years later, in 1989, President Bush sent more than 20,000 soldiers and marines into Panama to overthrow and arrest General Manuel Antonio Noriega on charges of drug trafficking. Noriega had been receiving money since 1960 from the CIA, but he was also involved in the international drug trade. After he was indicted by a Miami grand jury, Noriega was taken by force by the American military and flown to Miami to stand trial. In April 1992, Noriega was convicted and sentenced to 40 years in prison. Many Latin American governments deplored the "Yankee imperialism" of the action. However, many Americans—and Panamanians—were pleased by the removal of a military dictator who supported drug smuggling. C

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Comparing **C** Between 1980 and 1992, how did U.S. policies regarding Central America differ from those regarding Europe?

# **Middle East Trouble Spots**

Results favorable to U.S. interests were more difficult to obtain in the Middle East. Negotiating conflicts between ever-shifting governments drew the United States into scandal and its first major war since Vietnam.



#### THE IRAN-CONTRA SCANDAL

In 1983, terrorist groups loyal to Iran took a number of Americans hostage in Lebanon. Reagan denounced Iran and urged U.S. allies not to sell arms to Iran for its war against Iraq. In 1985, he declared that "America will never make concessions to terrorists." Therefore, Americans were shocked to learn in 1986 that President Reagan had approved the sale of arms to Iran. In exchange for those sales, Iran promised to win the release of seven American hostages held in Lebanon by pro-Iranian terrorists. What's more, members of Reagan's staff sent part of

President Reagan's message to television audiences about selling arms to Iran differed greatly from what was going on behind the scenes. the profits from those illegal arms sales to the Contras in Nicaragua—in direct violation of the Boland Amendment. President Reagan held a press conference to explain what had happened.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE RONALD REAGAN

"I am deeply troubled that the implementation of a policy aimed at resolving a truly tragic situation in the Middle East has resulted in such controversy. As I've stated previously, I believe our policy goals toward Iran were well founded."

-presidential press conference, November 25, 1986

In the summer of 1987, special committees of both houses of Congress conducted a dramatic inquiry into the Iran-Contra affair during a month of joint televised hearings. Among those testifying was Lieutenant Colonel Oliver North, a member of the National Security Council staff who played a key role in providing aid to the Contras. North appeared in military uniform adorned with service ribbons and badges. In defending his actions, North talked about patriotism and love of country. He asserted that he thought he was carrying out the president's wishes and that the end of helping the Contras justified almost any means.

After a congressional investigation, Special Prosecutor Lawrence E. Walsh, early in 1988, indicted various members of the Reagan administration who were involved in the scandal. Oliver North was found guilty of aiding the cover-up. He was fined and sentenced to perform community service. (His conviction was later overturned because he testified under a grant of limited immunity.). On Christmas Eve of 1992, President Bush pardoned a number of Reagan officials.

THE PERSIAN GULF WAR Regardless of the scandal surrounding the Iran-Contra affair, conflict with Iraq (which was Iran's long-standing enemy) and its leader, Saddam Hussein, soon eclipsed U.S. problems with Iran. During the 1980s, Iran and Iraq had fought a prolonged war, and Hussein found himself with enormous war debts to pay. Several times, Hussein had claimed that the oil-rich nation of Kuwait was really part of Iraq. On August 2, 1990, Iraqi troops invaded Kuwait. The Iraqi invaders looted Kuwait; then they headed toward Saudi Arabia and

#### "The United States must occasionally intervene militarily in regional conflicts."

Proponents of U.S. military intervention abroad agreed with General Norman Schwarzkopf that "as the only remaining superpower, we have an awesome responsibility . . . to the rest of the world."

"The United States must take the lead in promoting democracy," urged Morton H. Halperin, former director of the ACLU (American Civil Liberties Union).

"To say 'Let the UN do it' is a cop-out," stated adviser Robert G. Neumann.

Political scientist Jane Sharp expressed a similar sentiment. She asked, "Can any nation that has taken no action [in Bosnia] to stop the Serbian practice of ethnic cleansing continue to call itself civilized?"

#### THINKING CRITICALLY

1. CONNECT TO TODAY Comparing and Contrasting What do you think are the strongest arguments for and against military intervention in regional conflicts?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK. PAGE R8.

2. CONNECT TO HISTORY Hypothesizing With at least one partner, research the events leading up to U.S. involvement in one of these countries: Lebanon, Grenada, Panama, or Kuwait. Then negotiate to resolve the conflict.

#### COUNTERPOINT

#### "The United States should not intervene militarily in regional conflicts."

A foreign-policy analyst at the Cato Institute, Barbara Conry, stated that "intervention in regional wars is a distraction and a drain on resources." What's more, she argued, "it does not work." Recalling the presence of American troops in Lebanon, Conry argued that intervention not only jeopardized American soldiers, it often obstructed what it sought to achieve.

> "The internal freedom of a political community can be achieved only by members of that community," agreed Professor Stephen R. Shalom. He added that "using [military action] encourages quick fix solutions that ignore the underlying sources of conflict."



#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Drawing Conclusions**

What issue led to the conflict in the Middle East?

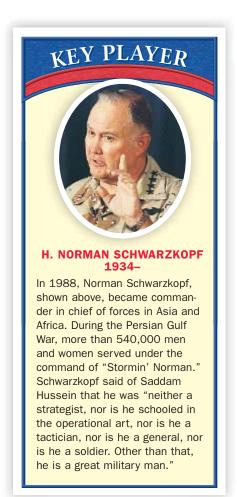
its oil fields. If Iraq conquered Saudi Arabia as well as Kuwait, it would control one-half of the world's known oil reserves, which would severely threaten U.S. oil supplies. **D** 

For several months, President Bush and Secretary of State James Baker organized an international coalition against Iraqi aggression. With the support of Congress and the UN, President Bush launched Operation Desert **Storm** to liberate Kuwait from Iraqi control. On January 16, 1991, the United States and its allies staged a massive air assault against Iraq. On February 23, they launched a successful ground offensive from Saudi Arabia. On February 28, 1991, President Bush announced a cease-fire. Operation Desert Storm was over. Kuwait was liberated.

Millions of Americans turned out for the victory parades that greeted returning soldiers. After the debacle in Vietnam, they were thrilled the war was over, with fewer than 400 casualties among UN coalition forces. (However, there were subsequent reports that Gulf veterans were suffering from disabilities caused by chemicals used in the war.) By contrast, Iraq had suffered an estimated 100,000 military and civilian deaths. During the embargo that followed, many Iraqi children died from outbreaks of cholera, typhoid, enteritis, and other diseases.

**BUSH'S DOMESTIC POLICIES** Despite his great achievement in the Persian Gulf War, President Bush was not as successful on the domestic front. He was hurt by rising deficits and a recession that began in 1990 and lasted through most of 1992. Bush was forced to raise taxes despite his campaign pledge. His approval rating had

dropped to 49 percent by 1992. The weak economy and the tax hike doomed Bush's reelection campaign, and 12 years of Republican leadership came to an end.





#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its meaning.
  - Mikhail Gorbachev
- perestroika
- INF Treaty
- Tiananmen Square
- Sandinistas
- Contras
- Operation Desert Storm

#### **MAIN IDEA**

• glasnost

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Use a chart like the one below to explain U.S. foreign policy toward world regions.

#### U.S. Foreign Policy

Europe

Central America and Caribbean

Middle East

Now write a paragraph in which you describe a trouble spot in one of these regions.

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. ANALYZING CAUSES

What factors caused the end of the Cold War? Think About:

- events in the Soviet Union
- events in Germany and Eastern Europe
- how U.S. leaders responded to those events

#### 4. FORMING GENERALIZATIONS

What factors do you think determined whether or not the United States intervened militarily in other nations?

#### 5. HYPOTHESIZING

Is it possible for an authoritarian government to make economic reforms without also making political reforms? Support your answer with details from the text.

#### **TERMS & NAMES**

For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- 1. entitlement program
- 2. affirmative action
- 3. Moral Majority
- 4. Ronald Reagan
- **5.** supply-side economics
- 6. Geraldine Ferraro
- 7. AIDS
- 8. Mikhail Gorbachev
- 9. Contras
- 10. Operation Desert Storm

#### **MAIN IDEAS**

Use your notes and the information in the chapter to answer the following questions.

# A Conservative Movement Emerges (pages 830–833)

- 1. What caused the conservative revolution of the early 1980s?
- 2. What factors led to Ronald Reagan's victory in 1980?

# Conservative Policies Under Reagan and Bush (pages 834–838)

- 3. What principles formed the basis of "Reaganomics"?
- **4.** What is deregulation, and how did it affect certain industries in the 1980s?

#### **Social Concerns in the 1980s** (pages 839–845)

- **5.** What progress and obstacles did different minority groups experience in the 1980s?
- 6. What were some gains that women achieved in the 1980s?

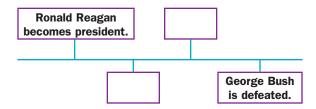
#### Foreign Policy After the Cold War

(pages 848-855)

- 7. What caused the downfall of the Soviet Union and the founding of the Commonwealth of Independent States?
- Summarize the U.S. response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait.

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

 USING YOUR NOTES Choose two events from each of the sections of the chapter and place them in chronological order on a timeline like the one below.



- 2. **EVALUATING** Review the goals of the conservative movement and the actions of the government under Reagan and Bush. Evaluate how well the goals had been achieved by the end of Bush's term.
- 3. INTERPRETING MAPS Look at the map on page 851. Between 1982 and 1992, the United States intervened in Latin America many times. How might the presence of a Communist government on the island of Cuba have influenced U.S. actions?



#### STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

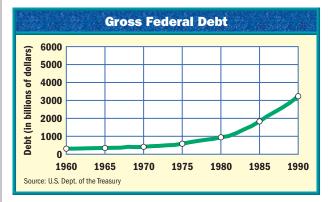
Use the passage and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer question 1.

> "That system [of republican government] has never failed us, but, for a time, we failed the system. We asked things of government that government was not equipped to give. We yielded authority to the national government that properly belonged to states or to local governments or to the people themselves. We allowed taxes and inflation to rob us of our earnings and savings and watched the great industrial machine that had made us the most productive people on Earth slow down and the number of unemployed increase."

> > -Ronald Reagan, Second Inaugural Address, 1985

- 1. The passage suggests that President Ronald Reagan supported which point of view?
  - **A** There should be an end to all social welfare programs.
  - **B** The role of the federal government should be reduced.
  - **C** The role of the federal government should be increased.
  - **D** The federal government should raise taxes.
- 2. Which of the following events signaled the end of the Cold War?
  - F Operation Desert Storm
  - **G** Iran-Contra Scandal
  - H collapse of the Soviet Union
  - J protests at Tiananmen Square

Use the graph and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer question 3.



- 3. The graph shows that the gross federal debt
  - A stayed the same during the Reagan and Bush years.
  - **B** greatly increased during the Reagan and Bush
  - **c** greatly decreased during the Reagan and Bush years.
  - **D** did not exist during the Reagan and Bush years.
- **4.** Which of the following was *not* a goal of the conservative movement of the 1980s?
  - **F** strengthen the national defense
  - **G** reduce government regulations
  - H promote family values and patriotic ideals
  - J increase taxes

#### hmhsocialstudies.com **TEST PRACTICE**

For additional test practice, go online for:

· Diagnostic tests

Tutorials

#### **INTERACT WITH HISTORY**

Think about the issues you explored at the beginning of the chapter. Imagine that you are working as a speechwriter for Ronald Reagan in 1980. Develop a campaign slogan, and then write a speech that contains your slogan and explains why Americans should vote for Reagan. Present your speech to the class.

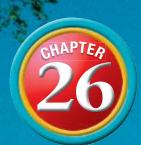
#### **FOCUS ON WRITING**

Imagine that you are a journalist in the 1980s. Choose the social concern of the period that you believe to be the most significant domestic issue facing the United States. Write a newspaper editorial in which you persuade others that your issue is the most important and outline your approach for solving it. Use descriptive examples and vivid language to convince your audience to support your perspective.

#### **MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY**

Visit the Chapter Assessment links to find out more about Saddam Hussein's rise to power in Iraq. Write and record a short podcast describing the tactics that Hussein used to become dictator and how his policies affected the people of Iraq.

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# THE UNITED STATES IN TODAY'S WORLD

#### **Essential Question**

What are the most important issues that affect the United States and the world today?



#### **What You Will Learn**

In this chapter you will learn about the challenges that faced the United States at the turn of the 21st century.

# **SECTION 1:** The 1990s and the New Millennium

Main Idea The nation became divided as the Democrats gained control of the White House in the 1990s, and the Republicans came to power at the beginning of the new millennium.

# SECTION 2: The New Global Economy

Main Idea Because of technological advances and new trade laws, the U.S. economy underwent a boom during the late 20th century.

# SECTION 3: Technology and Modern Life

Main Idea Advances in technology have increased not only the pace but also the comfort of many Americans' daily lives

# SECTION 4: The Changing Face of America

Main Idea At the end of the 20th century, the U.S. population grew more diverse both in ethnic background and in age.



1992 Twenty-seventh Amendment prohibits midterm congressional pay raises.

1992 William Jefferson Clinton is elected president.

1994 Republicans gain control of both houses of Congress.

"Million Man "March" held in Washington, D.C.



1996 President Clinton is reelected.

USA WORLD

1992

1994

1996



1993 Russia and United States sign START-II treaty reducing warheads and ICBMs.

1994 In South Africa's first all-race election, Nelson Mandela is elected president.

1995 Israeli prime minister Yitzhak Rabin is assassinated.





# The 1990s and the **New Millennium**

#### MAIN IDEA

The nation became divided as the Democrats gained control of the White House in the 1990s, and the Republicans came to power at the beginning of the new millennium.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

**Democrats and Republicans** need to find a way to work together and unite a divided nation.

#### Terms & Names

- William Jefferson Clinton
- H. Ross Perot
- Hillary Rodham Clinton
- NAFTA
- Newt Gingrich
- Contract with America
- Al Gore
- George W. Bush
- Barack Obama

## One American's Story

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on major actions taken by President Clinton during his two terms in office.

On January 20, 1993, poet Maya Angelou was honored as the first woman and the first African American to read her work at a presidential inauguration. Bill Clinton asked Angelou to compose and deliver a poem. Angelou expressed the optimism of the day, recalling the dream of Martin Luther King, Jr., as she recited her poem "On the Pulse of Morning."

#### A PERSONAL VOICE MAYA ANGELOU

"Lift up your faces, you have a piercing need For this bright morning dawning for you. History, despite its wrenching pain, Cannot be unlived, but if faced With courage, need not be lived again.

Lift up your eyes Upon this day breaking for you. Give birth again To the dream."

- "On the Pulse of Morning"



Maya Angelou

Moments later, William Jefferson Clinton was inaugurated as the 42nd president of the United States. Clinton entered the presidency at a time when America was at a turning point. A severe economic recession had made many Americans uneasy about the future. They looked to Clinton to lead a government that would be more responsive to the people.

# **Clinton Wins the Presidency**

Governor William Jefferson Clinton of Arkansas became the first member of the baby-boom generation to win the presidency. He captured the White House, at the age of 46, by vowing to strengthen the nation's weak economy and to lead the Democratic Party in a more moderate direction.

MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Causes

What factors accounted for Bush's decline in popularity?

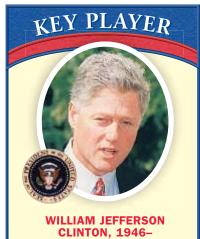
THE ELECTION OF 1992 After the U.S. victory in the Persian Gulf War in 1991, Republican president George Bush's popularity had climbed to an 89 percent approval rating. Shortly after the war ended, however, the nation found itself in the grips of a recession. In early 1992, Bush's approval rating nose-dived to 40 percent. In his run for reelection, President Bush could not convince the public that he had a clear strategy for ending the recession and creating jobs.

Throughout the presidential race, Bill Clinton campaigned as the candidate who would lead the nation out of its economic crisis. So did a third-party candidate—Texas billion-aire **H. Ross Perot.** Perot targeted the soaring federal budget deficit as the nation's number one problem. A budget deficit occurs when the federal government borrows money to meet all its spending commitments. "It's time," Perot declared in his usual blunt style, "to take out the trash and clean up the barn."

Election Day results, however, demonstrated that Clinton's center-of-the-road strategy had the widest appeal. Though Clinton won, he captured only 43 percent of the popular vote. Bush received 38 percent, while Perot managed an impressive 19 percent.

A "NEW" DEMOCRAT Bill Clinton won the presidency in part by promising to move away from traditional Democratic policies. He also emphasized the need to move people off welfare and called for growth in private business as a means to economic progress.

In office, Clinton worked to move the Democratic Party toward the political center by embracing both liberal and conservative programs. According to an ally, Clinton hoped "to modernize liberalism so it could sell again." By doing so, he sought to create a "new" and more inclusive Democratic Party.



**CLINTON, 1946-**

Born in Hope, Arkansas, at the beginning of the baby boom, Bill Clinton had wanted to be president most of his life. As a college student in the 1960s, he had opposed the Vietnam War and pulled strings to avoid being drafted.

After studying in England as a Rhodes scholar and graduating from Yale law school, Clinton returned to Arkansas. He taught at the University of Arkansas School of Law and dived into politics, becoming governor in 1979 at the age of 32.

# **Moderate Reform** and Economic Boom

President Clinton demonstated his willingness to pursue both liberal and conservative policies on health care, the budget deficit, crime, and welfare.

**HEALTH CARE REFORM** Clinton had pledged to create a plan to guarantee affordable health care for all Americans, especially for the millions of Americans who lacked medical insurance. Once in office, Clinton appointed First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton, a skilled lawyer and child-welfare advocate, to head the team creating the plan. The president presented the health care reform bill to Congress in September 1993.

Congress debated the plan for a year. Intense lobbying and Republican attacks on the plan for promoting "big government" sealed its doom. In the end, Congress never even voted on the bill. **B** 

Hillary Rodham Clinton explains the health care reform plan to a Senate subcommittee.

MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Causes**

**B** What factors led to the defeat of Clinton's health care plan?

BALANCED BUDGET AND AN ECONOMIC BOOM President Clinton was more successful in his efforts to reduce the federal budget deficit. Clinton and the Republican-controlled Congress agreed in 1997 on legislation to balance the federal budget by the year 2002. The bill cut spending by billions of dollars, lowered taxes to win Republican support, and included programs aimed at helping children and improving health care.

A year later, Clinton announced that—for the first time in nearly 30 years the federal budget had a surplus. That is, the government took in more than it spent. Surpluses were used, in part, to pay down the nation's debt, which had soared to around \$5.5 trillion.

Perhaps the most effective tool in generating a surplus was the booming economy. About the time Clinton took office, the economy rebounded. Unemployment fell and the stock market soared to new heights. As a result, the government's tax revenues rose, and fewer people received public aid. These factors helped slash the federal debt.

**REFORMING WELFARE** Clinton and the congressional Republicans cooperated to reform the welfare system. In 1996, a bill was proposed to place limits on how long people could receive benefits. It also put an end to a 61-year federal guarantee of welfare, and instead gave states "block grants"—set amounts of federal money they could spend on welfare or for other social concerns.

Although liberal Democrats feared the effects of eliminating the federal safety net for the poor, the president backed the bill. Over the next few years, states moved millions of people from welfare to jobs. Because of the strong economy, the transition was more successful than some had been predicting.

**Injured victims** after the April 1995 bombing of the Alfred P. **Murrah Federal Building in** Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

## **Crime and Terrorism**

The improved economy—along with enlargement of police forces—combined to lower crime rates in the 1990s. However, fears were raised among Americans by acts of violence and terrorism around the country.

A shocking crime occurred April 1999 when two students at Columbine High School, in Colorado, killed 12 students and a teacher and wounded 23 others, and then shot themselves. Americans were

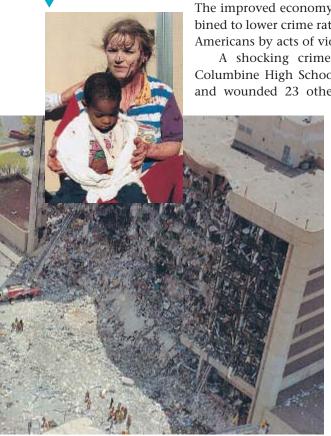
> appalled at copycat crimes that began to occur. Some called for tougher gun control, while others argued that exposure to violent imagery should be curtailed. Violence had pervaded television news throughout the decade.

In 1993, terrorists had exploded bombs in the World Trade Center in New York City. This was closely followed by a 1995 blast that destroyed a nine-story federal office building in Oklahoma City, killing 168 children, women, and men. Timothy McVeigh, an American veteran of the Gulf War, was found guilty in the Oklahoma bombing. He was executed in 2001, the first use of the federal death penalty in 38 years. Although American embassies and military targets abroad were subject to sporadic and deadly terrorist attacks during the decade, the U.S. was in no way prepared for a devastating attack that took place on its own soil on the morning of September 11, 2001. C

MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

What acts of terrorism targeted Americans in the decade preceding 2001?



In a coordinated effort, two hijacked commercial jets struck the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City, one crashing just minutes after the other. The jets exploded on impact and subsequently leveled the tallest buildings of New York's skyline, the symbolic center of American finance. About an hour later, a third plane tore into the Pentagon building, the U.S. military headquarters outside Washington, D.C. Air travel ceased almost immediately; across the nation planes in the air were ordered to land. During the evacuation of the White House and the New York financial district, a fourth hijacked plane crashed near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

About 3,000 people were killed in the attacks. These included all the passengers on all four planes, workers and visitors in the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, and hundreds of rescue workers. (See the first issue in "Issues for the 21st Century," on page 894.)



A view across the **Brooklyn Bridge** shows the devastating impact of two iets used by terrorists as missiles to destroy the World **Trade Center.** 

# **New Foreign Policy Challenges**

Vocabulary globalization: to make worldwide in scope or application

Conflicts and confused alliances grew in the wake of the Cold War. The question of U.S. intervention overseas, and the globalization of the economy presented the United States with a host of new challenges.

**RELATIONS WITH FORMER COLD WAR FOES** Maintaining strong relations with Russia and China became major goals for the Clinton administration. Throughout the 1990s, the U.S. and Russia cooperated on economic and armscontrol issues. Still, Russia criticized U.S. intervention in Yugoslavia, where a bloody civil war raged. Meanwhile, U.S. officials protested against Russian attacks on rebels in the Russian region of Chechnya.

U.S. relations with China were strained as well. Clinton had stressed that he would lean on China to grant its citizens more democratic rights. As president, however, he put greater emphasis on increasing trade with China. Despite concerns that Chinese spies had stolen U.S. defense secrets, Clinton supported a bill—passed in 2000—granting China permanent trade rights.

**TROOPS ABROAD** With the Cold War over, the United States turned more of its attention to regional conflicts. President Clinton proved willing to use troops to end conflicts overseas. In 1991, military leaders in Haiti forced the elected president from office. Thousands of refugees fled the military leaders' harsh rule. In 1994, President Clinton dispatched American troops to Haiti, and the military rulers were forced to step down.

Other interventions occurred in Yugoslavia. In 1991, Yugoslavia broke apart into five nations. In Bosnia, one of the new states, some Serb militias under Slobodan Milosevic began "ethnic cleansing," killing or expelling from their homes people of certain ethnic groups. In 1995, the United States helped negotiate a peace agreement in Bosnia. Clinton sent U.S. troops to join NATO troops to help ensure the deal. About three years later, Serb forces attacked ethnic Albanians in the Serb province of Kosovo. The U.S. and its NATO allies launched air strikes against Serbian targets in 1999, forcing the Serbs to back down. American troops followed up by participating in an international peace-keeping force.



**American workers** protest against the North **American Free Trade Agreement** (NAFTA).

In both Bosnia and Kosovo, the administration promised early withdrawal. However, the U.S. troops stayed longer than had been intended, drawing criticism of Clinton's policies. D

TRADE AND THE GLOBAL ECONOMY Seeing flourishing trade as essential to U.S. prosperity and to world economic and political stability, President Clinton championed the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). This legislation would bring Mexico into the free-trade zone that the United States and Canada already had formed. Supporters said NAFTA would strengthen all three economies and create more American jobs. Opponents insisted that NAFTA would transfer American jobs to Mexico, where wages were lower, and harm the environment because of Mexico's weaker antipollution laws. Congress rejected these arguments, and the treaty was ratified by all three countries' legislatures in 1993. Once the treaty took effect, on January 1, 1994, trade with Mexico increased.

Critics of free trade and the global economy remained vocal, however. In late 1999, the World Trade Organization (WTO), an organization that promotes trade and economic development, met in Seattle. Demonstrators protested that the WTO made decisions with little public input and that these decisions harmed poorer countries, the environment, and American manufacturing workers.

Subsequent anti-globalization protests have been held worldwide. Demonstrations at Summit of the Americas meetings in Quebec City, Canada, in 2001, Miami in 2003, and Mar del Plata, Argentina, in 2005 ended violently. Such protests helped to halt plans to launch the Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA)—an enlarged version of NAFTA covering the 34 countries in the Western Hemisphere.

# **Partisan Politics and Impeachment**

While Clinton and Congress worked together on deficit reduction and NAFTA, relations in Washington became increasingly partisan. In the midst of political wrangling, a scandal rocked the White House, and Bill Clinton became the second president in U.S. history to be impeached.

REPUBLICANS TAKE CONTROL OF CONGRESS In mid-1994, after the failure of President Clinton's health care plan and recurring questions regarding his leadership, Republican congressman Newt Gingrich began to turn voters' dissatisfaction with Clinton into support for Republicans. He drafted a document called the Contract with America—ten items Republicans promised to enact if they won control of Congress. They included congressional term limits, a balancedbudget amendment, tax cuts, tougher crime laws, and welfare reform.

In the November 1994 election, the Republicans handed the Democrats a humiliating defeat. Voters gave Republicans control of both houses of Congress for the first time since 1954. Chosen as the new Speaker of the House, Newt Gingrich was jubilant.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE NEWT GINGRICH

"I will never forget mounting the rostrum . . . for the first time. . . . The whole scene gave me a wonderful sense of the romance of America and the magic by which Americans share power and accept changes in government."

—To Renew America

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Causes

Why did the **United States** send troops to Yugoslavia and Kosovo?

### Vocabulary

partisan: devoted to or biased in support of a party, group, or cause

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Summarizing

E) What were some of the provisions of the Contract of America?

President Clinton and the Republican-controlled Congress clashed. Clinton opposed Republican budgets that slowed spending on entitlements such as Social Security and Medicaid. Clinton and Congress refused to compromise, and no budget was passed. As a result, the federal government shut down for almost a week in November 1995, and again for several weeks in the next two months. The President and Congress did eventually work together to pass welfare reform.

**THE 1996 REELECTION** The budget standoff helped Clinton, as did the strong economy and passage of the welfare reform law of 1996, which suggested an improved working relationship with Congress. As a result, voters reelected Clinton in November 1996. With 49 percent of the popular vote, he outpolled the Republican nominee, U.S. Senator Bob Dole, and the Reform Party candidate, H. Ross Perot. Still, the Republicans maintained control of the House and Senate. Both President Clinton and Republican leaders pledged to work more cooperatively. Soon however, the president faced his most severe problems yet.

These Americans protested the impeachment. Many Democrats claimed that prosecuting President Clinton was "pure partisanship."

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Causes

What factors contributed most to Clinton's reelection?

**CLINTON IMPEACHED** President Clinton was accused of improperly using money from a land deal with the Whitewater Development Company to fund his 1984 gubernatorial reelection campaign. In addition, Clinton allegedly had lied under oath about having an improper relationship with a young White House intern. In 1998, Clinton admitted that he had had an improper relationship with the young woman, but he denied lying about the incident under oath or attempting to obstruct the investigation.

In December 1998, the House of Representatives approved two articles of impeachment, charging the president with perjury and obstruction of justice. Clinton became only the second president—and the first in 130 years—to face a trial in the Senate. At the trial a month later, the Senate fell short of the 67 votes—a two-thirds majority—required to convict him. Clinton remained in office and apologized for his actions.



# The Race for the White House

In the 2000 presidential race, the Democrats chose Vice President **Al Gore** to succeed Bill Clinton. The Republicans nominated **George W. Bush**, governor of Texas and the son of the former president. Ralph Nader, a long-time consumer advocate, ran for the Green Party, which championed environmental causes and promoted an overall liberal agenda. On the eve of the election, polls showed that the race would be tight. In fact, the election proved one of the closest in U.S. history. Determining a winner would take over a month.

**ELECTION NIGHT CONFUSION** As election night unfolded, Al Gore appeared to take the lead. The television networks projected that he would win Florida, Pennsylvania, and Michigan—states rich in electoral votes that would ultimately decide the winner of the race. Then, in a stunning turn of events, the TV networks recanted their original projection about Gore's victory in Florida and proclaimed the state "too close to call."

## hmhsocialstudies.com **INTERACTIVE** Explore the

election of

2000.

As midnight passed, it became clear that whoever won Florida would gain the 270 electoral votes needed to win the election. About 2 A.M., the networks predicted Bush the winner of Florida—and thus the presidency. However, as the final votes in Florida rolled in, Bush's lead shrank considerably and the state again became too close to call. By the next day, Al Gore had won the popular vote by more than 500,000 votes out of 105 million cast across the nation. Meanwhile, George Bush's razor-thin victory in Florida triggered an automatic recount.

**DISPUTE RAGES IN FLORIDA** In the weeks following the election, lawyers and spokespersons went to Florida to try to secure victory. The recount of the state's ballots gave Bush a win by just over 500 votes—but the battle for the presidency did

not end there. The Gore campaign requested manual recounts in four mostly Democratic counties. Bush representatives opposed the manual recounts. James A. Baker III, former secretary of state and leader of the Bush team in Florida, argued that such recounts would raise the possibility of political mischief.

THE BATTLE MOVES TO THE COURTS AS the manual recounting began on November 12, the Republicans sued to stop the recounts; a month-long court fight followed. The battle ultimately reached the Supreme

Court. On December 12, the court voted 5 to 4 to stop the recounts, thus awarding the Florida electoral votes and the presidency to Bush. The justices argued that

More than a month after the votes were cast, Al Gore concedes the 2000 presidential election.

manual recounts lacked uniform standards and, therefore, violated equal protection for voters. **G** 

# The Bush Administration

After the protests and legal actions subsided, George W. Bush was inaugurated as the 43rd president of the United States on January 20, 2001. Bush inherited several challenges, including a weakening national economy and an energy problem in California.

During his first months as president, Bush began to advance his political agenda. He declared plans to reform the federal role in education and to privatize Social Security. Bush also proposed a \$1.35 trillion tax cut, which became law in June 2001.

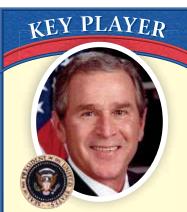
**ANTITERRORIST MEASURES** The political landscape changed dramatically after the September 11 terrorist attacks. The Bush administration, now with the overwhelming support of Congress and the American people, shifted its energy and attention to combating terrorism.

In October 2001, Bush signed an antiterrorism bill into law. The law allowed the government to detain foreigners suspected of terrorism for seven days without charging them with a crime. By the following month, Bush had created the Department of Homeland Security, a government body set up to coordinate national efforts to combat terrorism. In addition, the federal government increased its involvement in aviation security.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Analyzing Issues

G How did the election of 2000 highlight both the weaknesses and the strengths of America's election process?



**GEORGE W. BUSH,** 1946-

George W. Bush was born into a family steeped in politics. His father, George H. W. Bush, was the 41st president of the United States (1989–1993). However, George W. Bush did not immediately follow in his father's political footsteps. In 1975, he started an oil company in Midland, Texas. For a time, he also was part owner of the Texas Rangers baseball team.

Eventually, Bush was elected governor of Texas in 1994. Six years later, he became the 43rd president of the United States. He won reelection in 2004.

Evaluating
Leadership
H How do you
think the American
people responded
to Bush's
antiterrorist

measures?

The Bush Administration also began waging a war against terrorism. In October 2001, coalition forces led by the United States began bombing Afghanistan. The Afghan government was harboring Osama bin Laden and his al-Qaeda terrorist network believed responsible for the September 11 attacks. In 2002, the coalition successfully broke up the al-Qaeda network in Afghanistan. Osama bin Laden, however, remained at large. (See the first issue in "Issues for the 21st Century," on page 894.) Nonetheless, the Bush administration gained widespread public approval for the decisive steps taken.

Bush also scored a major success when direct elections were held for the first time in Afghanistan in October 2004. The Afghan people elected interim president Hamid Karzai as their first democratically elected president. Although Afghanistan still faced many problems, the elections were considered a positive move toward resolving them.

**WAR AGAINST IRAQ** In 2003, Bush expanded the war on terrorism to Iraq. Following the Persian Gulf War, Iraq had agreed to UN demands to stop the production of biological,

chemical, and nuclear weapons. However, throughout the 1990s, the leader of Iraq, Saddam Hussein, cooperated only partly with UN arms inspectors and eventually barred them from entering his country.

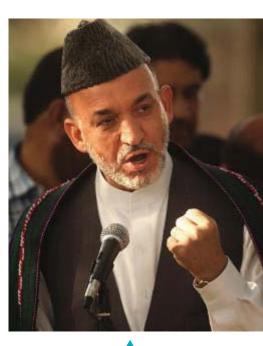
After the September 11 attacks, Bush alleged that Hussein was supporting terrorists such as al-Qaeda and might supply them with weapons of mass destruction (WMD). Bush called for renewed arms inspections in Iraq. The inspectors determined that Iraq had not resumed its WMD programs; but Hussein had again not cooperated fully with the inspection process. The United States and Great Britain then ended diplomacy with Iraq and invaded in March 2003. Within a month, Iraq's forces were defeated. U.S. forces then began an intensive search for WMD in Iraq. No traces of nuclear, chemical, or biological weaponry were found. U.S. forces captured the former dictator in December 2003, and Hussein was later tried and executed by the Iraqi government.

**DOMESTIC AGENDA** Meanwhile, on the home front, President Bush concentrated on education and the economy. He signed into law an education reform plan entitled No Child Left Behind. This plan called for more accountability by states for students' success, mandatory achievement testing, and more school options available for parents.

The economy posed a greater challenge, as corporate scandals, such as those related to such highly successful companies as Enron and WorldCom, rocked the nation. Congress responded to these corporate scandals by passing the Sarbanes-Oxley Act. This act established a regulatory board to oversee the accounting industry and its involvement with corporations. The scandals caused many investors to lose faith in corporations, which had a negative impact on the U.S. economy.

In 2003, Congress passed and Bush signed into law a \$350 billion tax cut, which Bush claimed would help the sagging economy and create jobs. Democrats in Congress opposed the tax cut, saying it would mostly benefit the rich. The Democrats were overruled, however, because the Republican Party had regained control of the Senate in the 2002 midterm elections.

**BUSH REELECTED IN 2004** Although the Bush administration received much initial support for the war on terrorism that it began waging after the September 11 attacks, many Americans came to question the decision to invade Iraq. They were dismayed by the failure to find weapons of mass destruction there. In 2004, President Bush was reelected, despite deep divisions among the American people.



Hamid Karzai is victorious in Afghanistan's first direct presidential election.

During Bush's second term, discontent about the war grew. At the same time, controversies arose over warrantless spying on American citizens and allegations that the administration allowed torture of terrorist suspects. The Bush administration was also criticized over its response to Hurricane Katrina. In the 2006 mid-term elections, Democrats regained control of both the House and the Senate.

The 2008 Presidential

The continuing war in Iraq and a

deteriorating economy contributed to

President Bush's unpopularity. The

collapse of the financial markets in the fall of 2008 did little to improve

the situation. More than two-thirds

of Americans disapproved of his handling of the presidency. As a result, in

**Election** 



VIDEO Election 2008

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Barack Obama, his wife, Michelle, and daughters, Sasha and Malia, celebrate his victory at Grant Park in Chicago on November 4, 2008.

the 2008 presidential election, Americans voted for a change in direction by electing Democrat **Barack Obama**, U.S. senator from Illinois. In defeating Republican Senator John McCain of Arizona, Obama made history as the first African American to be elected president of the United States.

On taking office, Obama pushed through an economic stimulus package to combat the recession brought on by the crash of the financial markets. He also drew up plans to end combat operations in Iraq and in Afghanistan. In addition, he fulfilled a campaign promise by passing a sweeping health care reform bill.



#### ASSESSMENT

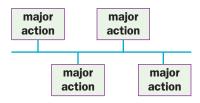
- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - •William Jefferson Clinton
  - •H. Ross Perot
  - Hillary Rodham Clinton
- North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)
- Agreement (MAI)
- Newt Gingrich
- Contract with America
- Al Gore
- George W. Bush

Barack Obama

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Create a time line of President Clinton's major actions during his two terms. Use a form such as the one below.



Explain whether each action was a success or a failure for Clinton.

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. EVALUATING

What event or trend during the Clinton administration do you think will have the most lasting impact on the United States? Why?

#### **4. ANALYZING MOTIVES**

Why did the Gore campaign support manual recounts in Florida and the Bush campaign oppose them?

#### **5. EVALUATING DECISIONS**

Do you think President Bush's decision to invade Iraq was justified? Explain why or why not.

#### Think About:

- · arms inspections in Iraq
- fear created by the September 11 attacks
- the search for WMD



# The New Global **Economy**

#### MAIN IDEA

Because of technological advances and new trade laws, the U.S. economy underwent a boom during the late 20th century.

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

New types of business have meant new work environments and new challenges for American workers.

#### Terms & Names

- service sector
- downsize
- Bill Gates
- NASDAQ dotcom
- General Agreement on **Tariffs and Trade** (GATT)

## **One American's Story**



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the major changes in the U.S. economy during the 1990s and early 2000s.

As Bill Clinton took office in 1993. some regions of the nation, particularly the Northeast, were still in an economic recession. Near Kennebunkport, Maine, the John Roberts clothing factory faced bankruptcy. With help from their union, the factory workers were able to turn their factory into an employee-owned company.

Ethel Beaudoin, who worked for the company for more than 30

years, was relieved that the plant would not be closing.



Workers at the John Roberts clothing factory

#### A PERSONAL VOICE ETHEL BEAUDOIN

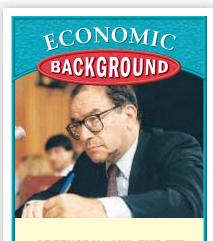
"It's a nice feeling to be part of the process . . . of deciding what this company buys for machinery and to know the customers more intimately. They're our customers, and it's a nicer feeling when the customers know that the coat that we put out is made by owners."

—quoted in Divided We Fall

Beaudoin's experience offered one example of the economic possibilities in America. A new global economy—brought about by new technologies, increased international competition, and the end of the Cold War-changed the nation's economic prospects.

# **The Shifting Economy**

Americans heard a great deal of good news about the economy. Millions of new jobs were created between 1993 and 1999. By the fall of 2000, the unemployment rate had fallen to the lowest it had been since 1970.



#### **GREENSPAN AND THE FED**

Alan Greenspan was chairman of the Federal Reserve System (the Fed) from 1987, when he was appointed by President Ronald Reagan, until he retired in 2006. The Fed has been described as the economic pacemaker of the United States because it helps determine how much money there will be in the American economy.

Before being elected president in 2000, George W. Bush made it a point to meet with Alan Greenspan before meeting with any other government officials in Washington.

But there was alarming news as well. Wage inequality between upper- and lower-income Americans—the income gap—widened. Median household income began to drop. Although economists disagreed about the reasons for the economy's instability, most everyone agreed it was undergoing significant changes.

MORE SERVICE, LESS SECURITY Chief among the farreaching changes in the workplace of the 1990s was the explosive growth of jobs in the service sector, the part of the economy that provides services to consumers. By 2008, nearly 80 percent of American workers were teachers, medical professionals, lawyers, engineers, store clerks, waitstaff, and other service workers.

Low-paying jobs, such as sales and fast-food, grew fastest. These positions, often part-time or temporary, offered limited benefits. Many corporations, rather than invest in salaries and benefits for full-time staff, instead hired temporary workers, or temps, and began to **down**size—trim payrolls to streamline operations and increase profits. Manpower, Inc., a temporary services agency, became the largest U.S. employer, earning \$2 billion in 1993 when fully 640,000 Americans cashed its paychecks. In 2008, about one-fifth of the nation's labor force worked in temporary or part-time positions. A

Of those cut in downsizing, younger workers suffered higher rates of unemployment. In 2008, about 14 percent of workers aged 16 to 24 were unemployed—more than double the national rate. And many young Americans are living at home longer and are less financially secure than American youth in the past.

FARMS AND FACTORIES The nation's shift to a service economy came at the expense of America's traditional

workplaces. Manufacturing, which surpassed farming mid-century as the largest job sector, experienced a sharp decline in the 1980s and 1990s. In 1992, for example, 140,000 steelworkers did the same work that 240,000 had accomplished ten years earlier. Larry Pugh talked about the downsizing of a farm equipment factory in his hometown of Waterloo, Iowa.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE LARRY PUGH

"There used to be 17,500 people working here. . . . Now there are 6000. Those people spent their money. They bought the cars. They bought the houses. They were replaced by people that are at the minimum wage—seven or eight dollars an hour, not 15 or 20 dollars an hour. These people can hardly eke out a living."

-quoted in Divided We Fall

The decline in industrial jobs contributed to a drop in union membership. In 1945, 35 percent of American workers belonged to unions; by 2008, only 12 percent were union members. In the 1990s and early 2000s, unions had trouble organizing. High-tech and professional workers felt no need for unions, while lowwage service employees feared losing their jobs in a strike. Some workers saw their incomes decline. The increased use of computer-driven robots to make manufactured goods eliminated many jobs, but it also spurred a vibrant high-tech economy. Those with advanced training and specialized technical skills or a sense of entrepreneurial risk-taking saw their salaries rise and their economic security expand. B

MAIN IDEA

#### **Summarizing**

A How did the change from an industrial economy to a service economy affect Americans' economic security?

MAIN IDEA Analyzing **Effects** 

B How did downsizing affect people?

Persons Employed in Three Economic Sectors*				
Year	Farming	Manufacturing	Service Producing	
1900	11,050	7,252	6,832	
1950	6,001	18,475	20,721	
2008	2,168	13,431	115,646	

<sup>\*</sup>numbers in thousands

Sources: Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970; Statistical Abstracts of the United States, 1953, 1954, 2010 (online)

#### **SKILLBUILDER** Interpreting Charts

- 1. What sector of the U.S. economy has seen the greatest decline in workers over the past century?
- 2. In terms of employee participation, by roughly how many times did the service sector grow between 1950 and 2008?

HIGH-TECH INDUSTRIES In the late 1990s, entrepreneurs turned innovative ideas about computer technology into huge personal fortunes, hoping to follow in the footsteps of **Bill Gates**, the decade's most celebrated entrepreneur. Gates founded the software company Microsoft. By 2008, it had made him the second wealthiest individual in the world, with assets estimated at about \$53 billion.

A rapid outcropping of new businesses accompanied the explosive growth of the Internet late in the decade. The NASDAQ (National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotation System), a technology-dominated stock index on Wall Street, rose dramatically as enthusiasm grew for high-tech businesses. These businesses were known as **dotcoms**, a nickname derived from their identities, or addresses, on the World Wide Web, which often ended in ".com." The dotcoms expanded rapidly and attracted young talent and at times excessive investment funding for such untested fledgling companies.

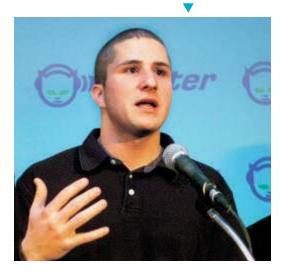
Thousands of smaller businesses were quick to anticipate the changes that the Internet would bring. Suddenly companies could work directly with consumers or with other companies. Many predicted that the price of doing business would fall markedly and that overall worldwide productivity would jump dramatically. The boom of new business was termed "The New Economy."

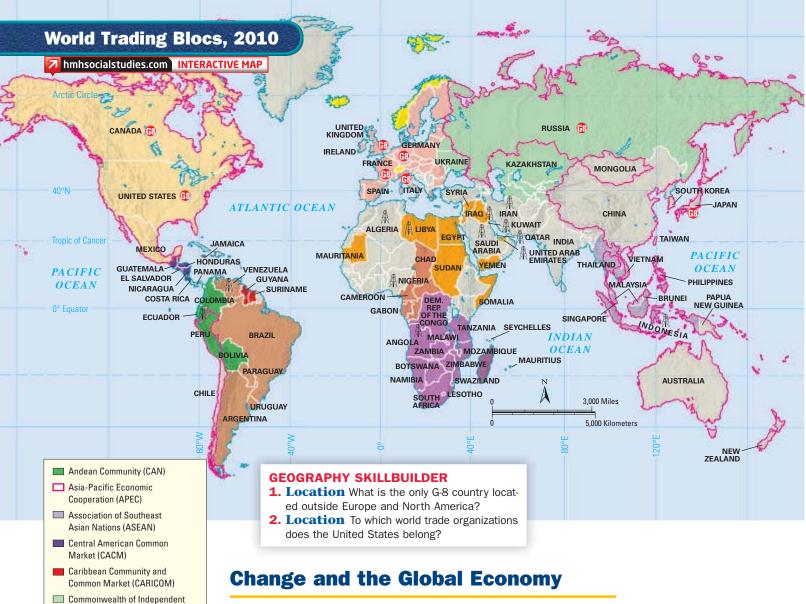
However, the positive economic outlook fueled by "The New Economy" was short lived. In 2000, only 38 percent of online retailing made a profit. As a result, many dotcoms went out of business. This decline had many causes.

Entrepreneurs often provided inadequate advertising for their e-companies. Also, many dotcoms had hard-to-use Web sites that confused customers. The unsuccessful dotcoms caused many investors to stop putting money in Internet businesses.

In 2002, the U.S. economy was also hard hit by corporate scandals, when Enron was charged with using illegal accounting practices and WorldCom filed what was then the largest bankruptcy claim in U.S. history. Investors began to lose faith in corporations. In addition, the continued threat of terrorism had a negative effect on the economy. All of these factors caused the NASDAQ to decline. After the NYSE and NASDAQ rose again to record highs in 2007, they both were rocked by the global financial crisis of 2008 and 2009.

At 18 years old, **Shawn Fanning** started a free music downloading service on the Internet called Napster. He became a multimillionaire after forming an alliance with a German media company.





In 1900, airplanes hadn't yet flown and telephone service was barely 20 years old. U.S. trade with the rest of the world was worth about \$2.2 billion (roughly 12 percent of the economy). Over a century later, New Yorkers could hop a jet and arrive in London in a few hours, information traveled instantly by computer, and U.S. trade with other countries exceeded \$4 trillion (about 30 percent of the economy). As American companies competed for international and domestic markets, American workers felt the sting of competing with workers in other countries.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE The expansion of U.S. trade abroad was an important goal of President Clinton's foreign policy, as his support of NAFTA had shown. In 1994, in response to increasing international economic competition among trading blocs, the United States joined many other nations in adopting a new version of the **General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)**. The new treaty lowered trade barriers, such as tariffs, and established the World Trade Organization (WTO) to resolve trade disputes. As

President Clinton announced at the 1994 meeting of the Group of Seven, (the world's seven leading economic powers, which later became the Group of Eight when Russia joined in 1996), "[T]rade as much as troops will increasingly define the ties that bind nations in the twenty-first century."

States (CIS)

European Union (EU)

Group of Eight (G8)

(CEMAC)

(CAEU)

Council of Arab Economic Unity

European Free Trade Association

**Economic and Monetary** 

North American Free Trade

Southern Common Market

Community (SADC)

Southern African Development

(MERCOSUR)

Agreement (NAFTA)

Community of Central Africa

Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)

#### **Background**

"Job flight" had occurred in the 1970s, when cheap but quality auto imports from Japan and Germany forced many U.S. workers out of high-paying jobs.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Effects**

C) What were some of the effects of NAFTA and GATT?

#### **INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION** Inter-

national trade agreements caused some American workers to worry about massive job flight to countries that produced the same goods as the United States but at a lower cost.

In the 1990s, U.S. businesses frequently moved their operations to less economically advanced countries, such as Mexico, where wages were lower. After the passage of NAFTA, more than 100,000 low-wage jobs were lost in U.S. manufacturing industries such as apparel, auto parts, and electronics. Also, competition with foreign companies helped U.S. companies to maintain low wages and decrease benefits. C



**INTERNATIONAL SLOWDOWN** Around the turn of the 21st century, the global economy began to slow down. Between 1997 and 2002, the gross domestic product in Japan declined by 6 percent. In 2001, the economies of more than a dozen countries were in recession, and many other countries reported lower growth rates than they had the previous year.

The flow of foreign direct investment (FDI) to developing countries declined dramatically. As a result, the economies of these countries were particularly hard hit. For example, the overall growth of Africa's economies slowed to 2.7 percent

The U.S. economy also suffered. As it happened, both the U.S. and world economies began to reverse the downward trend by 2004. But in 2008, a global financial crisis, brought on by the collapse of several major banking firms, left growth in the world's economies sluggish at best.

A Lehman **Brothers worker** is surrounded by photographers on the day that the investment bank declared bankruptcy.

#### ASSESSMENT

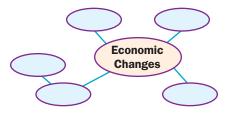
- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - service sector downsize
- Bill Gates NASDAQ

 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

In a cluster diagram like the one below, record the major changes that occurred in the U.S. economy during the 1990s.



Which change has affected you the most? Explain.

## **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. ANALYZING EFFECTS

Explain who was negatively affected by the changes in the economy and what negative effects they suffered. **Think About:** 

dotcom

- who had the highest unemployment rates
- what types of jobs were eliminated
- what other negative effects there were

#### 4. ANALYZING ISSUES

How do you explain some Americans' fears over the international trade agreements?

#### 5. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

Considering the economic changes described in this section, how do you think workers can best prepare themselves for the future?



# Women Writers Reflect American Diversity

1978–2000 The broadening of opportunities for American women that began in the 1970s is as evident in literature as it is in other fields. Toni Morrison, Mary Oliver, Nikki Giovanni, Amy Tan, Anne Tyler, Alice Walker, Marge Piercy, Sandra Cisneros—these are just a few of the talented women novelists and poets who reflect the multicultural nature of the American identity. These women's writing shares a common characteristic—that of conveying the American experience through the exploration of personal memories, nature, childhood, and family.



#### **◀NIKKI GIOVANNI**

In the late 1960s, Nikki Giovanni won instant attention as an African American poet writing about the Black Power movement. Since then her poetry has often focused on childhood, family ties, and other personal concerns. In the following poem, Giovanni deals with individual empowerment—even under less than ideal circumstances.

#### Choices

if i can't do what i want to do then my job is to not do what i don't want to do

it's not the same thing but it's the best i can do

if i can't have what i want then my job is to want what i've got and be satisfied that at least there is something more to want since i can't go
where i need
to go then i must go
where the signs point
though always understanding
parallel movement
isn't lateral

when i can't express
what i really feel
i practice feeling
what i can express
and none of it is equal
i know
but that's why mankind
alone among the mammals
learns to cry

—Nikki Giovanni, "Choices," from *Cotton Candy on a Rainy Day* (1978)

#### **AMY TAN**

A native of Oakland, California, Amy Tan draws on personal experiences in The Joy Luck Club, a series of interconnected stories about four Chinese-American daughters and their immigrant mothers. The four mothers establish a club for socializing and playing the game of mahjong.

My mother started the San Francisco version of the Joy Luck Club in 1949, two years before I was born. This was the year my mother and father left China with one stiff leather trunk filled only with fancy silk dresses. There was no time to pack anything else, my mother had explained to my father after they boarded the boat. Still his hands swam frantically between the slippery silks, looking for his cotton shirts and wool pants.

When they arrived in San Francisco, my father made her hide those shiny clothes. She wore the same brown-checked Chinese dress until the Refugee Welcome Society gave her two hand-me-down dresses, all too large in sizes for American women. The society was composed of a group of white-haired American missionary ladies from the First Chinese Baptist Church. And because of their gifts, my parents could not refuse their invitation to join the church. Nor could they ignore the old ladies' practical advice to improve their English through Bible study class on Wednesday nights and, later, through choir practice on Saturday mornings. This was how my parents met the Hsus, the Jongs, and the St. Clairs. My mother could sense that the women of these families also had unspeakable tragedies they had left behind in China and hopes they couldn't begin to express in their fragile English. Or at least, my mother recognized the numbness in these women's faces. And she saw how quickly their eyes moved when she told them her idea for the Joy Luck Club.

—Amy Tan, The Joy Luck Club (1989)

#### SANDRA CISNEROS >

Sandra Cisneros is one of many Chicana writers to win fame in recent years. In The House on Mango Street, she traces the experiences of a poor Hispanic girl named Esperanza (Spanish for hope) and her warm-hearted family. Nenny is her sister.

#### **Four Skinny Trees**

They are the only ones who understand me. I am the only one who understands them. Four skinny trees with skinny necks and pointy elbows like mine. Four who do not belong here but are here. Four raggedy excuses planted by the city. From our room we can hear them, but Nenny just sleeps and doesn't appreciate these things.

Their strength is secret. They send ferocious roots beneath the ground. They grow up and they grow down and grab the earth between their hairy toes and bite the sky with violent teeth and never quit their anger. This is how

they keep.

Let one forget his reason for being, they'd all droop like tulips in a glass, each with their arms around the other. Keep, keep, trees say when I sleep. They teach.

When I am too sad and too skinny to keep keeping, when I am a tiny thing against so many bricks, then it is I look at trees. When there is nothing left to look at on this street. Four who grew despite concrete. Four who reach and do not forget to reach. Four whose only reason is to be and be.

> -Sandra Cisneros The House on Mango Street (1989)

#### THINKING CRITICALLY

**1. Comparing** From these selections, what can you infer about women's experiences in American life today? Cite passages to support your response.



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R8.

2. hmhsocialstudies.com INTERNET ACTIVITY



Visit the links for American Literature to find and choose selections for an anthology of writing by three contemporary American women. Write a "capsule biography" summarizing each writer's background and achievements.



# Technology and Modern Life

#### MAIN IDEA

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Advances in technology have increased not only the pace but also the comfort of many Americans' daily lives.

Providing access to the new technology and regulating its use are two current challenges facing 21st-century America.

#### Terms & Names

- information superhighway
- Internet telecommute
- Telecommunications Act Of 1996
- genetic engineering

## **One American's Story**

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on technological changes discussed in this section.

The crowds stand four-deep cheering for 12-year-old Rudy Garcia-Tolson as he captures a new national record for his age group at the San Diego half-marathon. Despite the loss of his legs, Rudy competes in sports and won a gold medal in swimming at the 2004 paralympics.

For years, Rudy was confined to a wheelchair. After undergoing a double amputation he was fitted with carbon fiber prostheses—artificial replacements for missing body parts. These lightweight, strong, and durable new legs now make many things possible for Rudy.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE RUDY GARCIA-TOLSON

"I told them to cut my legs off. I saw pictures of people running with prosthetic legs. I didn't want to stay in a wheelchair. . . . My legs won't stop me. Nothing stops me. . . . I like to show kids that there's no limitations kids or challenged people or adults, there's no limitations to what a person can do. . . . My motto is, if you have a brave heart, that's a powerful weapon.

-quoted in Press-Enterprise, January 1, 2000



Rudy Garcia-Tolson,

Advances in medical technology have permitted Rudy to live a more fully active life. Throughout the 20th century and into the 21st, technological developments helped Americans become more active in many ways.

# **The Communications Revolution**

The computer industry transformed the 1980s. Instead of giant mainframes and minicomputers, desktop workstations now ruled business. Home computers became widely available, and many thousands of people joined online subscription services that provided electronic mail and magazine-style information.

## Analyzing

# **Political Cartoons**

#### **"VACATION, 2000"**

By the end of the 20th century, millions of Americans owned any number of personal communication devices. People were able to speak to or correspond with each other instantaneously almost anytime, almost anywhere. The cartoon suggests that Americans are dependent on their communication devices, and that the once relaxing and peaceful family vacation has given way to the hustle and bustle of constant access.

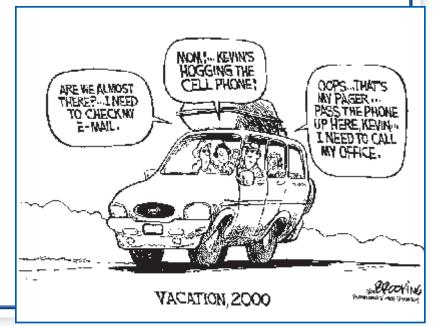
#### **SKILLBUILDER**

#### **Analyzing Political Cartoons**

- 1. What modern-day communication devices are being used in this cartoon?
- 2. In what ways do the characters in this cartoon seem trapped by modern-day communications technology?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R24.



ENTERING THE INFORMATION AGE The information superhighway—a network of communication devices linking people and institutions across the nation and the world—promised to advance the revolution that had begun with the personal computer. In 1994, Vice President Al Gore began to oversee the government's participation in developing this superhighway. Even though private industries would build the superhighway, the government would keep access democratic, ensure affordable service for everyone, protect privacy and property rights, and develop incentives for investors.

The 1990s enjoyed explosive growth of the **Internet**, an international network linking computers and allowing almost instant transmittal of text, images, and sound. Originally developed in the late 1960s by the U.S. Department of Defense for defense research, the Internet drew early popularity at universities. By the mid-1990s Internet became a household word. Use of the network was further popularized by the World Wide Web, which provided a simple visual interface for words and pictures to be seen by an unlimited audience. As businesses, schools, and organizations began to use the Web as a primary form of communication, new forms of social interaction emerged. Users developed online communities, such as MySpace and Facebook, to "meet" and communicate with one another.

NEW TOOLS, NEW MEDIA Through an electronic connection, such as a TV cable or phone line, users accessed an array of media, from streaming video to research archives, from on-line shopping catalogs to customized news broadcasts. Users could interact with each other across the world. By 2009, nearly 228 million Americans used the Internet regularly to send e-mail, to network, to share music, or to browse or search through pages on the Web. During the 1990s, classrooms across the nation increasingly used computer networking. By 2009, 97 percent of public-school classrooms offered Internet access. Long-distance video and audio transmissions also linked American students. Some content was delivered not on networks but stored via CD-ROM (Compact Disc Read-Only Memory). CD-ROMs also carry digital code for pictures, text, and animation to be played on a computer.

#### Vocabulary interface:

the point of communication between a computer and any other entity, such as a printer or human operator The late-20th-century advances in computers and communications have had an impact on American society and business comparable to the industrial developments of the late 1800s. Americans now have more entertainment options, as cable service has multiplied the number of television channels available and greater bandwidth has made high-definition television possible. Because of cellular phones, fax machines, the Internet, wireless connectivity, and overnight shipping, people can more readily **telecommute**, or work from a location of their choice instead of going to an office every day.

**LEGISLATING TECHNOLOGY** In the 1980s, the government was slow to recognize the implications of the new communications technology. In 1994, however, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) began to auction the valuable rights to airwaves and collected over \$9 billion. Then, with the rapid growth in the communications industry, the federal government took several steps to ensure that consumers received the best service. Congress passed the **Telecommunications Act of 1996,** removing barriers that had previously prevented one type of communications company from starting up or buying another related one. While it increased competition in the industry, the law also paved the way for major media mergers. When Capital Cities/ABC Inc. joined the Walt Disney Company, industry watchdogs noted that this reflected the trend toward concentrating media influence in the hands of a few powerful conglomerates.

The passage of the Telecommunications Act won applause from the communications industry but only mixed reviews from the public. Consumer activists worried that the law would fail to ensure equal access to new technologies for rural residents and poor people. Civil rights advocates contended that the Communications Decency Act (part of the Telecommunications Act) restricted free speech because it barred the transmission of "indecent" materials to minors via the Internet. Since the early 2000s, the issue of network neutrality has created considerable controversy. Supporters of network neutrality want regulations established that would prevent service providers or the government from restricting access to, or content delivered on, the Internet. **B** 

#### MAIN IDEA

#### Summarizing

A Explain the revolutionary nature of communicating via the Internet.

#### MAIN IDEA

# **Analyzing Effects**

**B** How might the Telecommunications Act affect consumers?

# **Scientific Advances Enrich Lives**



At NASA Langley Research Center in Virginia, an aerospace engineer wearing stereo glasses sees a 3-D view of a space station simulation, as shown in the background.

The exciting growth in the telecommunications industry in the 1990s and early 2000s was matched by developments that revolutionized robotics, space exploration, and medicine. The world witnessed marvels that for many of the baby boom generation echoed science fiction.

**SIMULATION**, **ROBOTICS**, **AND MACHINE INTELLIGENCE** Visual imaging and artificial intelligence (a computer's ability to perform activities that require intelligence) were combined to provide applications in industry, medicine, and education. For example, virtual reality began with the flight simulators used to train military and commercial pilots. Today, with a headset that holds tiny video screens and earphones, and with a data glove that translates hand movements to a computer screen, a user can navigate a "virtual land-scape." Doctors have used virtual reality to take

a computerized tour of a patient's throat and lungs to check for medical problems. Surgeons have performed long-distance surgery through telepresence systems gloves, computers, and robotic elements specially wired so that a doctor can operate on a patient hundreds of miles away. Architects and engineers have used virtual reality to create visual, rather than physical, models of their buildings, cars, and other designs. Modeling also affected the nightly newscast. Using supercomputers and improved satellite data, meteorologists could offer extended weather forecasts that reached the accuracy of one-day forecasts of 1980.

As technology became more sophisticated, computers increased in capability. IBM's Deep Blue defeated chess champion Garry Kasparov in 1997. Computational linguists steadily improved natural language understanding in computers, thus fine-tuning the accuracy of voice recognition systems.

Robots grew more humanlike as engineers equipped them with high-capacity chips simulating brain function. By the early 2000s, robots had the ability to walk on two legs, interact with people, learn taught behaviors, and express artificial feelings with facial gestures.

**SPACE EXPLORATION** In the 1990s, astronomy expanded our view of the universe. In 1997, NASA's *Pathfinder* and its rover *Sojourner* transmitted live pictures of the surface of Mars to millions of Internet users.

Shuttle missions, meanwhile, concentrated on scientific research and assembly, transport, and repair of orbiting objects, paving the way to possible human missions to Mars and other space travel in the coming century. NASA concentrated on working with other nations to build the International Space Station (ISS). The ISS promised to offer scientists a zero-gravity laboratory for research in medicine, space mechanics and architecture, and long-term living in space. Ellen Ochoa, part of the first shuttle crew to dock to the ISS, hoped to inspire young students:

#### **Background** The International

Space Station was established by joining and expanding upon the Russian station. Mir. and the American Spacelab.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE ELLEN OCHOA

"I'm not trying to make everyone an astronaut, but I want students to think about a career and the preparation they'll need. . . . I tell students that the opportunities I had were a result of having a good educational background. Education is what allows you to stand out."



—quoted in Stanford University School of Engineering Annual Report, 1997-98.

Another shuttle crew in 1993 aboard the Endeavour repaired the Hubble Space Telescope, which returns dazzling intergalactic views. In late 1995, astronomers using observatories discovered a planet orbiting the fourth closest star to Earth, the first planet to be detected outside our own solar system. Since then dozens more have been detected. Manned flights remained a part of the country's plan for space exploration. In 2010, President Obama stated, "By the mid-2030s, I believe we can send humans to orbit Mars and return them safely to Earth. And a landing on Mars will follow."

**BIOTECHNOLOGY** The most profound insight into the book of life came from the field of biotechnology. The Human Genome Project, an international effort to map the genes of the human body, and Celera, a private company in molecular biology, simultaneously announced in 2000 that they had sequenced nearly all of the human genome only a decade after the research began. Cooperation via the Internet and access to computerized databases by multiple research groups vastly accelerated the scientists' ability to identify and order over three billion chemical



Researchers work at the Beijing **Genomics Institute** at Shenzhen in southern China.

"letters" of the genetic code of DNA. Molecular biologists hoped that this genetic map would offer the key to treating many inherited diseases and diagnosing congenital disabilities, and that drug makers could one day design pharmaceuticals for each patient's particular profile.

DNA had been in the spotlight before the breakthrough announcement. In well-publicized legal proceedings, prosecutors relied on DNA evidence to help prove the guilt of defendants who may have left behind a

single hair at a crime scene. Others, wrongly imprisoned, were released when genetic analysis proved their innocence.

But different opinions arose over some of the new "biotechnology." Some speculated that technological progress outpaced social evolution and society's ability to grapple with the consequences. In 1997, Scottish researchers cloned Dolly the sheep from one cell of an adult sheep. Shortly thereafter, two Rhesus monkeys were cloned in Oregon, and many wondered whether human cloning was next. Firms sought to patent genes used for medical and research applications, using the principle of invention and property. Advances such as these, as well as gene therapy, artificial human chromosomes, and testing embryos for genetic defects all sparked heated debates among scientists, ethicists, religious leaders, and politicians.

The use of **genetic engineering**—the artificial changing of the molecular biology of organisms' cells to alter an organism—also aroused public concern. However, the Federal Department of Agriculture (FDA) holds that genetically engineered foods are safe and that they require no extra labeling. Scientists in the late 1990s modified corn and rice to provide resistance to pests and increase nutritional value. In 1996, the European Union limited the importation of such products in response to consumer pressure, allowing only those clearly labeled as having been genetically modified.

MEDICAL PROGRESS People suffering from some diseases benefited from advances in medicine in the 1990s and early 2000s. Cancer survival rates improved drastically as clinicians explored the use of gene therapy, genetically engineered antibodies, and immune system modulation. Improvements in tracking the spread of HIV—the virus that causes AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome)—through the body made researchers better prepared to find a cure. AIDS patients were treated with combination therapies, and public health officials advocated abstinence and "safer sex" practices to control the spread of HIV.

Improved technology for making medical diagnoses offered new hope as well. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), for example, was used to produce crosssectional images of any part of the body. Advances that will make the MRI procedure ten times faster will also make MRI more widely available and cheaper to use. Medical researchers look ahead to using fleets of tiny "nanosensors" onethousandth the width of a human hair to find tumors and to deploying "nanobots" to repair tissues and even genes. C

**Background** 

In 2007, about 14,100 Americans died from AIDS, roughly one-third the 1992 number.

MAIN IDEA **Summarizing C** Describe how technology affected health



**ENVIRONMENTAL MEASURES** With the spreading use of technology came greater concern about the impact of human activities on the natural environment. Scientists have continued examining ways to reduce American dependence on pollution-producing fossil fuels. Fossil fuels such as oil provided 84 percent of the energy in the United States in 2009 but also contributed to poor air quality, acid rain, and global warming. Many individuals have tried to help by reducing consumption of raw materials. The recycling of glass bottles and jars, plastic bottles, newspapers, cardboard, and aluminum cans and other materials is now commonplace. In 2007, recycling saved the energy equivalent of nearly 11 billion gallons of gasoline.



#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - information superhighway
  - Internet

- telecommute
- Telecommunications Act of 1996
- genetic engineering

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

On a chart like the one shown, list four of the technological changes described in this section and explain how each change has affected your life.

Technological Change	Effect on Me
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

#### CRITICAL THINKING

#### 3. MAKING INFERENCES

Explain how government, business, and individuals are important to the existence of the information superhighway. Think About:

- the costs of developing the superhighway
- the equipment and personnel needed to maintain it
- · who uses the superhighway and why they use it

#### 4. ANALYZING ISSUES

Why is genetic engineering a source of controversy?

#### 5. EVALUATING

Which area of technological change described in this section do you think was the most important one for the country? Explain.



# The Changing Face of America

#### MAIN IDEA

#### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

#### Terms & Names

At the end of the 20th century, the U.S. population grew more diverse both in ethnic background and in age. Americans of all backgrounds share common goals: the desire for equal rights and economic opportunity.

urban flight gentrification Proposition 187

## One American's Story



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on demographic changes in the United States.

Every ten years the United States conducts a census, or head count of its population. The results of the census determine, among other things, how billions of federal dollars are spent for housing, health care, and education over the coming decade. The Census Bureau estimates that the 1990 census undercounted Latinos by more than five percent. This undercount resulted in a loss of millions of dollars of aid to municipalities with large Latino populations, as well as denying Latinos political representation in all levels of government.

During the census conducted in 2000, Antonia Hernandez, President and General Counsel of the Mexican American Legal Defense and Education Fund (MALDEF), spearheaded the national ¡Hágase Contar! Make Yourself Count! campaign. MALDEF workers canvassed neighborhoods urging residents to complete the census. They stressed that all information was confidential and discussed the high stakes of being counted.

#### A PERSONAL VOICE ANTONIA HERNANDEZ

"The census not only measures our growth and marks our place in the community, but it is the first and indispensable step toward fair political representation, equal distribution of resources, and enforcement of our civil rights."

-Public statement for ¡Hágase Contar! campaign, 2000

Data from the 2000 census revealed that the Hispanic population had grown by close to 58 percent since 1990, reaching 35.3 million. In the next seven years, it grew by nearly 30 percent to 45.5 million.



Antonia Hernandez, MALDEF's president 1985-2003

# **Urban Flight**

One of the most significant socio-cultural changes in American history has been the movement of Americans from the cities to the suburbs. The years after World War II through the 1980s saw a widespread pattern of **urban flight**, the process in which Americans left the cities and moved to the suburbs. At mid-century, the population of cities exceeded that of suburbs. By 1970, the ratio became even.

By the early 2000s, after decades of decline, some major cities across the country had increased their populations while others slowed or halted declines. The transformation of the United States into a nation of suburbs had intensified the problems of the cities.

CAUSES OF URBAN CHANGE Several factors contributed to the movement of Americans out of the cities. Because of the continued movement of job-seeking Americans into urban areas in the 1950s and 1960s, many urban American neighborhoods became overcrowded. Overcrowding in turn contributed to such urban problems as increasing crime rates and decaying housing.

During the 1970s and early 1980s, city dwellers who could afford to do so moved to the suburbs for more space, privacy, and security. Often, families left the cities because suburbs offered newer, less crowded schools. As many middleclass Americans left cities for the suburbs, the economic base of many urban neighborhoods declined, and suburbs grew wealthy. Following the well-educated labor force, more industries relocated to suburban areas in the 1990s. The economic base that provided tax money and supported city services in large cities such as New York, Detroit, and Philadelphia continued to shrink as people and iobs moved outward.

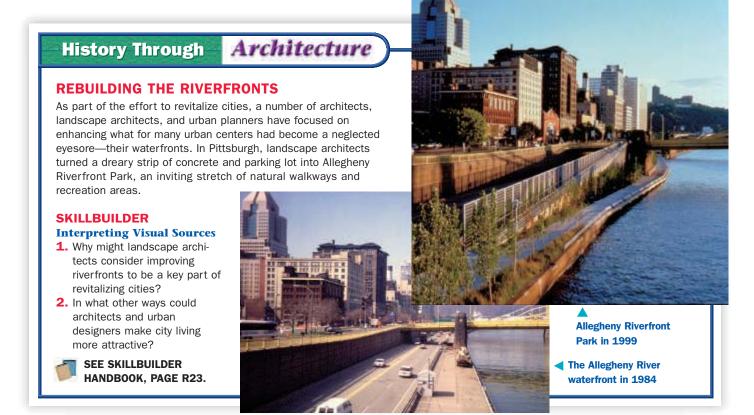
In addition, many downtown districts fell into disrepair as suburban shoppers abandoned city stores for suburban shopping malls. According to the 1990 census, the 31 most impoverished communities in the United States were in cities.

By the mid-1990s, however, as the property values in the nation's inner cities declined, many people returned to live there. In a process known as gentrification, they purchased and rehabilitated deteriorating urban property, oftentimes displacing lower income people. Old industrial sites and neighborhoods in locations convenient to downtown became popular, especially among young, single adults who preferred the excitement of city life and the uniqueness of urban neighborhoods to the often more uniform environment of the suburbs.

#### MAIN IDEA

#### **Analyzing Causes**

A List the factors that influenced middleclass residents to leave cities for suburbs.



**SUBURBAN LIVING** While many suburbanites continued to commute to city jobs during the 1990s and early 2000s, increasing numbers of workers began to telecommute, or use new communications technology, such as computers, modems, and fax machines, to work from their homes. Another notable trend was the movement of minority populations to the suburbs. Nationwide, by the early 2000s, more Latinos, Asians, and African Americans lived in the suburbs than lived in the core cities.

Suburban growth led to intense competition between suburbs and cities, and among the suburbs themselves, for business and industry. Since low-rise suburban homes yielded low tax revenues, tax-hungry suburbs offered tax incentives for companies to locate within their borders. These incentives resulted in lower tax revenues for local governments—meaning that less funds were available for schools, libraries, and police departments. Consequently, taxes were often increased to fund these community services as well as to build the additional roads and other infrastructure necessary to support the new businesses.

The shift of populations from cities to suburbs was not the only significant change in American life in the 1990s and early 2000s. The American public was also growing older, and its aging raised complex issues for policymakers.

# **The Aging of America**

The U.S. Census Bureau documents that in 2008 Americans were older than ever before, with a median age of 36.8—four years older than in 1990. Increased longevity and the aging of the baby boom generation were the primary reasons for the rising median age.

Vocabulary

infrastructure:

installations

society

needed for the functioning of a community or

the basic facilities, services, and

Behind the rising median age lie several broad trends. The country's birthrate has slowed slightly, and the number of seniors has increased as Americans live longer because of advances in medical care and living healthier lifestyles. The number of people over 85 has increased at a faster rate than any other segment of the population, to 5.7 million in the year 2008.

The graying of America has placed new demands on the country's programs that provide care for the elderly. These programs accounted for only 6 percent of the national budget in 1955. By 2010, these programs con-

sumed about one-third of the national budget.

The major programs that provide care for elderly and disabled people are Medicare and Social Security. Medicare, which pays medical expenses for senior citizens, began in 1965, when most Americans had lower life expectancies. By 2010, the costs of this program exceeded \$465 billion.

 Senior athletes compete at the first U.S. National Senior Olympics held in St. Louis, Missouri, in 2000.

#### The Graying of America, 1990-2030 Year **Number of Americans** Percent of U.S. 65 and older\* population 1990 31.081 12.4 2000 34,837 12.7 2010 13.0 \* \* 40,229 \* \* 2020 54,804 \* \* 16.1 \*\* 2030 72.092\*\* 19.3\*\*

- \*numbers in thousands
- \*\*projected totals

Source: 2010 Statistical Abstract of the United States (online)

#### **SKILLBUILDER** Interpreting Charts

- 1. Between what years is America's elderly population expected to grow the most?
- By roughly what percentage is America's elderly population expected to increase between 1990 and 2030?



Social Security, which pays benefits to retired Americans, was designed to rely on continued funding from a vast number of younger workers who would contribute taxes to support a small number of retired workers. That system worked well when younger workers far outnumbered retirees and when most workers didn't live long after retirement.

MAIN IDEA Predicting B) What are the factors that will force an eventual restructuring of Social Security?

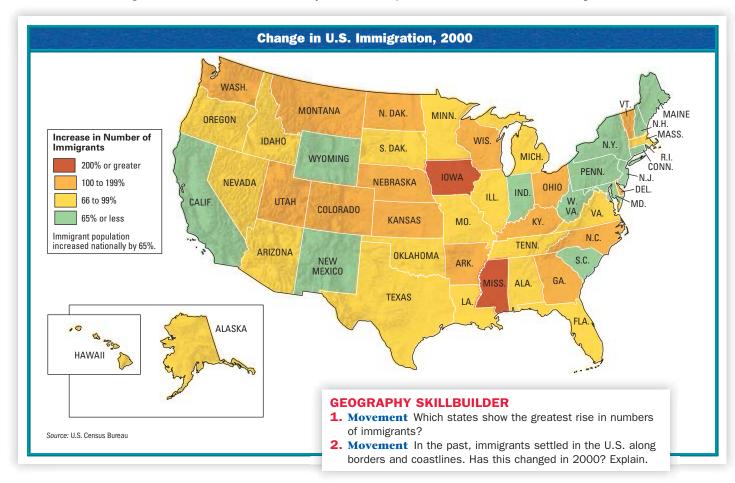
**Effects** 

In 1996, it took Social Security contributions from three workers to support every retiree. By 2030, however, with an increase in the number of elderly persons and an expected decline in the birthrate, there will be only two workers' contributions available to support each senior citizen. Few issues loomed as large in the recent presidential elections as what to do about Social Security. If the government does not restructure the system, Social Security will eventually pay out more money than it will take in. Some people suggest that the system be reformed by raising deductions for workers, taxing the benefits paid to wealthier Americans, and raising the age at which retirees can collect benefits. B

# **The Shifting Population**

In addition to becoming increasingly suburban and elderly, the population of the United States has also been transformed by immigration. Between 1970 and 2010, the country's population swelled from 204 million to more than 309 million. Immigration accounted for much of that growth. As the nation's newest residents yearned for U.S. citizenship, however, other Americans debated the effects of immigration on American life.

A CHANGING IMMIGRANT POPULATION The most recent immigrants to the United States differ from immigrants of earlier years. The large numbers of immigrants who entered the country before and just after 1900 came from Europe.





Lowe Shee Miu, of Oakland, California, stands in front of a monument commemorating Chinese immigrants at Angel Island—the Ellis Island of the West.

In contrast, more than 30 percent of immigrants since the 1960s have come from Asia and about 50 percent from the Western Hemisphere, primarily Mexico.

In Mexico, for example, during three months in 1994-1995, the Mexican peso was devalued by 73 percent. The devaluation made the Mexican economy decline. As a result, almost a million Mexicans lost their jobs. Many of the unemployed headed north in search of jobs in the United States.

This search for a better opportunity continued throughout the 1990s as thousands of legal and illegal immigrants arrived each day—the vast majority from Mexico. To help those persons seeking more opportunity in America, a temporary guest worker program for those immigrants residing illegally in the United States was proposed several times in the early 2000s. By 2010, however, this guest worker program had not been enacted into law.

Census Bureau data indicated that patterns of immigration are changing the country's ethnic and racial makeup. By 2001, for example, California had

become a "majority-minority" state, with Asian Americans, Latinos, African Americans, and Native Americans making up more than half its population. By 2009, three other states—Hawaii, New Mexico, and Texas—had also become majority-minority states. Arizona, Georgia, Maryland, Mississippi, and New York were close, with minority populations of 40 percent.

**DEBATES OVER IMMIGRATION POLICY** The presence of such a large number of immigrants has also added to the continuing debate over U.S. immigration policies. Many Americans believe that their country can't absorb more immigrants. By the early 1990s, an estimated 3.2 million illegal immigrants from Mexico, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Haiti had made their way to the United States. Many illegal immigrants also arrived from Canada, Poland, China, and Ireland. They took jobs many Americans turned down, as farm workers and domestic servants—often receiving the minimum wage or less and no benefits. By 2009, an estimated 10.8 million illegal immigrants resided in the United States.

Hostility toward illegal immigration has increased in states such as California and Arizona, two states with high percentages of immigrants. In 1994, California passed **Proposition 187**, which cut all education and nonemergency health benefits to illegal immigrants. By March 1998, Proposition 187 was ruled unconstitutional. In 2010, Arizona passed a law that enhanced state and local police authority to enforce federal immigration laws. These efforts to control immigration inspired political participation among Hispanic voters, who saw themselves as targets.

As more immigrants make their way to the U.S. and the nation's ethnic composition changes, debates about immigration will continue. Those who favor tighter restrictions argue that immigrants take desired jobs. Others, however, point to America's historical diversity and the new ideas and energy immigrants bring. C

#### **Background**

The U.S. Census has asked a race question on every census since the first survey in 1790. Since 1890, the categories and definitions have changed with nearly every census.

# MAIN IDEA

# Comparing

C How are current arguments against immigration similar to those used in the past?

**NATIVE AMERICANS CONTINUE LEGAL BATTLES** As the nation debated its immigrant policies, the ancestors of America's original inhabitants continued to struggle. The end of the 20th century found most members of this minority enduring extremely difficult lives. In 2007, about 25 percent of Native Americans lived below the poverty line, more than two times the poverty rate for white Americans. Furthermore, Native Americans endured suicide rates and alcoholism rates that were considerably higher than that of the general population.

In the face of such hardships, Native Americans strived to improve their lives. Throughout the 1990s, dozens of tribes attained greater economic independence by establishing thriving gaming resorts. Although controversial for promoting gambling, reservation gaming—\$27 billion a year industry by 2008—provided Native Americans with much-needed money for jobs, education, social services, and infrastructure. Over the past decades, Native Americans have used the courts to attain greater recognition of their tribal ancestry and land rights. In 1999, for example, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the Chippewa Indians of Minnesota retained fishing and hunting rights on some 13 million acres of land that were guaranteed to them in an 1837 treaty. Across the nation, a number of other tribes have had similar land rights affirmed.

## America in a New Millennium

As the 21st century begins, Americans face both new problems and old ones. Environmental concerns have become a global issue and have moved to center stage. Furthermore, poverty remains a problem for many Americans in the late 20th century, as does the increasing threat that terrorist acts pose to Americans at home and abroad.

It is clear that the new century America faces will bring changes, but those changes need not deepen divisions among Americans. With effort and cooperation, the change could foster growth and tolerance. The 20th century brought new ways of both destroying and enriching lives. What will the 21st bring? Much will depend on you—the dreamers, the decision makers, and the voters of the future.



#### ASSESSMENT

- 1. TERMS & NAMES For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - urban flight
- gentrification

#### Proposition 187

#### **MAIN IDEA**

#### 2. TAKING NOTES

Demography is the study of statistics about human populations. Use a table like the one below to summarize the demographic changes occurring in the United States.

Demographic Changes		
Urban distribution		
Age		
Ethnic and racial makeup		

#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

#### 3. HYPOTHESIZING

As urban problems become more common in the suburbs, how might the residents of suburbs respond? Base your answer on existing behavior patterns. Think About:

- the spread of suburbs farther and farther from the city
- the new ability to telecommute
- the tax problems that suburbs face

#### 4. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

How was the immigration that occurred in the 1990s and early 2000s similar to and different from earlier waves of immigration?

#### 5. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

How do disagreements over immigration policy reflect the benefits and challenges of a diverse population?



# Immigration and Migration

Immigrants to the United States have been part of a worldwide movement pushing people away from traditional means of support and pulling them toward better opportunities. Most immigrants have left their homelands because of economic problems, though some have fled oppressive governments or political turmoil.

War has often been the deciding factor for people to immigrate to the United States or to migrate within the country. Others have migrated to escape poverty, religious persecution, and racial violence. But the chief lure in coming to the United States or migrating within its borders continues to be the opportunity to earn a living.

# 1840s

#### **MIGRATING TO THE WEST** ►

Throughout the 19th century, Americans continued their movement westward to the Pacific Ocean. Victory in the War with Mexico in 1848 greatly increased the amount of land under American control, and thousands of Americans moved out West to take advantage of it.

Two important consequences emerged from this movement. First, following the discovery of gold in California, hundreds of thousands of people from around the world rushed in to strike it rich. Within a year, there were enough residents in California to qualify it for statehood. Second, Americans disagreed over whether the new lands should be open to slavery. That disagreement fueled the fires that led to the Civil War.





# 1910-1920

#### ■ ADAPTING TO AMERICAN WAYS

With hope and apprehension, millions of foreign immigrants poured into America's pulsing cities during the early 20th century. Bringing with them values, habits, and attire from the Old World, they faced a multitude of new experiences, expectations, and products in the New World.

Many native-born Americans feared that the new immigrants posed a threat to American culture. Instead of the immigrants being allowed to negotiate their existence by combining the old with the new, they were pressured to forget their old cultures, languages, and customs for more "American" ways.

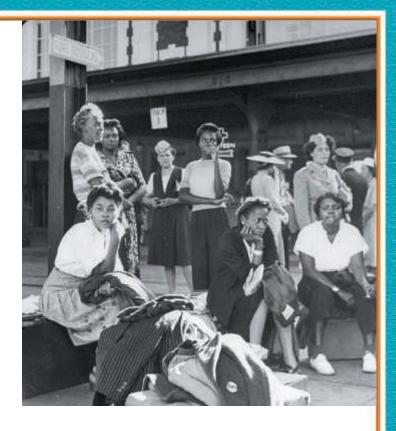


# 1940s

#### **MIGRATING FOR JOBS**

Throughout the 20th century, African Americans migrated across the United States. In the Great Migration of the early 20th century, they left their homes in the rural South. Of the millions of African Americans who left, most moved to cities, usually in the North.

The Second Migration, sparked by World War II, allowed African Americans to take industrial jobsmany formerly held by whites—to support the war effort. This migration had lasting consequences for the civil rights movement. Many African Americans who remained in the South moved to cities, where they developed organizations that helped them fight segregation.



# 1970-Present

#### **▼ IN SEARCH OF A NEW LIFE**

In 1964, 603 Vietnamese lived in the United States. A decade later, as the Vietnam War ended, hundreds of thousands of Vietnamese refugees fled their homeland for other nations, including the United States. Vietnamese immigration to America continued, and by 1998 there were nearly 1 million Vietnamese-born persons living in the United States.

The men and women who made this long and arduous journey from Vietnam are part of the changing face of U.S. immigration. Beginning in the 1970s, Asians and Latin Americans replaced Europeans as the two largest immigrant groups in the United States. Between 1970 and 1990, about 1.5 million Europeans journeyed to America's shores. During that same period, roughly 5.6 million Latin Americans and 3.5 million Asians arrived. This trend has continued. In 2008, the largest immigrant groups in the United States hailed from Mexico, the Philippines, India, and China and Hong Kong respectively. These most recent arrivals to the United States have come for largely the same reasons—greater freedom and economic opportunity and the chance to begin a new life.



#### THINKING CRITICALLY

#### **CONNECT TO HISTORY**

1. Forming Generalizations Based on what you have read about immigration, what generalizations can you make about the causes that led to a rise in the number of immigrants to the United States? How have wars affected the flow of immigration? How does this affect economic change?



SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R21.

#### **CONNECT TO TODAY**

2. Research Interview family members and people in your community to find out how immigration and migration have shaped your current surroundings. Try to record specific stories and events that compare a recent immigration with one in the more distant past.

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

#### **TERMS & NAMES**

For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- **1.** William Jefferson Clinton
- 2. NAFTA
- **3.** Contract with America
- 4. George W. Bush
- **5.** service sector
- **6.** General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)
- **7.** Telecommunications Act of 1996
- 8. genetic engineering
- 9. urban flight
- **10.** Proposition 187

#### **MAIN IDEAS**

Use your notes and the information in the chapter to answer the following questions.

## The 1990s and The New Millennium

(pages 860-868)

- 1. What happened following the investigation of President Clinton?
- 2. What factors led George W. Bush to victory in 2000?

#### The New Global Economy (pages 869–873)

- Summarize which parts of the economy grew during the 1990s and which declined.
- 4. Why was the World Trade Organization founded?

## Technology and Modern Life (pages 876-881)

- 5. What resources did the Internet make available?
- **6.** What were the positive and negative influences that technology had on American lives in the 1990s?

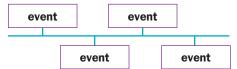
#### The Changing Face of America

(pages 882-887)

- 7. How has urban flight changed both cities and suburbs?
- 8. What challenges do experts think the United States will face in the future?

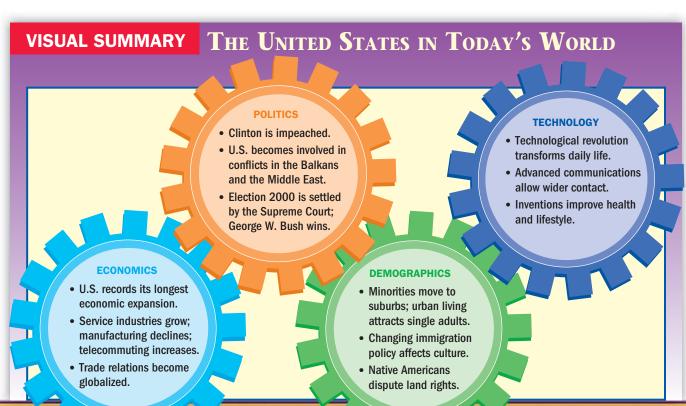
#### **CRITICAL THINKING**

 USING YOUR NOTES Create a time line of important events from the 2000 election, using a form like the one below.



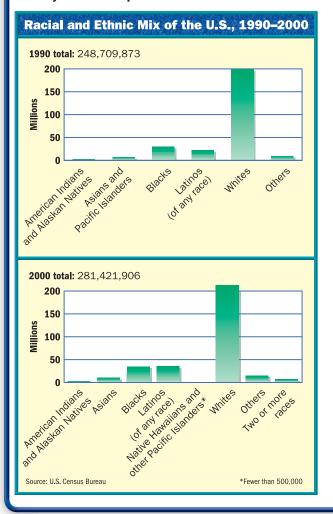
Which event do you think was the turning point? Explain.

- 2. PREDICTING EFFECTS Compile a list of technological innovations of the late 20th century described in the chapter. Then predict what kinds of technological advancements might change American life during the 21st century.
- 3. INTERPRETING MAPS Look carefully at the map on page 885. What might account for the high percentage change in numbers of immigrants in lowa and Mississippi, compared with more traditional destinations—such as California and New York?



#### STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

Use the graphs below and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer questions 1 and 2.



- 1. Which U.S. population increased the most between 1990 and 2000?
  - A Latinos
  - **B** Native Americans
  - C whites
  - D blacks
- 2. What conclusion can be drawn from the 2000 census data, compared with the data from 1990?
  - F There were more immigrants in the Midwest.
  - **G** The population of non-Latino whites declined.
  - H The 2000 census reflects a broader range of categories.
  - J Immigration has slowed in the 1990s.
- 3. Which country was not a member of the G8 in 2000?
  - A China
  - **B** Japan
  - **C** Italy
  - **D** United States

## hmhsocialstudies.com TEST PRACTICE

For additional test practice, go online for:

- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials

#### **INTERACT WITH HISTORY**

Recall the issues that you explored at the beginning of the chapter. As a "think tank" director who researches and analyzes future issues, you are asked to write a concise summary of the five most important issues facing Americans in the 21st century. Present and distribute your summary to the class.

#### **FOCUS ON WRITING**

Based on what you have read in this chapter, write a paragraph that describes how the United States will change over the next 20 years.

#### COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

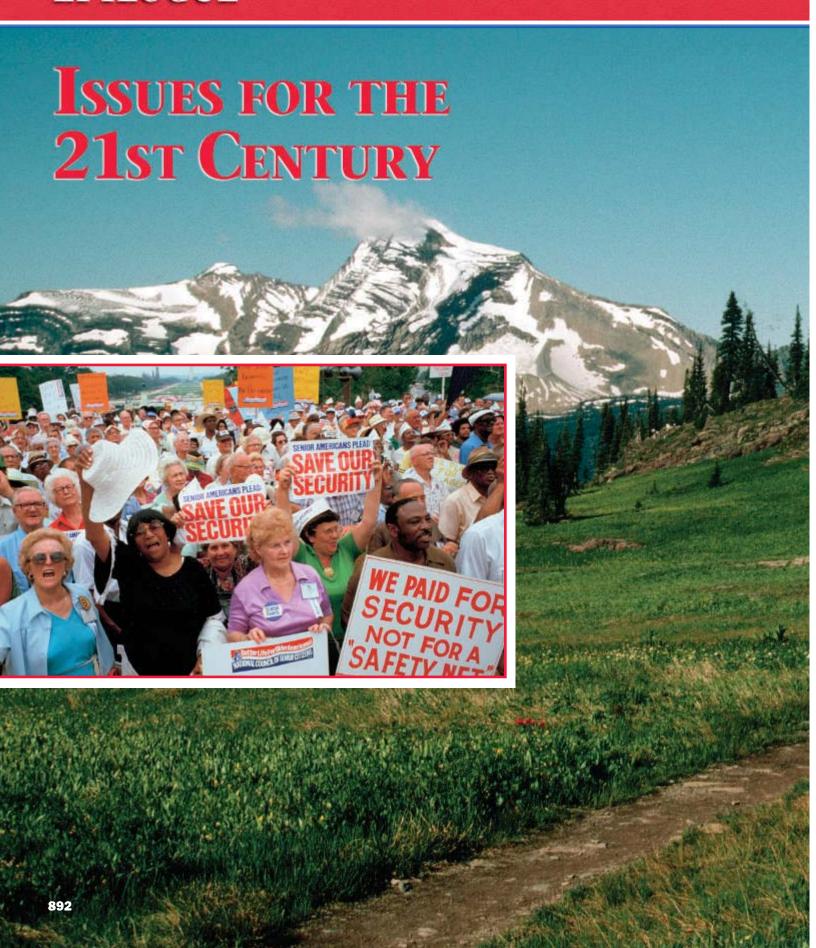


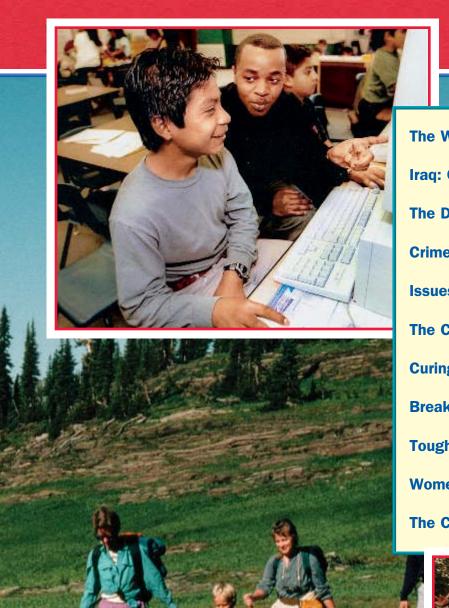
Working in a small group, use the Internet and library resources to find recent population statistics for the United States. Consider the following:

- What significant changes have taken place in the United States in recent years?
- · How has your state changed?

Present your findings in a poster.

# **EPILOGUE**





**The War on Terrorism** 894 Iraq: Confronting a Dictatorship 898 The Debate over Immigration 900 **Crime and Public Safety** 902 **Issues in Education** 904 **The Communications Revolution** 906 **Curing the Health Care System** 908 **Breaking the Cycle of Poverty** 910 **Tough Choices About Social Security** 912 **Women in the Work Force** 914 **The Conservation Controversy** 916



# The War on Terrorism

How can the United States combat terrorism?

n the morning of September 11, 2001, two airliners crashed into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City and a third smashed into a section of the Pentagon, across the river from Washington, D.C. A fourth airliner crashed in a field in the Pennsylvania countryside. Nineteen Arab terrorists had hijacked the four planes and used them as missiles in an attempt to destroy predetermined targets. The first three planes hit their intended targets. In the fourth plane, passengers fought the hijackers and the plane went down short of its target.

Explosions and raging fire severely weakened the twin towers. Within two hours after the attacks, both skyscrapers had crumbled to the ground. One wing of the Pentagon was extensively damaged. About 3,000 people were killed in the attacks—the most destructive acts of terrorism in modern history.

#### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

Terrorism is the use of violence against people or property to extort changes in societies or governments. Throughout history, individuals and groups have used terror tactics to achieve political or social goals. In recent decades, however, terrorist groups have carried out more and increasingly destructive attacks. The U.S. National Counterterrorism Center recorded over 14,000 terrorist incidents worldwide in 2006 alone.

Modern international terrorism gained world attention during the 1972 Summer Olympic Games in Munich, Germany. Members of a



The twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York burn after the September 11 attacks.

Palestinian group killed two Israeli athletes and took nine others hostage, later killing them. Palestinian terrorists also used airplane hijackings and suicide bombers.

Since then, terrorist activities have occurred across the globe. The Irish Republican Army (IRA) used terrorist tactics for decades to oppose British control of Northern Ireland. The IRA officially renounced violence in 2005. In South America, a group known as the Shining Path terrorized the residents of Peru throughout the late 20th century. The group sought to overthrow the government and establish a Communist state. In 2004, Islamic radicals killed and injured nearly

2000 people with a series of bombs exploded on the Madrid subways.

Groups belonging to the al-Qaeda terrorist organization operate in many countries. Officials have linked several major attacks against U.S. facilities in Africa to al-Qaeda, including bombings at the U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania. Jemaah Islamiah, an Islamic revolutionary group linked to al-Qaeda, has organized numerous attacks throughout Southeast Asia.

#### **TACTICS AND MOTIVES**

Most terrorists target high-profile events or crowded places such as subway stations, restaurants, or shopping malls. Terrorists choose these spots carefully to gain the most

attention and to achieve the highest level of intimidation.

Terrorists use bullets and bombs as their main weapons. In recent years, however, some terrorist groups have used biological and chemical agents in their attacks. These actions involve the release of bacteria or poisonous gas into the air. Gas was the weapon of choice for a radical Japanese religious cult, Aum Shinrikyo. In 1995, cult members released sarin, a deadly nerve gas, in subway stations in Tokyo. Twelve people were killed and more than 5,700 injured. The possibility of this type of terrorism is particularly worrying, because biochemical agents are relatively easy to acquire.

The reasons for terrorist attacks vary. Traditional motives include gaining independence, expelling foreigners, or changing society. These objectives frequently give rise to domestic terrorism-violence used by people to change the policies of their own government or to overthrow their government.

In the late 20th century, another type of terrorism began to emerge. Terrorists wanted to achieve political ends or destroy what they considered to be forces of evil. They attacked targets not just in their own country, but anywhere in the world. These terrorists were even willing to commit suicide to ensure the success of their attacks.

#### **RESCUE AND REBUILDING**

On September 11, the weapons the terrorists used were planes loaded with fuel. The planes became destructive missiles when they crashed into their targets.

Amidst the brutal destruction at the World Trade Center, the courage, selflessness, and noble actions of New York City's firefighters, police officers, and rescue workers stood as a testament. Many of the first firefighters at the scene disappeared into

# The attacks of September 11 dramatically altered the way **Americans looked** at life.

the burning buildings to help those inside and never came out again. Entire squads were lost.

Firefighters worked around the clock trying to find survivors in the wreckage. They had to contend with shifting rubble and smoky, ash-filled air. Medical workers from the area rushed to staff the city's trauma centers. But after the first wave of injured were rescued, there were few survivors to treat.

A flood of volunteers assisted rescue workers. From around the country, people sent generous donations of blood, food, and money to New York City.

After the first few days, the work at "ground zero," the World Trade Center disaster site, shifted to recovering bodies and removing the massive amount of debris. The destroyed twin towers accounted for an estimated 2 billion pounds of rubble.

Once the area was cleared, plans to rebuild the site were proposed. In February 2003, a development committee chose a design for a new building complex comprised of several buildingsincluding Freedom Tower, intended to be the tallest building in New York City-and a memorial park with reflecting pools. Construction of the new design began in 2006.

#### IMPACT OF 9/11

The attacks of September 11 dramatically altered the way Americans looked at life. For the first time, many Americans became afraid that terrorism could happen in their own country at any time.

This sense of vulnerability intensified when another wave of attacks hit the United States a few days after September 11. Letters containing anthrax spores were sent to people in the news media



A flag flies over the rubble of the World Trade Center while firefighters and rescue workers search for survivors

and to members of Congress in Washington, D.C. When inhaled, these spores could damage the lungs and cause death. Five people died after inhaling the spores in tainted letters. Two were postal workers.

Some investigators believed that the letters were sent by a lone terrorist and not by a terrorist group. No link between the letters and the September 11 attacks was ever found. The anthrax letters increased Americans' fear of terrorism.

#### THE UNITED STATES RESPONDS

After conducting a massive investigation, the U.S. government determined that Osama bin Laden, a Saudi Arabian millionaire, had directed the terrorists responsible for the September 11 attacks. The terrorists were part of the al-Qaeda network. The home base for al-Qaeda was Afghanistan, ruled by a strict Islamic regime called the Taliban. The Taliban supported the terrorist group. In return, bin Laden provided fighters to the Taliban.

The United States, led by President George W. Bush, built an international coalition, or alliance, to fight terrorism and the al-Qaeda network. Great Britain played a prominent role in this coalition. After the Taliban refused to turn over bin Laden, coalition forces led by the United States began military action in Afghanistan.

In October 2001, the United States launched Operation Enduring Freedom. The military began bombing Taliban air defenses, airfields, and command centers, as well as al-Qaeda training camps. Within two months, U.S. special forces and marines and fighters from the Northern Alliance, a coalition of anti-Taliban Afghan troops, drove

the Taliban from power. However, the fight to destroy al-Qaeda continued. Bin Laden was not captured, and his fate remained unknown. Meanwhile, the United Nations worked with the Northern Alliance and other Afghan groups to establish an interim government to replace the Taliban. Later, in 2003, Afghan leaders adopted a constitution, and in 2004, Hamid Karzai was elected president of Afghanistan. Peace, however, was elusive. Since 2005, insurgent attacks by Taliban and al-Qaeda militants have posed a continuing threat.

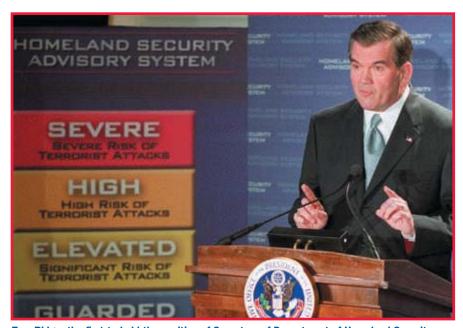
In 2002, President Bush called for a commission to investigate whether the September attacks could have been prevented and how to prevent future attacks. In 2004, the 9/11 Commission issued a report that stressed the need for greater cooperation and coordination within the government. It also recommended the creation of a new

Cabinet post—that of national intelligence director. On April 21, 2005, the U.S. Senate confirmed John Negroponte's appointment to that position.

#### **USA PATRIOT ACT**

To give the government the power to conduct search and surveillance of suspected terrorists, the USA PATRIOT Act was signed into law on October 26, 2001. This law allowed the government to:

- detain foreigners suspected of terrorism for seven days without charging them with a crime. In some cases, prisoners were held indefinitely.
- tap all phones used by suspects and monitor their e-mail and Internet use.
- make search warrants valid across states.
- order U.S. banks to investigate sources of large foreign accounts.
- prosecute terrorist crimes without any time restrictions or limitations.



Tom Ridge, the first to hold the position of Secretary of Department of Homeland Security, introduces the color-coded threat advisory system.

#### **History of Terrorist Attacks Against the United States**

1978

1983

1988

1993

1995

Theodore Kaczynski, the Unabomber, uses mail bombs to kill 3 people over 17 years. Shi'ites explode a truck near U.S. military barracks in Beirut, Lebanon, killing 241 Marines. Libyan terrorists explode a bomb in an airplane, causing it to crash in Lockerbie, Scotland, killing 270 people. Suspected al-Qaeda terrorists explode bombs in the World Trade Center in New York City, killing 6 and injuring at least 1.040.

Timothy McVeigh uses a truck to destroy the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, killing 168 people. (page 862)

People who opposed the law claimed that it violated the First, Fourth, Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Amendments. In 2005 it was revealed that President Bush had ordered the National Security Agency (NSA) to spy on American citizens' international telephone calls and e-mails without obtaining warrants.

#### **ANTITERRORIST ACTIONS**

To combat terrorism on the home front, the Bush administration created the Department of Homeland Security in 2002, initially headed by former Pennsylvania governor Tom Ridge. This executive department was designed to analyze threats, guard the nation's borders, seaports, and airports, and coordinate the country's response to attacks. To help share information about the risk of terrorist attacks with the American people, the department created the Homeland Security Advisory System. This system used a set of "Threat Conditions" to advise the public about the level of terrorist threats and provided guidelines for response during a period of heightened alert.

The Department of Homeland Security also searched for terrorists in the United States. The government soon discovered that the al-Qaeda network had used "sleepers" to carry out its terrorist attacks. Sleepers are agents who enter a country, blend into a community, and when called upon, secretly prepare for and commit terrorist acts. An intensive search began for any al-Qaeda terrorists, including sleepers, that remained in the United States. U.S. officials detained and questioned Arabs and other Muslims who behaved suspi-



An airport security official inspects a traveler's shoe at a security checkpoint.

ciously or violated immigration regulations. Many suspects captured in Afghanistan were held in a prison camp at Guantanamo Bay, Cuba. The United States faced criticism at home and abroad regarding its treatment of detainees. Critics claimed that detaining people without charging them and without access to attorneys violated their civil rights. The government argued that limiting civil liberties in wartime to protect national security was not unusual. U.S. officials used the same argument to try some terrorist suspects in military tribunals rather than in criminal courts.

#### **AVIATION SECURITY**

The federal government's role in aviation security also increased. National Guard troops began patrolling airports, and sky marshals were assigned to airplanes. In addition. the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) had bars installed on cockpit doors to prevent hijackers from entering cockpits.

In November 2001, President Bush signed into law the Aviation and Transportation Security Act, which made airport security the responsibility of the federal government. Previously, individual airports had been responsible for their own security. Because of this new law, an agency called the Transportation Security Administration (TSA) was created to inspect airline passengers, baggage, and cargo, as well as noncitizens training to be pilots. The TSA is also responsible for safety on railroads, buses, and mass transit systems. Security operations at airports created several major concerns, including long delays and possible invasion of passengers' privacy. As the United States fights terrorism and tries to balance national security with civil rights, the public debate over security measures continues.

#### **PREDICTING EFFECTS**

How effective do you think the antiterrorist measures taken by the Bush administration will be in preventing or dealing with future terrorist attacks?

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about War on Terrorism.

1998 2000 2001 2006

Al-Qaeda explodes bombs near two U.S. embassies in Nairobi. Kenya, and Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, killing 224.

The bombing of the USS Cole in Aden, Yemen, is linked to Osama bin Laden and kills 17 American sailors.

Arab terrorists crash planes into the World Trade Center, the Pentagon, and a Pennsylvania field. killing about 3.000.

British security agencies halt a terrorist plot to detonate liquid explosives on flights to the United States.

# Iraq: Confronting a Dictatorship

How should the United States deal with dangerous dictators?

ince 1979, Saddam Hussein's regime in Iraq had brutally repressed opposition. The Iraqi dictator had ruled without regard for the welfare of his people or for world opinion. During his State of the Union address in January 2003, President George W. Bush declared Hussein too great a threat to ignore in an age of increased terrorism. He promised to do everything possible to prevent Iraq from launching a terrorist attack on the United States.

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

In August 1990, the Iraqi army had invaded Kuwait, a small country that shares Iraq's southwestern border. Saddam Hussein wanted Kuwait's huge oil reserves. The United Nations (UN) condemned the occupation and approved the use of force to end it.

On January 16, 1991, the Persian Gulf War began. Coalition forces led by the United States drove Iraq's army out of Kuwait within six weeks. A cease-fire agreement with the UN prohibited Iraq from producing chemical, biological, and nuclear weapons.

The United Nations periodically sent arms inspectors to Iraq to make sure Hussein was complying with the cease-fire agreement. However, the Iraqi dictator refused to cooperate fully with the inspectors. "By seeking
weapons of mass
destruction,
these regimes
pose a grave and
growing danger."

PRESIDENT GEORGE W. BUSH

Because of this, the United States and Great Britain declared in 1998 that they supported the removal of Hussein from his office and the ending of his regime. In response, Hussein barred arms inspectors from entering his country.

### STEPS TOWARD WAR

After the attacks on September 11, 2001, the United States called for a renewal of the arms inspections in Iraq. In November 2002, the UN Security Council passed a resolution designed to force Iraq to give up all weapons of mass destruction (WMD). Arms inspections resumed, but Hussein again refused to cooperate fully. Soon, the United States

and Great Britain cut off diplomatic relations with Iraq.

In early February 2003, U.S. Secretary of State Colin Powell gave a presentation to the UN Security Council, maintaining that Iraq was hiding WMD. Soon thereafter, the United States and Great Britain pressed the UN to pass a resolution that authorized the use of military force against Iraq. As an alternative, France, Germany, and Russia presented a plan that called for intensifying the inspections.

The United States and Great Britain countered by claiming that a new UN resolution was not necessary since Iraq was in violation of the old agreement. They also claimed that Iraq's violation justified the use of military force to overturn Hussein's regime.

Meanwhile, protests against a possible war in Iraq increased at home and abroad. Antiwar protesters participated in more than 600 rallies around the globe on a single day in February. An estimated 750,000 protesters turned out in London—the largest demonstration ever in the British capital. Most demonstrations were peaceful.

### **WAR IN IRAQ**

In March 2003, the United States and Great Britain launched Operation Iraqi Freedom. The war began with massive air raids; sec-

### History of Saddam Hussein's Regime

1979

1980

1988

1990

1991

Saddam Hussein seizes power in Iraq. Iraq invades Iran's oil fields, triggering the Iran-Iraq War, which continues until 1988. The Iraqi Air Force releases poisonous gases over the Kurdish town of Halabja, Iraq, killing about 5,000 people.

Iraq invades Kuwait in an attempt to seize that nation's oil revenues. The Persian Gulf War begins in January and ends six weeks later. The UN prohibits Iraq from producing WMD.



In Baghdad, Iraqis pull down a statue of Saddam Hussein after the dictator's regime is overthrown

tions of Baghdad were the primary targets. U.S. ground troops then raced toward the Iraqi capital. By April 2, U.S. forces had reached the outskirts of the city. Within a week, Baghdad had fallen to the U.S. military. Meanwhile, British troops seized the city of Basra. Coalition troops had taken control of most of Iraq by April 14. Hussein survived the attack and was finally captured on December 13, 2003. He was convicted of crimes against humanity and hanged in 2006. In 2004, reports about U.S. treatment of detainees in Iraq's Abu Ghraib prison generated widespread criticism.

### **SEARCH FOR WMD**

The case for going to war against Iraq was based on assertions by the U.S. and British governments that Saddam Hussein had WMD. Once major combat ended on May 1, U.S. forces began an extensive search for these weapons. Movable biological laboratories containing sophisticated equipment were located, but by mid-2005, no WMD had been found. This led many in the United States and Great Britain to question the necessity for the war. Bush and British Prime Minister Tony Blair responded by claiming that they had based their decision on intelligence later proved to have been faulty. In May 2005, a top-secret memo known as the Downing Street memo became public. It suggested that the Bush administration had planned to invade Iraq as early as July 2002.

### **IRAQ AFTER HUSSEIN**

After the fall of Hussein's regime, the United States led in the establishment of the Coalition Provisional Authority (CPA) to temporarily govern Iraq and oversee its reconstruction. On June 28, 2004, the CPA was replaced by a temporary government made up of Iraqis. And on January 30, 2005, Shiite Muslim parties won a majority of seats in Iraq's election for a transitional National Assembly that would draft Iraq's constitution. Shiites eventually agreed to allow members of the Sunni Muslim minority to participate in shaping the country's constitution.

On October 15, 2005, Iraqi voters narrowly accepted a new constitution. In December, Iraq held elections to choose a permanent parliament. The Shiites captured a majority of seats, but not enough to control the government. Sunni and Kurdish legislators rejected the Shiites' first candidate for prime minister. In April 2006, the National Assembly approved a compromise candidate, Nuri al-Maliki, as the new prime minister.

Despite this progress, violence between Sunnis and Shiites continued to plague Iraq. Insurgents, or rebels, engaged in acts of violence that killed thousands. Militants also attacked U.S. troops. In response, President Bush announced a plan in January 2007 to send 20,000 more U.S. troops to Iraq. Many Americans opposed the troop surge, but it went into effect later that year. In February 2009, President Obama unveiled a plan to remove all U.S. troops from Iraq by the end of 2011.

Another parliamentary election was held in March 2010. The secular Shiite party of Ayad Allawi, who had served as interim prime minister in 2004, won 91 seats in Iraq's parliament, a narrow margin over the 89 seats claimed by incumbent prime minister Nuri al-Maliki's party.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

How do you think the removal of all U.S. troops from Iraq would affect the Iraqi people?

### hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Iraq: Confronting a Dictatorship.

1998 2003 2006

Irag's refusal to cooperate with UN arms inspectors leads to a four-day air strike by the United States and Great Britain.

In March, the United States and **Great Britain launch Operation** Iragi Freedom, Major combat ends in May, and Hussein is overthrown.

Saddam Hussein is convicted of crimes against humanity and executed.

# The Debate over Immigration

Should new laws restrict or expand immigration?

grants working for their dreams have shaped the United States. Latino ranchers developed many of the tools and skills of the American cowboy. Chinese laborers laid the tracks of the transcontinental railroad. African Americans, though not voluntary immigrants, labored to develop the agriculture of the South and the industry of the North. Farmers and workers of every origin built the nation we know today.

### HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

But immigration has been argued throughout American history. In the 1700s, Benjamin Franklin worried about the number of Germans immigrating to Pennsylvania. Sharp anti-immigration sentiment spurred the nativist movement that developed in the 1830s and the "America First" campaign of the 1920s.

Americans today are divided on the issue. Some agree with former New York City mayor Rudolph Giuliani that immigrants "challenge us with new ideas and new perspectives." Others side with Dan Stein of the Federation for American Immigration Reform, who has said that "large-scale immigration is not serving the needs and interests of the country."

### **RISING NUMBERS**

From 1900 into the 1940s, economic troubles and rapid population

"America's immigration system is
... unsuited to
the needs of our
economy and the
values of our
country."

PRESIDENT GEORGE W. BUSH

growth spurred more than 16 million Europeans to move to the United States. The same pressures have recently hit Asia and Latin America, with the same effect on the United States. Between 1989 and 2009, more than 21 million new immigrants came to the United States.

### **ILLEGAL ENTRY**

Complicating the debate has been the issue of illegal immigrants. By 2009, the number of illegal immigrants living in the United States was estimated at close to 11 million. A 2004 report by the Center for Immigration Studies suggested that households headed by illegal immigrants each used about \$2,700 more in federal government services than they paid in taxes.

Congress had addressed such issues in the 1990s, passing laws that toughened measures to bar illegal entry and that limited benefits to illegal immigrants. In February 2005, President George W. Bush proposed a new approach. Stating that "America's immigration system is . . . unsuited to the needs of our economy and the values of our country," he endorsed a guest worker program. This would have allowed foreigners to work in the United States for a set period of time. However, as of 2010, a guest worker program had not been enacted into law.

In the meantime, some states took action on illegal immigration. For example, in 2010 Arizona passed a law that enhanced state and local police authority to enforce federal immigration laws.

### **ECONOMIC DEBATE**

Those who favor limits claim that immigrants take jobs from Americans. However, data suggest that immigration has not hurt the economy and may have helped fuel its growth. At the same time that millions of immigrant workers—including some undocumented workers—were joining the work

**History of Immigration in the United States** 

1751

1853

1882

1896

1921

Benjamin Franklin denounces German immigrants. Nativists form Know-Nothing Party to protest increase in immigration (page 161). Chinese Exclusion Act severely restricts immigration from China (page 254). President Cleveland vetoes bill requiring immigrants to pass literacy test. Emergency Quota Act begins era of limits on immigration (page 415).



Members of the Latin American community in Los Angeles raise their hands to bless fruit baskets as a sign of immigrants' daily work in California's fields. The sign reads "This fruit is the product of immigrants' labor."

force, the overall trend in unemployment was downward. However, in 2009, when unemployment rose above 9 percent, the number of illegal immigrants in the United States fell.

Another argument focuses on wages. Economists agree that immigrants tend to work for lower wages than native-born workers. Harvard University economists estimated that one-third of the gap between low-paid and high-paid workers results from higher numbers of immigrants. But they also reported that other factors-foreign trade, declining union membership, and new technology—play a greater role in lowering wages.

Immigrants fill skilled, highpaying jobs as well. Current law limits the number of immigrants who may enter the United States within specific employment categories, or preferences. The 2009 limit was set at about 140,000.

However, there were more applicants than places in 2009.

### **CITIZENSHIP RESPONSIBILITY**

Some people are concerned that certain immigrants never become citizens and so fail to completely participate in U.S. life. Statistics show that legal immigrants are becoming citizens in ever higher numbers. Even so, many immigrants eligible for citizenship have have not applied to become citizens. Experts attribute this to a variety of factors, including the rising cost for filing for citizenship, a backlog of applications, and a presumed lack of interest among some immigrants. The oath of U.S. citizenship carries with it such responsibilities as voting, serving on juries, and, in some cases, military service.

### **CULTURAL CONCERNS**

The diversity of the U.S. population has raised concerns that America has no common culture. Some say that at 12.6 percent of the population, the foreign-born are too numerous in America. Historian David Kennedy points out that in 1910 the percentage was even higher— 14.7 percent.

Those who favor limits claim that new immigrants do not mix with other groups, forming ethnic neighborhoods that divide society. Others believe that immigrants enrich American cultural life.

### **MORAL ISSUES**

The issue of asylum—providing a safe place for people fleeing oppression—has been the toughest of all. While immigration is allowed for political asylum, those who flee famine or poverty are turned away. Are such choices fair?

Some rules allow relatives of immigrants to enter the country. Representative Lamar Smith of Texas believes that these rules admit immigrants who "have no marketable skills and end up on welfare." Yet, social scientist Nathan Glazer says that concern about the number of immigrants conflicts with sympathy for those "trying to bring in wives, children, parents, brothers, and sisters."

Some observers believe that there are simply too many immigrants. Slow immigration for a time, they suggest. In polls taken in mid-2010, about a third of the population seemed to agree with this idea, expressing the opinion that the level of legal immigration should be decreased.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

How might the measures restricting illegal immigrants affect future laws that regulate legal immigration?

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about The Debate over Immigration.

1996 1965 1994 2010

**Immigration Act** loosens restrictions in place since 1924 (page 691).

California passes Proposition 187, excluding benefits to illegal : immigrants (page 886).

Congress passes laws that limit benefits to illegal immigrants.

**President Obama** proposes an overhaul of the immigration system.

### **Crime and Public Safety**

Will tougher gun control laws reduce the incidence of crime?

n an early March day in 2001, Alicia Zimmer, a student at Santana High School outside San Diego, found herself in the middle of gunfire in the hallways. A 15-year-old boy had brought a gun to school and had begun firing at his fellow students. "I was probably about 10 feet away from some of the victims," Zimmer said, adding that she saw "a boy laying on the floor with his face down," and a girl with "blood all over her arm." Before the shooter was apprehended, two people were killed and 13 were injured. School shootings have become more common in the United States and are just one reason why, despite an overall decrease in crime during the 1990s and into the 21st century, Americans continue to express concerns over public safety.

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

In 1968, opinion polls reported that for the first time, Americans called crime the nation's single worst problem. Since then, crime has remained high on the list of national problems.

Crime rates generally increased during the 1970s, due in part to rising unemployment and inflation, increased drug use, civil unrest, and protests against the Vietnam War. But in the 1980s, the spread of crack cocaine abuse fueled a major jump in crime. From 1986 to the



School students at John Bartram High School in Philadelphia go through metal detectors as they enter the school one day after a school shooting.

early 1990s, the rates of violent crimes and car thefts increased by more than 20 percent.

Beginning in 1992, however, these rates began to drop and continued declining throughout the decade. The FBI announced that in 2003 violent crime had dipped to a 20-year low and was a third lower than in 1994. In 2000 the murder rate also reached a 20-year low and was relatively stable for the next 6 years.

### **RECENT SUCCESS**

Experts have identified a few causes for falling crime rates:

- There are fewer males aged 15 to 29, the group most likely to commit crimes.
- The trade in crack cocaine slowed.
- The unemployment rate gradually decreased throughout the 1990s. Generally, when more people have jobs, crime rates fall.

Perhaps the biggest factor has been new policing efforts. Police departments have taken officers out of patrol cars and put them back on the streets. Police have also taken a more active role in their neighborhoods. Crime prevention methods now focus on an intense effort to

### History of Crime and Public Safety in the United States

Second Amendment, protecting right to bear arms, is ratified

1791

(page 70).

New York City organizes first full-time, salaried police force (page 265).

1844

Organized crime thrives during Prohibition (page 434).

1920s

Miranda v. Arizona: police must inform suspects of their legal rights (page 694).

1966

Increased drug abuse contributes to rising crime.

1980s

Brady Act aims to reduce the spread of handguns.

1993

intervene with troubled youth before they commit a crime.

### **CONTINUING EFFORTS**

Despite what appears to be a safer nation, however, many Americans continue to worry about crime. For one thing, gun violence is extremely high. According to the FBI, guns were used in 68 percent of all homicides in 2007. In addition. some social scientists contend that with a slumping economy a new crime wave is just over the horizon. Even though the overall murder rate has declined since 1990, crime continues to command public attention. Experts are split over two issues related to reducing crime further: gun control and tougher sentencing.

### **GUN CONTROL**

In 1993, President Bill Clinton signed the Brady Act, which called for states to place a five-day waiting period on the sale of handguns. During that period, police check the potential buyer's background. If they find a criminal record, a gun permit is denied. However, four years later, in June 1997, the Brady Act was substantially weakened when the Supreme Court ruled that the federal government could not force state or local officials to run background checks on potential buyers of handguns.

At the center of the gun-control issue lies a long-standing constitutional debate. The Second Amendment to the Constitution states this: "A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed." The National Rifle Association

As the 21st century begins, **Americans find** themselves grappling with new forms of violent crime.

(NRA), which is opposed to tougher gun-control laws, argues that guncontrol laws violate this right to bear arms. Others contend that the amendment was not intended to guarantee a right to personal weapons. Rather, its purpose is to protect the state's right to maintain military units.

### **TOUGHER SENTENCES**

In addition to looking at hand gun laws, Americans have sought to battle crime by putting more people in prison. The federal government and many states recently passed "three strikes" laws. Under these laws, any person found guilty of two previous crimes receives a stiff sentence of twenty to thirty years after conviction for a third.

While many applaud this gettough policy, others claim that it suffers from a serious problem: racial bias. Blacks represent just 12 percent of the U.S. population and about 13 percent of those who reported using illegal drugs on a

monthly basis. Yet three-quarters of all prison sentences for possession of drugs involve African Americans. Many civil rights groups say that such differential treatment must end.

### **NEW CHALLENGES**

As the 21st century begins, Americans face a number of new challenges. Deadly school shootings have brought attention to the issue of youth violence, and violent crime in America's cities remains a national concern. But the greatest challenge to public safety may be the renewed threat of terrorism. During the mid-1990s, a series of bombings signaled a disturbing new era of terrorism in America. The bombing of the World Trade Center in 1993, the 1995 Oklahoma City bombing, and the bombing at Atlanta's Centennial Park in 1996 all contributed to a growing sense of public vulnerability.

Following the events September 11, 2001, in October President Bush signed into law new anti-terrorism measures. These laws greatly increased the authority of local, state, and federal law enforcement agencies to obtain and to share information about anyone living in the United States, but drew severe criticism for intruding on personal privacy.

It now appears that Americans will be struggling to balance the need for domestic security against its costs—in terms of privacy, convenience, and dollars-well into the 21st century.

### **PREDICTING EFFECTS**

What methods do you think the nation will employ to more effectively prevent terrorist attacks?



Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Crime and Public Safety.

1994 1997 1999 2001

Republicans include tougher crime laws in their Contract with America (page 864).

**Supreme Court rules** that certain provisions of the Brady Act are unconstitutional.

2 students kill 13 and then themselves at Columbine High School : in Colorado (page 862).

On September 11, terrorist attacks in New York and at the : Pentagon kill thousands.

### **Issues in Education**

How can a country guarantee equal education for all?

n the winter of 2001, Paul Vallas, former head of the Chicago public school system, received some discouraging news. A three-year study found "little significant change" in the city's ailing public high schools—despite six years of intense reform efforts. "The issue is that the problem is tougher than we thought it was," the study reported, "and we have to find more intense ways of improving what we've been doing." In response to the study, Vallas echoed those sentiments. "We still have a long way to go," he said. The plight of Chicago's public schools highlights the nation's ongoing struggle to improve education.

### HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

From the earliest days of the nation, American leaders have stressed the importance of education. In the 19th century, reformers helped establish a system of governmentsupported public schools. By 1900, almost three-quarters of all eight- to fourteen-year-olds attended school. Even with these advances, some groups suffered. Public secondary education failed to reach most African Americans in the early 20th century. Not until 1954, with the Supreme Court decision Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, did federal court decisions call for an end to separate—and usually inferior schools for African Americans.

By the 1960s, the nation's schools wrestled with the problem of a rising discrepancy between

suburban schools and inner-city schools. Many students in inner cities attended schools that were housed in decaying buildings and that had dated instructional materials. On the other hand, students in the suburbs enjoyed new facilities and equipment. In both the inner city and the suburbs, violence and drugs have raised issues of safety.

### **KEY ISSUES**

The debate over public education has focused on three key issues. First is the question of how to change schools to improve the

from the earliest days of the nation, American leaders have stressed the importance of education.

quality of education. Second is the issue of school financing. Should different school systems in a state receive equal funding? The third issue has to do with affirmative action—programs intended to remedy past discrimination.

### **IMPROVING QUALITY**

People have offered many ideas on how to improve schools. Some critics say that lack of discipline is a major problem. Others point to the disparity in technology between wealthy and poor schools. During his presidency, Bill Clinton called for all schools in the country to be connected to the Internet and its vast supply of information.

Another reform receiving support is the creation of charter schools. In this plan, certain schools receive a charter, or contract, from a local school district, a state education department, or a university. Charter schools promise innovations in education. In return for freedom to operate as they choose, charter schools promise to increase students' achievement levels. By April 2005, about 3,400 such schools were in place in approximately 40 states.

Some school reformers favor the voucher system, in which states issue a certificate to parents, who then use it to pay for their child's education at a school of their choice. The school exchanges the voucher for payment from the government. Supporters of the voucher system believe that parents will seek schools that provide higherquality education. Public schools will then be forced to compete with private and parochial schools, and with one another. The competition should increase the overall quality of education, supporters argue.

### **History of Education in the United States**

1821

1837

1865

1954

1965

Emma Willard opens Troy Female Seminary, an academic school for girls (page 148). Horace Mann begins the push to spread public education (page 282).

African Americans who had been slaves begin to create and attend schools (pages 187, 284–285).

Brown v. Board of Education finds segregated schools unconstitutional (pages 708–709).

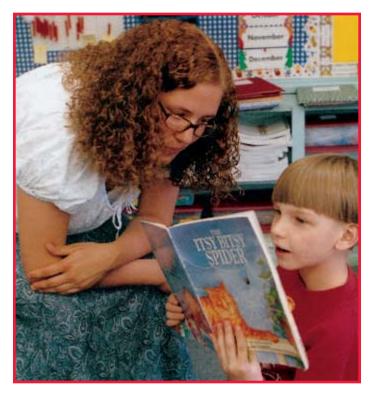
Federal government begins providing aid to public schools (page 689). During his run for office 2000, President George W. Bush voiced support for vouchers. "I don't know whether or not the voucher system is a panacea," he said, "but I'm willing to give it a shot to determine whether it makes sense."

### **FINANCING EDUCATION**

In most states, school funding relies on local property taxes—taxes paid on the value of real estate in a town or city. When schools are funded primarily by property taxes, however, schools in poorer areas receive less money than those in wealthier communities.

According to the magazine Washington Monthly, one New Jersey town spends \$13,394 per pupil on schooling. Another town just five miles away spends only \$7,889. Court cases have raised legal challenges to unequal school funding in more than 20 states.

In 1993, Michigan voters approved a plan that abandoned reliance on local property taxes as the basis of school funding. Now schools get their money from a smaller state-controlled property tax, an increased sales tax on consumer purchases, and increased taxes on purchases of such items as cigarettes and alcohol. Because the state sets property tax rates and monitors its school systems' budgets, it can even out inequalities.



### **AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

Many Americans support the idea of programs that give women and minorities greater opportunities. At the same time, a large majority disapprove of quotas, the setting aside of a certain number of jobs or college admissions for members of these groups.

This point became the focus of a court case challenging affirmative action. The Supreme Court, in Regents of the University of California v. Bakke (1978), ruled that institutions could use race as one factor among others in determining admission. (See pp. 818-819 for more information.) In 2001, in Hopwood v. Texas, a lower federal court expanded upon the Bakke decision by ruling that a univerJessica Riley, a hearingimpaired volunteer teacher, helps a hearing-impaired second grader with his reading.

sity could not have separate admissions tracks for white and minority candidates.

### **CURRENT CHALLENGES**

On January 8, 2002, President Bush signed into law his education program, No Child Left Behind. A cornerstone of the program is accountability for student performance with national annual reading and math assessments in grades 3 through 8. The law required states to

report how many students performed at each of four levels: failure, basic, proficient, and advanced. Schools that failed to show enough progress could lose students to other schools, be forced to change staff, or even be closed down.

In 2006, the Center for Education Policy reported that achievement on state tests was rising. Critics claimed that schools were neglecting other subjects. In March 2010, President Obama proposed an education plan to replace No Child Left Behind. The plan focuses on rewarding schools for progress rather than punishing them for failure. Clearly, debate over education reform will continue.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

What do you think will be the most important education issue the country will face in the coming years? Why?

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Issues in Education.

1983 1989 1996 2005

A federal commission report A Nation at Risk severely criticizes public education (page 841).

**Education summit** issues Goals 2000.

California voters ban affirmative action in education and other : areas.

**Number of charter** schools in America reaches roughly 3.400.

### The Communications Revolution

Can information on the Internet be both reliable and accessible?

n a spring day in 1997, 12-year-old Sean Redden had just logged onto the Internet in his home in Denton. Texas, when he encountered a startling message: "Would someone help me?" The plea turned out to be a distress call from an Internet user nearly 7,000 miles away in Finland. The person had suffered an asthmatic attack that left her barely able to breathe. After obtaining more information from the woman, Redden contacted his local police. They in turn alerted Finnish authorities, who located the woman and rushed her to medical care at a nearby hospital. This digital rescue is just one example of the power and reach of the Internet, which has dramatically changed American society like nothing else in recent history.

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

In the 1940s, when computers first came into use, they took up huge rooms and required fans or elaborate air-conditioning systems to cool the parts that provided them with power. In the years since, the parts that power computers have become miniaturized and have been made much more powerful. Today, not only can personal computers perform more operations more quickly than the first giant computers did, but they are also affordable for many people. The development

Many observers
credit computer
technology
with driving
the nation's
astonishing
economic growth
during the 1990s.

of inexpensive personal computers has made it possible for ordinary families to use the latest technology.

### THE INTERNET

A very important component of computer use today is the Internet, a worldwide computer network. In the 1960s, the Department of Defense began to network its computers in order to protect its ability to launch nuclear missiles following a feared Soviet attack. Then in the late 1980s, the National Science Foundation created its own network, NSFNET, and allowed anyone to access it. However, only a small group of

computer-science graduates and professors used the system.

At about this time a digital revolution arose as thousands of industries across the country began using computers to run their businesses, and millions of Americans bought personal computers for their homes. With so many computers suddenly in use, NSFNET steadily grew into the large and crowded Internet, which includes the World Wide Web.

### THE COMPUTER REVOLUTION

The numbers alone demonstrate the influence of computer technology on modern life. By 2007, nearly 70 percent of Americans were logging onto the Internet either at home or at work, and close to 66 percent of U.S. households owned at least one personal computer. What's more, nearly every business in the nation, from hospitals to accounting firms and airports, has implemented computer systems to handle many of its daily operations.

Many observers credit computer technology with driving the nation's astonishing economic growth during the 1990s. With computers allowing employees in nearly every field to perform their jobs more quickly and easily, worker productivity and output increased—a major reason for the decade-long boom.

### **History of the Communications Revolution**

1969

1991

1994

1996

U.S. Department of Defense creates ARPANET.

First browser, or software for accessing the World Wide Web, developed.

Three million people worldwide use the Internet.

Congress passes Telecommunications Act, allowing companies to engage in a variety of communications endeavors (page 878).

### **EVERYDAY USES**

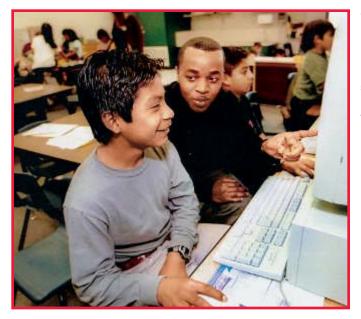
Computer technology not only has improved how Americans work, but also has dramatically altered how they live. Millions of citizens now buy everything from flowers to books to stock online. In 2005, the nation spent over \$93 billion in electronic transactions, also known as e-commerce.

While Americans once communicated strictly by phone or letter, they now talk to each other more and more through their computers. Many teenagers spend several hours a day on "social networking" Web sites. Computers have also affected the way Americans learn. In 2002, 92 percent of public school classrooms had Internet access, up 15 percent from 2000. A growing number of universities offer classes and even complete degree programs wholly over the Internet.

### **HIGH-TECH CHALLENGES**

For all the benefits and opportunities it has brought, computer technology also has created its own set of challenges. There are few laws and regulations governing the Internet. Thus, while it is a treasure trove of useful information, the World Wide Web also has become a center for the dissemination of pornographic and hate material.

The growth of computers also has led to the growth of "cybercrime." Computer vandals, known commonly as hackers, engage in everything from the theft of social security numbers and other vital personal information to the disabling of entire computer systems. The Federal Bureau of Investigation estimates that cybercrime costs Americans more than \$10 billion a



**College senior Demetress Roberts** uses a computer program to teach **Latino Outreach** student Angel Leonardo about fractions.

vear. What concerns officials even more is the growing possibility of "cyberterrorism"—hackers stealing or altering vital military information such as nuclear missile codes.

Meanwhile, a large number of Americans worry about the growing "digital divide," the notion that computer technology remains out of reach for many of the nation's poor. According to recent statistics, nearly 92 percent of households earning \$75,000 or more owned a computer, compared with only about 42 percent of households earning between \$15,000 and \$25,000. Many fear that poor families unable to purchase computers are falling even further behind in a country where computer skills are fast becoming a necessity.

### **CLOSING THE GAP**

Actually, the nation is working to close the gap. In San Jose, California, for example, officials were able to invest \$90,000 in a program to teach computer skills to welfare

recipients and homeless people. Meanwhile, libraries, schools, and senior centers across the country provide free Internet access. A number of proposals to provide people with greater access to computers and training are working their way through the federal and various state governments.

### THE FUTURE

As the 21st century begins, the computer revolution shows no sign of slowing. The digital technology that has so transformed the nation continues to improve. Mobile devices and wireless Internet access allow many Americans to get online from almost anywhere in the nation. As the computer age rolls on, Americans and the rest of the world most likely will face exciting new opportunities.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

What do you think will be a new breakthrough and a new challenge for Americans in the next decade of the Computer Age?

### hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about The Communications Revolution.

1999 2001 2006

First full-service Internetonly bank opens

Over 200 million people around the world use the Internet.

**Number of Internet** domains surpasses 400 million.

# **Curing the Health Care System**

How should medical coverage for the uninsured be funded?

o pay for the medicine she needs, 79-year-old Winifred Skinner walks the streets of Des Moines every day collecting cans. "I don't want to ask for handouts. I want to earn it," she insists. The soaring cost of prescription drugs—especially among the elderly—is just one of the key issues facing American health care today.

### HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

National health insurance for Americans was first proposed by President Harry S. Truman in 1949, but Congress failed to approve it. It took the legislative skill of President Lyndon B. Johnson to enact Medicare in 1965. The program covered most of the cost of medical care for people age 65 and above.

By the 1990s, Medicare was taking an increasing share of federal spending. In hopes of controlling costs and providing universal coverage, President Clinton proposed a complex plan. However, lobbying by doctors and private insurers and the public's mistrust of big government caused Congress to defeat Clinton's plan in 1994.

Meanwhile, many Americans were afraid they would be denied health insurance because of preexisting conditions—medical conditions that are present when a person applies for coverage. The Health Insurance Portability and Account-



Irene Holmes holds her son while technician Roberta Montoya takes a blood sample at the Sandia Health Center.

ability Act, passed in 1996, partly removed that concern. It limited the situations under which insurers could exclude from coverage those with preexisting conditions.

### **HEALTH CARE REFORM**

Health care continued to be a hot topic during the 2000 presidential campaign and beyond. One of the issues up for debate was the need for prescription-drug coverage for the elderly, a reform many thought should be addressed as part of an overhaul of the Medicare system. Also high on the agenda were the

need to protect patients' rights and the need to expand health coverage to the ranks of the uninsured.

### **SOARING DRUG COSTS**

When Medicare began in 1965, the cost of prescription drugs was small compared with that of hospital stays and doctors' visits. But with the development of new medicines and treatments for heart disease, arthritis, and other chronic conditions, drugs became the fastest-growing component of health-care spending. About 40 percent of people on Medicare were without

### **History of Health Care in the United States**

1949

1953

1965

1970s

1981

Truman introduces a bill for national health insurance that is ultimately rejected by Congress (page 639).

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is established. President Johnson and Congress enact Medicare and Medicaid into law (page 690). President Nixon increases funding for Medicare and Medicaid (pages 795–796).

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) is first identified (page 840).

prescription-drug coverage. Many elderly citizens were paying well over \$1,000 a year out of pocket for medicine—or else did without.

President George W. Bush took steps to address this issue in 2003 with the Medicare Prescription Drug, Improvement, and Modernization Act (MMA). This law provided access to drug coverage for elderly and disabled people on Medicare, beginning in 2006.

Critics noted that the act allowed for a "doughnut hole" in coverage. That is, there was an initial coverage limit. Once that had been reached. people were responsible for 100 percent of their drug costs. Medicare picked up coverage again later. The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, passed in 2010, provided rebates and discounts to those in the "doughnut hole." It also proposed to completely close this coverage gap by 2020.

### THE FATE OF MEDICARE

One issue facing policymakers in the early 21st century was how to reform Medicare. Estimates made in 2009 suggested that if nothing changed, Medicare's hospital insurance fund would run out of money by 2017. The reasons are rising costs and demographic changes. Americans are living longer now than they were in 1965-about eight years longer on average. As a result, seniors form a greater proportion of the population than before. While rising numbers of elderly drive up the cost of Medicare, the revenues targeted to pay for it are not keeping pace. As the population ages, fewer people will work and pay the taxes that fund Medicare. Additionally, elderly persons as a group tend to have higher medical costs.

Today, more than three workers pay taxes for every person who

"Health care is too important for any modern society to permit many of its citizens to go without it."

HENRY J. AARON, FORMER DIRECTOR, **BROOKINGS ECONOMIC STUDIES PROGRAM** 

receives Medicare, while by 2030, this ratio will stand at 2.4 to 1. Workers' taxes almost certainly will have to go up—especially if health costs rise. Meanwhile, according to one estimate, Medicare pays less than half of its beneficiaries' medical expenses.

What is to be done? Among the approaches that have been proposed are placing more restrictions on Medicare benefits, raising the age of eligibility, or increasing the share to be paid by the elderly. The 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act offered some different answers. It planned to raise the Medicare tax on people making more than \$200,000 and set up a committee to find ways of controlling the rise in Medicare spending. It also introduced procedures to more aggressively root out Medicare fraud and waste.

### THE UNINSURED

Another worrying issue for policymakers in the early 2000s was the number of people without health insurance. This problem was extensive—some 17.4 percent of nonelderly Americans were uninsured in 2008. About 8 million of the uninsured were children.

In 1997, the federal government began to address the issue of uninsured young people with the State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP). SCHIP provided funding to states so that they could offer health coverage to children of low-income families who earn too much to qualify for Medicaid (which covers the cost of medical care for the poor). By 2008, more than 7 million children were benefiting from the program.

The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act extended SCHIP. It also tackled the issue of uninsured adults. It extended private insurance coverage through individual mandates—that is, requiring individuals to get some level of health coverage. Insurance reforms, subsidies to help people pay premiums, and tax credits for small businesses offering employees insurance also aimed to expand private coverage. For the poorest individuals, the act expanded the Medicaid program. Previously, Medicaid covered primarily children and women of childbearing age.

Under these changes, over time some 32 million people would be added to the ranks with health insurance. However, it is unlikely that the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act will end the debate on health care.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

What impact do you think the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act will have on the health care system? Explain your answer.

### hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Curing the Health Care System.

1996 1997 2010

**Congress passes Health** Insurance Portability and Accountability Act : (HIPAA).

The State Children's **Health Insurance** Program (SCHIP) is enacted.

**Congress passes Patient** Protection and Affordable Care Act.

### Breaking the Cycle of Poverty

Who has the responsibility for helping the poor?

im, a 55-year-old painter by trade, retreats each night to a Boston homeless shelter. He spends his days engaging in any work he can find—but it's never enough to provide him with a roof over his head. Too many of the jobs available, he says, "pay only the minimum wage or a bit higher, and they cannot cover the rent and other bills." Jim, who says his dream is to "get a steady job, find an apartment, and settle down," insists that he never imagined he would find himself homeless. "I never thought it could happen to me," he says. Jim is just one of almost 40 million citizens considered poor in a nation that continues to cope with the challenge of eradicating poverty.

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

Some part of the American population has faced poverty since the "starving time" at Jamestown during the winter of 1609–1610. In the 20th century, poverty was most widespread during the Great Depression of the 1930s. That economic disaster led to several new government programs such as the 1935 Social Security Act, which created a pension fund for retired people over age 65 and offered government aid to poor people for the first time.

Though the Depression ended with World War II, postwar prosper-

### Many of those Americans who live in poverty are employed.

ity did not last. In the 1960s, President Lyndon B. Johnson declared "unconditional war on poverty" as his administration expanded education, training, and financial aid for the poor. The proportion of people living below the poverty level—the minimum income necessary to provide basic living standards—fell from 20 percent in 1962 to only 11 percent in 1973. However, economic hard times reappeared in the early 1980s and the poverty rate began to rise. In 2008, about 39.8 million Americans lived below the poverty line—which that year was marked by an annual income of \$21,834 for a family of four.

### **AMERICANS IN POVERTY**

Many Americans who live in poverty are employed. Known as the working poor, they hold low-wage jobs with few benefits and almost never any health insurance. Children also account for a major share of the poor, and their numbers are growing rapidly for many ethnic groups. The poverty rate among children in the United States is higher than that in any other Western industrialized nation.

Like Jim in Boston, many of the poor are homeless. During the 1980s, cuts in welfare and food stamp benefits brought the problem of homelessness to national attention. According to the National Alliance to End Homelessness (NAEH), about 750,000 Americans are without shelter on any given night.

Many experts on the homeless believe that the lack of housing is simply a symptom of larger problems. These include unemployment, low-wage jobs, and high housing costs, and in some cases, personal problems such as substance abuse or mental illness.

### **SOME CAUSES OF POVERTY**

Experts agree that there are numerous causes of poverty. Lack of skills keeps many welfare recipients from finding or keeping jobs. They need more than job training, many observers insist, they also need training in work habits.

Another factor that holds back increased employment is limited access to child care. Economist David Gordon related the results of a study of mothers who received

### **History of the Cycle of Poverty in the United States**

**1894 1935 1962 1964** 

High unemployment in the wake of the panic of 1893 leaves thousands homeless (pages 221–222).

Social Security Act is passed; government gives aid to poor for first time (pages 492, 501).

Michael Harrington's *The Other America* shocks the nation by revealing extent of poverty (page 682).

President Johnson announces War on Poverty (page 688).



welfare. They could eke out a living, he found, by combining paid work and some outside support with welfare payments and food stamps. But, Gordon asked, suppose one of these mothers left welfare and took a full-time minimum-wage job. "[If] she cannot find free child care and has to pay the going rate, her standard of living . . . would decline by 20 percent." To help meet the need for child care, a 1996 federal welfare law included \$3.5 billion in fund-

turn, she notes, low levels of literacy generally lead to low employment rates and lower wages.

Another factor contributing to poverty has been discrimination against racial minorities. Current statistics highlight how much more prevalent poverty is among minorities. In 2008, the poverty rate among whites was 8.6 percent, while among Hispanics and African Americans it was 23.2 percent and 24.7 percent, respectively.

### FEDERAL WELFARE REFORM

As the nation continued to struggle with poverty and homelessness, the cry for welfare reform grew louder. Critics of the system argued that providing financial aid to the poor gave them little incentive to better their lives and thus helped to create a culture of poverty. In 1996, the Republican Congress and President Clinton signed a bill—the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act-that cut more than \$55 billion in welfare spending over six years and put a Amherst College freshmen in Massachusetts hoe a field for a farm run by a local food bank in a school outreach community-service

five-year limit on how long people could receive welfare payments. In addition, the bill cut benefits to recipients who had not found a job within two years.

Supporters cheered the reforms, claiming that they transformed a system from one that fosters dependence to one that encourages selfreliance. Opponents of the law accused the federal government of turning its back on the poor—especially children.

Both proponents and critics of the bill agreed on one thing: the law's success depended on putting welfare recipients to work. The federal government offered three incentives to encourage businesses to hire people from the welfare rolls: tax credits for employers who hire welfare recipients, wage subsidies, and establishment of enterprise zones, which provide tax breaks to companies that locate in economically depressed areas.

In February 2006, Congress reauthorized the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) program created by the 1996 bill. Between August 1996—when the bill creating TANF passed—and March 2006, the number of people on welfare declined to its lowest percentage since 1969. However, with millions of Americans still living below the poverty line, efforts to break the cycle of poverty continue.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

What can be done to provide affordable child care to help the working poor?

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Breaking the Cycle of Poverty.

ing for day care. For millions of Americans, the U.S. public education system has failed to provide the tools necessary for climbing out of poverty. Anne Lewis, an education writer, points out that "three-fourths of all welfare/food stamp recipients perform at the lowest levels of literacy." In

1970 1980s

Nixon's welfare reform

bill—the Family Assist-

ance Plan—dies in the

: Senate (page 795).

Welfare benefits and food stamps are cut under President Reagan (page 835).

Congress passes Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Recon-

1996

The Deficit Reduction Act of 2005 is passed, reauthorizing : the TANF program.

2006

### **Tough Choices About Social Security**

How can Social Security be reformed so that it will have enough money to pay retirees?

conomist Lester Thurow gives new meaning to the term generation gap. "In the years ahead, class warfare is apt to be redefined as the young against the old, rather than the poor against the rich," he warns. Economics may become a major issue dividing generations, as young workers shoulder the costs of Social Security, Medicare, and Medicaid—the three major entitlement programs funded by the federal government.

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

In the 1935 Social Security Act, or FICA, the government promised to pay a pension to older Americans, funded by a tax on workers and employers. At that time, President Franklin D. Roosevelt said that Social Security was not intended to provide all of an individual's retirement income, but it was a base on which workers would be able to build with private pension funds.

In 1965, new laws extended Social Security support. In addition, the government assumed most health care costs for the elderly through the Medicare program and for the poor through Medicaid. These programs are called entitlements because the recipients are entitled by law to the benefits.

Social Security, Medicare, and Medicaid have received a lot of attention because the United States



Citizens in favor of protecting Social Security rally on the U.S. Capitol grounds.

population is aging. This aging population will put a severe financial strain on these programs.

### SOCIAL SECURITY FUNDING

Social Security's problem can be attributed to a few important factors. First, when the baby boomers (those born between 1946 and 1964) retire, their huge numbers—about 70 million by the year 2020—may overburden the entitlement programs. Second, Americans now live longer, so an individual's share of benefits from the program is greater

than in the past. Third, the number of workers paying into Social Security per beneficiary will drop when the boomers start retiring.

Currently, Social Security collects more in taxes than it pays in benefits. The extra goes into a "trust fund" that is invested. Around the year 2016 the program will begin paying out more to beneficiaries than it takes in from the payroll tax. The program will begin to rely on the Social Security Trust Fund to pay retirees. If that trend continues, after 2037, Social Security will be able

### **History of Entitlements in the United States**

1935

1961

1965

1970s

1975

President Roosevelt signs Social Security Act (page 501). Changes to Social
Security allow reduced
benefits at early
retirement—age 62.

President Johnson signs Medicare and Medicaid into law (page 690). President Nixon increases Social Security payments (pages 795–796).

Congress includes cost-of-living adjustments for Social Security benefits. to cover only about 75 percent of scheduled benefits.

recommend Most experts reform, and Americans have listened. One poll found that 81 percent of Americans under 40 believe that the Social Security program needs to be changed to guarantee its financial stability.

### **OPTIONS FOR CHANGE**

A number of plans for reforming Social Security have been proposed. These different views have become the main options being debated in Congress and around the country.

- Raise Social Security Taxes Some people have suggested small tax hikes, arguing that since people's incomes are expected to rise, they will be able to afford an increase. As of 2010, only the first \$106,800 of any individual's income is subject to FICA tax. Some people have suggested that those with higher incomes are not paying their fair share.
- Cut Benefits Some argue that benefits should be reduced by ending automatic cost-of-living adjustments or lowering payments made to retirees who earn over a certain amount of money each year. These wealthier people, they say, do not need to receive higher payments.
- Raise the Retirement Age Because people can now work productively later in life than they used to, some propose raising the retirement age. That will reduce the payments made and increase tax receipts. Retirement age is set according to date of birth. At present, it is 67 for people born in 1960 or later.

**Social Security,** Medicare, and **Medicaid have** received much attention because the **U.S.** population is aging.

- Invest Funds in the Stock Market Some people suggest that the government should invest some of Social Security money in the stock market. They assume that stocks will rise, making the system healthier.
- Allow Individual Investing Others agree with allowing the funds to be invested but want individuals to control where their own funds are invested.

### THE FUTURE OF THE FUNDS

During the 2000 presidential election, exit polls found that some 57 percent of Americans supported the "privatization" approach outlined by President Bush during his campaign: allow workers to divert a portion of their Social Security taxes into individual stock-market accounts. During the 2004 election campaign and following the election, President Bush continued his attempts to persuade

Americans to support his privatization plan.

Meanwhile, the proposal drew its share of critics. Among them were advocates for disabled workers and their families—a group that in 2008 made up 18 percent of all Social Security beneficiaries. According to a report from the General Accounting Office, under President Bush's plan a worker who became disabled and retired at the age of 45, for example, would receive 4 percent to 18 percent less in benefits.

Some women's groups also opposed privatization. They said that it would jeopardize the guarantee of lifetime, inflation-adjusted benefits that the current Social Security system provides. Because women earn less than men, they would have less to invest, and their returns would be lower.

Still others were concerned about the risk involved in relying on a volatile stock market. They questioned whether the funds in which people would invest their Social Security taxes would be secure. In the end, Bush could not garner enough support for his plan.

Not surprisingly, Social Security reform was an issue in the 2008 presidential election. Republican candidate John McCain favored a partial privatization plan. Democrat Barack Obama called for raising the cap on the amount of income subject to the FICA tax. Since the presidential election, little progress has been made on the issue of Social Security. As a result, the funding problem remains unsolved.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

How would the economy be both helped and hurt if Social Security benefits were cut?

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Tough Choices About Social Security.

1983 1994 2008

Social Security is reformed to provide financial stability for many years.

**President Clinton appoints** Advisory Council on Social Security to report on system's financial health.

**Social Security reform** is an important issue in the presidential election.

### Women in the Work Force

Will the American workplace grant men and women equal opportunities?

hirty-two years after entering a management training program at Boston's Federal Reserve Bank, Cathy Minehan became the bank's president and one of a select group of female executives who held 3.3 percent of the nation's highest-paying jobs. "A critical element in making it to the top is being in the pipeline to do so, ... " says Minehan. "Aside from . . . [that,] they have to believe they can make it. . . . It is hard for women or minorities to believe they can progress if they cannot look up and see faces like their own at the top."

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

In 1961, President John F. Kennedy named a commission to study the status of women in the workplace. Its report revealed that employers paid women less than men for equal work. The report also said that women were rarely promoted to top positions in their fields.

Almost 40 years later, the U.S. Census Bureau found that more women than ever before worked outside the home—about 60 percent. Women made up 47 percent of the American work force. Yet in 2005 they held only 16.4 percent of the most senior jobs according to a sampling of the Fortune 500, the nation's 500 largest companies.

Women are still making less than their male counterparts— averaging only 77 cents for every dollar.

Some women who pursue careers in business, government, or other organizations feel that a glass ceiling limits their progress. It is said to be glass because it is an invisible barrier that keeps women and minorities from attaining promotion above a certain level. Its invisibility makes it difficult to combat.

### **POSITIVE TRENDS**

Women have made great strides in recent decades. In 2002, they filled half of all jobs in managerial and professional specialty areas. Women have also been entering new fields, including construction work and equipment repair.

In the academic world, women are better represented than ever before. In 2006–2007, women received a record number—50 percent—of all doctorate degrees issued by universities. Women earned an even higher percentage—57—of all bachelor's degrees.

For many women, job success involved getting the right credentials and targeting a growth industry. A 2000 survey by the women's advocacy group Catalyst found that 91 percent of women with MBA degrees working in information technology reported high satisfaction with their current jobs, compared with only 82 percent of their male counterparts. "This translates into opportunity for women in this growing industry," said Sheila Wellington, president of Catalyst.

### **MONEY AND UPWARD MOBILITY**

Despite these positive signs, the key issues of unequal pay and unequal representation remain. Women are still making less than their male counterparts—averaging only 77 cents for every dollar earned by men. According to the National Committee on Pay Equity, there are a variety of reasons for this discrepancy: women are often socialized to aim toward lower-paying jobs, often have limited expectations about

### **History of Women at Work in the United States**

1834

1860

1899

1900

1920s

Women working in Lowell, Massachusetts, textile mills strike. 1 out of 10 single white women works outside the home, earning half the pay of men (pages 244–245).

Average pay for women workers is \$269 a year, compared with \$498 for men.

One out of five women works outside the home (pages 313–314).

Women enter new professions but battle unequal wages (page 442).



U.S. Appeals Court judge Rosemary Barkett (center) delivers the keynote address during a special session of Florida's high court honoring the state's first 150 female lawyers on June 15, 2000, in Tallahassee, Florida.

their leadership potential, and may have conflicts between the demands of work and family life.

In the nation's most top-level jobs, men continue to vastly outnumber women. As of 2006, women headed only ten Fortune 500 companies. Very few women who became corporate officers held line positions, jobs with profit-and-loss responsibility. In 2005, women held only 10.6 percent of line positions, while in contrast, men held 89.4 percent of them.

Why are women underrepresented in the top jobs? In one Catalyst poll of women executives, blame was placed on three factors: male stereotyping and preconceptions of women, women's exclusion from informal networks of communication, and women's lack of significant management experience.

On the other hand, the respondents suggested some approaches that had helped them succeed in the corporate world: consistently exceed expectations, develop a style with which managers are comfortable, seek out difficult assignments, and have an influential mentor.

### STRIKING OUT ON THEIR OWN

Many women who are frustrated by the corporate environment at their existing companies are choosing to start their own business. According to the center for Women's Business Research, in 2004 10.6 million firms were at least 50 percent owned by women-and constituted the fastest-growing sector of all U.S. firms. Notes Dixie Junk, owner of Junk Architects in Kansas City, "It's more than having a business—you get to create the culture you want."

### IT PAYS TO BE FLEXIBLE

Another area of change affecting women in the work force has been an increasing number of options for flexible work arrangements, such as part-time work and telecommuting opportunities. In 2004, 71 percent of companies surveyed had formal policies or guidelines for some type of flexible work arrangement.

A Catalyst study of 24 women who first used flexible work arrangements more than a decade ago found that all of them now held mid- and senior-level positions, and more than half had been promoted in the last 10 years. Says Marcia Brumit Kropf, vice-president of research and information services, "Findings from this report suggest that even though working mothers may reduce career involvement for a period of time—with the support of the right company—career advancement does not have to get sidelined."

In general, women still have the primary responsibility for child care in U.S. society. Women without flexible work arrangements must find others to care for their children at least part of the day. About 65 percent of mothers with children under the age of 6 and 80 percent of mothers with children between the ages of 6 and 13 work. Many people believe that the government should subsidize child-care costs.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

What can be done to afford women the same opportunities as men?

### hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about Women in the Work Force

1961 1989 1998 2005

Presidential Commission on the Status of Women reports: women are paid less than men (page . 777).

20 states begin adjusting pay scales to equalize pay (page 843).

Women earn 76 cents for every dollar a man earns.

Women-owned businesses are the fastestgrowing sector of the U.S. economy.

# The Conservation Controversy

Can the nation balance conservation with economic progress?

n 1990, Oregon logger Bill Haire hung a new ornament on the mirror of his truck: a tiny owl with an arrow through its head. The trinket represented the spotted owl as well as Haire's feelings about the federal government's decision to declare millions of acres of forest off limits to the logging industry in order to protect this endangered species of bird.

"If it comes down to my family or that bird," said Haire, "that bird's going to suffer." The battle between loggers and environmentalists over the fate of the spotted owl is just one example of the nation's ongoing struggle to balance conservation with industrial progress.

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

Conservation, the management and protection of the earth's resources, began as a national movement in the United States during the early 1900s. In the wake of the country's industrial revolution, the federal government enacted numerous measures to protect the nation's natural surroundings. President Theodore Roosevelt expressed a particular interest in preserving America's forestlands. "Like other men who had thought about the national future at all," he once remarked, "I had been growing more and more concerned over



Hikers on the Highline Trail in Glacier National Park, northwest Montana

the destruction of the forests." Roosevelt established the first wildlife refuge in Florida and added more than 150 million acres to the nation's forest preserves.

The 1960s and 1970s witnessed a resurgence of the conservation movement. In 1962, marine biologist Rachel Carson published *Silent Spring*, which warned of the destructive effects of pesticides. The book awakened Americans to the damage

they were inflicting on the environment. In the two decades that followed, Congress created the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and enacted such measures as the Clean Air Act, the Clean Water Act, and the Endangered Species Act—all in an effort to restore the health of the country's natural resources. And, since 1970, the country nearly tripled the size of its national park space.

### **History of Conservation in the United States**

1903

1933

1962

1970

1973

President Theodore Roosevelt establishes the first federal wildlife refuge (page 323). President Franklin Roosevelt creates the Civilian Conservation Corps (page 491). Rachel Carson publishes Silent Spring (page 691).

Congress establishes the Environmental Protection Agency; Congress passes Clean Air Act (page 822).

Congress passes the Endangered Species Act (page 822).

### THE MOVEMENT CONTINUES

By the early 2000s, Americans had done much to improve the environment. Between 1970 and 2008, for example, the nation's yearly production of carbon monoxide emissions into the air dropped from 204 million tons to about 78 million tons.

A number of states have made independent efforts. California, for instance, has some of the nation's strictest air-pollution control laws, and these have helped to provide the Golden State with much cleaner air. Other states are playing their part as well in the nation's ongoing conservation effort.

However, there is still much to be done, especially about water pollution. One indicator is data collected by the Environmental Protection Agency for the first decade of the 2000s, which showed that beach closings-mostly due to unsafe levels of water pollution-were at historically high levels.

Not all action has been through government. Private groups such as the Nature Conservancy and local land trusts have raised money to purchase forest and watershed lands and keep them pristine. In Texas several entrepreneurs created the Fossil Rim Wildlife Center, a 1,700-acre wildlife sanctuary for more than 50 animal species.

### **ONGOING DEBATES**

Despite the strides Americans have made in protecting their natural resources over the past half century, environmental problems still exist, and the nation still struggles to strike a balance between conservation and economic growth. Such a struggle is clearly visible in the greenhouse effect. The greenhouse effect is the rise in temperature that

As the 21st century begins, the nation faces the challenge of balancing energy needs with environmental concerns.

Earth experiences because certain gases in the atmosphere trap energy from the sun. Without these gases, heat would escape back into space and Earth's average temperature would be about 60°F colder.

Some greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide, occur naturally in the air. But the burning of fossil fuels and other human activities add to the levels of these gases, amplifying the greenhouse effect and causing an increase in global warming. Global warming could prompt a range of environmental calamities, from severe flooding in some parts of the world to drought in others.

In 2005, a treaty called the Kvoto Protocol took effect. It aims to reduce greenhouse gases overall by requiring developed countries to lower their emissions. The United States—the world's largest producer of greenhouse gases—signed the treaty but did not ratify it. President George W. Bush expressed doubt

about global warming for several vears. He also claimed that the protocol was unfair because developing countries such as China were exempt. As of 2010, the Obama administration had not pushed for ratification.

Another issue of great concern to Americans today—and one that also is stirring debate between environmentalists and industrialists—is the nation's growing appetite for energy. The United States consumes 21 percent of the world's energy, nearly all of it in the form of fossil fuels such as oil, coal, and natural gas. Much of the fuel America uses comes from overseas—in places such as the oil-rich Middle East. The reliance on foreign sources has left the United States vulnerable to price increases and fuel shortages.

In 2005, President Bush outlined a plan to lessen U.S. dependence on oil imports. He proposed using more nuclear power, giving tax credits to buyers of energy-efficient cars and appliances, building new refineries, and drilling for more oil at home. Five years later, President Obama presented a similar plan. However, he also pushed for heavier use of renewable energy sources and for taxes on businesses that produce high levels of carbon pollution.

Fluctuating gasoline prices in 2007 and 2008 and a massive oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010 caused new energy worries. Balancing energy needs with environmental concerns is an issue that Americans will grapple with for years.

### PREDICTING EFFECTS

Do you think the United States eventually will engage in greater domestic exploration of its natural resources to solve its growing energy needs? Why or why not?

hmhsocialstudies.com RESEARCH WEB LINKS

Visit the links for the Epilogue to find out more about The Conservation Controversy.

1977 1990 2005

Congress passes Clean Water Act.

Congress amends Clean Air Act to address new environmental problems, including acid rain and ozone depletion.

The Kyoto Protocol, which commits countries to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, takes effect.

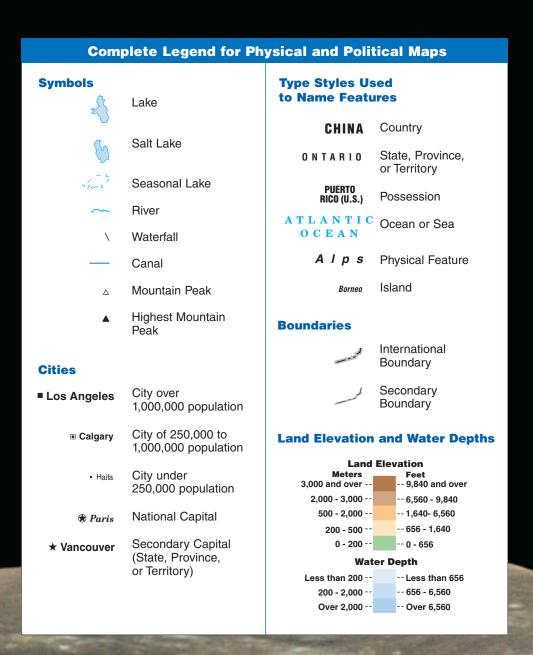
# RAND MONALLY World Atlas



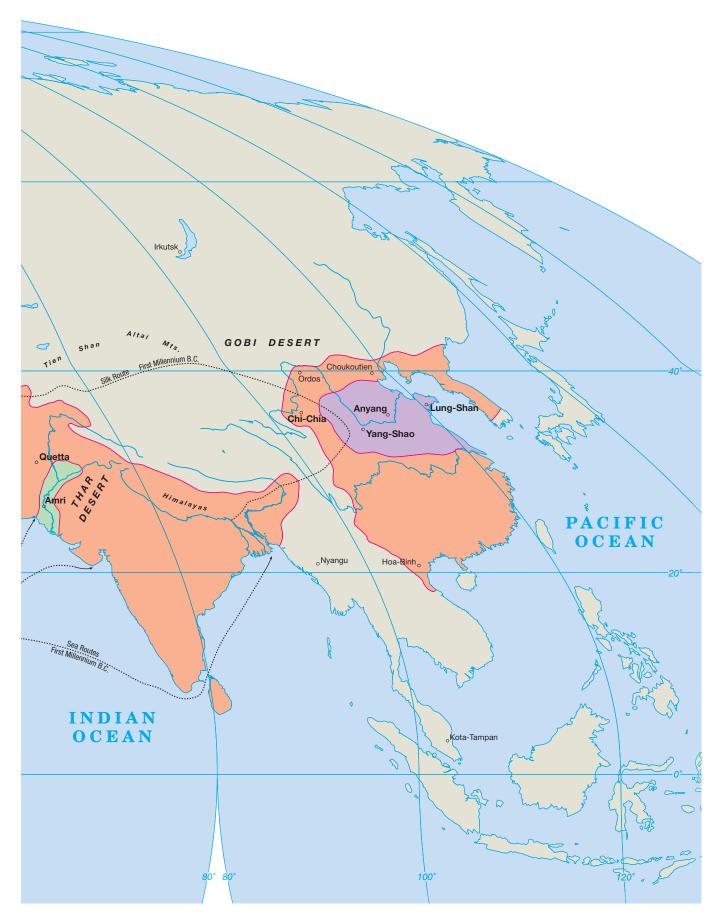


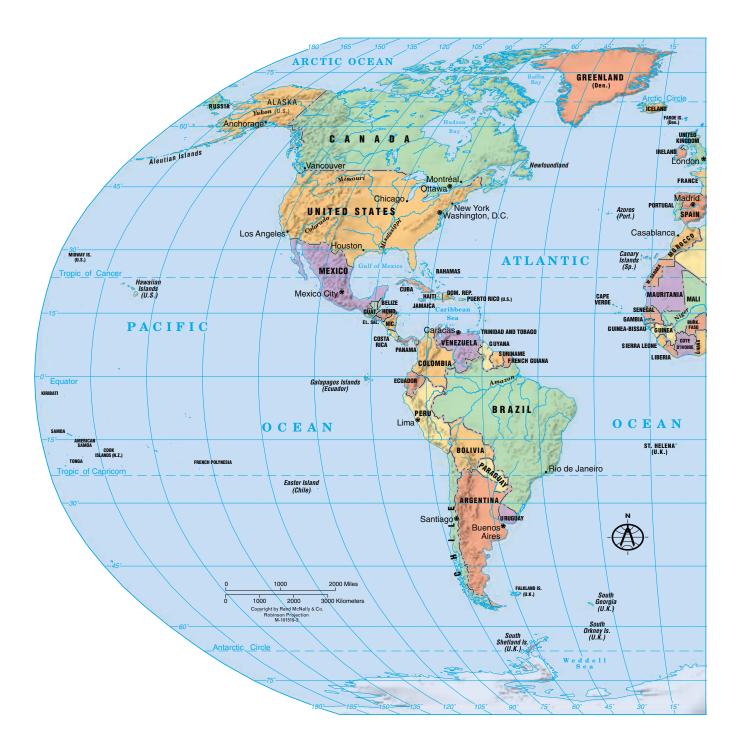
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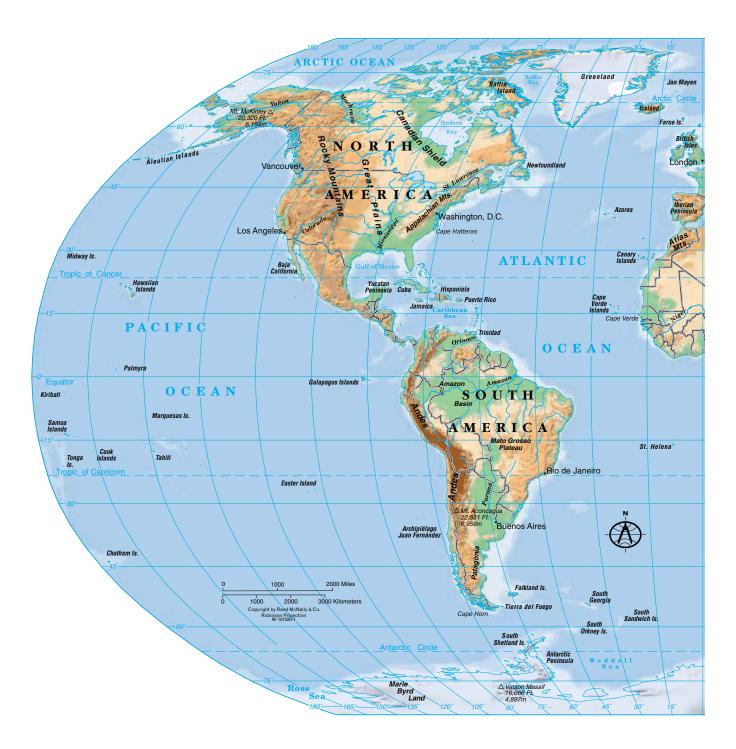




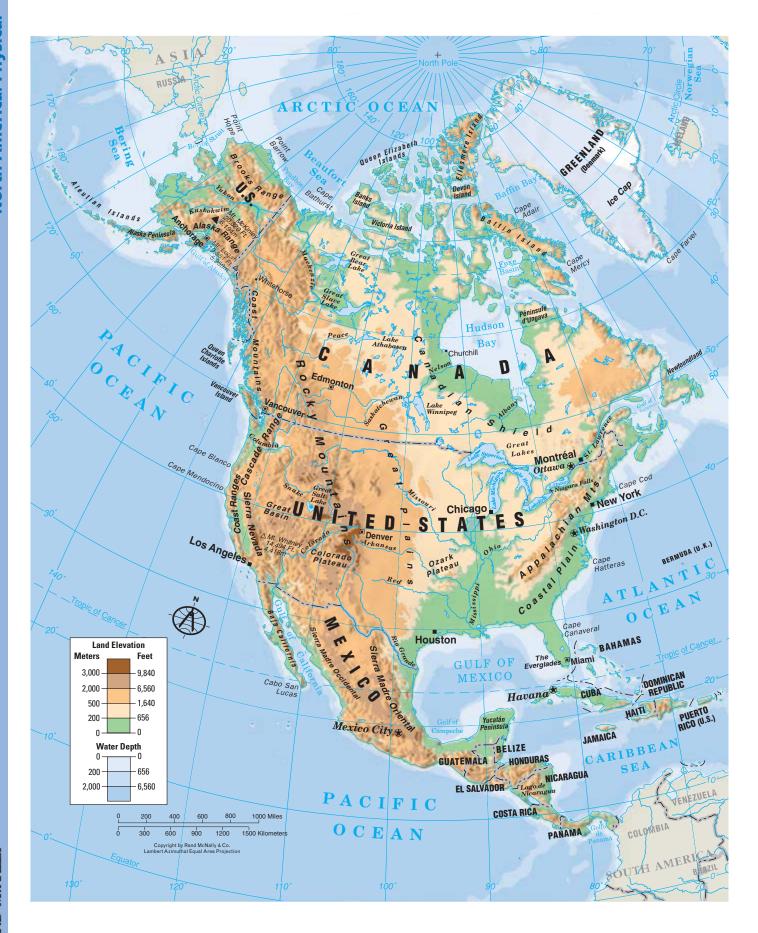




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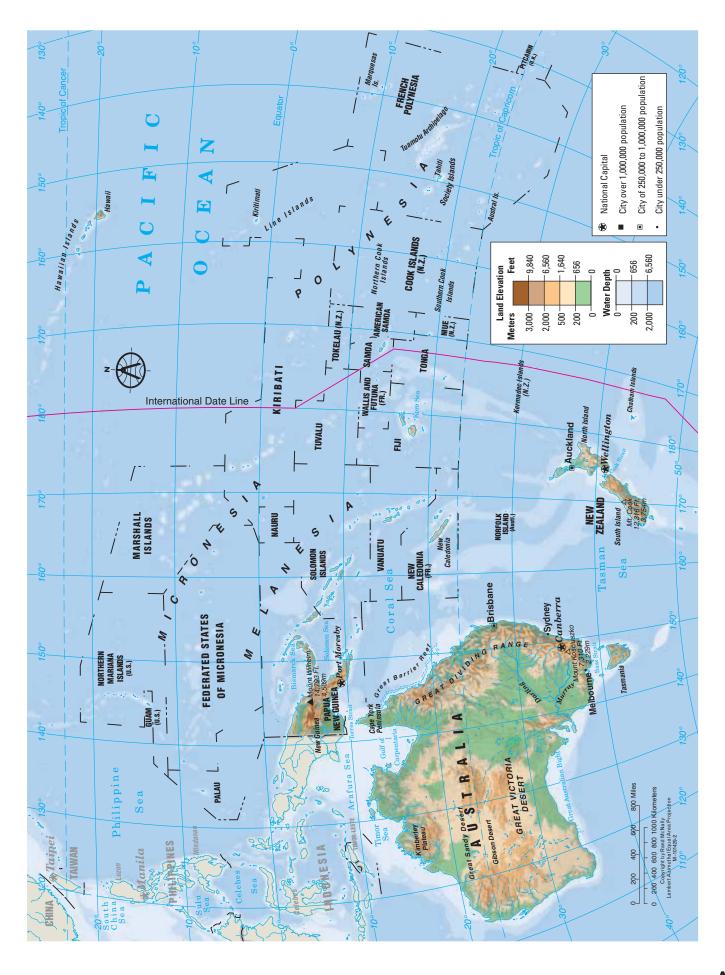












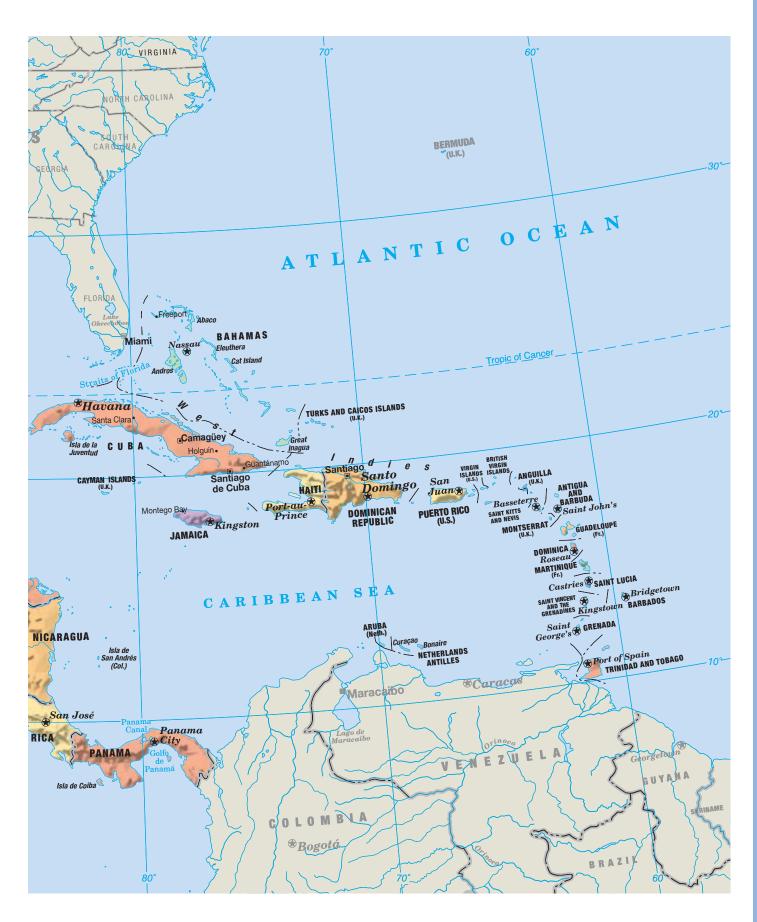


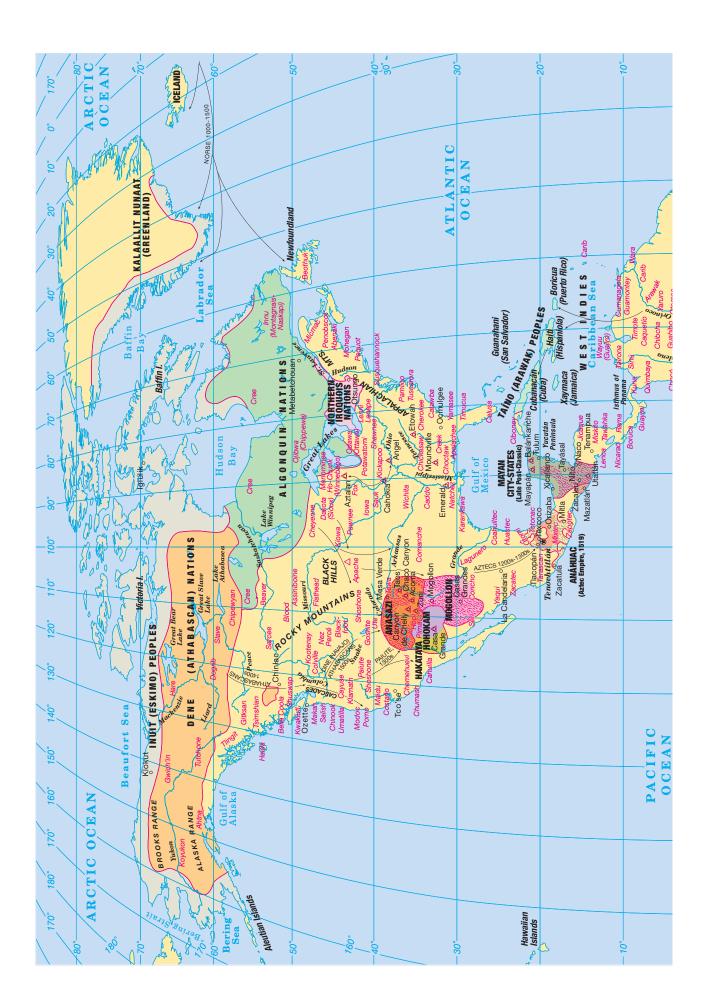


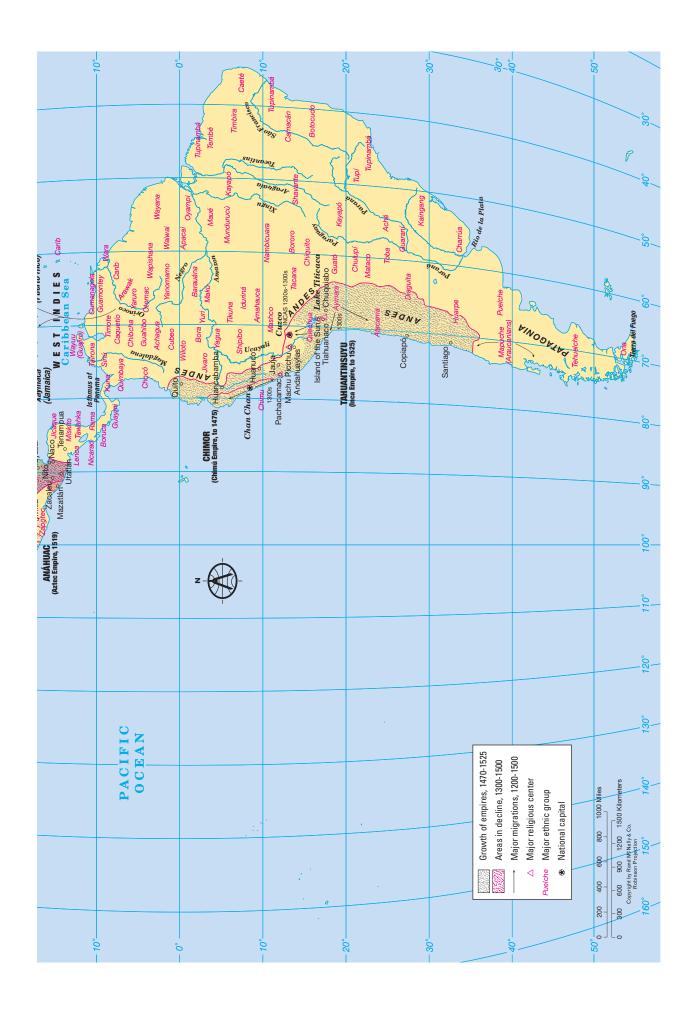






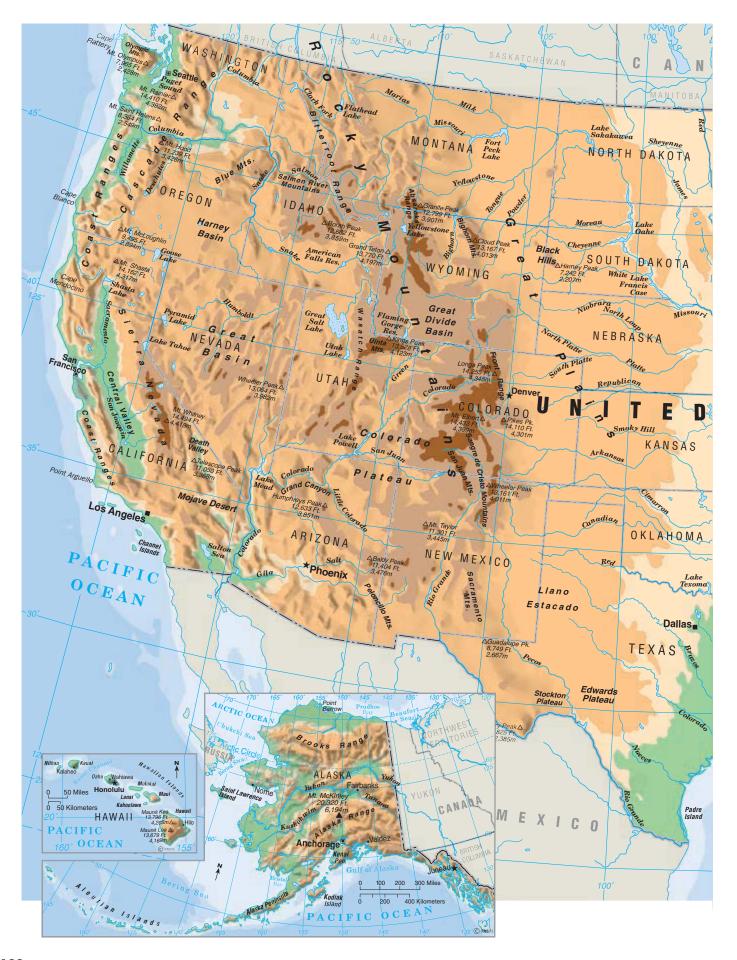




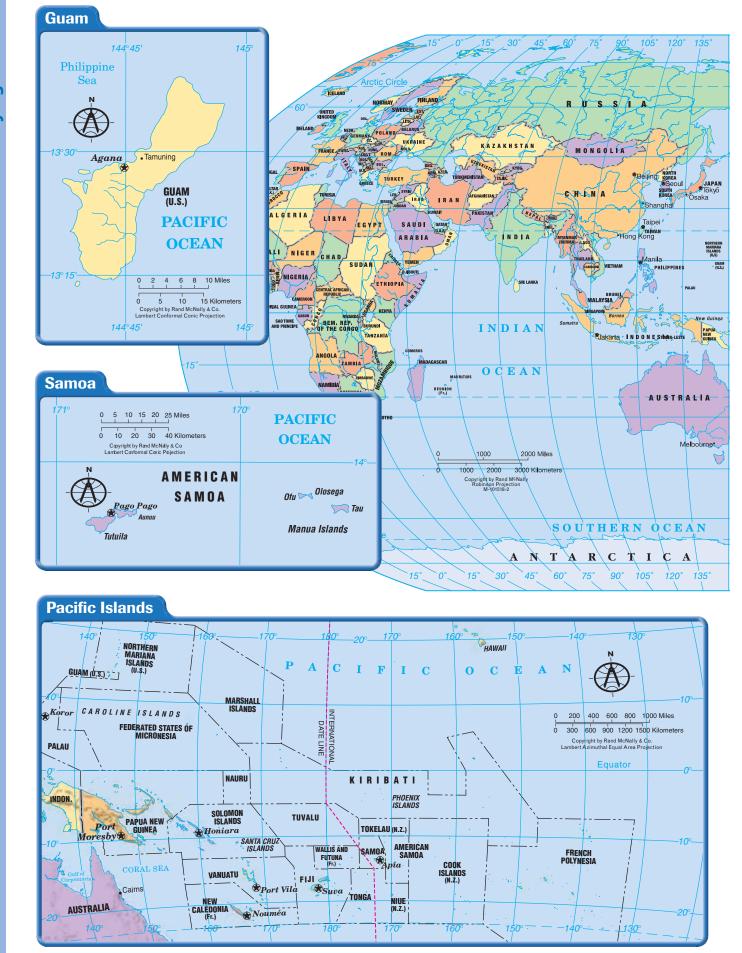


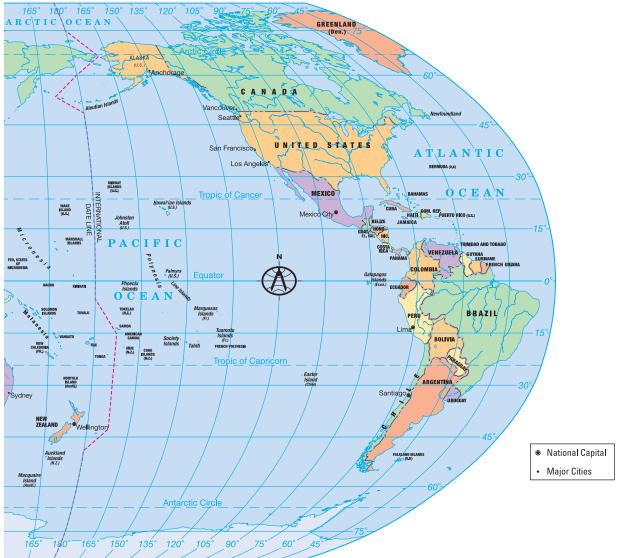


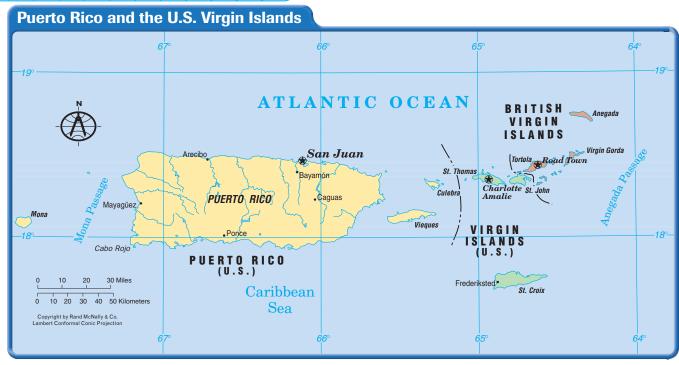


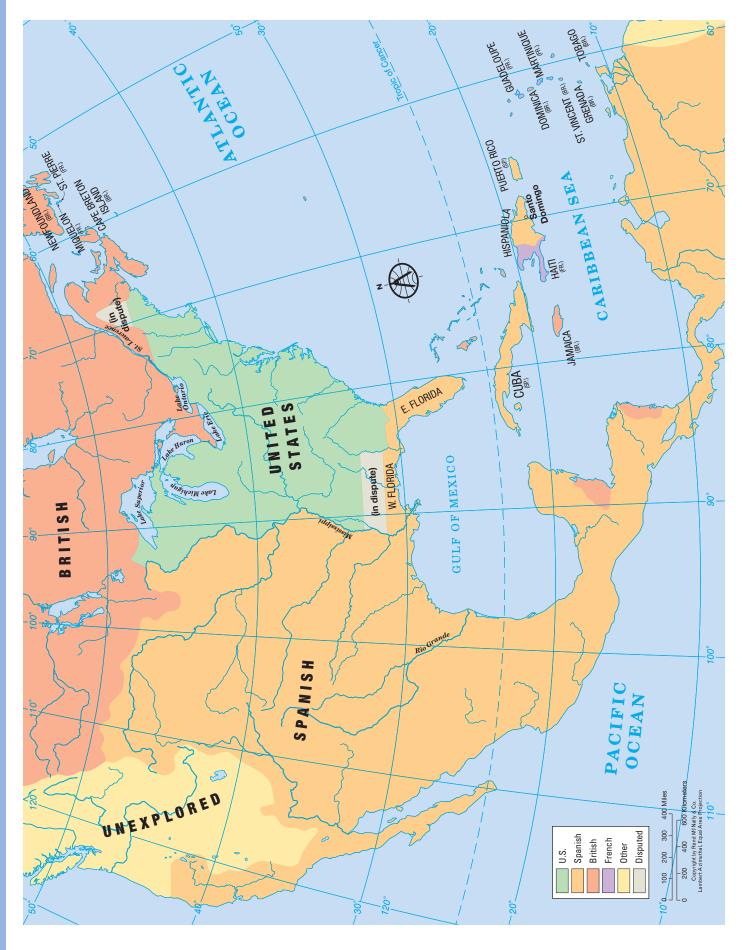








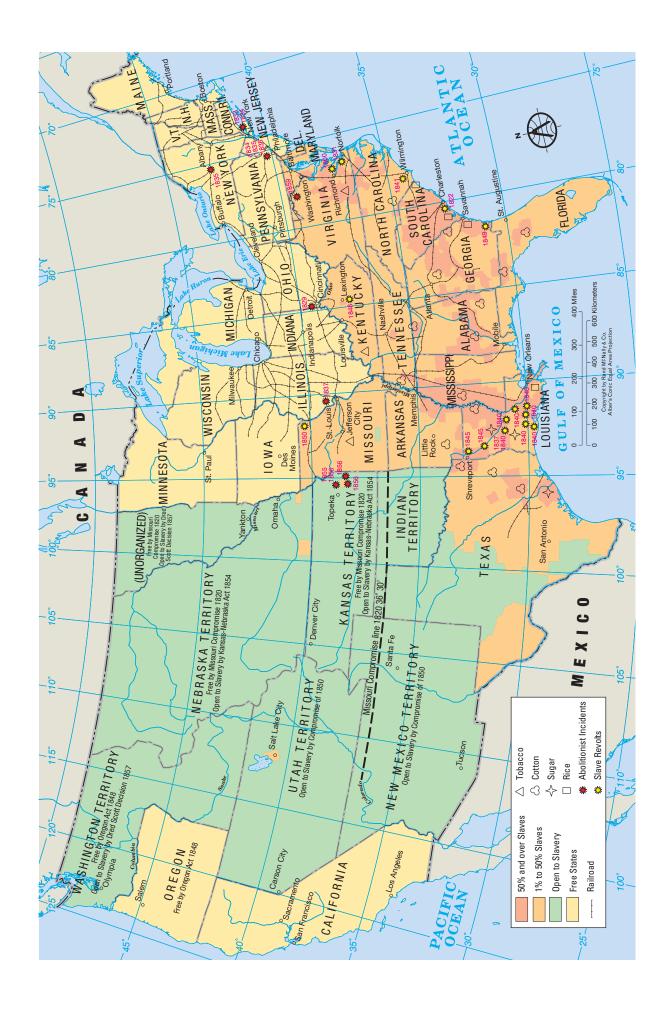


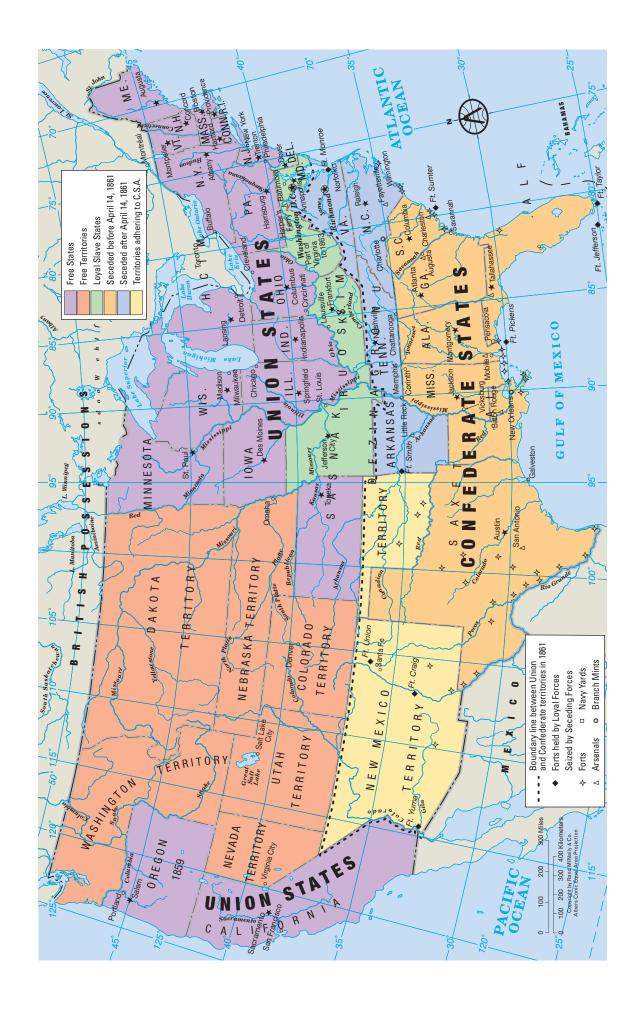


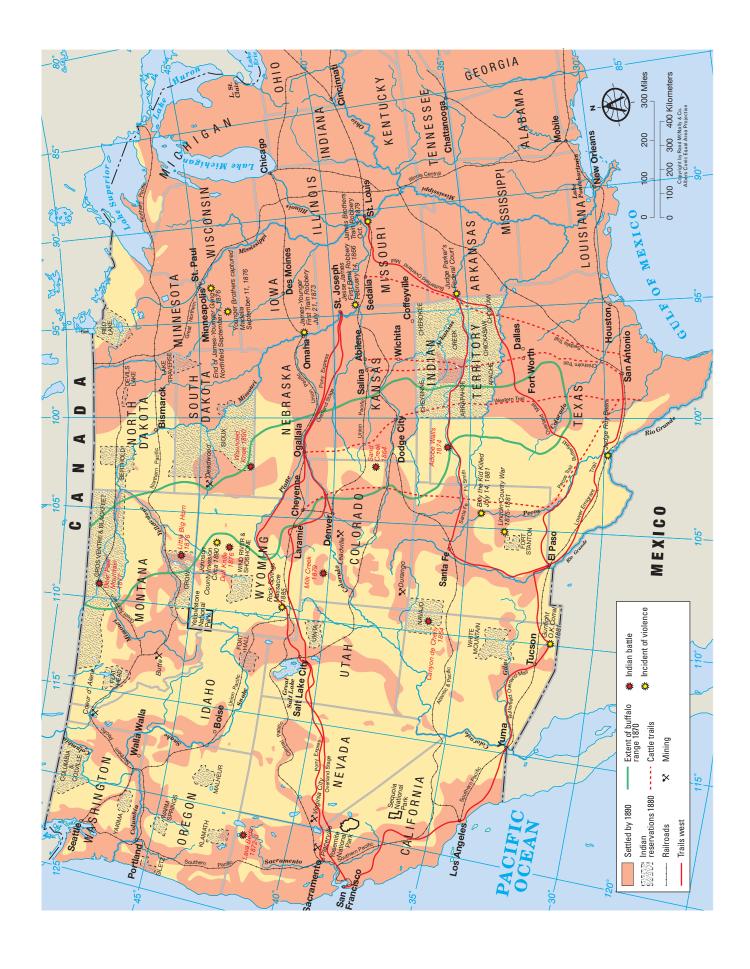


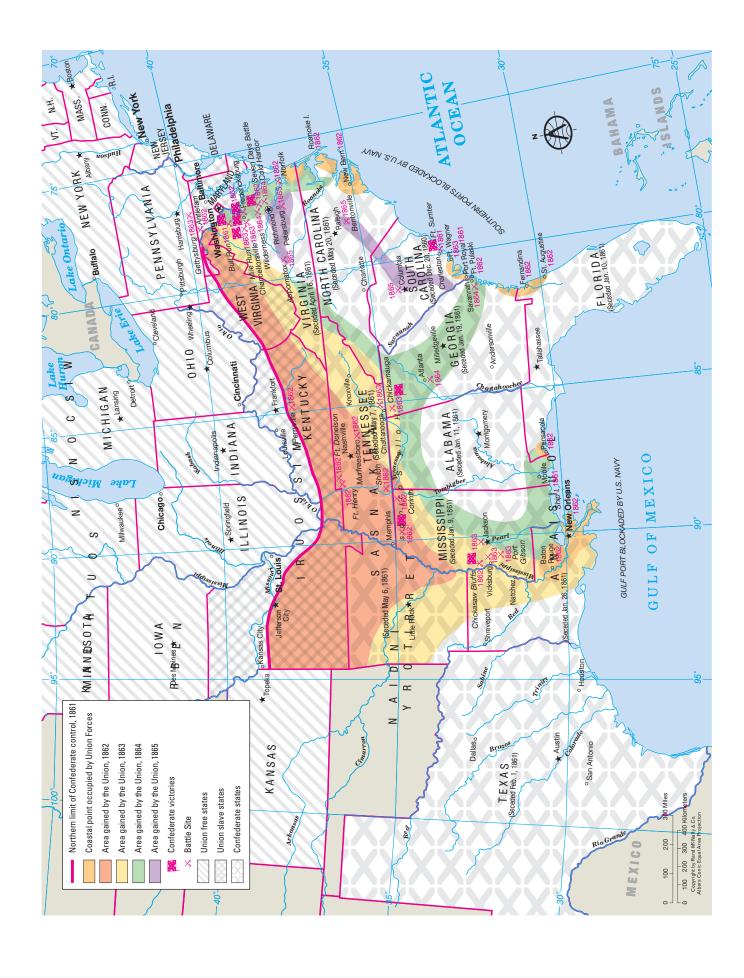


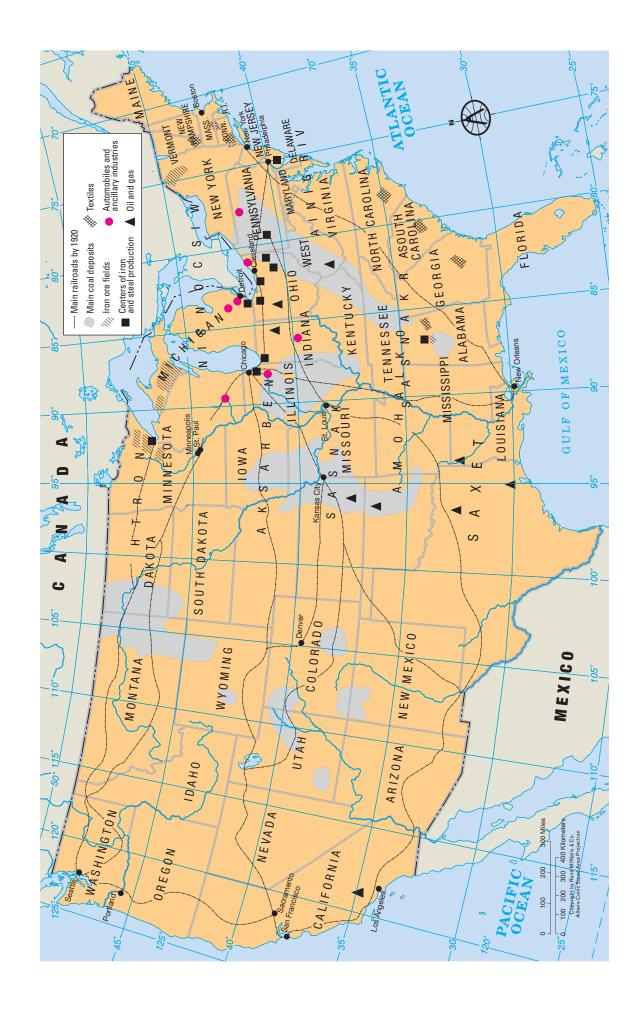




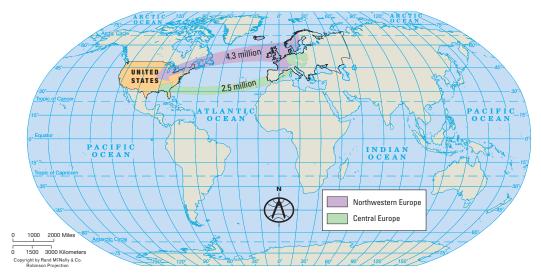




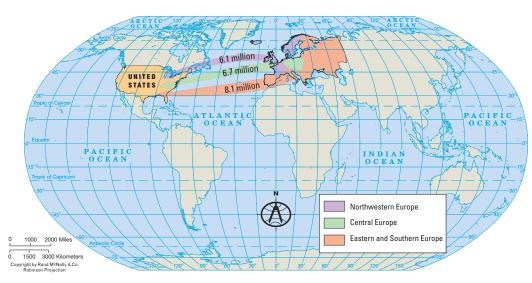




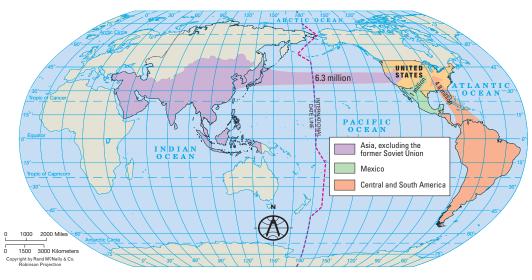




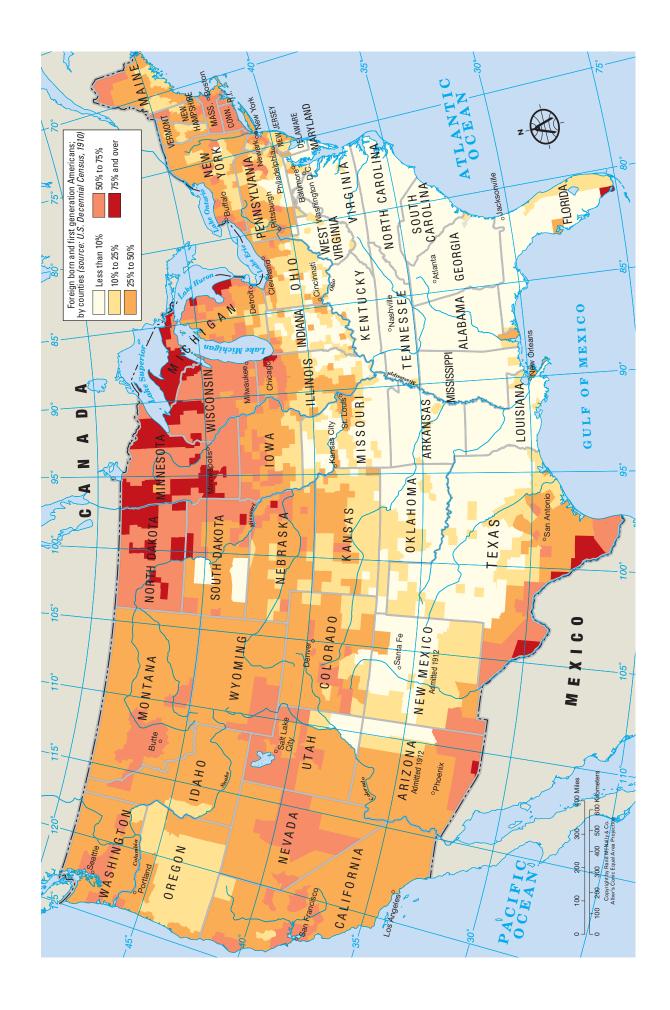
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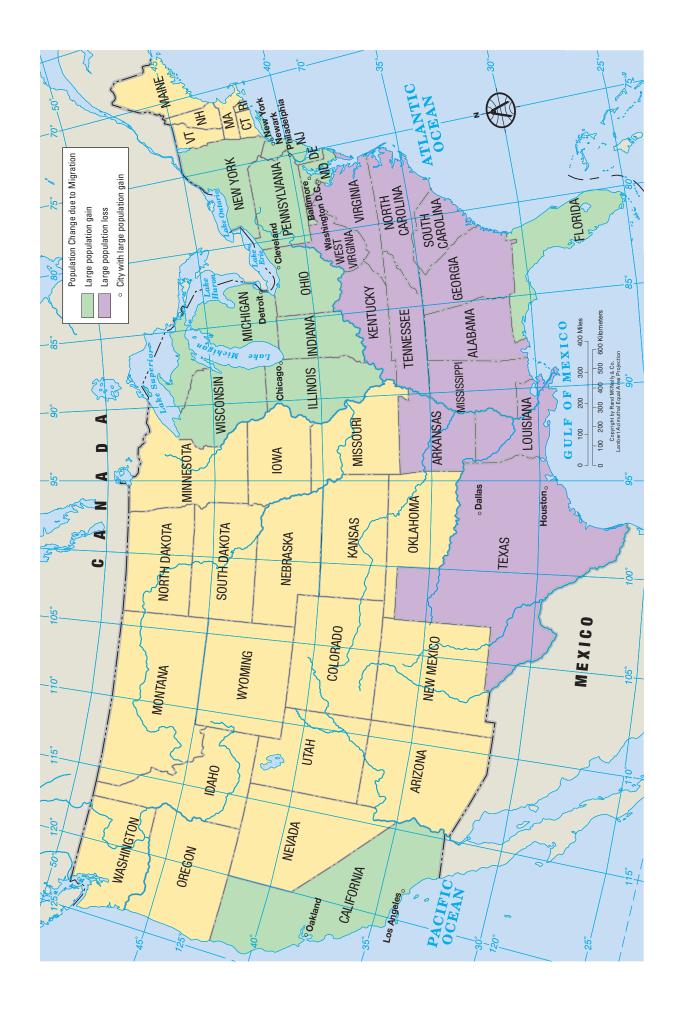


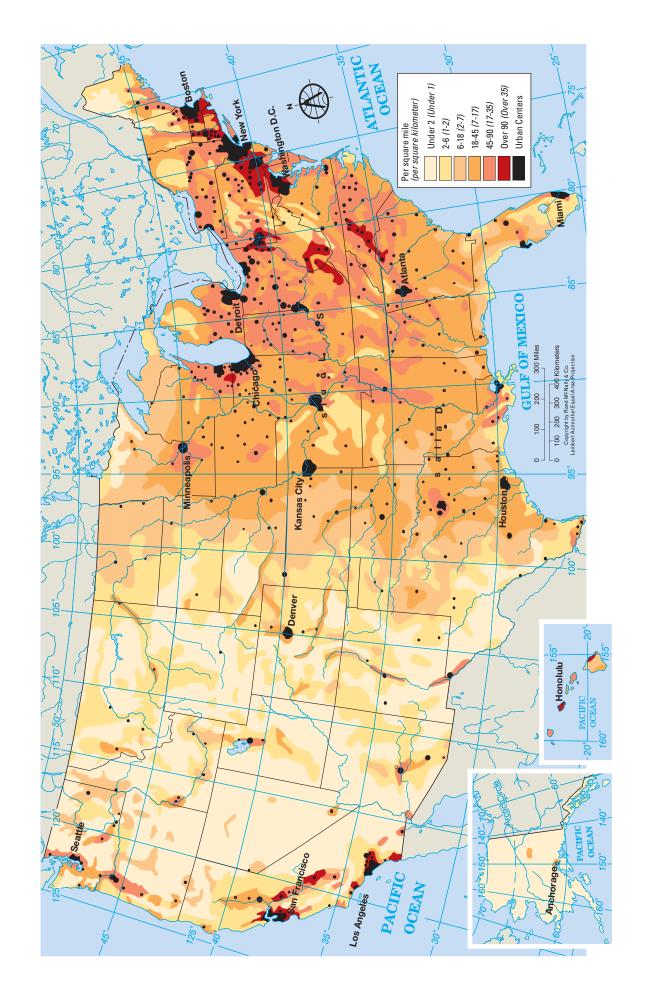
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# 1.1 Finding Main Ideas

### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Finding main ideas means identifying words that sum up the single most important thought in an entire paragraph or section. To find the main idea of a passage, identify the topic. Then, as you read, ask, What central idea do the many details explain or support?

### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

This excerpt from President Richard M. Nixon's memoirs is about wiretapping, or bugging—planting a concealed microphone to get information. The diagram that follows identifies and organizes information in the passage.

#### **HOW TO FIND MAIN IDEAS**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the topic by looking at the title, or by looking for key words. This passage repeats the words bugged, bugging, tapped, and wiretap.

**Strategy** 2 Look for a topic sentence. Ask whether any one sentence sums up the point of the whole passage. In this passage, the second sentence states Nixon's attitude toward bugging.

**Strategy** 3 Look for details or examples. The many examples support the attitude that wiretapping was a common practice.

# NIXON ON WIRETAPPING 1

I had been in politics too long, and seen everything from dirty tricks to vote fraud. 2 I could not muster much moral outrage over a political **1** bugging.

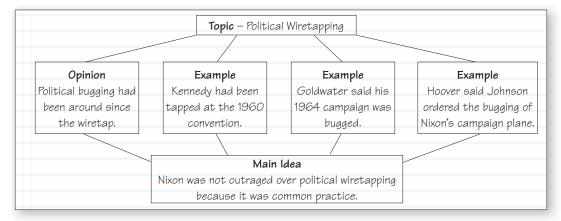
Larry O'Brien [director of the Democratic National Committee] might affect astonishment and horror, but he knew as well as I did that political bugging had been around nearly since the invention of the wiretap. 3 As recently as 1970 a former member of Adlai Stevenson's [Democratic candidate for president in 1952 and 1956] campaign staff had publicly stated that he had tapped the [John F.] Kennedy organization's phone lines at the 1960 Democratic convention. 3 Lyndon Johnson felt that the Kennedys had had him tapped; 3 Barry Goldwater said that his 1964 campaign had been bugged; 3 and Edgar Hoover [director of the FBI, 1924–1972] told me that in

Source: Richard Nixon, The Memoirs of Richard Nixon (New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1978), pp. 628-629.

1968 Johnson had ordered my campaign plane bugged.

### Make a Diagram

State the topic and list the supporting details in a chart. Use the information you record to help you state the main idea.



### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 26, Section 3, p. 879 and read the passage headed "Space Exploration." Make a diagram, like the one above, to identify the topic, the most important details, and the main idea of the passage.

# 1.2 Following Chronological Order

### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Chronological order** is "time order"—the sequence of events in time. Chronology may be either relative or absolute. Relative chronology relates one event to another. This helps historians to see causes, effects, and other relationships between events. Absolute chronology ties events to an exact time or date, pinpointing dates in one universal framework—the passage of time.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following paragraph is about several events leading up to the Watergate scandal that brought down the Nixon administration. The time line that follows puts the events of the passage in chronological order.

# **HOW TO FOLLOW CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER**

**Strategy** 1 Look for clue words about time. These are words like initial, first, next, then, before, after, finally, and by that time.

**Strategy** 2 Use specific dates provided in the text.

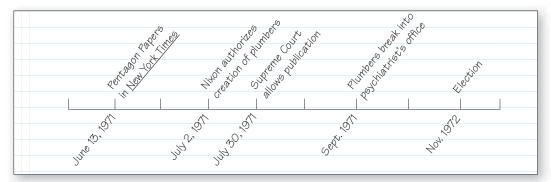
**Strategy** 3 Watch for references to previous historical events that are included in the background. Usually a change in verb tense will indicate a previous event.

# **The Pentagon Papers**

The 1 initial event that many historians believe led to Watergate took place on 2 June 13, 1971, when the New York Times began publishing articles called the Pentagon Papers, which divulged government secrets about the U.S. involvement in Vietnam. The information had been leaked by a former Defense Department official, Daniel Ellsberg. The Justice Department asked the courts to suppress publication of the articles, but on 2 July 30, 1971, the Supreme Court ruled that the information could be published. 1 Two months later, in September, a group of special White House agents known as the plumbers burglarized the office of Ellsberg's psychiatrist in a vain attempt to find evidence against Ellsberg. President Nixon 3 had authorized the creation of the plumbers in 1971, after the Pentagon Papers were published, to keep government secrets from leaking to the media and to help ensure his reelection in November 1972.

#### **Make a Time Line**

If the events in a passage are numerous and complex, make a time line to represent them. The time line here lists the events from the passage above in time order.



# PRACTICING THE SKILL

Skim Chapter 21, Section 2, p. 710 "The Triumphs of a Crusade," to find out how the civil rights movement helped end segregation in the South. Make a list of the important dates you find, starting with the freedom ride in May 1961 and ending with the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Use the model above to help you create your own time line, showing what happened on each date.

# 1.3 Clarifying; Summarizing

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Clarifying** means checking to be sure you clearly understand what you have read. One way to do this is by asking yourself questions. In your answers, you might restate in your own words what you have read.

When you **summarize**, you condense what you have read into fewer words, stating only the main idea and the most important supporting details. It is important to use your own words in a summary.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The excerpt below describes a major oil spill. Following the excerpt is a summary that condenses the key information in the passage into a few sentences.

#### **HOW TO SUMMARIZE**

**Strategy 1** Look for topic sentences stating the main ideas. These are often at the beginning of a section or paragraph. In a summary, rewrite the main ideas in your own words.

**Strategy 2** Include only the most important facts and statistics. Pay attention to numbers, dates, quantities, and other data.

**Strategy** 3 Clarify understanding by asking questions. Also, look up any words you do not recognize.

# THE EXXON VALDEZ OIL SPILL

1 In March 1989, the oil tanker *Exxon Valdez* ran aground in Prince William Sound along the coast of Alaska, dumping about 2 11 million gallons of crude oil into the sea. Within days, 1,800 miles of coastline were fouled with thick black oil that coated rocks and beaches. At least 10 percent of the area's birds, sea otters, and other animals were killed, and commercial fisheries estimated that they would lose at least 50 percent of the season's catch.

The captain of the *Exxon Valdez* was found guilty of 3 negligence, and attempts were made to clean up the spill. 2 Ten years later, however, scientists found that pools of oil buried in coves were still poisoning shellfish, otters, and ducks, while several bird species failed to reproduce.

2 Between 1989 and 1994, Exxon spent about \$2.1 billion in efforts to clean up Prince William Sound. In the meantime, some 34,000 commercial fishers and other Alaskans sued the company for damages, claiming that the oil spill had ruined their livelihoods.

#### **Write a Summary**

You can write your summary in a paragraph. The paragraph below summarizes the passage about the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill. After writing your summary, review it to see that you have included only the most important details.

In 1989, the Exxon Valdez ran aground off the Alaskan coast, spilling 11 million gallons of oil. The water and coastline for hundreds of miles were badly polluted, and many animals died. Alaskans sued the oil company for lost income. Exxon spent \$2.1 billion for a cleanup effort and was subject to litigation from people who lost their livelihoods because of the spill.

#### PRACTICING THE SKILLS

Turn to Chapter 14, Section 1, p. 464 and read the passage headed "Economic Troubles on the Horizon." Make notes of the main ideas. Look up any words you don't recognize. Then write a summary of the passage, using the model above as your guide.

# 1.4 Identifying Problems

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Identifying problems** means recognizing and understanding difficulties faced by particular people or groups at particular times. Being able to focus on specific problems helps historians understand the motives for actions and the forces underlying historical events.

### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage tells about the experience of newcomers to Northern cities, like Boston and Philadelphia, in the late 1800s. Below the passage is a chart that organizes the information the passage contains.

# **HOW TO IDENTIFY PROBLEMS**

**Strategy** 1 Look for problems that are implied but not stated. Problems are sometimes stated indirectly. This sentence implies that many immigrants settled in the cities because of limited opportunities elsewhere.

Strategy 2 Look for difficulties people faced.

**Strategy** 3 Evaluate solutions to problems.

**Strategy** 4 Recognize that sometimes the solution to one problem may cause another problem.

#### **IMMIGRANT LIFE IN THE CITIES**

1 The lure that drew many immigrants to America and its cities often was the same one that had attracted settlers to the West—opportunity. In the nation's industrialized centers people saw a chance to 2 escape poverty, find work, and carve out a better life.

Cities offered unskilled laborers steady jobs in mills and factories and provided the social support of neighborhoods of people with the same ethnic background. 3 Living among people who shared their background enabled the newcomers to speak their own language while learning about their new home. 4 Overcrowding soon became a problem, however—one that was intensified by the migration of people from America's rural areas.

#### **Make a Chart**

The chart below summarizes the problems and solutions in the passage. The chart details what the problems were, what steps people took to solve the problems, and how those solutions affected them.

Problems	Solutions	Outcomes
poverty	coming to U.S. cities	jobs available
lack of opportunity	coming to U.S. cities	jobs, housing, communities
lack of work skills	factory and mill jobs requiring low level of training	enough jobs for the time being
unfamiliarity with language	living in ethnic communities	community but overcrowding

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 23, Section 2, p. 776 and read the passage headed "Women Fight for Equality." Note the social and economic problems many women faced in the 1960s and 1970s. Then make a chart, like the one above, in which you summarize the information you found in the passage. Be sure to read to the end of the section so that you can evaluate the solutions attempted and their outcomes.

# 1.5 Analyzing Motives

### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Analyzing motives** in history means examining the reasons why a person, group, or government took a particular action. These reasons often go back to the needs, emotions, and prior experiences of the person or group, as well as their plans, circumstances, and objectives.

### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following paragraphs tell how the early Mormons were treated and why they moved west in the mid-1800s. The diagram below the passage summarizes the Mormons' motives for that journey.

### **HOW TO ANALYZE MOTIVES**

**Strategy 1** Look for different kinds of motives. Some motives are negative, and others are positive.

**Strategy 2** Look for the influence of important individuals or leaders in motivating others.

**Strategy** 3 Look for basic needs and human emotions as powerful motivators. Such needs and emotions include food and shelter, greed, ambition, compassion, and fear.

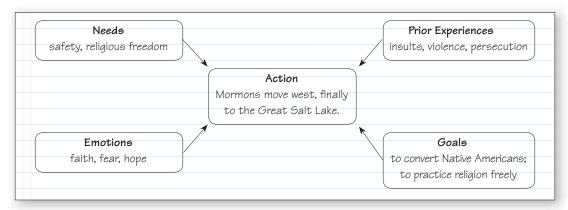
### **The Mormon Migration**

Some of the Mormons' beliefs alarmed and angered other Americans. 1 Plagued by persecution and violence and seeking to convert Native Americans, Mormon church founder Joseph Smith led his followers west to a small community in Illinois. Conflict soon developed again when Smith allowed male members to have more than one wife. This idea infuriated many of Smith's neighbors, and he was eventually murdered by a mob.

2 The Mormons rallied around a new leader, Brigham Young, who urged them to move farther west. There they encountered a desert area near a salt lake, just beyond the moutains of what was then part of Mexico. The salty water was useless for crops and animals. Because the land was not desirable to others, 3 Young realized that his people might be safe there. The Mormons began to build Salt Lake City.

# **Make a Diagram**

In the center of the diagram, list the important actions from the passage. Around it, list motives in different categories.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 17, Section 3, p. 583 and read the passage headed "The Atomic Bomb Ends the War." Take notes about President Truman's motives in dropping atomic bombs on Japan. Then create a diagram similar to the one shown here.

# 1.6 Analyzing Causes and Effects

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

A **cause** is an action in history that prompts something to happen. An **effect** is a historical event or condition that is the result of the cause. A single event may have several causes. It is also possible for one cause to result in several effects. Historians identify cause-and-effect relationships to help them understand why historical events took place.

### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following paragraphs describe the early events leading to the Battle of Little Bighorn. The diagram that follows the passage summarizes the chain of causes and effects.

# **HOW TO IDENTIFY CAUSES** AND EFFECTS

**Strategy** 1 Look for reasons behind the events. Here the discovery of gold motivated white Americans to move into Sioux territory.

**Strategy** 2 Look for clue words indicating cause. These include because, due to, since, and therefore

Strategy 3 Look for clue words indicating consequences. These include brought about, led to, as a result, thus, consequently, and responded. Remember that a cause may have several effects.

#### **Broken Treaties**

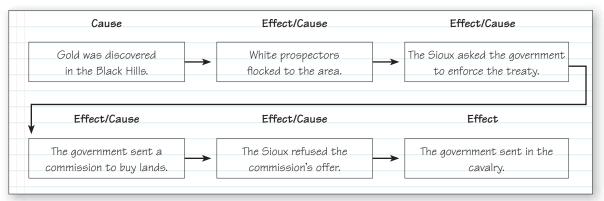
The Treaty of Fort Laramie (1868) had promised the Sioux that they could live forever in Paha Sapa, the Black Hills area of what is now South Dakota and Wyoming. The area was sacred to the Sioux. It was the center of their land and the place where warriors went to await visions from their guardian spirits.

Unfortunately for the Sioux, the Black Hills contained large deposits of gold. 1 As soon as white Americans learned that gold had been discovered, they poured into the Native Americans' territory and began staking claims.

2 Because the Sioux valued their land so highly, they appealed to the government to enforce the treaty terms and remove the miners. The government 3 responded by offering to purchase the land from the Sioux. When the Sioux refused, the government sent in the Seventh Cavalry to remove the Native Americans.

### **Make a Cause-and-Effect Diagram**

Starting with the first cause in a series, fill in the boxes until you reach the end result.



### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 11, Section 3, p. 392 and read the passage headed "African Americans and the War." Take notes about the causes and effects of African-American migration. Make a diagram, like the one shown above, to organize the information you find.

# 1.7 Comparing; Contrasting

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Comparing** involves looking at the similarities and differences between two or more things. **Contrasting** means examining only the differences between them. Historians might compare and contrast events, personalities, beliefs, institutions, works of art, or many other types of things in order to give them a context for the period of history they are studying.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage describes life in colonial America during the last half of the 1600s. The Venn diagram below shows the similarities and differences

between the Northern and Southern colonies.

# HOW TO COMPARE AND CONTRAST

**Strategy 1** Look for clue words that show how two things differ. Clue words include *different*, *differ, unlike, by contrast, however,* and *on the other hand.* 

**Strategy 2** Look for clue words indicating that two things are alike. Clue words include *both*, *all*, *like*, *as*, *likewise*, and *similarly*.

**Strategy** 3 Look for features that two things have in common.

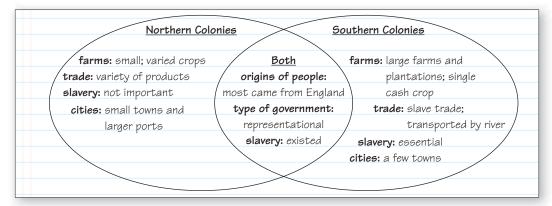
# Life in the Early American Colonies

Not long after the English colonies were established, it became apparent that two very 1 different ways of life were developing in the Northern and Southern colonies. In the South, both 2 rich plantation owners and poorer frontier farmers sought land. Virginia and Maryland became known as the tobacco colonies. 3 Large farms, but few towns, appeared there.

Slavery existed in 3 all the colonies, but it became a vital source of labor in the South. 1 By contrast, the New England and middle colonies did not rely on slave labor or single staple crops, such as tobacco or rice. Most people were farmers, but they grew a wide variety of crops. The New England colonies traded actively with the islands of the West Indies. In addition to foods, they exported all kinds of other items, ranging from barrels to horses. In return, they imported sugar and molasses. 3 All this trade resulted in the growth of small towns and larger port cities.

#### **Make a Venn Diagram**

Use the two ovals to contrast the Northern and Southern colonies and the overlapping area to show what the two regions have in common.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 5, Section 1, pp. 202–203 and read the passages headed "The Culture of the Plains Indians" and "Settlers Push Westward." Pay special attention to descriptions of the American settlers and Native Americans on the Great Plains. Make a Venn diagram showing what the two groups had in common and what made them different.

# 1.8 Distinguishing Fact from Opinion

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Facts are dates, statistics, and accounts of events, or they are statements that are generally known to be true. Facts can be checked for accuracy. **Opinions** are the judgments, beliefs, and feelings of a writer or speaker.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following excerpt describes the 1886 Haymarket affair in Chicago. The chart summarizes the facts and opinions.

# **HOW TO DISTINGUISH FACT FROM OPINION**

**Strategy** 1 Look for specific events, dates, and statistics that can be verified.

**Strategy** 2 Look for assertions, claims, hypotheses, and judgments. Here a speaker at the event is expressing an opinion.

**Strategy** 3 Look for judgments the historian makes about events. Here the writer states the opinion that the event was a disaster and then backs up this opinion by explaining the negative consequences of the event.

# **The Haymarket Affair**

1 At ten o'clock another speaker stepped forward, the main burden of his address being that 2 there was no hope of improving the condition of workingmen through legislation; it must be through their own efforts....

The speaker hurried to a conclusion, but at that point 180 police officers entered the square and headed for the wagon that had served as a speakers' platform. The captain in charge called on the meeting to disperse. . . .

1 At that moment someone threw a bomb into the ranks of the policemen gathered about the speakers. After the initial shock and horror, the police opened fire on the 300 or 400 people who remained. One policeman had been killed by the bomb, and more than 60 injured. One member of the crowd was killed by police fire, and at least 12 were wounded. . . .

3 In almost every . . . way Haymarket was a disaster. It vastly augmented [increased] the already considerable paranoia of most Americans in regard to anarchists, socialists, communists, and radicals in general. It increased hostility toward . . . foreigners. . . . It caused a serious impairment of freedom of speech in every part of the country. Source: Page Smith, The Rise of Industrial America (New York: Penguin, 1990), pp. 244-256.

#### **Make a Chart**

List the facts you learn in a passage as well as the opinions that are expressed.

Facts	Opinions
Just after 10:00, as a speaker	speaker: Workers must improve their own situations
was finishing up, someone threw	since legislation can't do it for them.
a bomb into the group of 180	
policemen surrounding the speakers.	historian: Nothing good came of the Haymarket
More than 60 police were injured,	affair; and in fact it had many negative consequences
and about 13 civilians were injured	• increased paranoia about radicals
or killed when police fired into	<ul> <li>increased hostility toward foreigners</li> </ul>
the crowd.	<ul> <li>impaired freedom of speech</li> </ul>

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Read Chapter 7, Section 3, p. 267, "The Emergence of Political Machines." Make a chart in which you list some facts about political machines and some opinions on graft expressed in the passage.

# 1.9 Making Inferences

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Making inferences** from a piece of historical writing means drawing conclusions based on facts, examples, opinions, and the author's use of language. To make inferences, use clues in the text and your own personal experience, historical knowledge, and common sense.

### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage is from a speech by President Ronald Reagan promoting his economic program. The chart below lists some inferences that can be drawn from the first paragraph.

### **HOW TO MAKE INFERENCES**

**Strategy** 1 From the facts in the text and historical knowledge, you can infer that Reagan is blaming the Democrats for the poor economy.

**Strategy** 2 Look for clues about the writer's opinion. From Reagan's language and the goals of his program, you can infer that he sees government spending and taxation as a major cause of the economic crisis.

**Strategy** 3 Note opinionated language. You can infer from words such as exaggerated and inaccurate that Reagan disagrees with criticism of his plan.

# On the Program for Economic Recovery

1 All of us are aware of the punishing inflation which has for the first time in 60 years held to double-digit figures for 2 years in a row. Interest rates have reached absurd levels of more than 20 percent and over 15 percent for those who would borrow to buy a home. . . . Almost 8 million Americans are out of work. . . .

2 I am proposing a comprehensive four-point program . . . aimed at reducing the growth in government spending and taxing, reforming and eliminating regulations which are unnecessary and unproductive or counterproductive, and encouraging a consistent monetary policy aimed at maintaining the value of the currency.

Now, I know that 3 exaggerated and inaccurate stories about these cuts have disturbed many people. . . . Those who, through no fault of their own, must depend on the rest of us—the poverty stricken, the disabled, the elderly, all those with true need—can rest assured that the social safety net of programs they depend on are exempt from any cuts.

#### **Make a Chart**

Record clues in the text as well as what you know about the topic on the basis of your own experience, knowledge, and common sense.

Clues in the Text: Facts,	Personal Experience,	Inference
Examples, Language	Historical Knowledge,	Reagan blames the
<ul> <li>inflation in double digits</li> </ul>	Common Sense	Democrats for the current
<ul> <li>Interest rates over 20%</li> </ul>	• Reagan defeated	economic problems.
• 8 milion unemployed	Democratic incumbent	
<ul><li>Inflation is "punishing"</li></ul>	Jimmy Carter in the	
<ul><li>Interest rates "absurd"</li></ul>	1980 election.	

# **PRACTICING THE SKILL**

Turn to Chapter 10, Section 3, p. 358 and read the passage headed "The Impact of U.S. Territorial Gains." Create a chart like the one above, making inferences based on clues in the text and on your own personal experience, historical knowledge, and common sense.

# 2.1 Developing Historical Perspective

### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Historical perspective** is an understanding of events and people in the context of their times. Using historical perspective can help you avoid judging the past solely in terms of present-day norms and values.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage is the opening portion of an address by President Theodore Roosevelt. Below it is a chart that summarizes the information from a historical perspective.

# **HOW TO DEVELOP** HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

**Strategy** 1 Identify any historical figures, occasions, events, and dates.

**Strategy** 2 Notice words, phrases, and settings that reflect the period. Here the language used by the president reflects the optimism of the Progressive Era.

**Strategy** 3 Explain how people's actions and words reflect attitudes, values, and passions of the era. Here Roosevelt equates a strong nation with "manly virtues."

### **Write a Summary**

In a chart, list key words, phrases, and details from the passage, and then write a short paragraph summarizing the basic values and attitudes it conveys.

# 1 INAUGURAL ADDRESS, 1905 **President Theodore Roosevelt**

My fellow-citizens, no people on earth have more cause to be thankful than ours, and this is said . . . with gratitude to the Giver of Good who has blessed us with the conditions which have enabled us to achieve so large a measure of well-being and happiness. To us as a people it has been granted to lay the foundations of our national life in a 2 new continent. We are the 2 heirs of the ages, and yet we have had to pay few of the penalties which in old countries are exacted by the dead hand of a bygone civilization. We have not been obliged to fight for our existence against any alien race; and yet our life has called for the 3 vigor and effort without which the manlier and hardier virtues wither away. . . . [The] success which we confidently believe the future will bring, should cause in us no feeling of vainglory, but rather a deep and abiding realization of all which life has offered us; a full acknowledgment of the responsibility which is ours; and a fixed determination to show that under a free government a mighty people can thrive best, alike as regards the things of the body and the things of the soul.

Key Phrases	Attitudes	Roosevelt's Inaugural Address
• Giver of Good	• belief in God	Theodore Roosevelt reveals a strong and resilient optimism
• blessed us	• optimistic	about the American nation. His confidence is grounded in
• heirs of the ages	about the	deep religious faith in God (the "Giver of Good") and God's
<ul> <li>bygone civilization</li> </ul>	future	plan for the nation. Roosevelt clearly believes in the ability of
• manlier and	• grateful for	the American people to solve whatever problems they face
hardier virtues	the past	they move into a bright future. Roosevelt's faith and appea
<ul> <li>mighty people</li> </ul>	'	to the manly virtues reflects typical attitudes and values of
• things of the body		the 19th- and early 20th-century Americans.
and things of the soul		·

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 8, Section 2, p. 282 and read the One American's Story feature, which discusses ideas about educational reform in the late 19th century. Use historical perspective to summarize those ideas in a chart like the one above.

## **2.2 Formulating Historical Questions**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Formulating historical questions** entails asking questions about events and trends—what caused them, what made them important, and so forth. The ability to formulate historical questions is an important step in doing research. Formulating questions will help you to guide and focus your research as well as to understand maps, graphs, and other historical sources.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

At a women's rights convention in the mid-1800s, the delegates adopted a "Declaration of Sentiments" that set forth a number of grievances. The following passage is a description of that event. Below is a web diagram that organizes historical questions about the event.

## **HOW TO FORMULATE HISTORICAL QUESTIONS**

**Strategy 1** Ask about the basic facts of the event. Who were the leaders? What did they do? Where and when did the event take place?

**Strategy** 2 Ask about the cause of an event. Why did an event take place?

**Strategy** (3) Ask about historical influences on a speaker or event. What other historical events was it similar to? How was it different?

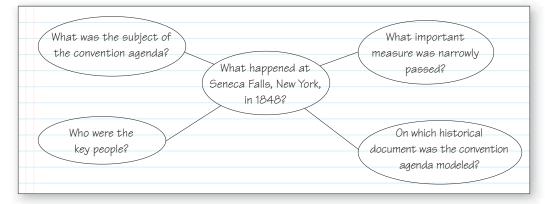
**Strategy** 4 Ask about the results produced by various causes. What were the results of the event?

## Seneca Falls, 1848

1 Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott decided to act on their resolution to hold a women's rights convention. In 1848, more than 300 women and men convened at Seneca Falls, New York, the small town that gave the convention its name. Before the convention, Stanton and Mott spent a day composing an agenda and a **2** detailed statement of grievances. Stanton carefully modeled this "Declaration of Sentiments" on the 3 Declaration of Independence. 4 The participants approved all measures unanimously, except for one: women's right to vote. This measure passed by a narow margin due to Stanton's insistence. The franchise for women, though it passed, remained a controversial topic.

#### **Make a Web Diagram**

Using a web diagram, ask a broad question about the event described above. Then ask specific questions to help you explore the first.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 22, Section 1, p. 734 and read the passage headed "The Tonkin Gulf Resolution." Use a web diagram to write a historical question about the passage, as well as more specific questions that could guide your research into the topic.

## 2.3 Hypothesizing

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Hypothesizing** means developing a possible explanation for historical events. A hypothesis is a tentative assumption about what happened in the past or what might happen in the future. A hypothesis takes available information, links it to previous experience and knowledge, and comes up with a possible explanation, conclusion, or prediction.

## **APPLYING THE SKILL**

As the Cold War came to an end, people offered various hypotheses to explain why the Soviet Union broke up and to predict what would replace it. Read this passage and form your own hypothesis. Below the passage is a chart that presents a hypothesis and the facts used to support it.

## **HOW TO FORM A HYPOTHESIS**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the events, pattern, or trend you want to explain. Develop a hypothesis that might explain the event. You might hypothesize that Gorbachev's new policies would deeply affect politics in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe.

**Strategy** 2 Determine what facts you have about the situation. These facts support various hypotheses about how Gorbachev's policies affected politics both inside and outside the Soviet Union.

### The Cold War Ends

In March 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev became the general secretary of the Communist Party in the Soviet Union. 🚹 He initiated a new policy of openness and reform within the USSR, putting an end to the collective ownership of resources, most government censorship, and controlled elections. 2 A dramatic increase in nationalism on the part of the non-Russian republics followed the open elections, and in December 1991, all republics except Russia declared independence. 2 The USSR was replaced by a loose federation of 12 republics called the Commonwealth of Independent States. 2 Gorbachev's new policies led to massive changes in Eastern Europe, as the satellite states, with his encouragement, moved toward democracy.

## **Make a Chart**

Use a chart to summarize your hypothesis about Gorbachev's reforms and the facts that support it. Then you can see what additional information you need to help prove or disprove it.

Hypothesis	Facts that support	Additional information
	the hypothesis	needed
Gorbachev's new	• increase in nationalism in	Were democratic reforms put
policies would help	non-Russian republics	into effect?
lead to Western	• USSR replaced by a loose	Did free elections result in
victory in the	federation	greater stability?
Cold War.	Satellite states moved	Did the end of collective ownership
	towards democracy	advance private enterprise?

## PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 24, Section 2, p. 803 and read the passage headed "A Bungled Burglary." Make a chart in which you hypothesize about the consequences of the burglary at the Democratic National Committee headquarters. Then list facts and indicate whether they support your hypothesis.

## 2.4 Analyzing Issues

## **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Analyzing issues in history means taking apart complicated issues to identify the different points of view in economic, social, political, or moral debates.

## **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage describes working conditions in U.S. factories in the late 1800s and early 1900s. Notice how the cluster diagram below it helps you to analyze the issue of child labor.

#### **HOW TO ANALYZE ISSUES**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the central point of view and how it is defended.

**Strategy** 2 Look for facts and statistics. The numbers supplied by facts and statistics can help you decide on a position.

**Strategy** 3 Look for the other side to an issue. You need to look at all sides of an issue before deciding what you think.

## Children at Work

1 Wages for most factory workers were so low that many families could not survive unless all their members, including children, worked.

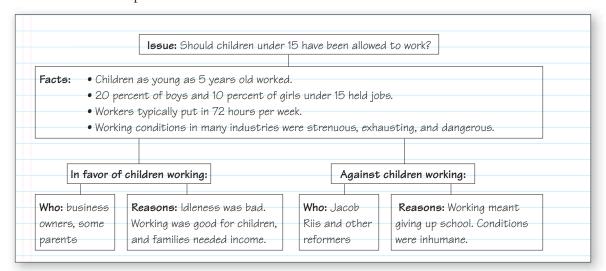
2 Between 1890 and 1910, 20 percent of boys and 10 percent of girls under age 15—some as young as five years old—held full-time jobs.

2 A typical work week was 12 hours a day, six days a week. Many of these children worked from dawn to dusk, wasted by hunger and exhaustion that made them prone to crippling accidents. With little time or energy left for school, child laborers gave up their futures to help their families make ends meet.

3 Nonetheless, factory owners and some parents praised child labor for keeping children out of mischief. They believed that idleness for children was bad and that work provided healthy occupation. Meanwhile, the reformer Jacob Riis and others worked for decent conditions, better wages, and laws that restricted child labor.

### **Make a Cluster Diagram**

In order to better analyze an issue, make a diagram and distinguish the facts as well as the different points of view.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Read the passages headed "The Equal Rights Amendment (ERA)" and "The New Right Emerges" in Chapter 23, Section 2, p. 779. Make a cluster diagram to analyze the central issue and the positions of the people involved.

## 2.5 Analyzing Assumptions and Biases

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

An **assumption** is a belief or an idea that is taken for granted. Some assumptions are based on evidence; some are based on feelings. A bias is a prejudiced point of view. Historical accounts that are biased reflect the personal prejudices of the author or historian and tend to be one-sided.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage is from *The Americans at Home* by the Scottish minister David Macrae, who wrote the book after visiting the United States in the 1860s. The chart below the excerpt helps to summarize information about the writer's assumptions and biases.

## **HOW TO ANALYZE ASSUMPTIONS AND BIASES**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the author and information about him or her. Does the author belong to a specialinterest group, religious organization, political party, or social movement that might promote a one-sided or slanted viewpoint on the subject?

**Strategy** 2 Examine the evidence. Is what the author relates consistent with other accounts or supported by factual data?

Strategy 3 Look for words, phrases, statements, or images that might convey a positive or negative slant, and thus reveal the author's bias.

## The Americans at Home

by David Macrae

[T]he American girls are very delightful. 2 And in one point they fairly surpass the majority of English girls—they are all educated and well informed. . . . The admirable educational system . . . covering the whole area of society, has given them education whether they are rich or poor, has furnished them with a great deal of information, and has quickened their desire for more. . . .

3 Their tendency is perhaps to talk too much, and . . . it seemed to me sometimes to make no perceptible difference whether they knew anything of the subject they talked about or not. But they usually know a little of everything; and their general intelligence and vivacity make them very delightful companions.

#### **Make a Chart**

For each of the heads listed on the left-hand side of the chart, summarize what information you can find in the passage.

speaker	David Macrae
date	1860s
occasion	Macrae's visit to the United States
tone	humorous, light-hearted
assumptions	The author assumes that girls are to be mea sured by companionship abilities.
bias	The author seems to have a prejudice that girls are inferior to boys or men.

## PRACTICING THE SKILL

Look at the opinions expressed by A. Mitchell Palmer in the feature A Personal Voice in Chapter 12, Section 1, p. 413. Summarize his underlying assumptions and biases in a chart like the one shown above.

## 2.6 Evaluating Decisions and Courses of Action

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Evaluating decisions means making judgments about the decisions that historical figures made. Historians evaluate decisions on the basis of their moral implications and their costs and benefits from different points of view. Evaluating alternative courses of action means carefully judging the choices that historical figures had in order to better understand why they made the decisions they did.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage describes the decisions President John F. Kennedy had to make when he learned of Soviet missile bases in Cuba. Below the passage is a chart in which one possible alternative decision is analyzed.

### **HOW TO EVALUATE DECISIONS**

**Strategy** 1 Look at decisions made by individuals or by groups. Notice the decisions Kennedy made in response to Soviet actions.

**Strategy** 2 Look at the outcome of the decisions.

**Strategy** (3) Analyze a decision in terms of the alternatives that were possible. Both Kennedy and Khrushchev faced the alternatives of either escalating or defusing the crisis.

#### **Make a Chart**

Make a chart evaluating an alternative course of action regarding the Cuban missile crisis based on its possible pros and cons.

#### The Cuban Missile Crisis

During the summer of 1962, the flow of Soviet weapons into Cuba including nuclear missiles—greatly increased. 1 President Kennedy responded cautiously at first, issuing a warning that the United States would not tolerate the presence of offensive nuclear weapons in Cuba.

1 On the evening of October 22, after the president learned that the Soviets were building missile bases in Cuba, he delivered a public ultimatum: any missile attack from Cuba would trigger an all-out attack on the Soviet Union. Soviet ships continued to head toward the island, while the U.S. military prepared to invade Cuba. To avoid confrontation, 2 the Soviet premier, Khrushchev, offered to remove the missiles from Cuba in exchange for a pledge not to invade the island. Kennedy agreed, and the crisis ended.

3 Some people criticized Kennedy for practicing brinkmanship when private talks might have resolved the crisis without the threat of nuclear war. Others believed he had been too soft and had passed up an ideal chance to invade Cuba and to oust its communist leader, Fidel Castro.

alternative	pros	cons	evaluation
Negotiate a	1. Avoid the threat	1. The U.S. would not	your answer:
settlement quietly	of nuclear war	look like a strong	Would this have
without threatening	2. Avoid frightening	world leader.	been a good choice?
nuclear war.	U.S. citizens	2. The government	Why or why not?
		would lose favor	
		with Cuban exiles	
		living in the U.S.	

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 17, Section 3, p. 583 and read the passage headed "The Atomic Bomb Ends the War." Evaluate the U.S. decision to drop the bomb. Make a chart like the one shown to summarize the pros and cons of an alternative decision, and then write an evaluation of that decision.

## 2.7 Forming Opinions (Evaluating)

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Forming opinions,** or evaluating, means deciding what your own thoughts or feelings are and making judgments about events and people in history. Opinions should be supported with facts and examples.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage includes comments on the French Revolution by Gouverneur Morris, one of the participants in the Constitutional Convention, and by Thomas Jefferson.

## **HOW TO FORM AN OPINION** AND SUPPORT IT WITH FACTS

**Strategy** 1 Decide what you think about a subject after reading all the information available to you. After reading this description, you might decide that political causes either do or do not sometimes justify violence.

**Strategy** 2 Support your opinion with facts, quotations, and examples, including references to similar events in other historical eras.

**Strategy** 3 Look for the opinions of historians and other experts. Consider their opinions when forming your own.

#### A Scene of Mob Violence

Gouverneur Morris was a visitor to Paris during the early days of the French Revolution. In the following journal entry he describes a scene of revolutionary mob violence: 1 "The head and body of Mr. de Foulon are introduced in triumph. . . . His crime [was] to have accepted a place in the Ministry. This mutilated form of an old man of seventy-five is shown to Bertier, his son-in-law, the intend't. [another official] of Paris, and afterwards 2 he also is put to death and cut to pieces. . . . " Such violence was common during the French Revolution and shocked a good many Americans. 3 However, Thomas Jefferson was a supporter of the Revolution, saying, "The liberty of the whole earth was depending on the issue of the contest, and . . . rather than it should have failed, I would have seen half the earth desolated."

### **Make a Chart**

Summarize your opinion and supporting information in a chart. List facts, quotations, and examples.

Opinion: The French Revolution was especially violent and cruel.		
facts:	quotations:	examples:
<ul> <li>Violence escalated.</li> </ul>	"he also is put to death	Jacobins beheaded Louis XV
<ul> <li>Jacobins launched</li> </ul>	and cut to pieces"	
Reign of Terror.	·	
<ul> <li>Moderates sent to</li> </ul>		
guillotine.		
<ul> <li>Jacobins declared</li> </ul>		
war on other		
countries.		

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Read the Point/Counterpoint feature in Chapter 15, Section 5, p. 516. Form your own opinion about the success or failure of the New Deal. Record your opinion in a chart like the one shown, and provide supporting information to back it up.

## 2.8 Drawing Conclusions

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Drawing conclusions** involves considering the implications of what you have read and forming a final statement about its meaning or consequences. To draw conclusions, you need to look closely at facts and then use your own experience and common sense to decide what those facts mean.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage tells about employment trends in the 1990s. The highlighted text indicates information from which conclusions can be drawn. In the diagram below, the information and conclusions are organized in a clear way.

#### **HOW TO DRAW CONCLUSIONS**

**Strategy** 1 Use the facts to draw a conclusion. Conclusion: In general, the economy was good in the mid-1990s.

**Strategy** 2 Read carefully to understand all the facts. Conclusion: Income expectations were lower.

**Strategy 3** Ask questions of the material. How did the use of temporary workers affect job security? (It reduced it.) What did employment statistics for young people indicate? (Jobs were harder for young people to find.)

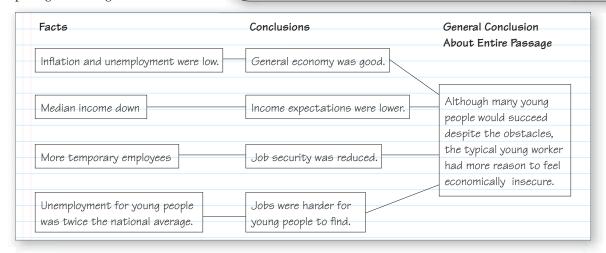
### **Make a Diagram**

Summarize the data and your conclusion about the above passage in a diagram.

#### Job Outlook in the Mid-1990s

Several trends emerged in the workplace of the 1990s. 1 Inflation was at its lowest level since the 1960s, and 10 million new jobs created between 1993 and 1996 helped lower the unemployment rate to 5.1 percent in 1996. 2 Median household income adjusted for inflation, however, declined from \$33,585 to \$31,241, even though there were many households in which both parents worked.

In addition, 3 many jobs once done by permanent employees of a company were done by temporary workers, who were paid only for the time they were needed and who typically received no benefits. Three out of four young Americans thought they would earn less in their lifetimes than their parents did. Unemployment in their age group continued at the same rate, while the unemployment rate for other adults had fallen. 3 In 1993, about one in seven workers between the ages of 16 and 25 was out of work, double the national average.



## **PRACTICING THE SKILL**

Turn to Chapter 26, Section 4, p. 884 and read the passage headed "The Aging of America." Draw conclusions based on the facts in the passage. Using the model as a guide, create your own diagram, showing the facts and conclusions you have used to arrive at a general conclusion.

## 2.9 Synthesizing

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Synthesizing** is the skill historians use in developing interpretations of the past. Like detective work, synthesizing involves putting together clues, information, and ideas to form an overall picture of a historical event.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage describes the earliest inhabitants of the Americas. The highlighted text indicates how some information leads toward a synthesis—an overall picture.

#### **HOW TO SYNTHESIZE**

**Strategy** 1 Read carefully to understand the facts.

**Strategy** 2 Look for explanations that link the facts together. This assertion is based on the evidence provided in the next couple of sentences.

**Strategy** (3) Consider what you already know in order to accept statements as reasonable.

**Strategy** 4 Bring together the information you have gathered to arrive at a new understanding of the subject.

#### The First Americans

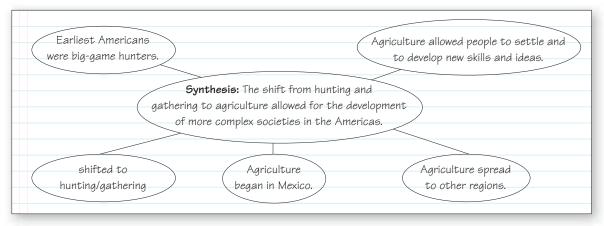
From the 1 discovery of chiseled arrowheads and charred bones at ancient sites, it appears that the earliest Americans lived as big-game hunters. 2 People gradually shifted to hunting smaller game and gathering available plants. They collected nuts and wild rice. They invented snares, as well as bows and arrows, to hunt small animals, and they wove nets to catch fish.

Between 10,000 and 15,000 years ago, a revolution took place in what is now central Mexico. 3 People began to raise plants as food. Maize may have been the first domesticated plant. Agriculture eventually spread to other regions.

The rise of agriculture brought tremendous changes to the Americas. Agriculture made it possible for people to remain in one place. It also enabled them to accumulate and store surplus food. As their surplus increased, people had the time to develop skills and more complex ideas about the world. 4 From this agricultural base rose larger, more stable, and increasingly complex societies.

### **Make a Cluster Diagram**

Use a cluster diagram to organize the facts, opinions, examples, and interpretations that you have brought together to form a synthesis.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 13, Section 2, p. 441 and read "Women Shed Old Roles at Home and at Work." Look for information to support a synthesis about the fundamental changes in the family brought about by women's new opportunities.

## 2.10 Making Predictions

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Making predictions** entails identifying situations that leaders or groups face or have faced in the past, and then suggesting what course of action they might take as well as what might happen as a result of that action. Making predictions about the effects of past events helps you to understand how events in the past shape the future. Making predictions about the effects of proposed actions, such as proposed legislation, helps you to evaluate possible courses of action.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage discusses the central weaknesses of the Treaty of Versailles, which ended World War I. Below the passage is a chart that lists decisions made by those who framed the treaty, along with alternative decisions and predictions of possible outcomes.

## **HOW TO MAKE PREDICTIONS**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the decisions.

**Strategy** 2 Decide what other decisions might have been made.

**Strategy (3)** Predict the outcomes of the alternative decisions.

#### Make a Chart

Record decisions made as well as alternative decisions and possible outcomes.

## **Weaknesses of the Treaty of Versailles**

1 First, the treaty humiliated Germany. The war-guilt clause, which forced Germany to accept blame for the war and pay financial reparations, caused Germans of all political viewpoints to detest the treaty.

2 Second, Russia, which had fought with the Allies, was excluded from the peace conference. Russia had suffered almost the same number of casualties as Germany—the two countries had by far the highest casualty rates of the war. Russia lost more territory than Germany did. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as Russia was called after 1922, grew determined to regain its lost territory.

3 Third, the treaty ignored the claims of colonized people for self-determination. For example, the Allies dismissed the claims of the Vietnamese, who wanted freedom from French colonial rule.

Decision:	Decision:	Decision:
The treaty included a	Russia was excluded from	Treaty ignored the claims o
war-guilt clause.	the peace conference.	colonized peoples.
Alternative decision:	Alternative decision:	Alternative decision:
The treaty had no war-guilt	Russia was included in the	The treaty respected the
clause.	peace negotiations.	claims of colonized peoples.
Possible outcome:	Possible outcome:	Possible outcome:
Germany rebuilds. World	Tension between the Soviet	Tensions are reduced world-
War II does not occur.	Union and the West decreases.	wide; Vietnam War is averte

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 26, Section 1, p. 862 and read the passage "Reforming Welfare." Make a chart like the one above in which you identify provisions of the welfare reform law, alternative provisions that might have been included, and their possible outcomes. Consider how the effects of each law might change depending on the health of the nation's economy.

## **2.11 Forming Generalizations**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Forming generalizations means making broad judgments based on the information in texts. When you form generalizations, you need to be sure they are valid. They must be based on sufficient evidence, and they must be consistent with the information given.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following three excerpts deal with Herbert Hoover and his relation to the Great Depression. Notice how the information in the web diagram below supports the generalization drawn.

## **HOW TO FORM GENERALIZATIONS**

**Strategy 1** Determine what information the sources have in common. All the sources suggest that people blamed Hoover for the Great Depression.

**Strategy** 2 State your generalization in sentence form. A generalization often needs a qualifying word, such as most, many, or some, to make it valid.

### **Make a Web Diagram**

Use a web diagram to record relevant information and make a valid generalization.

## On President Hoover and the Great Depression

1 "By 1930, people were calling the shantytowns in American cities Hoovervilles. . . . Homeless people called the newspapers in which they wrapped themselves 'Hoover blankets.' Empty pockets turned inside out were 'Hoover flags.'"

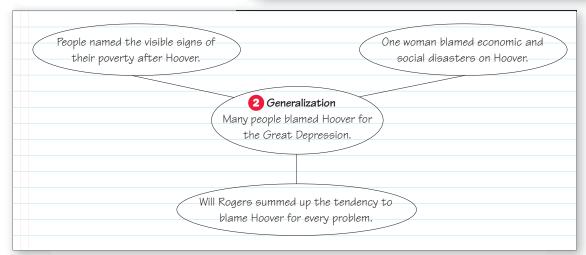
—The Americans

"[My aunt] told me . . . . • People were starving because of Herbert Hoover. My mother was out of work because of Herbert Hoover. Men were killing themselves because of Herbert Hoover."

-Russell Baker

1 "If someone bit an apple and found a worm in it, Hoover would get the blame."

-Will Rogers



### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Study the Daily Life feature "Signs of the Sixties" in Chapter 23, p. 786. Create a diagram like the one above to make a generalization about teenagers during the 1960s. Use information from textual and visual sources to support your generalization.

## **3.1 Primary and Secondary Sources**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Primary sources** are accounts written or created by people who were present at historical events, either as participants or as observers. These include letters, diaries, journals, speeches, some news articles, eyewitness accounts, government data, statutes, court opinions, and autobiographies.

**Secondary sources** are based on primary sources and are produced by people who were not present at the original events. They often combine information from a number of different accounts. Secondary sources include history books, historical essays, some news articles, and biographies.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage describes the explosion of the first atomic bomb in 1945. It is mainly a secondary source, but it quotes an eyewitness account that is a primary source.

## **HOW TO LOCATE AND IDENTIFY PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES**

**Strategy** 1 Locating sources: The catalog in your school library or a local public library lists resources alphabetically by subject, title, and author. Most of these are secondary sources but may contain copies or excerpts of primary sources. Articles in a general encyclopedia such as World Book or Encyclopedia Americana can give you an overview of a topic and usually provide references to additional sources.

**Strategy** 2 Secondary source: Look for information collected from several sources.

**Strategy** 3 Primary source: Identify the title and author and evaluate his or her credentials. What qualifies the writer to report on the event? Here the writer actually worked on developing the bomb.

## **The First Atomic Bomb**

As the time to test the bomb drew near, the air around Los Alamos crackled with rumors and fears. 2 At one end of the scale were fears that the bomb wouldn't work at all. At the other end was the prediction that the explosion would set fire to the atmosphere, which would mean the end of the earth.

On July 16, 1945, the first atomic bomb was detonated in the desert near Alamogordo, New Mexico. 3 In his book What Little I Remember, Otto Frisch, a Manhattan Project scientist, described what happened next:

"[T]hat object on the horizon which looked like a small sun was still too bright to look at. . . . After another ten seconds or so it had grown and . . . was slowly rising into the sky from the ground, with which it remained connected by a lengthening grey stem of swirling dust. . . . "

4 That blinding flash was followed by a deafening roar as a tremendous shock wave rolled across the trembling desert. The bomb not only worked, but it was more powerful than most had dared hope.

> **Strategy** 4 Secondary source: Look for information collected after the event. A secondary source provides a perspective that is missing in a primary source.

#### **Make a Chart**

Summarize information from primary and secondary sources in a chart.

Primary Source	Secondary Source
Author: Otto Frisch	Author: unknown
Qualifications: scientist working on	Qualifications; had access to multiple account
Manhattan Project	of the time leading up to and following event
Information: detailed description, sensory	Information: description of range of points of
observations, feeling of awe	view and of information available only after eve

### PRACTICING THE SKILLS

Turn to Chapter 25, Section 1, p. 830, and read the One American's Story feature, which includes a quotation. Use a chart like the one above to summarize information from the primary and secondary sources.

## 3.2 Visual, Audio, Multimedia Sources

## **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Visual sources can be paintings, illustrations, photographs, political cartoons, and advertisements. Audio sources include recorded speeches, interviews, press conferences, and radio programs. Movies, CD-ROMs, television, and computer software are the newest kind of historical sources, called **multimedia** sources. These sources are rich with historical details and sometimes convey the feelings and points of view of an era better than words do.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following photograph shows a group of college students and civil rights activists joined in song as they protest unfair voting laws in 1964.



In the summer of 1964, college students volunteered to go to Mississippi to help register that state's African-American voters.

## **HOW TO INTERPRET VISUAL SOURCES**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the subject and the source. A title or caption often gives a description of a photo or other visual source. This photograph shows volunteers who worked in the 1964 voting rights drive in Mississippi.

Strategy 2 Identify important visual details. In this photograph, white and black college students are holding hands and singing. Behind them is a bus.

Strategy 3 Make inferences from the visual details. Holding hands and singing together suggest fellowship and unity—the students are showing solidarity in the fight for civil rights.

### Make a Chart

Summarize your interpretation of the photograph in a simple chart.

## PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to the photograph in Chapter 21, Section 2, p. 712, showing police dogs in Birmingham, Alabama, attacking African Americans. Use a chart like the one at the right to analyze and interpret the photograph.

Subject	A diverse group of college students.
Details	Bus, joined hands, white and black Americans
	side by side, singing
Inferences	The subjects share a belief in racial equality,
	freedom, and solidarity.
	Some or all of the group may have traveled to
	Mississippi together on the bus.
	11 5

## 3.3 Analyzing Political Cartoons

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Political cartoons** use humor to make a serious point. Political cartoons often express a point of view on an issue better than words do. Understanding signs and symbols will help you to interpret political cartoons.

Like many text sources that express a point of view, cartoons are often **biased**, or unfairly weighted toward one point of view. To identify a cartoon's bias, look for exaggerations and caricature. Try to restate the message of the cartoon in words, then identify overgeneralizations and opinions stated as facts.

### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following political cartoon shows President Calvin Coolidge playing the saxophone while big business dances. The chart below it summarizes historical information gained from interpreting the visual source.

#### **HOW TO INTERPRET VISUAL SOURCES**

**Strategy** • Identify the subject. This cartoon deals with President Calvin Coolidge's relationship with big business.

**Strategy 2** Identify important symbols and details. Big business is shown as a carefree flapper of the 1920s. The president's saxophone is labeled "Praise," suggesting his positive attitude toward the fun-loving flapper.

**Strategy** 3 Interpret the message. The image implies that serving big business interests is important to the president.

**Strategy** 4 Analyze the point of view. The cartoonist suggests that the relationship between the president and big business is too cozy.

**Strategy** Identify bias. The president is caricatured by being depicted engaging in frivolity and at the service of big business. The cartoon charges that the president does not take his responsibilities seriously.



### Make a Chart

Summarize your interpretation of the cartoon in a simple chart.

oint of View	Symbols/Details	Message
Satirical of the Coolidge	Flapper: big business,	Big business and the
administration and of	carefree and overgrown	president are too close.
pig business		Business is having too
	President: playing a tune	good a time—with the
	for business	president's help.

## **PRACTICING THE SKILL**

Turn to the political cartoon on p. 426, which presents an opinion about Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal programs. Use a chart like the one above to analyze and interpret the cartoon.

## 3.4 Interpreting Maps

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Maps** are representations of features on the earth's surface. Historians use maps to locate historical events, to demonstrate how geography has influenced history, and to illustrate patterns and distributions of human activity and its environmental effects.

**Political maps** show political units, from countries, states, and provinces to counties, districts, and towns. **Physical maps** show mountains, hills, plains, rivers, lakes, and oceans. They may include elevations of land and depths of water. **Historical maps** illustrate such things as economic activity, political alliances, migrations, battles, and population density. While reading maps, historians pose questions and use the following features to find answers:

A **compass rose** indicates the map's orientation on the globe. It may show all four cardinal directions (N, S, E, W) or just one, north.

**Lines** indicate boundaries between political areas, roads and highways, routes of exploration or migration, and rivers and other waterways. Lines may vary in width and color.

**Symbols** or icons represent real objects or events. Cities, towns, and villages often appear as dots. A capital city is often shown as a star within a circle. An area's products or resources may be indicated by symbols. Battles are often shown by starbursts, troop movements by arrows.

**Labels** designate key places, such as cities, states, bodies of water, and events.

**Lines of longitude and latitude** appear on maps to indicate the absolute location of the area shown. Lines of latitude show distance north or south of the equator, measured in degrees. Lines of longitude show distance in degrees east or west of the prime meridian, which runs through Greenwich, England.

A **legend or key** is a small table in which the symbols, types of lines, and special colors that appear in the map are listed and explained.

Sometimes **colors** are used to indicate areas under different political or cultural influence. Colors and **shading** are also used to show distributions, patterns, and such features as altitudes.

A **map's scale** shows the ratio between a unit of length on the map and a unit of distance on the earth. A typical scale shows a one-inch segment and indicates the number of miles that length represents on the map. A map on which an inch represents 500 miles has a scale of 1:31,680,000.

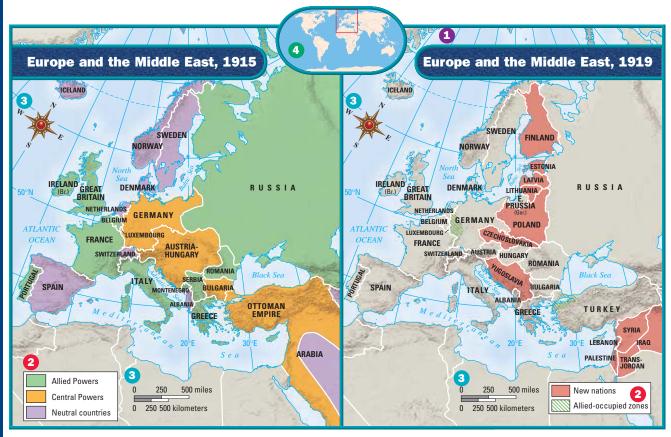
Continued on page R26.



Distributions on a map are where certain symbols, such as those for cities, fall. Sometimes distributions show patterns, such as a cluster, a line, or a wide circle. On this map, for example, the battle symbols show a pattern of being fought near rivers or ports.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The historical maps below show land claims in Europe in 1915 and after 1919. Together they show the political effects of World War I.



## **HOW TO INTERPRET A HISTORICAL MAP**

**Strategy** 1 Look at the map's title to learn the subject and purpose of the map. Here the maps show Europe before and after World War I. Pose a historical question about the subject of the map, such as "How were old empires divided and new countries formed?"

**Strategy** 2 Use the legend to interpret the map in order to answer your historical question. The legend tells you what the symbols and colors on the map mean.

**Strategy** 3 Look at the scale and compass rose. The scale shows you what distances are represented. On these maps, 1.4 cm represents 500 miles. The compass rose shows you which direction on the map is north.

**Strategy** 4 Find where the map area is located on the earth. These maps span a large area from the Arctic Circle to below latitude 30° N, and from 10° W to 40° E.

#### **Make a Chart**

Relate the map to the five geographic themes by making a chart. The five themes are described on p. xxx. In your chart, also analyze distributions and find patterns.

Location:	Place:	Region:	Movement:	Human-Environment Interaction:
Europe and the	A continent that is a	The old empires of the	Political boundaries	The new boundaries fall along
Middle East;	peninsula surrounded	Central Powers are	shifted after the	rivers, bodies of water, and
from the Arctic	by the Mediterranean	distributed within	war. The Treaty	mountain ranges. There is a
Circle to below	Sea, the Atlantic	Central Europe and the	of Versailles	pattern. The pattern shows that
30° North and	Ocean, the North	Middle East. The new	established nine	the new countries form a narrow
from 10° West	Sea, as well as	nations are in Eastern	new nations.	strip from North to South.
to 40° East	western-most Asia	Europe and the Middle		·
		East.		

### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Study the maps titled "D-Day, June 6, 1944" on p. 575. Make a chart like the one shown above, in which you summarize what the maps show.

## 3.5 Interpreting Charts

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Charts** are visual presentations of material. Historians use charts to organize, simplify, and summarize information in a way that makes it more meaningful or memorable.

**Simple charts** are used to consolidate or compare information. **Tables** are used to organize numbers, percentages, or other information into columns and rows for easy reference. Diagrams provide visual clues to the meaning of the information they contain. Illustrated diagrams are sometimes called infographics.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

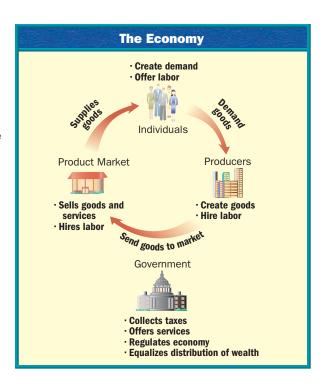
The following diagram gives a visual representation of how the economy functions. The paragraph below summarizes the information contained in the diagram.

#### **HOW TO INTERPRET CHARTS**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the symbols. Here the symbols represent individuals, producers, government, and the product market.

**Strategy** 2 Look for the main idea. The arrows show the cycle of supply and demand in a free enterprise system of economy. Here individuals are at the top of the chart, indicating that they begin the cycle by creating a demand for goods and services.

**Strategy** 3 Follow the arrows to study the chart. Read the description of each image in the diagram. Together, the images show the flow of economic activity from producers to individuals and back. The government affects the cycle by regulating and sta-Ibilizing economic activity.



## **Write a Summary**

Write a paragraph to summarize what you learned from the diagram.

Individuals want or need products or services. Producers try to fulfill that demand by hiring workers (labor) to produce the good or service. Producers then make the goods and services available for sale on the market. During this process, the government regulates economic activity and equalizes the distribution of wealth, among other functions. Once goods are sent to stores or other distribution centers, people must be hired (labor) to sell the goods.

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 6, Section 3, p. 242, and study the chart titled "Vertical and Horizontal Integration." Write a paragraph in which you summarize what you learned from the chart. Tell how the process of vertical integration works, and describe how it is different from horizontal integration.

## 3.6 Interpreting Graphs

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Graphs** show statistical information in a visual manner. Historians use graphs to visualize and compare amounts, ratios, economic trends, and changes over time.

**Line graphs** typically show quantities on the vertical axis (up the left side) and time in various units on the horizontal axis (across the bottom). **Pie graphs** are useful for showing relative proportions. The circle represents the whole and the slices represent the parts belonging to various subgroups. **Bar graphs** are commonly used to display information about quantities.

### PRACTICING THE SKILL

The image below shows a double line graph. The lines show the rate of inflation as compared with the rate of unemployment from 1970 to 1980.

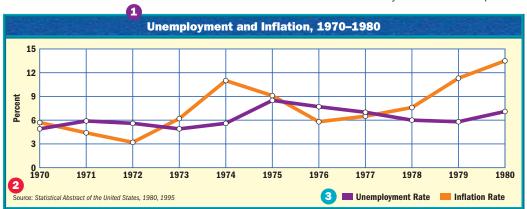
#### **HOW TO INTERPRET A GRAPH**

**Strategy 1** Read the title to identify the main idea of the graph. When two subjects are shown, such as unemployment and inflation, the graph will probably show a relationship between them.

**Strategy** 2 Read the vertical and horizontal axes of the graph. The horizontal axis shows years, and the vertical axis gives percents.

**Strategy** 3 Look at the legend. Find out what each symbol in the graph represents. In this graph the gold line represents the inflation rate and the purple line represents the unemployment rate.

**Strategy** 4 Summarize the information shown in each part of the graph. What trends do you see in the line graph over certain years? When did unemployment rise and fall? What about inflation? What can you infer from the patterns?



#### **Write a Summary**

Write a paragraph to summarize what you learned from the graph.

Unemployment declined between 1976 and 1979 but rose between 1974 and 1975, while inflation declined between 1975 and 1976 and rose in the periods 1973–1974 and 1977–1980. From the graph it appears that unemployment rises or falls following inflation rate changes, but less dramatically.

## PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 19, Section 3, p. 653, and look at the two graphs titled "Glued to the Set." Study the graphs and write a paragraph in which you summarize what you learned from them. Explain how the two line graphs work together.

## 3.7 Using the Internet

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

The **Internet** is a network of computers associated with universities, libraries, news organizations, government agencies, businesses, and private individuals worldwide. Every page of information on the Internet has its own address, or **URL**.

The international collection of sites known as the **World Wide Web** is a source of information about current events as well as research on historical subjects. This textbook contains many suggestions for using the World Wide Web. You can begin by entering the URL for Holt McDougal's site: hmhsocialstudies.com.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The computer screen below shows the home page of the Library of Congress.

#### **HOW TO USE THE INTERNET**

**Strategy** ① Go directly to a Web page. If you know the address of a particular Web page, type the address in the strip at the top of the screen and press RETURN. After a few seconds, that page will appear on your screen.

If you want to research the Web for information on a topic, visit a general search site such as www.google.com or www.yahoo.com. The following sites have information that may be useful in your research:

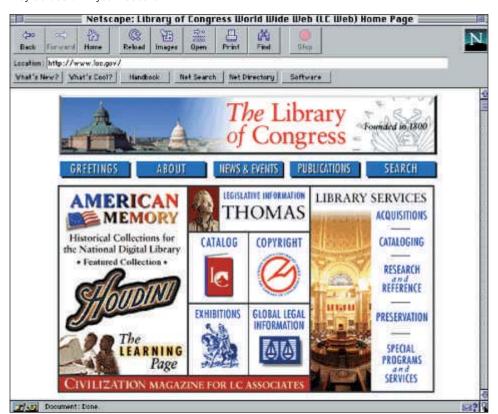
Library of Congress-www.loc.gov

National Archives and Records Administration www.nara.gov

Smithsonian Institution—www.si.org

PBS-www.pbs.org

National Geographic—www.nationalgeographic.com



Strategy 2 Learn about the page. Click on one of the topics across the top of the page to learn more about the Library of Congress and how to use its Web site.

**Strategy** 3 Explore the features of the page. Click on any one of the images or topics to find out more about a specific subject.

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 21, Section 2, p. 710, "The Triumphs of a Crusade." Read the section, making a list of topics you would like to research. If you have a computer with Internet access, go to the Holt McDougal site, hmhsocialstudies.com. There you will be able to search the Chapter 21 Research Links and other features to explore a variety of historical topics.

## **4.1 Creating Charts and Graphs**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Charts** and **graphs** are visual representations of information. (See Skillbuilders 3.5 and 3.6.) Three types of graphs are **bar graphs**, **line graphs**, and **pie graphs**. Use a bar graph to display information about quantities and to compare related quantities. Use a line graph to show a change in a single quantity over time. Use a pie graph to show relative proportions among parts of a single thing. Charts can be used to condense and organize written information or lists.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following passage includes data about American commuting choices between 1960 and 1990. The bar graph below shows how the information in the passage might be represented.

#### **HOW TO CREATE A BAR GRAPH**

**Strategy** 1 Use a title that sums up the information; include a time span.

**Strategy 2** Note dates and the percentages. Dates will form the horizontal axis of your graph; percentages will form the vertical axis.

**Strategy** 3 Organize the data. Group numbers that provide information about the same year.

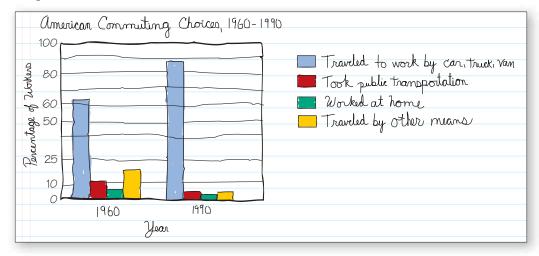
**Strategy** 4 Decide how best to represent the information. Sketch a graph and a legend, denoting the meanings of any colors and symbols.

## American Commuting Choices, 1960-1990

In 1960, 64% of the population traveled to work by car, truck, or van; 12% took public transportation; 7% worked at home; and 17% got to work by other means. In 1990, 87% traveled to work by car, truck, or van; 5% took public transportation; 3% worked at home; and 5% went to work by other means.

## **Create a Bar Graph**

Clearly label vertical and horizontal axes. Draw bars accurately. Include a legend.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 26, Section 4, p. 885, and read the passage headed "A Changing Immigrant Population." Use a pie graph to show percentages of ethnic distribution of the American population in 1990.

## **4.2 Creating Models**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

**Models**, like maps, are visual representations of information. Historians make models of geographical areas, villages, cities, inventions, buildings, and other physical objects of historical importance. A model can be a two-dimensional representation, such as a poster or a diagram that explains how something happened. It also can be a three-dimensional representation or even a computercreated image.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following image is a two-dimensional model of the tunnel system used by the Vietcong during the Vietnam War. Examine the strategies used in making this model to learn how to create your own.

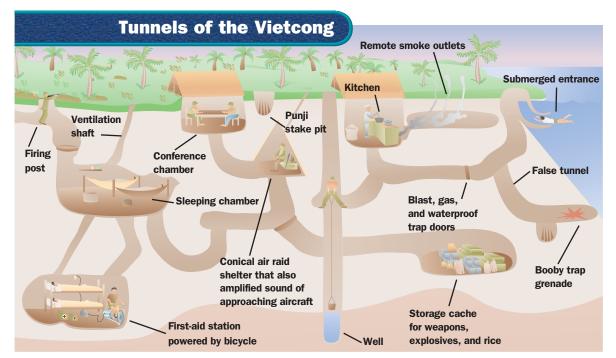
#### **HOW TO CREATE A MODEL**

Strategy 1 Gather the information you need to understand the situation or event. Here the creator has gathered information about the tunnel system from various reference sources.

**Strategy 2** Think about symbols you may want to use. Since the model should give information in a visual way, think about ways you can use color, pictures, or other visuals to tell the story.

**Strategy** 3 Gather the supplies you will need to create the model. For this model, the creator might have used computer software or colored markers or pencils.

Strategy 4 Visualize and sketch an idea for your model. Once you have created a picture in your mind from either written text or other images, make an actual sketch to plan how your model might look.



#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 6, Section 3, p. 244, and read the text under the heading "Labor Unions Emerge." Use the information to create a model of a "sweatshop" factory during the turn of the century. Use the process described above as a guide.

## **4.3 Creating Maps**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Maps are scale representations, usually of land surfaces. (See Skillbuilder 3.4.) Creating a map involves representing geographical data visually. When you draw a map, it is easiest to use an existing map as a guide. You can include data on climate and population and on patterns or distributions of human activity.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following chart shows the numbers of 1995 immigrants who planned to settle in the southwestern states of the United States. The map below depicts the data given in the chart.

	Immigrants	, by State of In	tended R	esidence, 1	L <b>99</b> 5	
Arizona	7,700	Nevada	4,306	Texas	49,963	
California	166,482	New Mexico	2,758	Utah	2,831	
Colorado	7,713					

#### **HOW TO CREATE A MAP**

**Strategy** 1 Determine what map you should use as a guide. Find a map of the Southwest that you can re-create.

**Strategy** 2 Decide how best to show the data. These data can be grouped in three broad categories of numbers: more than 100,000; 10,000 to 100,000; and less than 10,000.

**Strategy** 3 Select a title that identifies the geographical area and the map's purpose. Include a date or time span.

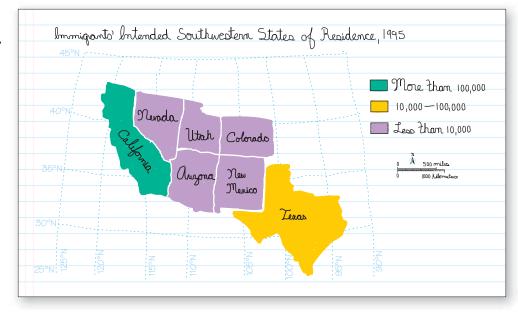
**Strategy** 4 Draw and label the lines of latitude and longitude. Use the guide map's scale and a ruler to help you correctly space the lines of latitude and longitude.

**Strategy** 5 Draw the subject of your map, following your guide map carefully. Color or mark the map to show its purpose. Use each color or symbol to represent similar information.

Strategy 6 Include a key or legend explaining colors, symbols, or shading. Reproduce the scale and compass rose from the map you used as a guide.

## **PRACTICING THE SKILL**

Turn to p. 606 and study the graph titled "The Marshall Plan." Use the process described above to draw a map that depicts the data. (You can use the map on p. 605 as a guide.) After drawing the map, pose some historical questions about the Marshall Plan. How might your map convey answers to your questions? Write one of the questions and its answer below your map.



## **4.4 Creating Databases**

## **DEFINING THE SKILL**

A **database** is a collection of data, or information, that is organized so that you can find and retrieve information on a specific topic quickly and easily. Once a computerized database is set up, you can search it to find specific information without going through the entire database. The database will provide a list of all stored information related to your topic. Learning how to use a database will help you learn how to create one.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The chart below is a database for some of the significant legislation passed during President Johnson's Great Society program.

1 Sig	nificant G	ireat Society Legislation
2 Legislation	Date	Significance
3 Economic Opportunity Act	1964	4 created Job Corps and other programs to help the poor
Civil Rights Act	1964	outlawed discrimination in public accomodations
Medical Care Act	1965	4 established Medicare and Medicaid programs to help the elderly and the poor
Higher Education Act	1965	provided low-interest loans for college students
Truth in Packaging Act	1966	set standards for labeling consumer products
Highway Safety Act	1966	required states to set up highway safety programs
Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Area Redevelopment Act	1966	4 provided funds to rebuild poor neighborhoods
Air Quality Act	1967	set federal air pollution guidelines

## **HOW TO CREATE A DATABASE**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the topic of the database. The keywords, or most important words, in the title are "Great Society" and "Legislation." These words were used to begin the research for this database.

**Strategy** 2 Identify the kind of data you need to enter in your database. These will be the column headings—or categories—of your database. The keywords "Legislation," "Date," and "Significance," were chosen to categorize this research.

**Strategy** 3 Once you find the data you want to include, identify the entries under each heading.

**Strategy** 4 Use the database to help you find the information quickly. For example, in this database you could search by the word "poor" for programs related to antipoverty measures.

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 11, "The First World War," and create a database of key battles of World War I. Use a format like the one above for your database and include the following column headings: "Battle," "Date," "Location," and "Signficance." You can create your database using computer software or by setting up a 4-column chart on paper.

## **4.5 Creating Written Presentations**

## **DEFINING THE SKILL**

Written presentations are in-depth reports on a topic in history. Often, written presentations take a stand on an issue or try to support a specific conclusion. To successfully report on an event or make a point, your writing needs to be clear, concise, and supported by factual details.

#### **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following is a written presentation about the main goals of progressivism. Use the strategies listed below to help you learn to create a written presentation.

## **HOW TO CREATE A WRITTEN PRESENTATION**

**Strategy** 1 Identify a topic that you wish to research, focusing on one or more questions that you hope to answer about the topic. Then research the topic using library resources and the Internet.

Strategy 2 Formulate a hypothesis. This will serve as the main idea, or thesis, of your presentation. Analyze the information in your sources and develop a hypothesis that answers your questions about the topic.

**Strategy** (3) Organize the facts and supporting details around your main idea. These facts and examples should be presented in a way that helps you build a logical case to prove your point.

**Strategy** 4 To express your ideas clearly, use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation. Proofread your work to make sure it is well-organized and grammatically correct.

For more on how to create a historical research paper and other written presentations, see the Writing for Social Studies handbook.

#### **Make an Outline**

Creating an outline like the one shown here will help you organize your ideas and produce an effective written presentation.

1 The Goals of Progressivism
I. 2 All progressive reforms had one of four goals.
A. Protecting Social Welfare
3 1. Social Gospel movement sought to help the poor.
2. Settlement houses provided aid to poor city dwellers.
B. Promoting Moral Improvement
1. Reformers sought to improve Americans' personal behavior.
2. WCTU worked for prohibition.
C. Creating Economic Reform
1. Writers criticized capitalism.
2. American Socialist Party formed.
3. Muckrakers exposed corruption in business and government.
D. Fostering Efficiency
1. Emergence of scientific management in the workplace
2. Development of the assembly line
·

## 4 Edit and Revise

Use punctuation marks for

their correct purposes. A colon precedes a list.

## The Goals of Progressivism

As America approached the 20th century a number of citizens tried to reform society. Their efforts formed what became known as the progressive movement. Progressive reformers had the following four goalso social welfare, moral improvement, economic reform, and efficiency.

Many reformers sought to promote social welfare—especially in the crowded, run-down, and unhealthy areas of the cities. The Social Gospel movement inspired followers to erect churches in poor communities. It also persuaded business leaders to treat workers more fair. Other reformers established settlement house in slum neighborhoods which provided educational, cultural, and social services to people—especially to immigrants.

Another group of reformers felt that the lives of poor people could be improved through moral instruction. These reformers offer programs to improve personal behavior. The Women's Christian Temperence Union, for instance, promoted prohibition. It believed that alcohol was the root of many of society's problems.

Other progressives, such as Henry George and Edward Bellamy, blamed the competitive nature of capitalism for creating a large underclass. Some Americans, especially workers, embraced socialism. In 1898, Eugene Debs helped organize the american socialist party. This organization Advocated communal living and a classless society. During the early

20th century, journalists exposed the corrupt side of business and politics known as muckrakers)

Meanwhile, some tried to make American society more efficient. Frederick Winslow Taylor popularized scientific management, the effort to improve efficiency in the workplace by applying scientific principles. Out of this concept emerged the assembly line, which required workers to perform the same task over and over, and thus sped up production.

Through their hard work, the progressives reformed many levels of society and helped Americans live better lives.

Use the correct parts of speech. An adverb modifies a verb.

Check for common agreement errors. Subjects and verbs must agree in person and number.

Use consistent verb tense. Use past tense for events in the past.

Check spelling with both an electronic spell checker and a dictionary.

Capitalize all proper nouns, including names of political parties.

Use correct sentence structure. Every sentence needs a subject and a verb.

Be sure sentence structure leads clearly from one phrase to the next. Correct misplaced modifiers.

## PRACTICING THE SKILL

Create a two-page written presentation on a topic of historical importance that interests you. Use the strategies and sample outline and draft to help you create your presentation.

## **4.6 Creating Oral Presentations**

#### **DEFINING THE SKILL**

An **oral presentation** is a speech or talk given before an audience. Oral presentations can be given to inform an audience about a certain topic or persuade an audience to think or act in a certain way. You can learn how to give effective oral presentations by examining some of the more famous ones in history.

## **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The following is an excerpt from a student's speech supporting Southern secession. Use the strategies listed below to help you learn to create an oral presentation.

#### **HOW TO CREATE AN ORAL PRESENTATION**

**Strategy** 1 Choose one central idea or theme and organize your presentation to support it. Here, the writer calls for the United States government to allow the Southern states to secede.

**Strategy** 2 Use words or images to persuade your audience. In this speech, the writer has used a metaphor of family conflict to express the antagonism between North and

**Strategy** (3) Make sure your arguments support your central idea or theme. In this speech, the writer's arguments all support the main theme.

1 The Southern states should be allowed to secede. 3 Since it was the states that helped create the national government, surely the states have the right to declare their independence from that government.

The industrial North will never understand the needs of the farmers and plantation owners of the South. 2 The South and the North are like two brothers whose lives and attitudes have become so different that they can no longer live under the same roof. Why should they be forced to remain together?

## **Giving an Oral Presentation**

When you give an oral presentation, make sure to

- maintain eye contact with your audience.
- use gestures and body language to emphasize your main points and to help express your ideas.
- pace yourself. Do not rush to finish your presentation.
- vary your tone of voice to help bring out the meaning of your words.

#### PRACTICING THE SKILL

Turn to Chapter 16, Section 4, p. 552, and study the Point/Counterpoint feature about U.S. involvement in WWII. Choose a side and create an outline for a speech that supports that side. Use the strategies to help you make an oral presentation.

## **4.7 Creating Visual Presentations**

## **DEFINING THE SKILL**

A **visual presentation** of history uses visual sources to explain a particular historical event. Such sources could include paintings, maps, charts and graphs, costume drawings, photographs, political cartoons, and advertisements. Movies, CD-ROMs, television, and computer software are among the visual sources called multimedia sources because they also include sound. (See Skillbuilder 3.2.) Visual sources can provide much insight into various eras and events of the past. Creating a visual presentation will help you to become more familiar with the many different sources of historical information available.

## **APPLYING THE SKILL**

The image below shows a student using a computer to create a visual presentation. Use the strategies listed below to help you plan out the steps needed to compile a clear, engaging, and informative presentation.

#### **HOW TO CREATE A VISUAL PRESENTATION**

**Strategy** 1 Identify the topic of your presentation and decide which types of visuals will most effectively convey your information. For example, you might want to use slides and posters along with a map. If you want to include multimedia sources, you could use documentary film or television footage of an event.

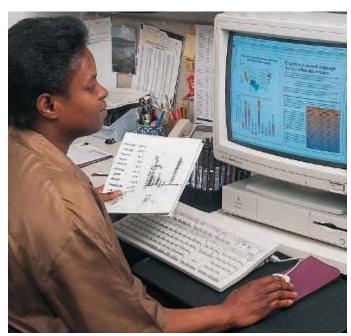
**Strategy 2** Conduct research to determine what visual sources are available. Some topics, such as wars, may have more visual source material than others. You can create your own visual sources, such as a graph or chart, to accompany what you find.

**Strategy** 3 Write a script for the presentation. A narration of events to accompany the visuals will tie the various sources together and aid you in telling the story.

**Strategy** 4 Record the presentation. A video recording will preserve the presentation for future viewing and allow you to show it to different groups of people.

## **PRACTICING THE SKILL**

Turn to Chapter 5, Section 1, p. 210, and read "A Day in the Life of a Cowboy," or choose another section in the chapter. Use the strategies above to create a visual presentation of the topic.



# FACTS ABOUT THE STATES



#### Alabama

4,447,100 people 52,237 sq. mi. Rank in area: 30 Entered Union in 1819



#### Florida

15,982,378 people 59,928 sq. mi. Rank in area: 23 Entered Union in 1845



#### Louisiana

4,468,976 people 49,651 sq. mi. Rank in area: 31 Entered Union in 1812



#### Alaska

626,932 people 615,230 sq. mi. Rank in area: 1 Entered Union in 1959



#### Georgia

8,186,453 people 58,977 sq. mi. Rank in area: 24 Entered Union in 1788



#### Maine

1,274,923 people 33,741 sq. mi. Rank in area: 39 Entered Union in 1820



#### Arizona

5,130,632 people 114.006 sa. mi. Rank in area: 6 Entered Union in 1912



#### Hawaii

1,211,537 people 6.459 sa. mi. Rank in area: 47 Entered Union in 1959



## Maryland

5,296,486 people 12.297 sq. mi. Rank in area: 42 Entered Union in 1788



#### **Arkansas**

2,673,400 people 53,182 sq. mi. Rank in area: 28 Entered Union in 1836



#### Idaho

1,293,953 people 83,574 sq. mi. Rank in area: 14 Entered Union in 1890



### Massachusetts

6.349.097 people 9,241 sq. mi. Rank in area: 45 Entered Union in 1788



## California

33,871,648 people 158,869 sq. mi. Rank in area: 3 Entered Union in 1850



#### Illinois

12,419,293 people 57,918 sq. mi. Rank in area: 25 Entered Union in 1818



## Michigan

9,938,444 people 96,705 sq. mi. Rank in area: 11 Entered Union in 1837



**Denver** 

## Colorado

4,301,261 people 104.100 sa. mi. Rank in area: 8 Entered Union in 1876



### Indiana

6,080,485 people 36.420 sa. mi. Rank in area: 38 Entered Union in 1816



### Minnesota

4,919,479 people 86.943 sa. mi. Rank in area: 12 Entered Union in 1858



## Connecticut

3,405,565 people 5,544 sq. mi. Rank in area: 48 Entered Union in 1788



Des Moine

#### Iowa

2,926,324 people 56,276 sq. mi. Rank in area: 26 Entered Union in 1846



## Mississippi

2,844,658 people 48,286 sq. mi. Rank in area: 32 Entered Union in 1817



#### **Delaware**

783,600 people 2,396 sq. mi. Rank in area: 49 Entered Union in 1787



#### **Kansas**

2,688,418 people 82,282 sq. mi. Rank in area: 15 Entered Union in 1861



## Missouri

5,595,211 people 69,709 sq. mi. Rank in area: 21 Entered Union in 1821



## **District of Columbia**

572,059 people 68 sq. mi.



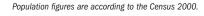
#### Kentucky

4,041,769 people 40,411 sq. mi. Rank in area: 37 Entered Union in 1792



## Montana

902,195 people 147.046 sa. mi. Rank in area: 4 Entered Union in 1889





#### Nebraska

Rank in area: 16 Entered Union in 1867





#### **Oregon**

3,421,399 people 97,132 sq. mi. Rank in area: 10 Entered Union in 1859



### Utah

2,233,169 people 84,904 sq. mi. Rank in area: 13 Entered Union in 1896



#### Nevada

1,998,257 people 110,567 sq. mi. Rank in area: 7 Entered Union in 1864



#### Pennsylvania

12,281,054 people 46,058 sq. mi. Rank in area: 33 Entered Union in 1787



#### Vermont

608,827 people 9,615 sq. mi. Rank in area: 43 Entered Union in 1791



#### **New Hampshire**

1,235,786 people 9,283 sq. mi. Rank in area: 44 Entered Union in 1788



#### **Rhode Island**

1,048,319 people 1,231 sq. mi. Rank in area: 50 Entered Union in 1790



#### Virginia

7,078,515 people 42,326 sq. mi. Rank in area: 35 Entered Union in 1788



#### **New Jersey**

8,414,350 people 8,215 sq. mi. Rank in area: 46 Entered Union in 1787



#### **South Carolina**

4,012,012 people 31,189 sq. mi. Rank in area: 40 Entered Union in 1788



#### Washington

5,894,121 people 70,637 sq. mi. Rank in area: 19 Entered Union in 1889



#### **New Mexico**

1,819,046 people 121,598 sq. mi. Rank in area: 5 Entered Union in 1912



#### South Dakota

754,844 people 77,121 sq. mi. Rank in area: 17 Entered Union in 1889



#### West Virginia

1,808,344 people 24.231 sq. mi. Rank in area: 41 Entered Union in 1863



## **New York**

18,976,457 people 53,989 sq. mi. Rank in area: 27 Entered Union in 1788



#### **Tennessee**

5,689,283 people 42,146 sq. mi. Rank in area: 36 Entered Union in 1796



#### Wisconsin

5,363,675 people 64,599 sq. mi. Rank in area: 22 Entered Union in 1848



**Bismarck** 

### **North Carolina**

8.049.313 people 52,672 sq. mi. Rank in area: 29 Entered Union in 1789



### **Texas**

20,851,820 people 267,277 sq. mi. Rank in area: 2 Entered Union in 1845



## Wyoming

493,782 people 97,818 sq. mi. Rank in area: 9 Entered Union in 1890



70,704 sq. mi. Rank in area: 18



Entered Union in 1889

11,353,140 people

44,828 sq. mi.

Rank in area: 34 Entered Union in 1803



## **United States: Major Dependencies (as of 1999)**

American Samoa 63,781 people; 90 sq. mi.

Guam 151,968 people; 217 sq. mi.

Commonwealth of Puerto Rico 3,889,507 people; 3,508 sq. mi. Virgin Islands of the United States 119,615 people; 171 sq. mi.

#### **Oklahoma**

Ohio

3,450,654 people 69,903 sq. mi. Rank in area: 20 Entered Union in 1907



# PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

Dates given are for term in office.

## Here are some little-known facts about the presidents of the United States:

- First president born in the new United States: Martin Van Buren (8th president)
- Only president who was a bachelor: James Buchanan
- First left-handed president: James A. Garfield
- Largest president: William Howard Taft (6 feet, 2 inches; 332 pounds)
- Youngest president: Theodore Roosevelt (42 years old)
- Oldest president: Ronald Reagan (77 years old when he left office in 1989)
- First president born west of the Mississippi River: Herbert Hoover (born in West Branch, Iowa)
- First president born in the 20th century: John F. Kennedy (born May 29, 1917)



**George Washington** 1789-1797 No Political Party Birthplace: Virginia Born: February 22, 1732 Died: December 14, 1799



John Adams 1797-1801 Federalist Birthplace: Massachusetts Born: October 30, 1735 Died: July 4, 1826



**Thomas Jefferson** 1801-1809 Democratic-Republican Birthplace: Virginia Born: April 13, 1743 Died: July 4, 1826



**James Madison** 1809-1817 Democratic-Republican Birthplace: Virginia Born: March 16, 1751 Died: June 28, 1836



5 James Monroe 1817-1825 Democratic-Republican Birthplace: Virginia Born: April 28, 1758 Died: July 4, 1831



6 John Quincy Adams 1825-1829 Republican Birthplace: Massachusetts Born: July 11, 1767 Died: February 23, 1848



7 Andrew Jackson 1829-1837 Democrat Birthplace: South Carolina Born: March 15, 1767 Died: June 8, 1845



8 Martin Van Buren 1837-1841 Democrat Birthplace: New York Born: December 5, 1782 Died: July 24, 1862



9 William H. Harrison 1841 Whig Birthplace: Virginia Born: February 9, 1773 Died: April 4, 1841



10 John Tyler 1841-1845 Whig Birthplace: Virginia Born: March 29, 1790 Died: January 18, 1862



James K. Polk 1845-1849 Democrat Birthplace: North Carolina Born: November 2, 1795 Died: June 15, 1849



**Zachary Taylor** 1849-1850 Whig Birthplace: Virginia Born: November 24, 1784 Died: July 9, 1850



Millard Fillmore 1850–1853

Whig Birthplace: New York Born: January 7, 1800 Died: March 8, 1874



Franklin Pierce 1853–1857

Democrat
Birthplace: New Hampshire
Born: November 23, 1804
Died: October 8, 1869



James Buchanan 1857–1861

Democrat
Birthplace: Pennsylvania
Born: April 23, 1791
Died: June 1, 1868



Abraham Lincoln 1861–1865

Republican
Birthplace: Kentucky
Born: February 12, 1809
Died: April 15, 1865



Andrew Johnson 1865–1869

Democrat
Birthplace: North Carolina
Born: December 29, 1808
Died: July 31, 1875



18 Ulysses S. Grant 1869–1877

Republican Birthplace: Ohio Born: April 27, 1822 Died: July 23, 1885



19 Rutherford B. Hayes 1877–1881

Republican Birthplace: Ohio Born: October 4, 1822 Died: January 17, 1893



James A. Garfield 1881

Republican
Birthplace: Ohio
Born: November 19, 1831
Died: September 19, 1881



21 Chester A. Arthur 1881–1885

Republican
Birthplace: Vermont
Born: October 5, 1829
Died: November 18, 1886



22 24 Grover Cleveland 1885–1889, 1893–1897

Democrat
Birthplace: New Jersey
Born: March 18, 1837
Died: June 24, 1908



23 Benjamin Harrison 1889–1893

Republican Birthplace: Ohio Born: August 20, 1833 Died: March 13, 1901



William McKinley 1897–1901

Republican Birthplace: Ohio Born: January 29, 1843 Died: September 14, 1901



26 Theodore Roosevelt

1901–1909 Republican Birthplace: New York Born: October 27, 1858 Died: January 6, 1919



27 William H. Taft 1909–1913

Republican Birthplace: Ohio Born: September 15, 1857 Died: March 8, 1930



Woodrow Wilson 1913–1921

Democrat
Birthplace: Virginia
Born: December 29, 1856
Died: February 3, 1924



Warren G. Harding 1921–1923

Republican Birthplace: Ohio Born: November 2, 1865 Died: August 2, 1923



Calvin Coolidge
1923–1929
Republican
Birthplace: Vermont
Born: July 4, 1872
Died: January 5, 1933



31 Herbert C. Hoover 1929–1933 Republican Birthplace: Iowa Born: August 10, 1874 Died: October 20, 1964



Franklin D. Roosevelt 1933–1945 Democrat Birthplace: New York Born: January 30, 1882 Died: April 12, 1945



33 Harry S. Truman 1945–1953 Democrat Birthplace: Missouri Born: May 8, 1884 Died: December 26, 1972



34 Dwight D. Eisenhower 1953–1961 Republican Birthplace: Texas Born: October 14, 1890 Died: March 28, 1969



35 John F. Kennedy 1961–1963 Democrat Birthplace: Massachusetts Born: May 29, 1917 Died: November 22, 1963



36 Lyndon B. Johnson 1963–1969 Democrat Birthplace: Texas Born: August 27, 1908 Died: January 22, 1973



37 Richard M. Nixon 1969–1974 Republican Birthplace: California Born: January 9, 1913 Died: April 22, 1994



38 Gerald R. Ford 1974–1977 Republican Birthplace: Nebraska Born: July 14, 1913 Died: December 26, 2006



39 James E. Carter, Jr. 1977-1981 Democrat Birthplace: Georgia Born: October 1, 1924



40 Ronald W. Reagan 1981–1989 Republican Birthplace: Illinois Born: February 6, 1911 Died: June 4, 2004



41 George H. W. Bush 1989–1993 Republican Birthplace: Massachusetts Born: June 12, 1924



William J. Clinton 1993–2001 Democrat Birthplace: Arkansas Born: August 19, 1946



43 George W. Bush 2001–2009 Republican Birthplace: Connecticut Born: July 6, 1946



Barack H. Obama 2009– Democrat Birthplace: Hawaii Born: August 4, 1961

# **GLOSSARY**

The Glossary is an alphabetical listing of many of the key terms from the chapters, along with their meanings. The definitions listed in the Glossary are the ones that apply to the way the words are used in this textbook. The Glossary gives the part of speech of each word. The following abbreviations are used:

adj. = adjective n. = noun v. = ve

PRONUNCIATION KEY					
Symbol	Examples	Symbol	Examples	Symbol	Examples
ă	at, gas	m	man, seem	v	van, save
ā	<b>a</b> pe, d <b>a</b> y	n	<b>n</b> ight, mitte <b>n</b>	W	<b>w</b> eb, t <b>w</b> ice
ä	f <b>a</b> ther, b <b>a</b> rn	ng	si <b>ng</b> , a <b>ng</b> er	У	yard, lawyer
âr	f <b>air</b> , d <b>are</b>	ŏ	<b>o</b> dd, n <b>o</b> t	Z	<b>z</b> oo, rea <b>s</b> on
b	<b>b</b> ell, ta <b>b</b> le	ō	<b>o</b> pen, r <b>oa</b> d, gr <b>ow</b>	zh	trea <b>s</b> ure, gara <b>g</b> e
ch	chin, lunch	ô	awful, bought, horse	Э	awake, even, pencil,
d	dig, bored	oi	c <b>oi</b> n, b <b>oy</b>		pil <b>o</b> t, foc <b>u</b> s
ĕ	egg, ten	ŏŏ	look, full	ər	p <b>er</b> form, lett <b>er</b>
ē	evil, see, meal	$\overline{oo}$	root, glue, through		•
f	fall, laugh, phrase	ou	out, cow	Sounds i	n Foreign Words
g	<b>g</b> old, bi <b>g</b>	р	pig, cap	KH	German ich, auch;
h	<b>h</b> it, in <b>h</b> ale	r	rose, star		Scottish lo <b>ch</b>
hw	<b>wh</b> ite, every <b>wh</b> ere	S	sit, face	N	French entre, bon, fin
ĭ	inch, fit	sh	she, mash	œ	French feu, coeur;
ī	idle, m <b>y</b> , tr <b>ie</b> d	t	tap, hopped		German sch <b>ö</b> n
îr	d <b>ear</b> , h <b>ere</b>	th	thing, with	ü	French utile, rue;
i	jar, gem, badge	th	then, other		German gr <b>ü</b> n
k	keep, cat, luck	ŭ	up, nut		Ü
1	load, rattle	ûr	f <b>ur, ear</b> n, b <b>ir</b> d, w <b>or</b> m		

#### STRESS MARKS

- ' This mark indicates that the preceding syllable receives the primary stress. For example, in the word *lineage*, the first syllable is stressed: [lĭn'ē-ĭj].
- This mark is used only in words in which more than one syllable is stressed. It indicates that the preceding syllable is stressed, but somewhat more weakly than the syllable receiving the primary stress. In the word *consumerism,* for example, the second syllable receives the primary stress, and the fourth syllable receives a weaker stress: [kən-soo'mə-rĭz'əm].

Adapted from *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, Fourth Edition*; Copyright © 2000 by Houghton Mifflin Company. Used with the permission of Houghton Mifflin Company.

abolition n. movement to end slavery. (p. 144)

**affirmative** [ɔ-fûr'mɔ-tĭv] **action** *n*. a policy that seeks to correct the effects of past discrimination by favoring the groups who were previously disadvantaged. (pp. 723, 831)

**Agent Orange** *n.* a toxic leaf-killing chemical sprayed by U.S. planes in Vietnam to expose Vietcong hideouts. (p. 739)

**Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA)** *n.* a law enacted in 1933 to raise crop prices by paying farmers to leave a certain amount of their land unplanted, thus lowering production. (p. 491)

AIDS [ādz] (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) n.

a disease caused by a virus that weakens the immune system, making the body prone to infections and otherwise rare forms of cancer. (p. 840)

**Alamo, the** [ăl'ə-mō'] *n.* a mission and fort in San Antonio, Texas, where Mexican forces massacred rebellious Texans in 1836. (p. 134)

Alien and Sedition [ā'lē-ən] [sĭ-dĭsh'ən] Acts n. a series of four laws enacted in 1798 to reduce the political power of recent immigrants to the United States. (p. 78)

- **Alliance** [ɔ-lī'ɔns] **for Progress** *n.* a U.S. foreign-aid program of the 1960s, providing economic and technical assistance to Latin American countries. (p. 680)
- **Allies** [ăl'īz] *n.* **1.** in World War I, the group of nations—originally consisting of Great Britain, France, and Russia and later joined by the United States, Italy, and others—that opposed the Central Powers (p. 373). **2.** in World War II, the group of nations—including Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States—that opposed the Axis powers. (p. 554)
- American Expeditionary [ĕk´spĭ-dĭsh´ə-nĕr´ē] Force (AEF) n. the U.S. forces, led by General John Pershing, who fought with the Allies in Europe during World War I. (p. 384)
- **American Federation of Labor (AFL)** *n*. an alliance of trade and craft unions, formed in 1886. (p. 245)
- American Indian Movement (AIM) n. a frequently militant organization that was formed in 1968 to work for Native American rights. (p. 771)
- **Americanization** [ə-mĕr´ĭ-kə-nĭ-zā'shən] **movement** *n*. education program designed to help immigrants assimilate to American culture. (p. 263)
- **American System** *n.* a pre-Civil War set of measures designed to unify the nation and strengthen its economy by means of protective tariffs, a national bank, and such internal improvements as the development of a transportation system. (p. 122)
- anarchist [ăn'ər-kĭst] n. a person who opposes all forms of government. (p. 413)
- Anasazi [ä'nɔ-sä'zē] n. a Native American group that lived on the mesa tops, cliff sides, and canyon bottoms of the Four Corners region (where the present-day states of Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Utah meet) from about A.D. 100 to 1300. (p. 5)
- **Antifederalist** [in'te-fed'or-o-list] n. an opponent of a strong central government. (p. 69)
- **appeasement** [a-pēz'mant] *n*. the granting of concessions to a hostile power in order to keep the peace. (p. 538)
- Appomattox [ăp'ə-măt'əks] Court House n. town near Appomatox, Virginia, where Lee surrendered to Grant on April 9, 1865. (37°N 79°W) (p. 181)
- **arbitration** *n.* a method of settling disputes in which both sides submit their differences to a mutually approved judge. (p. 245)
- armistice [är'mĭ-stĭs] n. a truce, or agreement to end an armed conflict. (p. 387)
- **Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN)** *n.* the southern Vietnamese soldiers with whom U.S. troops fought against communism and forces in the North during the Vietnam War. (p. 737)
- **Articles of Confederation** [kən-fĕd'ə-rā'shən] *n.* a document, adopted by the Second Continental Congress in 1777 and finally approved by the states in 1781, that outlined the form of government of the new United States. (p. 67)
- **Ashcan school** *n.* a group of early 20th-century American artists who often painted realistic pictures of city life—such as tenements and homeless people—thus earning them their name. (p. 295)
- **assimilation** [ə-sim'ə-lā'shən] *n.* a minority group's adoption of the beliefs and way of life of the dominant culture. (p. 206)
- **Atlantic Charter** *n.* a 1941 declaration of principles in which the United States and Great Britain set forth their goals in opposing the Axis powers. (p. 554)

- **Axis** [ăk'sĭs] **powers** *n*. the group of nations—including Germany, Italy, and Japan—that opposed the Allies in World War II. (p. 551)
- Aztec [ăz'těk'] n. a Native American people that settled in the Valley of Mexico in the 1200s A.D. and later developed a powerful empire. (p. 5)



- baby boom n. the sharp increase in the U.S. birthrate following World War II. (p. 643)
- **Battle of the Bulge** *n.* a month-long battle of World War II, in which the Allies succeeded in turning back the last major German offensive of the war. (p. 576)
- Battle of Midway n. a World War II battle that took place in early June 1942. The Allies decimated the Japanese fleet at Midway, an island lying northwest of Hawaii. The Allies then took the offensive in the Pacific and began to move closer to Japan. (p. 579)
- Battle of Wounded Knee [woon'dĭd nē'] n. the massacre by U.S. soldiers of 300 unarmed Native Americans at Wounded Knee Creek, South Dakota, in 1890. (pp. 207–208)
- **Beatles, the** [bēt'lz] *n.* a British band that had an enormous influence on popular music in the 1960s. (p. 783)
- **beat movement** *n*. a social and artistic movement of the 1950s, stressing unrestrained literary self-expression and nonconformity with the mainstream culture. (p. 655)
- **Benin** [bɔ-nĭn'] *n.* a West African kingdom that flourished in the Niger Delta region (in what is now Nigeria) from the 14th to the 17th century. (p. 9)
- **Berlin airlift** [bûr-lĭn' âr'lĭft'] *n.* a 327-day operation in which U.S. and British planes flew food and supplies into West Berlin after the Soviets blockaded the city in 1948. (p. 607)
- **Berlin Wall** *n.* a concrete wall that separated East Berlin and West Berlin from 1961 to 1989, built by the Communist East German government to prevent its citizens from fleeing to the West. (p. 677)
- **Bessemer** [bĕs'o-mɔr] **process** *n.* a cheap and efficient process for making steel, developed around 1850. (p. 231)
- **Bill of Rights** *n.* the first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, added in 1791 and consisting of a formal list of citizens' rights and freedoms. (p. 70)
- **bimetallism** [bī-mĕt'l-ĭz'əm] *n*. the use of both gold and silver as a basis for a national monetary system. (p. 222)
- **blacklist** [blăk'lĭst'] n. a list of about 500 actors, writers, producers, and directors who were not allowed to work on Hollywood films because of their alleged Communist connections. (p. 618)
- **Black Panthers** *n.* a militant African-American political organization formed in 1966 by Huey Newton and Bobby Seale to fight police brutality and to provide services in the ghetto. (p. 720)
- **Black Power** *n.* a slogan used by Stokely Carmichael in the 1960s that encouraged African-American pride and political and social leadership. (p. 720)
- **Black Tuesday** *n.* a name given to October 29, 1929, when stock prices fell sharply. (p. 468)
- blitzkrieg [blĭts'krēg'] n. from the German word meaning "lightning war," a sudden, massive attack with combined air and ground forces, intended to achieve a quick victory. (p. 539)
- **bonanza** [bə-năn'zə] **farm** *n*. an enormous farm on which a single crop is grown. (p. 218)

- **Bonus** [bō'nəs] **Army** *n*. a group of World War I veterans and their families who marched on Washington, D.C., in 1932 to demand the immediate payment of a bonus they had been promised for military service. (p. 482)
- **bootlegger** [boot'leg'or] *n.* a person who smuggled alcoholic beverages into the United States during Prohibition. (p. 437)
- **Boston Massacre** [bô'stən măs'ə-kər] *n.* a clash between British soldiers and Boston colonists in 1770, in which five of the colonists were killed. (p. 48)
- **Boston Tea Party** *n.* the dumping of 18,000 pounds of tea into Boston Harbor by colonists in 1773 to protest the Tea Act. (p. 49)
- **Boulder** [bōl'dər] **Dam** *n.* a dam on the Colorado River—now called Hoover Dam—that was built during the Great Depression as part of a public-works program intended to stimulate business and provide jobs. (p. 480)
- **Boxer Rebellion** *n.* a 1900 rebellion in which members of a Chinese secret society sought to free their country from Western influence. (p. 357)
- **bracero** [brɔ-sâr'ō] *n.* a Mexican laborer allowed to enter the United States to work for a limited period of time during World War II. (p. 662)
- **bread line** *n.* a line of people waiting for free food. (p. 473)
- **brinkmanship** [bringk'mən-ship'] n. the practice of threatening an enemy with massive military retaliation for any aggression. (p. 623)
- **Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka** n. a 1954 case in which the Supreme Court ruled that "separate but equal" education for black and white students was unconstitutional. (p. 702)
- **Bull Moose Party** *n.* a name given to the Progressive Party, formed to support Theodore Roosevelt's candidacy for the presidency in 1912. (p. 330)
- **buying on margin** [mär'jĭn] *n*. the purchasing of stocks by paying only a small percentage of the price and borrowing the rest. (p. 467)
- cabinet [kăb'ə-nĭt] n. the group of department heads who serve as the president's chief advisers. (p. 75)
- **Camp David Accords** [a-kôrdz'] *n.* historic agreements between Israel and Egypt, reached in negotiations at Camp David in 1978. (p. 816)
- carpetbagger [kär'p ĭt-băg'ər] n. a Northerner who moved to the South after the Civil War. (p. 186)
- **Central Powers** *n.* the group of nations—led by Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire—that opposed the Allies in World War I. (p. 374)
- **checks and balances** *n*. the provisions in the U.S. Constitution that prevent any branch of the U.S. government from dominating the other two branches. (p. 69)
- **Chinese Exclusion Act** *n.* a law, enacted in 1882, that prohibited all Chinese except students, teachers, merchants, tourists, and government officials from entering the United States. (p. 259)
- **Chisholm** [chĭz'əm] **Trail** *n*. the major cattle route from San Antonio, Texas, through Oklahoma to Kansas. (p. 209)
- **chlorination** *n*. a method of purifying water by mixing it with chemical chlorine. (p. 264)

- Christianity [krĭs'chē-ăn'ĭ-tē] n. a religion based on the life and teachings of Jesus Christ. (p. 10)
- CIA n. the Central Intelligence Agency—a U.S. agency created to gather secret information about foreign governments. (p. 623)
- **Civilian Conservation Corps** [kôr] **(CCC)** *n.* an agency, established as part of the New Deal, that put young unemployed men to work building roads, developing parks, planting trees, and helping in erosion-control and flood-control projects. (p. 491)
- **Civil Rights Act of 1964** *n.* a law that banned discrimination on the basis of race, sex, national origin, or religion in public places and most workplaces. (p. 714)
- **Civil Rights Act of 1968** *n.* a law that banned discrimination in housing. (p. 722)
- **civil service** *n*. the nonmilitary branches of government administration. (p. 270)
- Clayton Antitrust [klāt'n ăn'tē-trŭst'] Act n. a law, enacted in 1914, that made certain monopolistic business practices illegal and protected the rights of labor unions and farm organizations. (p. 333)
- Cold War n. the state of hostility, without direct military conflict, that developed between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II. (p. 606)
- Columbian Exchange [kɔ-lŭm'bē-ən ĭks-chānj'] n. the transfer beginning with Columbus's first voyage—of plants, animals, and diseases between the Western Hemisphere and the Eastern Hemisphere. (p. 15)
- **Committee to Reelect the President** *n.* an organization formed to run President Nixon's 1972 reelection campaign, which was linked to the break-in at the Democratic National Committee headquarters that set off the Watergate scandal. (p. 803)
- **Common Sense** *n.* a pamphlet by Thomas Paine, published in 1776, that called for separation of the colonies from Britain. (p. 52)
- **Commonwealth** [kŏm'ən-wĕlth'] **v. Hunt** n. an 1842 case in which the Massachusetts Supreme Court upheld workers' right to strike. (p. 143)
- **communism** [kŏm'yə-nĭz'əm] *n.* an economic and political system based on one-party government and state ownership of property. (p. 413)
- **concentration** [kŏn'sən-trā'shən] **camp** *n*. a prison camp operated by Nazi Germany in which Jews and other groups considered to be enemies of Adolf Hitler were starved while doing slave labor or were murdered. (p. 546)
- Confederacy [kən-fed'ər-ə-sē] n. the Confederate States of America, a confederation formed in 1861 by the Southern states after their secession from the Union. (p. 165)
- **conglomerate** [kən-glŏm'ər-ĭt] *n.* a major corporation that owns a number of smaller companies in unrelated businesses. (p. 642)
- Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) n. a labor organization composed of industrial unions founded in 1938, it merged with the AFL in 1955. (p. 508)
- Congress of Racial Equality [rā'shəl ĭ-kwŏl'ĭ-tē] (CORE) n. an interracial group founded in 1942 by James Farmer to work against segregation in Northern cities. (p. 593)
- conquistador [kŏng-kē'stə-dôr'] n. one of the Spaniards who traveled to the Americas as an explorer and conqueror in the 16th century. (p. 16)

- **conscientious objector** [kŏn'shē-čn'shəs ŏb-jčk'tər] *n.* a person who refuses, on moral grounds, to participate in warfare. (p. 386)
- **conscription** [kən-skrĭp'shən] *n*. the drafting of citizens for military service. (p. 173)
- **conservation** [kŏn'sûr-vā'shən] *n.* the planned management of natural resources, involving the protection of some wilderness areas and the development of others for the common good. (p. 323)
- **conservative coalition** [kən-sûr'və-tĭv kō'ə-lĭsh'ən] n. an alliance formed in the mid-1960s of right-wing groups opposed to big government. (p. 831)
- **consolidation** (kən-sŏl'ĭ-dā'shən) *n*. the act of uniting or combining. (p. 240)
- **consumerism** [kən-soo'mə-rĭz'əm] *n.* a preoccupation with the purchasing of material goods. (p. 648)
- **containment** [kən-tān'mənt] *n*. the blocking of another nation's attempts to spread its influence—especially the efforts of the United States to block the spread of Soviet influence during the late 1940s and early 1950s. (p. 605)
- Contract [kŏn'trăkt'] with America n. a document that was drafted by Representative Newt Gingrich and signed by more than 300 Republican candidates in 1994, setting forth the Republicans' conservative legislative agenda. (p. 864)
- Contras [kŏn'trɔz] n. Nicaraguan rebels who received assistance from the Reagan administration in their efforts to overthrow the Sandinista government in the 1980s. (p. 851)
- convoy [kŏn'voi'] system n. the protection of merchant ships from U-boat—German submrine—attacks by having the ships travel in large groups escorted by warships. (p. 383)
- **counterculture** [koun'tər-kŭl'chər] n. the culture of the young people who rejected mainstream American society in the 1960s, seeking to create an alternative society based on peace, love, and individual freedom. (p. 781)
- **credibility** [kred'ə-bil'i-te] **gap** n. a public distrust of statements made by the government. (p. 741)
- **credit** [krĕd'ĭt] n. an arrangement in which a buyer pays later for a purchase, often on an installment plan with interest charges. (p. 466)
- **Crédit Mobilier** [krĕd'ĭt mō-bēl'yər] *n.* a construction company formed in 1864 by owners of the Union Pacific Railroad, who used it to fraudulently skim off railroad profits for themselves. (p. 238)
- Dawes [dôz] Act n. a law, enacted in 1887, that was intended to "Americanize" Native Americans by distributing reservation land to individual owners. (p. 206)
- **D-Day** *n.* a name given to June 6, 1944—the day on which the Allies launched an invasion of the European mainland during World War II. (p. 574)
- $\label{eq:debt_peonage} \ [det'\ peorage\ [det'\ peorage\ ]\ n.\ a\ system\ in\ which\ workers\ are\ bound\ in\ servitude\ until their\ debts\ are\ paid.\ (p.\ 289)$
- **Declaration** [dĕk'lɔ-rā'shən] **of Independence** *n.* the document, written by Thomas Jefferson in 1776, in which the delegates of the Continental Congress declared the colonies' independence from Britain. (p. 53)
- **de facto segregation** [dĭ făk'tō sĕg'rĭ-gā'shən] *n.* racial separation established by practice and custom, not by law. (p. 718)

- **deficit** [dĕf'ĭ-sĭt] **spending** *n.* a government's spending of more money than it receives in revenue. (p. 492)
- **de jure segregation** [dē jŏor'ē sĕg'rĭ-gā'shən] *n.* racial separation established by law. (p. 718)
- **Democratic-Republican** *n.* political party known for its support of strong state governments, founded by Thomas Jefferson in 1792 in opposition to the Federalist Party. (pp. 76, 112)
- **deregulation** *n*. the cutting back of federal regulation of industry. (p. 837)
- **détente** [dā-tänt'] *n*. the flexible policy, involving a willingness to negotiate and an easing of tensions, that was adopted by President Richard Nixon and his adviser Henry Kissinger in their dealings with communist nations. (p. 799)
- **direct relief**  $[r\breve{i}-l\ddot{e}f']$  *n.* the giving of money or food by the government directly to needy people. (p. 475)
- Dixiecrat [dĭk'sē-krăt'] n. one of the Southern delegates who, to protest President Truman's civil rights policy, walked out of the 1948 Democratic National Convention and formed the States' Rights Democratic Party. (p. 638)
- **dollar diplomacy** [dĭ-plō'mɔ-sē] *n*. the U.S. policy of using the nation's economic power to exert influence over other countries. (p. 363)
- domino theory [dŏm'ə-nō' thē'ə-rē] n. the idea that if a nation falls under communist control, nearby nations will also fall under communist control. (p. 731)
- dotcom n. a business related to or conducted on the Internet. (p. 871)
- **double standard** *n.* a set of principles granting greater sexual freedom to men than to women. (p. 441)
- **dove**  $[d\bar{u}v]$  *n.* a person who opposed the Vietnam War and believed that the United States should withdraw from it. (p. 746)
- **Dow Jones** [dou' jonz'] **Industrial Average** *n.* a measure based on the prices of the stocks of 30 large companies, widely used as a barometer of the stock market's health. (p. 467)
- **downsize** [doun's $\bar{\imath}z'$ ]  $\nu$ . to dismiss numbers of permanent employees in an attempt to make operations more efficient and save money. (p. 870)
- draft n. required enrollment in the armed services. (p. 742)
- **Dust Bowl** *n*. the region, including Texas, Oklahoma, Kansas, Colorado, and New Mexico, that was made worthless for farming by drought and dust storms during the 1930s. (p. 474)
- **Earth Day** *n.* a day set aside for environmental education, celebrated annually on April 22. (p. 821)
- **Economic Opportunity Act** *n.* a law, enacted in 1964, that provided funds for youth programs, antipoverty measures, small-business loans, and job training. (p. 688)
- egalitarianism [ĭ-găl'ĭ-târ'ē-ə-nĭz'əm] n. the belief that all people should have equal political, economic, social, and civil rights. (p. 63)
- **Eisenhower Doctrine** [i'zən-hou'ər dŏk'trin] *n.* a U.S. commitment to defend the Middle East against attack by any communist country, announced by President Dwight D. Eisenhower in 1957. (p. 625)

- **Emancipation Proclamation** [prŏk'lə-mā'shən] *n*. an executive order issued by Abraham Lincoln on January 1, 1863, freeing the slaves in all regions behind Confederate lines. (p. 172)
- encomienda [ĕng-kô-myĕn'dä] n. a system in which Spanish authorities granted colonial landlords the service of Native Americans as forced laborers. (p. 16)
- Enlightenment [ĕn-līt'n-mənt] n. an 18th-century intellectual movement that emphasized the use of reason and the scientific method as means of obtaining knowledge. (p. 35)
- entitlement [ĕn-tīt'1-mənt] program n. a government program such as Social Security, Medicare, or Medicaid—that guarantees and provides benefits to a specific group. (p. 831)
- entrepreneur [ŏn´trɔ-prɔ-nûr'] n. a person who organizes, operates, and assumes the risk for a business venture. (p. 140)
- **environmentalist** [ĕn-vī'rən-mĕn'tl-ĭst] *n.* a person who works to protect the environment from destruction and pollution. (p. 822)
- **Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)** *n.* a federal agency established in 1970 for the regulation of water and air pollution, toxic waste, pesticides, and radiation. (p. 837)
- **Equal Rights Amendment (ERA)** *n.* a proposed and failed amendment to the U.S. Constitution that would have prohibited any government discrimination on the basis of sex. (p. 779)
- **Espionage and Sedition** [ĕs'pē-ə-näzh' ənd sĭ-dĭsh'ən] **Acts** *n*. two laws, enacted in 1917 and 1918, that imposed harsh penalties on anyone interfering with or speaking against U.S. participation in World War I. (p. 392)
- **exoduster** [ĕk'sə-dŭs'tər] *n.* an African American who migrated from the South to Kansas in the post-Reconstruction years. (p. 215)
- **extortion** *n*. illegal use of one's official position to obtain property or funds. (p. 269)
- Fair Deal n. President Harry S. Truman's economic program—an extension of Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal—which included measures to increase the minimum wage, to extend social security coverage, and to provide housing for low-income families. (p. 639)
- **Family Assistance Plan** *n*. a welfare-reform proposal, approved by the House of Representatives in 1970 but defeated in the Senate, that would have guaranteed an income to welfare recipients who agreed to undergo job training and to accept work. (p. 795)
- **Farmers' Alliances** *n.* groups of farmers, or those in sympathy with farming issues, who sent lecturers from town to town to educate people about agricultural and rural issues. (p. 221)
- **fascism** [făsh'ĭz'əm] n. a political philosophy that advocates a strong, centralized, nationalistic government headed by a powerful dictator. (p. 530)
- **Federal Communications Commission (FCC)** *n.* an agency that regulates U.S. communications industries, including radio and television broadcasting. (p. 653)
- **Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC)** *n.* an agency created in 1933 to insure individuals' bank accounts, protecting people against losses due to bank failures. (p. 517)
- **Federal Home Loan Bank Act** *n.* a law, enacted in 1931, that lowered home mortgage rates and allowed farmers to refinance their loans and avoid foreclosure. (p. 481)
- **federalism** *n.* a political system in which a national government and constituent units, such as state governments, share power. (p. 68)

- **Federalist** [fĕd'ər-ə-lĭst] *n.* a supporter of the Constitution and of a strong national government. (p. 69)
- **Federal Reserve System** *n.* a national banking system, established in 1913, that controls the U.S. money supply and the availability of credit in the country. (p. 334)
- **Federal Securities** [sĭ-kyŏor'ĭ-tēz] **Act** *n.* a law, enacted in 1933, that required corporations to provide complete, accurate information on all stock offerings. (p. 490)
- Federal Trade Commission (FTC) n. a federal agency established in 1914 to investigate and stop unfair business practices. (p. 333)
- **feminism** [fem'ə-nĭz'əm] *n*. the belief that women should have economic, political, and social equality with men. (p. 776)
- **Fifteenth Amendment** *n.* an amendment to the U.S. Constitution, adopted in 1870, that prohibits the denial of voting rights to people because of their race or color or because they have previously been slaves. (p. 186)
- **flapper** *n.* one of the free-thinking young women who embraced the new fashions and urban attitudes of the 1920s. (p. 441)
- **flexible response** [flĕk'sə-bəl rĭ-spŏns'] *n.* a policy, developed during the Kennedy administration, that involved preparing for a variety of military responses to international crises rather than focusing on the use of nuclear weapons. (p. 673)
- Foraker [fôr'ə-kər] Act n. legislation passed by Congress in 1900, in which the U.S. ended military rule in Puerto Rico and set up a civil government. (p. 353)
- Fordney-McCumber Tariff [fôrd'nē mə-kŭm'bər tăr'ĭf] n. a set of regulations, enacted by Congress in 1922, that raised taxes on imports to record levels in order to protect American businesses against foreign competition. (p. 420)
- **Fourteen Points** *n*. the principles making up President Woodrow Wilson's plan for world peace following World War I. (p. 399)
- **Fourteenth Amendment** *n.* an amendment to the U.S. Constitution, adopted in 1868, that makes all persons born or naturalized in the United States—including former slaves—citizens of the country and guarantees equal protection of the laws. (p. 185)
- franchise [frăn'chīz'] n. a business that has bought the right to use a parent company's name and methods, thus becoming one of a number of similar businesses in various locations. (p. 642)
- Freedmen's Bureau [frēd-mĕnz byŏor'ō] n. a federal agency set up to help former slaves after the Civil War. (p. 184)
- **freedom rider** *n*. one of the civil rights activists who rode buses through the South in the early 1960s to challenge segregation. (p. 710)
- **Freedom Summer** *n.* a 1964 project to register African-American voters in Mississippi. (p. 715)
- **free enterprise** [ĕn'tər-prīz'] *n.* the economic system in which private businesses and individuals control the means of production. (p. 140)
- **Free Speech Movement** *n.* an antiestablishment New Left organization that originated in a 1964 clash between students and administrators at the University of California at Berkeley. (p. 744)
- French and Indian War n. a conflict in North America, lasting from 1754 to 1763, that was a part of a worldwide struggle between France and Britain and that ended with the defeat of France and the transfer of French Canada to Britain. (p. 37)

- **Fundamentalism** [fŭn'də-mĕn'tl-ĭz'əm] *n.* a Protestant religious movement grounded in the belief that all the stories and details in the Bible are literally true. (p. 438)
- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) [găt] n. an international agreement first signed in 1947. In 1994, the U.S. and other countries adopted a new version of GATT. This treaty lowered trade barriers, such as tariffs, and created the World Trade Organization, which resolves trade disputes. (p. 872)
- **genetic engineering** [jɔ-nĕt'ĭk ĕn'jɔ-nîr'ĭng] *n*. the alteration of the molecular biology of organisms' cells in order to create new varieties of bacteria, plants, and animals. (p. 880)
- **Geneva Accords** [jɔ-nē'vɔ ɔ-kôrdz'] n. a 1954 peace agreement that divided Vietnam into Communist-controlled North Vietnam and non-Communist South Vietnam until unification elections could be held in 1956. (p. 732)
- **genocide** [jĕn'ə-sīd'] *n*. the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group. (p. 544)
- **Gentlemen's Agreement** *n.* a 1907–1908 agreement by the government of Japan to limit Japanese emigration to the United States. (p. 259)
- **gentrification** [jĕn'trə-fĭ-kā'shən] n. the process of restoring deteriorated urban property by middle-class people, which often results in the displacement of lower-income residents. (p. 883)
- **Gettysburg Address** [gĕt'ēz-bûrg' ɔ-drĕs'] *n.* a famous speech delivered by Abraham Lincoln in November 1863, at the dedication of a national cemetery on the site of the Battle of Gettysburg. (p. 177)
- ghetto [gĕt'ō] n. a city neighborhood in which a certain minority group is pressured or forced to live. (p. 545)
- **GI Bill of Rights** *n.* a name given to the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, a 1944 law that provided financial and educational benefits for World War II veterans. (pp. 592, 635)
- **glasnost** [gläs'nəst] n. the open discussion of social problems that was permitted in the Soviet Union in the 1980s. (p. 849)
- Glass-Steagall [glăs' stē'gəl] Act n. the 1933 law that established the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation to protect individuals' bank accounts. (p. 490)
- **gold standard** *n.* a monetary system in which the basic unit of currency is defined in terms of a set amount of gold. (p. 222)
- **Gone with the Wind** *n.* a 1939 movie dealing with the life of Southern plantation owners during the Civil War—one of the most popular films of all time. (p. 511)
- graft n. the illegal use of political influence for personal gain. (p. 269)
- **grandfather clause** *n.* a provision that exempts certain people from a law on the basis of previously existing circumstances—especially a clause formerly in some Southern states' constitutions that exempted whites from the strict voting requirements used to keep African Americans from the polls. (p. 287)
- $\label{eq:Grange} \begin{tabular}{ll} $\tt Grange \ [gr\bar{a}nj] \ \it n.$ the Patrons of Husbandry—a social and educational organization through which farmers attempted to combat the power of the railroads in the late 19th century. (p. 221) \end{tabular}$
- **Grapes of Wrath, The** n. a novel by John Steinbeck, published in 1939, that deals with a family of Oklahomans who leave the Dust Bowl for California. (p. 514)

- **Great Awakening** *n.* a revival of religious feeling in the American colonies during the 1730s and 1750s. (p. 35)
- **Great Depression** *n.* a period, lasting from 1929 to 1940, in which the U.S. economy was in severe decline and millions of Americans were unemployed. (p. 469)
- **Great Migration** [mī-grā'shən] *n.* the large-scale movement of African Americans from the South to Northern cities in the early 20th century. (p. 393)
- **Great Plains** *n*. the vast grassland that extends through the central portion North America, from Texas northward to Canada, east of the Rocky Mountains. (p. 202)
- **Great Society** *n*. President Lyndon B. Johnson's program to reduce poverty and racial injustice and to promote a better quality of life in the United States. (p. 689)
- Haight-Ashbury [hāt' ăsh'bĕr-ē] n. a San Francisco district that became the "capital" of the hippie counterculture during the 1960s. (p. 782)
- Harlem Renaissance [här'ləm ren'ĭ-säns'] n. a flowering of African-American artistic creativity during the 1920s, centered in the Harlem community of New York City. (p. 454)
- hawk n. a person who supported U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War and believed that the United States should use increased military force to win it. (p. 746)
- **Hawley-Smoot Tariff** [hô'lē smoot' tăr'ĭf] **Act** *n.* a law, enacted in 1930, that established the highest protective tariff in U.S. history, worsening the depression in America and abroad. (p. 471)
- **H-bomb** *n*. the hydrogen bomb—a thermonuclear weapon much more powerful than the atomic bomb. (p. 623)
- Ho Chi Minh [hō' chē' mĭn'] Trail n. a network of paths used by North Vietnam to transport supplies to the Vietcong in South Vietnam. (p. 732)
- **Hollywood Ten** *n*. ten witnesses from the film industry who refused to cooperate with the HUAC's investigation of Communist influence in Hollywood. (p. 617)
- Holocaust [hŏl'a-kôst'] n. the systematic murder—or genocide—of Jews and other groups in Europe by the Nazis before and during World War II. (p. 542)
- Homestead [hōm'stĕd'] Act n. a U.S. law enacted in 1862, that provided 160 acres in the West to any citizen or intended citizen who was head of household and would cultivate the land for five years; a law whose passage led to record numbers of U.S. settlers claiming private property which previously had been reserved by treaty and by tradition for Native American nomadic dwelling and use; the same law strengthened in 1889 to encourage individuals to exercise their private property rights and develop homesteads out of the vast government lands. (p. 215)
- **horizontal integration** [hôr´ĭ-zŏn´tl ĭn´tĭ-grā´shən] n. the merging of companies that make similar products. (p. 242)
- **hot line** *n.* a communication link established in 1963 to allow the leaders of the United States and the Soviet Union to contact each other in times of crisis. (p. 678)
- House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC)

[hyoo'ăk'] n. a congressional committee that investigated Communist influence inside and outside the U.S. government in the years following World War II. (p. 617)

- **human rights** *n*. the rights and freedoms, such as those named in the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights, to which all people are entitled. (p. 815)
- **immigration** [ĭm´ĭ-grā'shən] *n*. coming to and settling in a country of which one is not a native. (p. 142)
- **Immigration Act of 1965** *n*. a law that increased the number of immigrants allowed to settle in the United States. (p. 691)
- **impeachment** *n*. the process of accusing a public official of wrongdoing. (p. 802)
- **imperialism** [ĭm-pîr'ē-ɔ-lĭz'əm] n. the policy of extending a nation's authority over other countries by economic, political, or military means. (p. 342)
- **impressment** [ im-pres'mant] *n*. the forcible seizure of men for military service. (p. 114)
- incandescent [ĭn'kən-dĕs'ənt] adj. giving off visible light as a result of being heated. (p. 232)
- **income tax** *n.* a tax on earnings. (p. 174)
- indentured [ĭn-dĕn'chərd] servant n. a person who has contracted to work for another for a limited period, often in return for travel expenses, shelter, and sustenance. (p. 23)
- **Industrial Workers of the World (IWW)** *n.* a labor organization for unskilled workers, formed by a group of radical unionists and socialists in 1905. (p. 246)
- **inflation** [ĭn-flā'shən] n. an increase in prices or decline in purchasing power caused by an increase in the supply of money. (p. 60)
- **information superhighway** [soo 'pər-hī'wā] n. a computer communications network linking people and institutions throughout the world, providing individuals with services such as libraries, shopping, movies, and news. (p. 877)
- **INF Treaty** *n*. the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty—a 1987 agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union that eliminated some weapons systems and allowed for on-site inspection of military installations. (p. 849)
- initiative [ĭ-nĭsh'ə-tĭv] n. a procedure by which a legislative measure can be originated by the people rather than by lawmakers. (p. 312)
- installment [ĭn-stôl'mənt] plan n. an arrangement in which a purchaser pays over an extended time, without having to put down much money at the time of purchase. (p. 426)
- Internet [ĭn'tɔr-nĕt'] n. a worldwide network, originally developed by the U.S. Department of Defense, that links computers and allows almost immediate communication of texts, pictures, and sounds. (p. 877)
- **internment** *n*. confinement or a restriction in movement, especially under wartime conditions. (p. 594)
- Interstate [ĭn'tər-stāt'] Commerce Act n. a law, enacted in 1887, that established the federal government's right to supervise railroad activities and created a five-member Interstate Commerce Commission to do so. (p. 239)
- **iron curtain** [i'ərn kûr'tn] *n.* a phrase used by Winston Churchill in 1946 to describe an imaginary line that separated Communist countries in the Soviet bloc of Eastern Europe from countries in Western Europe. (p. 605)

- **Iroquois** [ĭr'ə-kwoi'] *n.* a group of Native American peoples inhabiting the woodlands of the Northeast. (p. 6)
- **Islam** [ĭs-läm'] n. a religion founded in Arabia in A.D. 622 by the prophet Muhammad; its believers are called Muslims. (p. 9)
- **isolationism** [ $\tilde{\imath}$ 'sə-lā'shə-n $\tilde{\imath}$ zm] n. opposition to political and economic entanglements with other countries. (p. 412)
- Jacksonian democracy [jăk-sō'nē-an dĭ-mŏk'rə-sē] n.

  Jackson's political philosophy, based on his belief that common people were the source of American strength. (p. 123)
- Japanese American Citizens League (JACL) n. an organization that pushed the U.S. government to compensate Japanese Americans for property they had lost when they were interned during World War II. (p. 595)
- **jazz** *n*. a style of music characterized by the use of improvisation. (p. 657)
- **Jeffersonian republicanism** [jĕf´ər-sō′nē-ən rĭ-pŭb´lĭ-kə-nĭz′əm] *n.* Jefferson's theory of government, which held that a simple government best suited the needs of the people. (p. 113)
- **Jim Crow laws** *n.* laws enacted by Southern state and local governments to separate white and black people in public and private facilities. (p. 287)
- **joint-stock companies** *n.* businesses in which investors pool their wealth for a common purpose. (p. 21)
- **judicial review** *n*. the Supreme Court's power to declare an act of Congress unconstitutional. (p. 113)
- Judiciary [jōō-dĭsh' ē-ĕr'ē] Act of 1789 n. a law that established the federal court system and the number of Supreme Court justices and that provided for the appeal of certain state court decisions to the federal courts. (p. 74)
- Jungle, The n. a novel by Upton Sinclair, published in 1906, that portrays the dangerous and unhealthy conditions prevalent in the meatpacking industry at that time. (p. 317)
- kamikaze [kä'mĭ-kä'zē] adj. involving or engaging in the deliberate crashing of a bomb-filled airplane into a military target. (p. 581)
- Kent State University n. an Ohio university where National Guardsmen opened fire on students protesting the Vietnam War on May 4, 1970, wounding nine and killing four. (p. 756)
- **Kerner** [kûr'nər] **Commission** *n*. a group that was appointed by President Johnson to study the causes of urban violence and that recommended the elimination of de facto segregation in American society. (p. 722)
- **King Philip's War** *n.* a conflict, in the years 1675–1676, between New England colonists and Native American groups allied under the leadership of the Wampanoag chief Metacom. (p. 25)
- Kongo [kŏng'gō] n. a group of small kingdoms along the Zaire River in West-Central Africa, united under a single leader in the late 1400s. (p. 9)
- Korean [kə-rē'ən] War n. a conflict between North Korea and South Korea, lasting from 1950 to 1953, in which the United States, along with other UN countries, fought on the side of the South Koreans and China fought on the side of the North Koreans. (p. 611)

- Kristallnacht [krĭ-stäl'näKht'] n. "night of broken glass," a name given to the night of November 9, 1938, when gangs of Nazi storm troopers attacked Jewish homes, businesses, and synagogues in Germany. (p. 543)
- Ku Klux Klan [koo' klŭks klăn'] (KKK) n. a secret organization that used terrorist tactics in an attempt to restore white supremacy in Southern states after the Civil War. (p. 188)
- La Raza Unida [lä rä'sä oō-ne'dä] n. a Latino political organization founded in 1970 by José Angel Gutiérrez. (p. 770)
- **League of Nations** *n.* an association of nations established in 1920 to promote international cooperation and peace. (p. 399)
- **Lend-Lease Act** *n.* a law, passed in 1941, that allowed the United States to ship arms and other supplies, without immediate payment, to nations fighting the Axis powers. (p. 552)
- **Limited Test Ban Treaty** *n.* the 1963 treaty in which the United States and the Soviet Union agreed not to conduct nuclear-weapons tests in the atmosphere. (p. 678)
- **long drive** *n*. the moving of cattle over trails to a shipping center. (p. 210)
- **longhorn** [lông'hôrn'] *n.* a breed of sturdy, long-horned cattle brought by the Spanish to Mexico and suited to the dry conditions of the Southwest. (p. 208)
- **Louisiana Purchase** *n.* the 1803 purchase by the United States of France's Louisiana Territory—extending from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains—for \$15 million. (p. 114)
- **Lowell textile** [lō'ol tĕks'tīl'] **mills** *n*. 19th-century mills for the manufacture of cloth, located in Lowell, Massachusetts, that mainly employed young women. (p. 142)
- **Loyalist** [loi'a-list] *n.* a colonist who supported the British government during the American Revolution. (p. 59)
- **Lusitania** [1oō'sĭ-tā'nō-ə] n. a British passenger ship that was sunk by a German U-boat in 1915. (p. 378)
- mandate [măn'dāt'] n. the authority to act that an elected official receives from the voters who elected him or her. (p. 680)
- **Manhattan Project** [măn-hăt'n pröj'ěkt'] *n.* the U.S. program to develop an atomic bomb for use in World War II. (p. 567)
- manifest destiny [măn'ə-fĕst' dĕs'tə-nē] n. the 19th-century belief that the United States would inevitably expand westward to the Pacific Ocean and into Mexican territory. (p. 131)
- **Marbury v. Madison** [mär'bûr-ē vûr'səs măd'ĭ-sən] *n.* an 1803 case in which the Supreme Court ruled that it had the power to abolish legislative acts by declaring them unconstitutional; this power came to be known as judicial review. (p. 113)
- **market revolution** *n*. the major change in the U.S. economy produced by people's beginning to buy and sell goods rather than make them for themselves. (p. 139)
- Marshall [mär'shəl] Plan n. the program, proposed by Secretary of State George Marshall in 1947, under which the United States supplied economic aid to European nations to help them rebuild after World War II. (p. 606)

- **mass media**  $[m\bar{e}'d\bar{e}$ -a] n. the means of communication—such as television, newspapers, and radio—that reach large audiences. (p. 652)
- **mass transit** *n.* transportation systems designed to move large numbers of people along fixed routes. (p. 264)
- **McCarthyism** [mə-kär'thē-ĭz'əm] *n.* the attacks, often unsubstantiated, by Senator Joseph McCarthy and others on people suspected of being Communists in the early 1950s. (p.620)
- **Meat Inspection Act** *n.* a law, enacted in 1906, that established strict cleanliness requirements for meatpackers and created a federal meat-inspection program. (p. 320)
- **Medicaid** [mĕd'ĭ-kād'] *n.* a program, established in 1965, that provides health insurance for people on welfare. (p. 690)
- **Medicare** [měď'ĭ-kâr'] *n.* a federal program, established in 1965, that provides hospital insurance and low-cost medical insurance to Americans aged 65 and over. (p. 690)
- **melting pot** *n.* a mixture of people from different cultures and races who blend together by abandoning their native languages and cultures. (p. 258)
- **mercantilism** [mûr'kən-tē-lĭz'əm] *n.* an economic system in which nations seek to increase their wealth and power by obtaining large amounts of gold and silver and by establishing a favorable balance of trade. (p. 28)
- mestizo [mĕs-tē'zō] adj. of mixed Spanish and Native American ancestry. (p. 16)
- **middle passage** *n.* the voyage that brought enslaved Africans to the West Indies and later to North America. (p. 32)
- **militarism** [mːĭl'ĭ-tə-rːĭz'əm] *n*. the policy of building up armed forces in aggressive preparedness for war and their use as a tool of diplomacy. (p. 373)
- **Missouri Compromise** [kŏm'prɔ-mīz'] *n.* a series of agreements passed by Congress in 1820–1821 to maintain the balance of power between slave states and free states. (p. 122)
- **Monroe Doctrine** [mən-rō' dŏk'trĭn] *n.* a policy of U.S. opposition to any European interference in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere, announced by President Monroe in 1823. (p. 117)
- **Moral Majority** [môr'əl mə-jôr'ĭ-tē] *n.* a political alliance of religious groups, consisting mainly of evangelical and fundamentalist Christians, that was active in the 1970s and 1980s, condemning liberal attitudes and behavior and raising money for conservative candidates. (p. 831)
- **Morrill** [môr'ɔl] **Acts** *n*. laws enacted in 1862 and 1890 to help create agricultural colleges by giving federal land to states. (p. 217)
- muckraker [mŭk'rā'kər] *n.* one of the magazine journalists who exposed the corrupt side of business and public life in the early 1900s. (p. 308)
- **Munn v. Illinois** [mŭn' vûr'səs ĭl'ə-noi'] n. an 1877 case in which the Supreme Court upheld states' regulation of railroads for the benefit of farmers and consumers, thus establishing the right of government to regulate private industry to serve the public interest. (p. 239)
- **My Lai** [mē' lī'] *n.* a village in northern South Vietnam where more than 200 unarmed civilians, including women and children, were massacred by U.S. troops in May 1968. (p. 756)

- NAACP [ĕn' dŭb'əl ā' sē' pē'] n. the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People—an organization founded in 1909 to promote full racial equality. (p. 325)
- **NACW** *n.* the National Association of Colored Women—a social service organization founded in 1896. (p. 315)
- NAFTA [năf'tə] n. the North American Free Trade Agreement—a 1993 treaty that lowered tariffs and brought Mexico into the free-trade zone established by the United States and Canada. (p. 864)
- **napalm**  $[n\bar{a}'p\bar{a}m']$  *n.* a gasoline-based substance used in bombs that U.S. planes dropped in Vietnam in order to burn away jungle and expose Vietcong hideouts. (p. 739)
- NASDAQ [năz'dăk'] n. the National Association of Securities
  Dealers Automated Quotation System—a stock exchange for
  over-the-counter sales, comprised largely of technology
  companies. (p. 871)
- National Energy Act n. a law, enacted during the Carter administration, that established a tax on "gas-guzzling" automobiles, removed price controls on U.S. oil and natural gas, and provided tax credits for the development of alternative energy sources. (p. 813)
- National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) n. a law enacted in 1933 to establish codes of fair practice for industries and to promote industrial growth. (p. 491)
- **nationalism** n. a devotion to the interests and culture of one's nation. (p. 373)
- National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) n. an agency created in 1935 to prevent unfair labor practices and to mediate disputes between workers and management. (p. 518)
- **National Organization for Women (NOW)** *n.* an organization founded in 1966 to pursue feminist goals, such as better childcare facilities, improved educational opportunities, and an end to job discrimination. (p. 778)
- **National Trades' Union** *n.* the first national association of trade unions, formed in 1834. (p. 143)
- **National Youth Administration** *n.* an agency that provided young Americans with aid and employment during the Great Depression. (p. 499)
- Nation of Islam [ĭs-läm'] n. a religious group, popularly known as the Black Muslims, founded by Elijah Muhammad to promote black separatism and the Islamic religion. (p. 719)
- **nativism** [ $n\bar{a}'t\bar{i}-v\bar{i}z'am$ ] n. favoring the interests of native-born people over foreign-born people. (pp. 258, 412)
- Navigation [năv'ĭ-gā'shən] Acts n. a series of laws enacted by Parliament, beginning in 1651, to tighten England's control of trade in its American colonies. (p. 28)
- **NAWSA** *n.* the National American Woman Suffrage Association—an organization founded in 1890 to gain voting rights for women. (p. 316)
- Nazism [nät'sĭz'əm] n. the political philosophy—based on extreme nationalism, racism, and militaristic expansionism—that Adolf Hitler put into practice in Germany from 1933 to 1945. (p. 531)
- **Neutrality Acts** *n.* a series of laws enacted in 1935 and 1936 to prevent U.S. arms sales and loans to nations at war. (p. 535)
- **New Deal** *n.* President Franklin Roosevelt's program to alleviate the problems of the Great Depression, focusing on relief for the needy, economic recovery, and financial reform. (p. 489)

- **New Deal Coalition** [kō'ə-lYsh'ən] *n.* an alliance of diverse groups—including Southern whites, African Americans, and unionized workers—who supported the policies of the Democratic Party in the 1930s and 1940s. (p. 507)
- **New Federalism** [fĕd'ər-ə-lĭz'əm] *n.* President Richard Nixon's program to turn over part of the federal government's power to state and local governments. (p. 795)
- **New Frontier** *n.* President John F. Kennedy's legislative program, which included proposals to provide medical care for the elderly, to rebuild blighted urban areas, to aid education, to bolster the national defense, to increase international aid, and to expand the space program. (p. 677)
- **New Left** *n.* a youth-dominated political movement of the 1960s, embodied in such organizations as Students for a Democratic Society and the Free Speech Movement. (p. 744)
- **New Right** *n.* a late-20th-century alliance of conservative special-interest groups concerned with cultural, social, and moral issues. (p. 831)
- **Niagara Movement** *n.* founded by W. E. B. Du Bois in 1905 to promote the education of African Americans in the liberal arts. (p. 285)
- **Nineteenth Amendment** *n.* an amendment to the U.S. Constitution, adopted in 1920, that gives women the right to vote. (p. 335)
- **nomadic** adj. having no fixed home, moving from place to place according to seasons and availability of food and water. (p. 5)
- "no man's land" n. an unoccupied region between opposing armies. (p. 376)
- **nonaggression** [nŏn´ə-grĕsh´ən] **pact** *n.* an agreement in which two nations promise not to go to war with each other. (p. 539)
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) n. a defensive military alliance formed in 1949 by ten Western European countries, the United States, and Canada. (p. 608)
- Northwest Ordinance [ôr'dn-əns] of 1787 n. a law that established a procedure for the admission of new states to the Union. (p. 67)
- nullification [nŭl'ə-fi-kā'shən] n. a state's refusal to recognize an act of Congress that it considers unconstitutional. (p. 79)
- Nuremberg [nŏor'əm-bûrg'] **trials** *n.* the court proceedings held in Nuremberg, Germany, after World War II, in which Nazi leaders were tried for war crimes. (p. 586)
- Office of Price Administration (OPA) n. an agency established by Congress to control inflation during World War II. (p. 567)
- **Ohio gang** *n.* a group of close friends and political supporters whom President Warren G. Harding appointed to his cabinet. (p. 420)
- **OPEC** [ō'pĕk'] n. the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries—an economic association of oil-producing nations that is able to set oil prices. (p. 799)
- **Open Door notes** *n.* messages sent by Secretary of State John Hay in 1899 to Germany, Russia, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan, asking the countries not to interfere with U.S. trading rights in China. (p. 356)
- Operation Desert Storm [dĕz'ərt stôrm'] n. a 1991 military operation in which UN forces, led by the United States, drove Iraqi invaders from Kuwait. (p. 855)

- **Oregon Trail** *n.* a route from Independence, Missouri, to Oregon City, Oregon, used by pioneers traveling to the Oregon Territory. (p. 131)
- Panama Canal [păm'ə-mä' kə-năl'] n. an artificial waterway cut through the Isthmus of Panama to provide a shortcut between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, opened in 1914. (p. 360)
- **parity** [păr'ĭ-tē] n. a government-supported level for the prices of agricultural products, intended to keep farmers' incomes steady. (p. 518)
- Patriot [pā'trē-ət] n. a colonist who supported American independence from Britain. (p. 59)
- **patronage** [pā'trɔ-n'jj] n. an officeholder's power to appoint people—usually those who have helped him or her get elected to positions in government. (p. 270)
- pay equity [ĕk'wĭ-tē] n. the basing of an employee's salary on the requirements of his or her job rather than on the traditional pay scales that have frequently provided women with smaller incomes than men. (p. 842)
- Payne-Aldrich Tariff [pān' ôl'drĭch tăr'ĭf] n. a set of tax regulations, enacted by Congress in 1909, that failed to significantly reduce tariffs on manufactured goods. (p. 329)
- **Peace Corps** *n.* an agency established in 1961 to provide volunteer assistance to developing nations in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. (p. 680)
- Pendleton [pĕn'dl-tən] Civil Service Act n. a law, enacted in 1883, that established a bipartisan civil service commission to make appointments to government jobs by means of the merit system. (p. 270)
- Pentagon [pĕn'tə-gŏn'] Papers n. a 7,000-page document leaked to the press in 1971 by the former Defense Department worker Daniel Ellsberg—revealing that the U.S. government had not been honest about its intentions in the Vietnam War. (p. 757)
- **perestroika** [pĕr'ĭ-stroi'kə] n. the restructuring of the economy and the government instituted in the Soviet Union in the 1980s. (p. 849)
- **planned obsolescence** [ŏb´sɔ-lĕs´ɔns] *n*. the designing of products to wear out or to become outdated quickly, so that people will feel a need to replace their possessions frequently. (p. 648)
- Platt [plăt] Amendment n. a series of provisions that, in 1901, the United States insisted Cuba add to its new constitution, commanding Cuba to stay out of debt and giving the United States the right to intervene in the country and the right to buy or lease Cuban land for naval and fueling stations. (p. 354)
- Plessy v. Ferguson [plĕs'ē vûr'səs fûr'gə-sən] n. an 1896 case in which the Supreme Court ruled that separation of the races in public accommodations was legal, thus establishing the "separate but equal" doctrine. (p. 287)
- **political machine** n. an organized group that controls a political party in a city and offers services to voters and businesses in exchange for political and financial support. (p. 268)
- **poll** [p $\bar{o}$ l] **tax** n. an annual tax that formerly had to be paid in some Southern states by anyone wishing to vote. (p. 287)
- **popular sovereignty** [sŏv'ər-ĭn-tē] *n.* a system in which the residents vote to decide an issue. (p. 157)

- **Populism** [pŏp'yɔ-lĭz'əm] *n.* a late-19th-century political movement demanding that people have a greater voice in government and seeking to advance the interests of farmers and laborers. (p. 221)
- **price support** *n*. the maintenance of a price at a certain level through government intervention. (p. 465)
- **Proclamation** [prŏk'lə-mā'shən] **of 1763** *n.* an order in which Britain prohibited its American colonists from settling west of the Appalachian Mountains. (p. 39)
- **progressive** [pro-gres'īv] **movement** n. an early-20th-century reform movement seeking to return control of the government to the people, to restore economic opportunities, and to correct injustices in American life. (p. 307)
- **prohibition** [prō'a-bĭsh'an] *n*. the banning of the manufacture, sale, and possession of alcoholic beverages. (p. 307)
- **Prohibition** [prō'ə-bĭsh'ən] *n.* The period from 1920–1933 during which the Eighteenth Amendment forbidding the manufacture and sale of alcohol was in force in the United States. (p. 436)
- **propaganda** [prŏp´ə-găn**´**də] *n.* a kind of biased communication designed to influence people's thoughts and actions. (p. 390)
- **Proposition 187** *n.* a bill passed in California in 1994 that ended all education and nonemergency health benefits to illegal immigrants. (p. 886)
- **protective tariff** [prɔ-tčk'tĭv tăr'ĭf] n. a tax on imported goods that is intended to protect a nation's businesses from foreign competition. (p. 76)
- protectorate [prɔ-tĕk'tɔ-rĭt] n. a country whose affairs are partially controlled by a stronger power. (p. 354)
- Pueblo [pwčb'lō] n. a group of Native American peoples descendants of the Anasazi—inhabiting the deserts of the Southwest. (p. 6)
- **Pure Food and Drug Act** *n*. a law enacted in 1906 to halt the sale of contaminated foods and drugs and to ensure truth in labeling. (p. 322)
- **Puritan** [pyŏor'ĭ-tn] n. a member of a group that wanted to eliminate all traces of Roman Catholic ritual and traditions in the Church of England. (p. 24)
- **Quaker** [kwā'kɔr] n. a member of the Society of Friends, a religious group persecuted for its beliefs in 17th-century England. (p. 26)
- quota [kwō'tə] system n. a system that sets limits on how many immigrants from various countries a nation will admit each year. (p. 415)
- ratification [răt'ə-fĭ-kā'shən] n. the official approval of the Constitution, or of an amendment, by the states. (p. 69)
- rationing [răsh'ə-nĭng] n. a restriction of people's right to buy unlimited amounts of particular foods and other goods, often implemented during wartime to ensure adequate supplies for the military. (p. 568)
- **Reaganomics** [rā'gɔ-nŏm'ĭks] *n.* the economic policies of President Ronald Reagan, which were focused on budget cuts and the granting of large tax cuts in order to increase private investment. (p. 834)

- **realpolitik** [rā-āl'pō'lĭ-tēk'] *n.* a foreign policy advocated by Henry Kissinger in the Nixon administration based on consideration of a nation's power rather than its ideals or moral principles. (p. 799)
- **reapportionment** [rē'ə-pôr'shən-mənt] *n*. the redrawing of election districts to reflect changes in population. (p. 691)
- **recall** [r $\check{r}$ -k $\hat{o}$ l'] n. a procedure for removing a public official from office by a vote of the people. (p. 312)
- **Reconstruction** [rē'kən-strŭk'shən] *n.* the period of rebuilding that followed the Civil War, during which the defeated Confederate states were readmitted to the Union. (p. 184)
- Reconstruction Finance [fɔ-năns'] Corporation (RFC) n. an agency established in 1932 to provide emergency financing to banks, life-insurance companies, railroads, and other large businesses. (p. 481)
- **referendum** [rĕf'ɔ-rĕn'dɔm] *n.* a procedure by which a proposed legislative measure can be submitted to a vote of the people. (p. 312)
- Reformation [rĕf'ər-mā'shən] n. a religious movement in 16th-century Europe, growing out of a desire for reform in the Roman Catholic Church and leading to the establishment of various Protestant churches. (p. 10)
- Renaissance [rĕn´ĭ-sāns'] n. a period of European history, lasting from about 1400 to 1600, during which renewed interest in classical culture led to far-reaching changes in art, learning, and views of the world. (p. 11)
- **reparations** [rĕp´ə-rā'shənz] *n*. the compensation paid by a defeated nation for the damage or injury it inflicted during a war. (p. 400)
- **republic** [rĭ-pŭb'lĭk] *n.* a government in which the citizens rule through elected representatives. (p. 67)
- **Republic of California** *n*. the nation proclaimed by American settlers in California when they declared their independence from Mexico in 1846. (p. 136)
- **revenue** [rev'a-noo] **sharing** *n*. the distribution of federal money to state and local governments with few or no restrictions on how it is spent. (p. 795)
- **reverse discrimination** [dĭ-skrĭm'ɔ-nā'shən] *n*. an unfair treatment of members of a majority group—for example, white men—resulting from efforts to correct discrimination against members of other groups. (p. 831)
- rock 'n' roll [rök'ən-röl'] n. a form of American popular music that evolved in the 1950s out of rhythm and blues, country, jazz, gospel, and pop; the American musical form characterized by heavy rhythms and simple melodies which has spread worldwide having significant impacts on social dancing, clothing fashions, and expressions of protest. (p. 655)
- Roosevelt Corollary [rō'zə-včlt' kôr'ə-lĕr-ē] n. an extension of the Monroe Doctrine, announced by President Theodore Roosevelt in 1904, under which the United States claimed the right to protect its economic interests by means of military intervention in the affairs of Western Hemisphere nations. (p. 362)
- **Rough Riders** *n.* a volunteer cavalry regiment, commanded by Leonard Wood and Theodore Roosevelt, that served in the Spanish-American War. (p. 350)
- **rural free delivery (RFD)** *n.* the free government delivery of mail and packages to homes in rural areas, begun in 1896. (p. 297)

- SALT I [sôlt' wŭn'] Treaty n. a five-year agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union, signed in 1972, that limited the nations' numbers of intercontinental ballistic missiles and submarine-launched missiles. (p. 801)
- Sandinista [săn'dĭ-nēs'tə] adj. belonging to a leftist rebel group that overthrew the Nicaraguan government in 1979. (p. 851)
- Santa Fe [săn'tə fā'] Trail n. a route from Independence, Missouri, to Santa Fe, New Mexico, used by traders in the early and mid-1800s. (p. 131)
- **satellite** [săt'l-īt'] **nation** *n.* a country that is dominated politically and economically by another nation. (p. 605)
- Saturday Night Massacre [măs'ə-kər] n. a name given to the resignation of the U.S. attorney general and the firing of his deputy in October 1973, after they refused to carry out President Nixon's order to fire the special prosecutor investigating the Watergate affair. (p. 805)
- scalawag [skăl'ɔ-wăg'] n. a white Southerner who joined the Republican Party after the Civil War. (p. 186)
- **scientific management** *n.* the application of scientific principles to increase efficiency in the workplace. (p. 308)
- **Scopes** [skōps] **trial** *n.* a sensational 1925 court case in which the biology teacher John T. Scopes was tried for challenging a Tennessee law that outlawed the teaching of evolution. (p. 438)
- **search-and-destroy mission** [sûrch' and' dĭ-stroi' mĭsh'an] *n.* a U.S. military raid on a South Vietnamese village, intended to root out villagers with ties to the Vietcong but often resulting in the destruction of the village and the displacement of its inhabitants. (p. 739)
- **secession** [si-sesh'an] *n.* the formal withdrawal of a state from the Union. (p. 157)
- Securities and Exchange [sǐ-kyŏor'ĭ-tēz and ĭks-chānj']
  Commission (SEC) n. an agency, created in 1934, that
  monitors the stock market and enforces laws regulating the
  sale of stocks and bonds. (p. 517)
- **segregation** [sĕg'rĭ-gā'shən] *n.* the separation of people on the basis of race. (p. 287)
- Selective [sˇY-lĕk'tˇIv] Service Act n. a law, enacted in 1917, that required men to register for military service. (p. 382)
- Seneca Falls  $[s\~en'i-kə f\^olz']$  Convention n. a women's rights convention held in Seneca Falls, New York, in 1848. (p. 149)
- **service sector** [sĕk'tər] *n.* the part of the economy that provides consumers with services rather than goods. (p. 870)
- **settlement house** n. a community center providing assistance to residents—particularly immigrants—in a slum neighborhood. (p. 266)
- **Seventeenth Amendment** *n.* an amendment to the U.S. Constitution, adopted in 1913, that provides for the election of U.S. senators by the people rather than by state legislatures. (p. 312)
- **shantytown** [shăn'tē-toun'] *n.* a neighborhood in which people live in makeshift shacks. (p. 473)
- **sharecropping** [shâr'krŏp'ĭng] n. a system in which landowners give farm workers land, seed, and tools in return for a part of the crops they raise. (p. 188)
- **Shays's** [shā'zəz] **Rebellion** *n*. an uprising of debt-ridden Massachusetts farmers protesting increased state taxes in 1787. (p. 67)

- Sherman Antitrust [shûr'mən ăn'tē-trŭst'] Act n. a law, enacted in 1890, that was intended to prevent the creation of monopolies by making it illegal to establish trusts that interfered with free trade. (p. 244)
- **silent majority** [mə-jôr'ĭ-tē] *n.* a name given by President Richard Nixon to the moderate, mainstream Americans who quietly supported his Vietnam War policies. (p. 756)
- **sit-in** *n*. a form of demonstration used by African Americans to protest discrimination, in which the protesters sit down in a segregated business and refuse to leave until they are served. (p. 706)
- Social Darwinism [sō'shəl där'wĭ-nĭz'əm] n. an economic and social philosophy—supposedly based on the biologist Charles Darwin's theory of evolution by natural selection—holding that a system of unrestrained competition will ensure the survival of the fittest. (p. 242)
- **Social Gospel** [gŏs'pəl] **movement** *n.* a 19th-century reform movement based on the belief that Christians have a responsibility to help improve working conditions and alleviate poverty. (p. 266)
- **Social Security Act** *n.* a law enacted in 1935 to provide aid to retirees, the unemployed, people with disabilities, and families with dependent children. (p. 501)
- **soddy** [ $s\breve{o}d'\bar{e}$ ] *n.* a home built of blocks of turf. (p. 216)
- **soup kitchen** *n.* a place where free or low cost food is served to the needy. (p. 473)
- **Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)** *n.* an organization formed in 1957 by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and other leaders to work for civil rights through nonviolent means. (p. 706)
- **Southern strategy** *n*. President Nixon's attempt to attract the support of Southern conservative Democrats who were unhappy with federal desegregation policies and the liberal Supreme Court. (p. 797)
- **speakeasy** [spēk'ē'zē] *n.* a place where alcoholic drinks were sold and consumed illegally during Prohibition. (p. 436)
- **speculation** [spĕk'yɔ-lā'shən] *n.* an involvement in risky business transactions in an effort to make a quick or large profit. (p. 467)
- **Square Deal** *n*. President Theodore Roosevelt's program of progressive reforms designed to protect the common people against big business. (p. 319)
- stagflation [stag-fla'shen] n. an economic condition marked by both inflation and high unemployment. (p. 798)
- **Stamp Act** *n.* a 1765 law in which Parliament established the first direct taxation of goods and services within the British colonies in North America. (p. 47)
- Strategic Defense Initiative [strɔ-tẽ'jĭk dĭ-fɛ̃ns' ĭ-nĭsh'ɔ-tĭv] (SDI) n. a proposed defense system—popularly known as Star Wars—intended to protect the United States against missile attacks. (p. 835)
- **strike** *n*. a work stoppage intended to force an employer to respond to demands. (p. 142)
- Student Nonviolent Coordinating [nŏn-vī'ə-lənt kō-ôr'dn-ā'tĭng] Committee (SNCC) [snĭk] n. an organization formed in 1960 to coordinate sit-ins and other protests and to give young blacks a larger role in the civil rights movement. (p. 706)
- **Students for a Democratic Society (SDS)** *n.* an antiestablishment New Left group, founded in 1960, that called for greater individual freedom and responsibility. (p. 744)

- **suburb** [sŭb'tîrb'] *n.* a residential town or community near a city. (p. 635)
- **suffrage** [sŭf'r ĭj] *n.* the right to vote. (p. 315)
- Sugar Act n. a trade law enacted by Parliament in 1764 in an attempt to reduce smuggling in the British colonies in North America. (p. 47)
- **supply-side economics** *n.* the idea that a reduction of tax rates will lead to increases in jobs, savings, and investments, and therefore to an increase in government revenue. (p. 835)
- **Taino** [tī'nō] *n.* a Native American people of the Caribbean islands—the first group encountered by Columbus and his men when they reached the Americas. (p. 14)
- **Teapot Dome scandal** [skăn'dl] *n*. Secretary of the Interior Albert B. Fall's secret leasing of oil-rich public land to private companies in return for money and land. (p. 421)
- Telecommunications [těľ'í-kə-myōo'nǐ-kā'shənz] Act of 1996 n. a law enacted in 1996 to remove barriers that had previously prevented communications companies from engaging in more than one type of communications business. (p. 878)
- **telecommute** [tĕl'ĭ-kə-myōōt'] *v.* to work at home for a company located elsewhere, by using such communications technologies as computers, the Internet, and fax machines. (p. 878)
- **tenement** [těm'ə-mənt] *n*. a multifamily urban dwelling, usually overcrowded and unsanitary. (p. 264)
- **Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA)** *n.* a federal corporation established in 1933 to construct dams and power plants in the Tennessee Valley region to generate electricity as well as to prevent floods. (p. 519)
- **termination** [tûr'mə-nā'shən] **policy** *n*. the U.S. government's plan, announced in 1953, to give up responsibility for Native American tribes by eliminating federal economic support, discontinuing the reservation system, and redistributing tribal lands. (p. 663)
- **Tet offensive** [tĕt' ɔ-fĕn'sĭv] *n*. a massive surprise attack by the Vietcong on South Vietnamese towns and cities early in 1968. (p. 749)
- **Texas Revolution** *n.* the 1836 rebellion in which Texas gained its independence from Mexico. (p. 134)
- **Thirteenth Amendment** *n.* an amendment to the U.S. Constitution, adopted in 1865, that has abolished slavery and involuntary servitude. (p. 183)
- **Tiananmen** [tyän'än'mĕn'] **Square** *n*. the site of 1989 demonstrations in Beijing, China, in which Chinese students demanded freedom of speech and a greater voice in government. (p. 850)
- Tonkin Gulf [tŏn'kĭn' gŭlf'] Resolution n. a resolution adopted by Congress in 1964, giving the president broad powers to wage war in Vietnam. (p. 735)
- totalitarian [tō-tăl'ĭ-târ'ē-ən] adj. characteristic of a political system in which the government exercises complete control over its citizens' lives. (p. 529)
- **Trail of Tears** [tîrz] *n.* the marches in which the Cherokee people were forcibly removed from Georgia to the Indian Territory in 1838–1840, with thousands of the Cherokee dying on the way. (p. 124)

- **transcendentalism** [trăn'sĕn-dĕn'tl-ĭz'əm] *n.* a philosophical and literary movement of the 1800s that emphasized living a simple life and celebrated the truth found in nature and in personal emotion and imagination. (p. 145)
- transcontinental [trăns'kŏn-tə-nĕn'tl] railroad n. a railroad line linking the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the United States, completed in 1869. (p. 237)
- **Treaty of Fort Laramie** *n*. the treaty requiring the Sioux to live on a reservation along the Missouri River. (p. 204)
- Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo [gwäd'l-ōōp' hĭ-däl'gō] n. the 1848 treaty ending the U.S. war with Mexico, in which Mexico ceded California and New Mexico to the United States. (p. 136)
- **Treaty of Paris (1783)** *n.* the treaty that ended the Revolutionary War, confirming the independence of the United States and setting the boundaries of the new nation. (p. 62)
- **Treaty of Paris (1898)** *n.* the treaty ending the Spanish-American War, in which Spain freed Cuba, turned over the islands of Guam and Puerto Rico to the United States, and sold the Philippines to the United States for \$20 million. (p. 350)
- **Treaty of Tordesillas** [tôr'də-sē'əs] *n.* the 1494 treaty in which Spain and Portugal agreed to divide the lands of the Western Hemisphere between them. (p. 15)
- **Treaty of Versailles** [vər-sī'] *n.* the 1919 peace treaty at the end of World War I which established new nations, borders, and war reparations. (p. 400)
- **trench warfare** *n*. military operations in which the opposing forces attack and counterattack from systems of fortified ditches rather than on an open battlefield. (p. 376)
- **triangular** [trī-ăng'gyɔ-lɔr] **trade** *n*. the transatlantic system of trade in which goods and people, including slaves, were exchanged between Africa, England, Europe, the West Indies, and the colonies in North America. (p. 32)
- Truman Doctrine [troo'mən dŏk'trĭn] n. a U.S. policy, announced by President Harry S. Truman in 1947, of providing economic and military aid to free nations threatened by internal or external opponents. (p. 606)
- Tuskegee [tŭs-kē'gē] Normal and Industrial Institute n. founded in 1881, and led by Booker T. Washington, to equip African Americans with teaching diplomas and useful skills in the trades and agriculture. (p. 285)
- **two-party system** *n.* a political system dominated by two major parties. (p. 76)
- Underground Railroad n. a system of routes along which runaway slaves were helped to escape to Canada or to safe areas in the free states. (p. 158)
- **Unitarian** [ $y\bar{oo}'n\bar{i}$ -târ $'\bar{e}$ -ən] n. member of a religious group that emphasizes reason and faith in the individual. (p. 145)
- United Farm Workers Organizing Committee (UFWOC) n. a labor union formed in 1966 to seek higher wages and better working conditions for Mexican-American farm workers in California. (p. 770)
- **United Nations (UN)** *n.* an international peacekeeping organization to which most nations in the world belong, founded in 1945 to promote world peace, security, and economic development. (p. 603)

- **urban** [ûr'bən] **flight** *n.* a migration of people from cities to the surrounding suburbs. (p. 882)
- **urbanization** [ûr'bə-nĭ-zā'shən] *n.* the growth of cities. (p. 262)
- **urban renewal** [rĭ-nōo'al] *n*. the tearing down and replacing of buildings in rundown inner-city neighborhoods. (p. 661)
- **urban sprawl** [sprôl'] *n.* the unplanned and uncontrolled spreading of cities into surrounding regions. (p. 424)
- **USS Maine** n. a U.S. warship that mysteriously exploded and sank in the harbor of Havana, Cuba, on February 15, 1898. (p. 348)
- **U-2 incident** *n.* the downing of a U.S. spy plane and capture of its pilot by the Soviet Union in 1960. (p. 627)
- V-E Day n. a name given to May 8, 1945, "Victory in Europe Day" on which General Eisenhower's acceptance of the unconditional surrender of Nazi Germany marked the end of World War II in Europe. (p. 577)
- vertical integration [vûn'tǐ-kəl ĭn'tǐ-grā'shən] n. a company's taking over its suppliers and distributors and transportation systems to gain total control over the quality and cost of its product. (p. 242)
- **Vietcong** [vē-ĕt'kŏng'] *n.* the South Vietnamese Communists who, with North Vietnamese support, fought against the government of South Vietnam in the Vietnam War. (p. 732)
- Vietminh [vē-ĕt'mĭn'] n. an organization of Vietnamese Communists and other nationalist groups that between 1946 and 1954 fought for Vietnamese independence from the French. (p. 731)
- Vietnamization [vē-ĕt'nə-mĭ-zā'shən] n. President Nixon's strategy for ending U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War, involving the gradual withdrawal of U.S. troops and their replacement with South Vietnamese forces. (p. 755)
- **Voting Rights Act of 1965** *n.* a law that made it easier for African Americans to register to vote by eliminating discriminatory literacy tests and authorizing federal examiners to enroll voters denied at the local level. (p. 716)
- Wagner [wag'nər] Act n. a law—also known as the National Labor Relations Act—enacted in 1935 to protect workers' rights after the Supreme Court declared the National Industrial Recovery Act unconstitutional. (p. 499)
- war-guilt [wôr' gĭlt'] clause n. a provision in the Treaty of Versailles by which Germany acknowledged that it alone was responsible for World War I. (p. 400)
- War Industries Board (WIB) *n.* an agency established during World War I to increase efficiency and discourage waste in warrelated industries. (p. 389)
- War Powers Act (WPA) n. a law enacted in 1973, limiting a president's right to send troops into battle without consulting Congress. (p. 761)
- War Production Board (WPB) n. an agency established during World War II to coordinate the production of military supplies by U.S. industries. (p. 568)

- **Warren** [wôr'ən] **Commission** *n.* a group, headed by Chief Justice Earl Warren, that investigated the assassination of President Kennedy and concluded that Lee Harvey Oswald was alone responsible for it. (p. 683)
- Warren Court n. the Supreme Court during the period when Earl Warren was chief justice, noted for its activism in the areas of civil rights and free speech. (p. 691)
- **Warsaw** [ $\hat{wor}$ 's $\hat{o}$ '] **Pact** n. a military alliance formed in 1955 by the Soviet Union and its Eastern European satellites. (p. 624)
- Watergate [wô'tər-gāt'] n. a scandal arising from the Nixon administration's attempt to cover up its involvement in the 1972 break-in at the Democratic National Committee headquarters in the Watergate apartment complex. (p. 802)
- Women's Auxiliary [ôg-zĭl'yə-rē] Army Corps (WAAC) n. U.S. army unit created during World War II to enable women to serve in noncombat positions. (p. 563)
- **Woodstock** [wood'stok'] *n.* a free music festival that attracted more than 400,000 young people to a farm in upstate New York in August 1969. (p. 783)
- Works Progress Administration (WPA) n. an agency, established as part of the Second New Deal, that provided the unemployed with jobs in construction, garment making, teaching, the arts, and other fields. (p. 498)
- XYZ Affair n. a 1797 incident in which French officials demanded a bribe from U.S. diplomats. (p. 78)
- **yellow journalism** [jûr'nɔ-lĭz'əm] *n.* the use of sensationalized and exaggerated reporting by newspapers or magazines to attract readers. (p. 347)
- **Zimmermann** [zĭm'ər-mən] **note** *n.* a message sent in 1917 by the German foreign minister to the German ambassador in Mexico, proposing a German-Mexican alliance and promising to help Mexico regain Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona if the United States entered World War I. (p. 379)

## SPANISH GLOSSARY

- abolition [abolición] s. movimiento para acabar con la esclavitud. (p. 144)
- affirmative action [acción afirmativa] s. medidas para corregir los efectos de la discriminación anterior; favorecen a grupos que estaban en desventaja. (pp. 723, 831)
- Agent Orange [Agente Naranja] s. químico tóxico exfoliante que fumigaron las tropas estadounidenses en Vietnam para poner al descubierto refugios del Vietcong. (p. 739)
- Agricultural Adjustment Act [Ley de Ajustes Agrícolas] s. ley de 1933 que elevó el precio de las cosechas al pagarle a los granjeros para que no cultivaran cierta porción de sus tierras, reduciendo así la producción. (p. 491)
- AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) [SIDA, síndrome de inmunodeficiencia adquirida] s. enfermedad causada por un virus que debilita el sistema inmunológico y hace que el cuerpo sea vulnerable a infecciones y formas poco comunes de cáncer. (p. 840)
- Alamo, the [El Álamo] s. misión y fuerte situado en San Antonio, Texas, en donde fuerzas mexicanas masacraron a rebeldes texanos en 1836. (p. 134)
- Alien and Sedition Acts [Leyes de Extranjeros y de Sedición] s. cuatro leves aprobadas en 1798 para reducir el poder político de los nuevos inmigrantes a EE.UU. (p. 78)
- Alliance for Progress [Alianza para el Progreso] s. programa de los sesenta para ofrecer ayuda económica a los países latinoamericanos. (p. 680)
- Allies [Aliados] s. 1. en la I Guerra Mundial, naciones aliadas en un tratado contra Alemania y las otras Potencias Centrales; originalmente Gran Bretaña, Francia y Rusia; más adelante se unieron Estados Unidos, Japón, Italia y otros. (p. 396) 2. en la Il Guerra Mundial, naciones asociadas contra el Eje, en particular Gran Bretaña, la Unión Soviética y Estados Unidos. (p. 554)
- American Expeditionary Force (AEF) [Fuerza Americana de Expediciones] s. fuerzas dirigidas por el general John Pershing, quien lucho con los aliados en Europa durante la Primera Guerra Mundial. (p. 384)
- American Federation of Labor (AFL) [Federación Norteamericana del Trabajo] s. sindicato de trabajadores calificados creado en 1886 y dirigido por Samuel Gompers. (p. 245)
- American Indian Movement (AIM) [Movimiento Indígena Americano] s. organización con frecuencia militante creada en 1968 con el fin de luchar por los derechos de los amerindios. (p.771)
- Americanization movement [movimiento de americanización] s. programa educativo ideado para facilitar la asimilación de los inmigrantes a la cultura estadounidense. (p. 263)
- American System [Sistema Americano] s. programa económico previo a la Guerra Civil diseñado para fortalecer y unificar a Estados Unidos por medio de aranceles proteccionistas, un banco nacional y un sistema de transporte eficiente. (p. 122)

- anarchist [anarquista] s. persona que se opone a toda forma de gobierno, (p. 413)
- Anasazi s. grupo amerindio que vivió cerca de la región de Four Corners —donde Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado y Utah se unen— de los años 100 a 1400 d.C., aproximadamente. (p. 5)
- Antifederalist [antifederalista] s. oponente de la Constitución y de un gobierno central fuerte. (p. 69)
- appeasement [apaciguamiento] s. política de ceder a las demandas de una potencia hostil con el fin de mantener la paz. (p. 538)
- **Appomattox Court House** s. pueblo cerca de Appomatox, Virginia, donde Lee se rindió a Grant el 9 de abril de 1865. (37°N 79°O) (p. 181)
- arbitration [arbitraje] s. método de resolver disputas en el cual ambos lados someten sus diferencias a un juez elegido por las dos partes. (p. 245)
- armistice [armisticio] s. tregua o acuerdo para terminar un conflicto armado. (p. 387)
- Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN) [Ejército de la República de Vietnam] s. soldados del sur de Vietnam que lucharon junto a soldados estadounidenses contra el comunismo y las fuerzas del norte de Vietnam durante la Guerra de Vietnam. (p. 737)
- Articles of Confederation [Artículos de la Confederación] s. documento aprobado por el Segundo Congreso Continental en 1777 y ratificado por los estados finalmente en 1781. Detallaba la forma del gobierno de los nuevos Estados Unidos. (p. 67)
- **Ashcan school** s. grupo de artistas estadounidenses de principios del siglo XX que a menudo pintaban escenas realistas de la vida urbana —como arrabales y gente sin hogar— ganándose así el nombre de la escuela del basurero. (p. 295)
- assimilation [asimilación] s. adopción, por parte de un grupo minoritario, de las creencias y estilo de vida de la cultura dominante. (p. 206)
- Atlantic Charter [Carta del Atlántico] s. declaración de principios de 1941 en que Estados Unidos y Gran Bretaña establecieron sus objetivos contra las Potencias del Eje. (p. 554)
- Axis powers [Potencias del Eje] s. países unidos contra los Aliados en la II Guerra Mundial, que incluyeron a Alemania, Italia y Japón. (p. 551)
- Aztec [azteca] s. pueblo amerindio que colonizó el Valle de México en 1200 A.C. y desarrolló un gran imperio. (p. 5)
- baby boom s. marcado aumento en el índice de natalidad en Estados Unidos después de la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 643)
- Battle of the Bulge [Batalla del Bolsón] s. batalla de un mes de duración en la II Guerra Mundial durante la cual los Aliados rompieron la última gran ofensiva alemana de la guerra. (p. 576)

- Battle of Midway [Batalla de Midway] s. batalla de la Segunda Guerra Mundial que ocurrió a principios de junio en 1942. Los aliados redujeron la flotilla japonesa en Midway, una isla al Noreste de Hawai. A partir de esta batalla los aliados tomaron la ofensiva y comenzaron a moverse a Japón. (p. 579)
- Battle of Wounded Knee [Batalla de Wounded Knee] s. masacre de 300 indígenas desarmados en Wounded Knee Creek, South Dakota, en 1890. (p. 208)
- Beatles, the s. conjuntó inglés que tuvo gran influencia en la música popular en los años 60. (p. 783)
- **beat movement** [movimiento beat] s. movimiento social y literario de los años 50 que enfatizó la expresión literaria sin reglas y la disconformidad. (p. 655)
- **Benin** s. reino de África occidental que existió en la actual Nigeria; floreció en los bosques del delta del Níger del siglo 14 al 17. (p. 9)
- Berlin airlift [puente aéreo de Berlín] s. operación de 327 días de duración, en la que aviones estadounidenses y británicos llevaron alimentos y provisiones a Berlín Occidental después de que la Unión Soviética bloqueó la ciudad en 1948. (p. 607)
- Berlin Wall [Muro de Berlín] s. muro de concreto que separó Berlín Oriental y Occidental de 1961 a 1989; construido por Alemania Oriental para impedir que sus ciudadanos se escaparan al occidente. (p. 677)
- Bessemer process [método Bessemer] s. técnica más eficiente y barata de fabricar acero, desarrollada hacia 1850. (p. 231)
- Bill of Rights [Carta de Derechos] s. primeras diez enmiendas a la Constitución que identifican los derechos de los ciudadanos; se adoptaron en 1791. (p. 70)
- bimetallism [bimetalismo] s. sistema monetario nacional que utiliza el oro y la plata para respaldar la moneda. (p. 222)
- **blacklist** [lista negra] s. lista de unos 500 actores, escritores, productores y directores a quienes no se permitía trabajar en películas de Hollywood debido a sus supuestos vínculos comunistas. (p. 618)
- Black Panthers [Panteras Negras] s. organización política afroamericana militante formada por Huey Newton y Bobby Seale en 1966 para luchar contra la violencia de la policía y suministrar servicios en el ghetto. (p. 720)
- Black Power [Poder Negro] s. consigna usada por Stokely Carmichael en los años 60, que pedía poder político y social para los afroamericanos. (p. 720)
- Black Tuesday [Martes Negro] s. octubre 29 de 1929, día en que los precios de las acciones bajaron drásticamente. (p. 468)
- blitzkrieg s. proveniente de la palabra alemana que significa "guerra relámpago". Repentina ofensiva de fuerzas aéreas y terrestres a gran escala con el fin de obtener una victoria rápida. (p. 539)
- bonanza farm [granja de bonanza] s. extensa granja dedicada a un solo cultivo. (p. 218)
- Bonus Army s. grupo de veteranos de la I Guerra Mundial que marcharon en Washington, D.C., en 1932 para exigir bonos prometidos a cambio de su servicio militar. (p. 482)
- bootlegger s. persona que contrabandeaba bebidas alcohólicas durante la época de Prohibición. (p. 437)

- Boston Massacre [Masacre de Boston] s. choque entre soldados británicos y colonos en Boston en 1770, durante el cual cinco colonos fueron asesinados. (p. 48)
- **Boston Tea Party** [Motín del Té de Boston] s. protesta en 1773 contra el impuesto británico sobre el té; los colonos arrojaron 18,000 libras de té al puerto de Boston. (p. 49)
- Boulder Dam [Presa de Boulder] s. presa del río Colorado construida durante la Depresión con fondos federales para estimular la economía; ahora llamada Presa Hoover. (p. 480)
- Boxer Rebellion [Rebelión de los Boxer] s. rebelión encabezada en 1900 por los Boxer, sociedad secreta de China, para detener la difusión de la influencia occidental. (p. 357)
- bracero s. trabajador mexicano que laboró temporalmente en Estados Unidos durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial. (p. 662)
- bread line [cola para comer] s. fila de personas que esperan comida gratis. (p. 473)
- brinkmanship s. práctica de amenazar al enemigo con represalias militares extremas ante cualquier agresión. (p. 623)
- Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka s. decisión de la Suprema Corte en 1954 que declaró que la segregación de estudiantes negros y blancos era inconstitucional. (p. 702)
- Bull Moose Party [Partido Bull Moose] s. apodo del Partido Progresista, bajo el que Theodore Roosevelt aspiró, sin éxito, a la presidencia en 1912. (p. 330)
- buying on margin [compra con margen] s. compra de acciones en la que se paga sólo una porción del valor de la acción al vendedor o corredor de bolsa, y se presta el resto. (p. 467)
- cabinet [gabinete] s. jefes de departamentos que son asesores directos del presidente. (p. 75)
- Camp David Accords [Acuerdos de Camp David] s. acuerdos de paz históricos entre Israel y Egipto, negociados en Camp David, Maryland, en 1978. (p. 816)
- carpetbagger s. norteños que se trasladaron al Sur después de la Guerra Civil. (p. 186)
- Central Powers [Potencias Centrales] s. en la I Guerra Mundial, el grupo de naciones —Alemania, Austro-Hungría y el imperio otomano— que se opuso a los Aliados. (p. 374)
- checks and balances [control y compensación de poderes] s. sistema en el cual cada rama del gobierno controla o restringe a las demás ramas. (p. 69)
- Chinese Exclusion Act [Ley de Exclusión de Chinos] s. ley de 1882 que prohibía la inmigración de ciudadanos chinos, con la excepción de estudiantes, maestros, comerciantes, turistas y funcionarios gubernamentales. (p. 259)
- Chisholm Trail [Sendero Chisholm] s. la ruta principal de ganado que iba desde San Antonio, Texas, por Oklahoma hasta Kansas. (p. 209)
- chlorination [cloración] s. purificación del agua al mezclarla químicamente con cloro. (p. 264)

- Christianity [cristianismo] s. religión basada en la vida y las enseñanzas de Jesucristo. (p. 10)
- CIA s. Central Intelligence Agency (Agencia Central de Inteligencia), agencia gubernamental establecida para espiar y realizar operaciones secretas en países extranjeros. (p. 623)
- Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) [Cuerpo Civil de Conservación] s. agencia establecida como parte del New Deal con el fin de ocupar a jóvenes desempleados en trabajos como la construcción de carreteras y el cuidado de parques nacionales y ayudar en situaciones de emergencia. (p. 491)
- Civil Rights Act of 1964 [Ley de Derechos Civiles de 1964] s. ley que prohíbe la discriminación en lugares públicos, en la educación y en los empleos por cuestión de raza, color, sexo, nacionalidad o religión. (p. 714)
- Civil Rights Act of 1968 [Ley de Derechos Civiles de 1968] s. ley que prohíbe la discriminación en la vivienda. (p. 722)
- civil service [servicio civil] s. cualquier servicio gubernamental en el que se obtiene un cargo mediante exámenes públicos. (p. 270)
- Clayton Antitrust Act [Ley Antitrust Clayton] s. ley de 1914 que declaraba ilegales ciertas prácticas empresariales injustas y protegía el derecho de los sindicatos y organizaciones agrícolas. (p. 333)
- Cold War [Guerra Fría] s. estado de hostilidad, sin llegar a conflictos armados, entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética tras la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 606)
- **Columbian Exchange** [Transferencia Colombina] s. transferencia —iniciada con el primer viaje de Colón a las Américas— de plantas, alimentos, animales y enfermedades entre el Hemisferio Occidental y el Hemisferio Oriental. (p. 15)
- Committee to Reelect the President [Comité de Reelección del Presidente] s. grupo que dirigió la campaña para la reelección del presidente Nixon en 1972, cuya conexión con el allanamiento de la Sede Nacional del Partido Demócrata hizo estallar el escándalo Watergate. (p. 803)
- Common Sense [Sentido común] s. folleto escrito en 1776 por Thomas Paine que exhortaba la separación de las colonias británicas. (p. 52)
- Commonwealth v. Hunt s. caso judicial de 1842 en el cual la Suprema Corte de Massachusetts ratificó el derecho de los obreros a la huelga. (p. 143)
- **communism** [comunismo] s. sistema económico y político basado en un gobierno de un solo partido y en la propiedad estatal. (p. 413)
- concentration camp [campo de concentración] s. campamento de presos operado por la Alemania nazi para judíos y otros grupos que consideraba enemigos de Adolfo Hitler; a los presos los mataban o los hacían morir de hambre y a causa de trabajos forzados. (p. 546)
- Confederacy [Estados Confederados de América] s. confederación formada en 1861 por los estados del Sur después de que se separaron de la unión. (p. 165)
- conglomerate [conglomerado] s. corporación grande que posee compañías más pequeñas dedicadas a negocios diversos. (p. 642)

- Congress of Industrial Organizations [Congreso de Organizaciones Industriales] s. organización sindical expulsada de la Federación Norteamericana del Trabajo en 1938. (p. 508)
- Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) [Congreso de Igualdad Racial] s. grupo interracial, fundado por James Farmer en 1942, que luchaba contra la segregación en ciudades del Norte. (p. 593)
- conquistador s. explorador y colonizador español de las Américas en el siglo 16. (p. 16)
- conscientious objector [objetor de conciencia] s. persona que se opone a toda guerra por principio de conciencia. (p. 386)
- conscription [conscripción] s. servicio militar obligatorio de ciertos miembros de la población. (p. 173)
- conservation [conservación] s. práctica de preservar algunas zonas naturales y desarrollar otras por el bien común. (p. 323)
- conservative coalition [coalición conservadora] s. alianza de grupos de ultraderecha opuestos a la ingerencia del gobierno formada a mediados de los años sesenta. (p. 831)
- consolidation [consolidación] s. acto de unir o combinar. (p. 240)
- consumerism [consumismo] s. gran interés en la compra de bienes materiales. (p. 648)
- **containment** [contención] s. política estadounidense de formar alianzas con países más pequeños y débiles con el fin de bloquear la expansión de la infuencia soviética tras la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 605)
- Contract with America [Contrato con América] s. documento elaborado por el representante Newt Gingrich y firmado por 300 candidatos republicanos el 27 de septiembre de 1994, que presentaba sus planes legislativos conservadores. (p. 864)
- Contras (la contra) s. fuerzas anticomunistas nicaragüenses que recibieron asistencia de la administración Reagan para derrocar al gobierno sandinista de Nicaragua. (p. 851)
- convoy system [flotilla de escolta] s. medio de proteger los buques mercantes del ataque de submarinos alemanes al hacer que viajaran con una escorta de destructores. (p. 383)
- counterculture [contracultura] s. cultura de la juventud de los años 60 que rechazaba la sociedad tradicional y buscaba paz, amor y libertad individual. (p. 781)
- credibility gap [falta de credibilidad] s. desconfianza del público en las declaraciones oficiales del gobierno. (p. 741)
- credit [crédito] s. acuerdo en el que se compran artículos en el presente para ser pagados en el futuro mediante un plan de cuotas con intereses. (p. 466)
- Crédit Mobilier s. compañía constructora formada en 1864 por los dueños de la Union Pacific Railroad; quienes la usaron ilegalmente para obtener ganancias. (p. 238)
- Dawes Act [Ley Dawes] s. ley aprobada por el Congreso en 1887 para "americanizar" a los indígenas distribuyendo a individuos la tierra de las reservaciones. (p. 206)
- D-Day [Día D] s. junio 6 de 1944, día en que los Aliados emprendieron una invasión por tierra, mar y aire contra el Eje. (p. 574)

- **debt peonage** [deuda por peonaje] s. sistema de servidumbre en el que una persona es obligada a trabajar para pagar una deuda. (p. 289)
- **Declaration of Independence** [Declaración de Independencia] s. documento escrito por Thomas Jefferson en 1776 en el cual los delegados del Congreso Continental declaron la independencia de las colonias de Gran Bretaña. (p. 53)
- de facto segregation [segregación de facto] s. segregación racial impuesta por la práctica y la costumbre más que por las leyes. (p.718)
- **deficit spending** [gasto deficitario] s. práctica por parte de un gobierno de gastar más de lo que recibe por concepto de rentas públicas. (p. 492)
- de jure segregation [segregación de jure] s. segregación racial impuesta por la ley. (p. 718)
- Democratic-Republican [Demócrata-Republicano] s. partido político conocido por su apoyo a un fuerte gobierno estatal. Fue fundado por Thomas Jefferson en 1792 en oposición al Federalist Party [Partido Federalista]. (p. 76, 112)
- deregulation [liberalización] s. acción de limitar el alcance de la regulación federal sobre la industria. (p. 837)
- détente [distensión] s. política flexible con la intención de negociar y disminuir tensiones; fue adoptada por Richard Nixon y su consejero Henry Kissinger para tratar con países comunistas. (p.799)
- direct relief [ayuda directa] s. alimentos o dinero que el gobierno da directamente a los necesitados. (p. 475)
- Dixiecrat s. delegado sureño que se retiró de la convención del Partido Demócrata en 1948 para protestar la plataforma del Presidente Truman sobre derechos civiles y formó un grupo denominado States' Rights Democratic Party. (p. 638)
- dollar diplomacy [diplomacia del dólar] s. política de usar el poder económico o la influencia económica de Estados Unidos para alcanzar sus objetivos de política exterior en otros países. (p. 363)
- domino theory [teoría del dominó] s. teoría que supone que si una nación se vuelve comunista, las naciones vecinas inevitablemente se volverán comunistas también. (p. 731)
- dotcom [puntocom] s. negocio relacionado con el Internet o conducido a través de éste. (p. 871)
- double standard [doble moral] s. conjunto de principios que permite mayor libertad sexual al hombre que a la mujer. (p. 441)
- **dove** [paloma] s. persona que se oponía a la Guerra de Vietnam y creía que Estados Unidos debía retirarse. (p. 746)
- **Dow Jones Industrial Average** [Promedio Industrial Dow Jones] s. medida que computa el valor de las acciones de 30 compañías grandes; se usa como barómetro de los mercados bursátiles, (p. 467)
- downsize [recortar] v. despedir trabajadores de una organización con el fin de hacer las operaciones más eficientes y ahorrar dinero. (p. 870)
- draft [reclutamiento] s. requisito de matrícula en las fuerzas armadas. (p. 742)

- Dust Bowl s. región que incluye Texas, Oklahoma, Kansas, Colorado, y New Mexico que quedó inservible para la agricultura debido a la sequía y a las tormentas de arena durante los años 30. (p. 474)
- Earth Day [Día de la Tierra] s. día dedicado a la educación ambiental que desde 1970 se celebra el 22 de abril de cada año. (p. 821)
- **Economic Opportunity Act** [Ley de Oportunidades Económicas] s. ley promulgada en 1964, que adjudicó fondos a programas para la juventud, medidas para combatir la pobreza, préstamos para pequeños negocios y capacitación laboral. (p. 688)
- egalitarianism [igualitarismo] s. creencia de que todas las personas deben tener igualdad de derechos políticos, económicos, sociales y civiles. (p. 63)
- Eisenhower Doctrine [Doctrina Eisenhower] s. advertencia del presidente Eisenhower en 1957 de que Estados Unidos defendería el Oriente Medio contra el ataque de cualquier país comunista. (p. 625)
- **Emancipation Proclamation** [Proclama de Emancipación] s. orden ejecutiva de Abraham Lincoln el 1º de enero de 1863 que abolía la esclavitud en los estados confederados. (p. 172)
- encomienda s. institución colonial de España en las Américas que repartía indígenas a los conquistadores para hacer trabajos forzados. (p. 16)
- Enlightenment [llustración] s. movimiento intelectual del siglo 18 que enfatizaba la razón y los métodos científicos para obtener conocimientos. (p. 35)
- entitlement program [programa de subvención] s. programa gubernamental, como Social Security, Medicare y Medicaid, que brinda beneficios a grupos específicos. (p. 831)
- entrepreneur [empresario] s. persona que organiza, opera y asume todo el riesgo de una ventura de negocios. (p. 140)
- environmentalist [ambientalista] s. persona que procura proteger el medio ambiente de la destrucción y de la contaminación. (p. 822)
- Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) [Agencia de Protección Ambiental] s. agencia federal establecida en 1970 para la regulación de la contaminación del agua y el aire, los desperdicios tóxicos, los pesticidas y la radiación. (p. 837)
- Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) [Enmienda de Igualdad de Derechos] s. enmienda propuesta pero rechazada que hubiese prohibido la discriminación del gobierno en razón del sexo de una persona. (p. 779)
- Espionage and Sedition Acts [Leyes de Espionaje y Sedición] s. dos leyes aprobadas en 1917 y 1918, que castigaban fuertemente a quienes criticaran o bloquearan la participación de Estados Unidos en la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 392)
- exoduster s. afroamericano que emigró del Sur a Kansas después de la Reconstrucción. (p. 215)
- extortion [extorsión] s. uso ilegal de un cargo público para obtener dinero o propiedad. (p. 269)

- Fair Deal s. plan económico del presidente Truman que expandió el New Deal de Roosevelt; aumentó el salario mínimo, amplió el seguro social y le dio vivienda a familias de bajos recursos, entre otras medidas. (p. 639)
- Family Assistance Plan [Plan de Asistencia Familiar] s. propuesta de reforma a los programas de beneficencia, aprobada por la Cámara de Representantes en 1970 pero rechazada por el Senado, que garantizaba un ingreso a los beneficiarios de ayuda pública que aceptaran capacitarse y emplearse en un oficio. (p. 795)
- Farmers' Alliances [Alianzas de granjeros] s. grupos de granjeros o simpatizantes de éstos, que enviaban a oradores a viajar de pueblo a pueblo para educar a la gente sobre cuestiones agrarias y rurales. (p. 221)
- fascism [fascismo] s. filosofía política que propone un gobierno fuerte, centralizado, nacionalista, caracterizado por una rígida dictadura unipartidista. (p. 530)
- Federal Communications Commission (FCC) [Comisión Federal de Comunicaciones] s. agencia del gobierno que regula la industria de comunicaciones en EE.UU., incluso la transmisión de radio y televisión. (p. 653)
- Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) [Corporación Federal de Seguros de Depósitos] s. agencia creada en 1933 para garantizar depósitos bancarios individuales cuando un banco quiebra. (p. 517)
- Federal Home Loan Bank Act [Ley Federal para Préstamos de Vivienda] s. ley aprobada en 1931 que redujo las cuotas hipotecarias y permitió a los agricultores refinanciar sus préstamos para prevenir juicios hipotecarios. (p. 481)
- federalism [federalismo] s. sistema político gubernamental en el cual el poder se comparte entre un gobierno nacional y las entidades que lo constituyen, como los gobiernos estatales. (p. 68)
- Federalist [federalista] s. partidario de la Constitución y de un gobierno nacional fuerte. (p. 69)
- Federal Reserve System [Sistema de la Reserva Federal] s. sistema bancario nacional establecido por Woodrow Wilson en 1913 que controla el dinero circulante del país. (p. 334)
- Federal Securities Act [Lev Federal de Valores] s. lev de 1933 que obliga a las corporaciones a suministrar información completa y fidedigna sobre sus ofertas de acciones. (p. 490)
- Federal Trade Commission (FTC) [Comisión Federal de Comercio] s. agencia federal establecida en 1914 para investigar y parar prácticas empresariales injustas. (p. 333)
- feminism [feminismo] s. creencia de que la mujer debe tener igualdad económica, política y social con respecto al hombre. (p. 776)
- Fifteenth Amendment [Enmienda 15] s. enmienda a la Constitución, adoptada en 1870, que establece que a nadie puede negársele el derecho al voto por motivos de raza, color o por haber sido esclavo. (p. 186)
- flapper s. jovencita típica de los años 20 que actuaba y se vestía de manera atrevida y nada convencional. (p. 441)

- flexible response [respuesta flexible] s. doctrina, desarrollada durante la administración Kennedy, de prepararse para una variedad de respuestas militares, en vez de concentrarse en las armas nuclerares. (p. 673)
- Foraker Act [Ley Foraker] s. legislación que el Congreso aprobó en 1900 para acabar con el gobierno militar en Puerto Rico y autorizar un gobierno civil. (p. 353)
- Fordney-McCumber Tariff [Arancel Fordney-McCumber] s. serie de reglas, aprobada por el Congreso en 1922, que elevó a niveles sin precedentes los impuestos a las importaciones en 1922 para proteger las compañías estadounidenses de la competencia extranjera. (p. 420)
- Fourteen Points [los catorce puntos] s. plan del presidente Wilson en pro de la paz mundial tras la I Guerra Mundial. (p. 399)
- Fourteenth Amendment [Enmienda 14] s. enmienda a la constitución adoptada en 1868 que hace ciudadano a toda persona nacida o naturalizada en Estados Unidos, incluso a antiguos esclavos, y garantiza igualdad de protección bajo la ley. (p. 185)
- franchise [franquicia] s. forma de negocio en la que individuos compran el derecho a usar el nombre y los métodos de una compañía matriz, con lo que la compañía se multiplica. (p. 642)
- Freedmen's Bureau [Oficina de libertos] s. agencia federal formada después de la Guerra Civil para ayudar a personas que habían sido esclavos antes. (p. 184)
- freedom rider s. activista de derechos civiles que viajó en autobús a través del Sur a comienzos de los años 60 para protestar contra la segregación. (p. 710)
- Freedom Summer s. campaña de registro de votantes afroamericanos en el verano de 1964 en Mississippi. (p. 715)
- free enterprise [libre empresa] s. sistema económico en el que compañías privadas e individuos controlan los medios de producción. (p. 140)
- Free Speech Movement [Movimiento de Libre Expresión] s. movimiento activista de los años 60 que surgió a raíz de un enfrentamiento entre los estudiantes y la administración de la Universidad de California en Berkeley en 1964. (p. 744)
- French and Indian War [Guerra contra Franceses e Indígenas] s. guerra librada en Norteamérica (1757-1763) como parte de un conflicto mundial entre Francia y Gran Bretaña; finalizó con la derrota de Francia y el traspaso del Canadá francés a Gran Bretaña. (p. 37)
- Fundamentalism [fundamentalismo] s. movimiento religioso protestante basado en la interpretación textual, o palabra por palabra, de las escrituras. (p. 438)
- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) [Acuerdo General de Aranceles y Comercio] s. acuerdo internacional firmado inicialmente en 1947. En 1994, EE.UU. y otros países del mundo adoptaron una nueva versión de GATT. Este tratado redujo las barreras de comercio y los aranceles, como las tarifas, y creó la Organización Mundial de Comercio. (p. 872)
- genetic engineering [ingeniería genética] s. alteración de la biología molecular de las células de un organismo para crear nuevas variedades de bacterias, plantas o animales. (p. 880)

- **Geneva Accords** [Acuerdos de Ginebra] s. plan de paz de Indochina en 1954 en el que Vietnam fue dividido temporalmente en Vietnam del Norte y Vietnam del Sur, mientras se celebraban las elecciones de 1956. (p. 732)
- genocide [genocidio] s. exterminio deliberado y sistemático de un grupo de personas por su raza, nacionalidad o religión. (p. 544)
- **Gentlemen's Agreement** [Acuerdo de Caballeros] s. acuerdo concertado durante 1907 y 1908, mediante el cual el gobierno de Japón limitó la emigración a Estados Unidos. (p. 259)
- gentrification [aburguesamiento] s. restauración de propiedades urbanas por personas de la clase media que a menudo resulta en la pérdida de vivienda para personas de medios escasos. (p. 883)
- Gettysburg Address [Discurso de Gettysburg] s. famoso discurso de Abraham Lincoln durante la Guerra Civil al inaugurar un cementerio nacional en el campo de batalla de Gettysburg. Pennsylvania, el 19 de noviembre de 1863. (p. 177)
- ghetto [gueto] s. tipo de vecindario urbano donde cierto grupo minoritario es obligado o forzado a vivir. (p. 545)
- GI Bill of Rights [Carta de Derechos de los Veteranos] s. nombre dado a la Ley de Reajuste de Militares de 1944, que ofrecía beneficios financieros y educativos a los veteranos de la II Guerra Mundial. (pp. 592, 635)
- glasnost s. la discusión abierta de problemas sociales que se dio en la Unión Soviética durante los años 80. (p. 849)
- Glass-Steagall Banking Act [Ley Bancaria Glass-Steagall] s. ley de 1933 que aseguró los depósitos bancarios mediante la Corporación Federal de Seguros de Depósitos. (p. 490)
- gold standard [patrón de oro] s. sistema monetario en el cual la unidad básica de moneda se define en relación a una cantidad fija de oro. (p. 222)
- Gone with the Wind [Lo que el viento se llevó] s. película de 1939 sobre la vida de los dueños de plantaciones del Sur durante la Guerra Civil; una de las más populares de todos los tiempos. (p. 511)
- graft [corrupción] s. uso ilegal de un cargo político con el fin de ganacia personal. (p. 269)
- grandfather clause [cláusula del abuelo] s. estipulación que exime de cumplir una ley a ciertas personas por circunstancias previas; específicamente, cláusula de la constitución de algunos estados sureños que eximía a los blancos de los estrictos requisitos que impedían que los afroamericanos votaran. (p. 287)
- Grange [la Granja] s. The Patrons of Husbandry—organización
- de granjeros que intentaron, a partir de la década de 1870, combatir el poder de los ferrocarriles. (p. 221)
- Grapes of Wrath, The [Las uvas de la ira] s. novela de John Steinbeck, publicada en 1939, sobre una familia de Oklahoma que se va de la región del Dust Bowl a California. (p. 514)
- Great Awakening [Gran Despertar] s. serie de grandes asambleas religiosas en las décadas de 1730 y 1750. (p. 35)
- Great Depression [Gran Depresión] s. período de 1929 a 1940 en el que la economía estadounidense quebró y millones quedaron sin empleo. (p. 469)

- Great Migration [Gran Migración] s. movimiento de cientos de miles de afroamericanos sureños a ciudades del Norte a principios del siglo 20. (p. 393)
- Great Plains [Grandes Praderas] s. vasta pradera que se extiende a través de Norteamérica, de Texas a Canadá en dirección Norte y hacia el este de las Montañas Rocosas. (p. 202)
- **Great Society** [Gran Sociedad] s. ambicioso programa legislativo del presidente Lyndon B. Johnson para reducir la pobreza y la injusticia racial, y mejorar el nivel de vida. (p. 689)
- Haight-Ashbury s. distrito de San Francisco, "capital" de la contracultura hippie durante los años 60. (p. 782)
- Harlem Renaissance [Renacimiento de Harlem] s. período de sobresaliente creatividad afroamericana durante los años 20 y 30, en la zona de Harlem en New York City. (p. 454)
- hawk [halcón] s. persona que respaldaba la Guerra de Vietnam y creía que Estados Unidos debía incrementar su fuerza militar para ganarla. (p. 746)
- **Hawley–Smoot Tariff Act** [Ley de Aranceles Hawley-Smoot] s. ley de 1930 que estableció los más altos aranceles proteccionistas en la historia estadounidense, afectando negativamente el comercio internacional y empeorando le depresión mundial y doméstica. (p. 471)
- **H-bomb** [bomba de hidrógeno] s. bomba de hidrógeno, o termonuclear, mucho más poderosa que la bomba atómica. (p. 623)
- Ho Chi Minh Trail [Sendero de Ho Chi Minh] s. red de caminos por la que Vietnam del Norte abastecía al Vietcong en Vietnam del Sur. (p. 732)
- Hollywood Ten [los Diez de Hollywood] s. diez testigos de la industria cinematográfica que se negaron a cooperar con la investigación de influencia comunista en Hollywood. (p. 617)
- Holocaust [Holocausto] s. asesinato sistemático o genocidio de judíos y de otros grupos en Europa por los nazis antes y durante la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 542)
- Homestead Act [Ley de la Heredad] s. ley aprobada en 1862 que otorgaba 160 acres de tierra en el Oeste a cualquier ciudadano or ciudadano futuro que fuera cabeza de familia y que cultivara la tierra por cinco años; ley cuya aprobación llevó a un gran número de colonos estadounidenses a reclamar como propiedad privada tierra que había sido reservada por tratados y tradiciones para la vivienda de indígenas americanos; la misma ley, reforzada en 1889, dio incentivas para que los individuos ejercieran su derecho de propiedad privada y desarrollaran viviendas. (p. 215)
- horizontal integration [integración horizontal] s. proceso mediante el cual compañías que fabrican productos similares se unen y reducen la competencia. (p. 242)
- **hot line** [línea de emergencia] s. línea directa de comunicación establecida en 1963 para que los líderes de Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética pudieran hablarse durante una crisis. (p. 678)
- **House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC)** 
  - [Comité de la Cámara de Representantes sobre Actividades Antiamericanas] s. comité del Congreso creado en 1938 que investigó la influencia comunista dentro y fuera del gobierno durante los años que siguieron la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 617)

- human rights [derechos humanos] s. derechos y libertades considerados básicos, como los que establece la Declaración de Independencia y la Carta de Derechos. (p. 815)
- **immigration** [inmigración] s. llegada a un país distinto al país natal para vivir en él. (p. 142)
- **Immigration Act of 1965** [Ley de Inmigración de 1965] s. ley que abrió las puertas a más inmigrantes. (p. 691)
- **impeachment** [acusación] s. proceso por el cual se acusa a un funcionario público de delitos. (p. 802)
- **imperialism** [imperialismo] s. política de controlar países por medios económicos, políticos o militares. (p. 342)
- **impressment** [leva] s. práctica de reclutar hombres a la fuerza para prestar servicio militar. (p. 114)
- **incandescent** [incandescente] *adj.* que emite luz visible como resultado de haber sido calentado (p. 232)
- **income tax** [impuesto sobre la renta] s. impuesto que retiene un porcentaje específico de ingresos. (p. 174)
- indentured servant [sirviente por contrato] s. inmigrante que, a cambio de un pasaje para las Américas, era contratado a trabajar por un periodo limite. (p. 23)
- Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) s. sindicato de trabajadores de mano de obra no calificada creado en 1905. (p. 246)
- inflation [inflación] s. fenómeno económico en el que hay un aumento constante en los precios por el incremento del dinero circulante; reduce el poder adquisitivo. (p. 60)
- information superhighway [supercarretera de información] s. red de comunicación por computadoras para unir a personas e instituciones por todo el mundo y suministrar a individuos servicios de bibliotecas, compras, cines y noticias. (p. 877)
- INF Treaty [Tratado sobre Fuerzas Nucleares Intermedias] s. tratado entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética firmado en 1987, que eliminó algunas armas y permitió la inspección directa de emplazamientos de misiles. (p. 849)
- initiative [iniciativa] s. reforma gubernamental que permite a los ciudadanos presentar proyectos de ley en el Congreso o en cuerpos legislativos estatales. (p. 312)
- installment plan [pago a plazos] s. práctica de comprar a crédito mediante pagos regulares durante determinado período de tiempo. (p. 426)
- **Internet** s. red mundial, originalmente diseñada por el Departamento de Defensa, que une computadores y permite una comunicación casi instantánea de textos, ilustraciones y sonidos. (p. 877)
- **internment** [confinamiento] s. restricción de movimiento, en especial durante condiciones de guerra. (p. 594)
- Interstate Commerce Act [Ley de Comercio Interestatal] s. ley de 1887 que restablecía el derecho del gobierno federal a supervisar los ferrocarriles; creó una Comisión de Comercio Interestatal de cinco miembros. (p. 239)

- iron curtain [cortina de hierro] s. frase usada por Winston Churchill en 1946 para describir una línea imaginaria que separaba los países comunistas que estaban en la parte soviética al este de Europa de los países en Europa occidental. (p. 605)
- **Iroquois** [iroqueses] s. grupo de pueblos amerindios que vivían en los bosques del Noreste. (p. 6)
- **Islam** [islamismo] s. religión fundada en Arabia por el profeta Mahoma en el año 622; a sus seguidores se les llama musulmanes. (p. 9)
- **isolationism** [aislacionismo] s. política que se opone a participar en conflictos políticos y económicos con otros países. (p. 412)
- Jacksonian democracy [democracia Jacksoniana] s. filosofía política de Jackson, basada en su creencia de que la gente común y corriente era la fuente de la fortaleza nacional. (p. 123)
  - Japanese Americans Citizens League (JACL) [Sociedad de Ciudadanos Americano-Japoneses] s. organización que presionó al gobierno a compensar a los estadounidenses de origen japonés por las propiedades que perdieron al ser internados durante la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 595)
  - jazz s. estilo de música caracterizado por la improvisación. (p. 657)
  - Jeffersonian republicanism [republicanismo Jeffersoniano] s. teoría de gobierno de Jefferson; sostenía que un gobierno sencillo correspondía a las necesidades del pueblo. (p. 113)
  - **Jim Crow laws** [leyes Jim Crow] s. leyes impuestas por los gobiernos estatales y municipales del Sur con el fin de separar a blancos y afroamericanos en instalaciones públicas y privadas. (p. 287)
  - **joint-stock company** [sociedad de capitales] s. institución empresarial tipo corporación en la que inversionistas unen riquezas con un fin común; se usaron para financiar la exploración de las Américas. (p. 21)
- **judicial review** [revisión judicial] s. poder de la Suprema Corte de declarar inconstitucional una ley del Congreso. (p. 113)
- Judiciary Act of 1789 [Ley Judicial de 1789] s. ley que estableció el sistema de tribunales federales y la Suprema Corte que permitió la apelación a cortes federales de ciertas decisiones tomadas por cortes estatales. (p. 74)
- Jungle, The [La jungla] s. novela publicada en 1906 por el periodista Upton Sinclair que denunciaba la insalubridad de la industria de carne en aquella época; llevó a reformas nacionales. (p. 317)
- **kamikaze** *adj.* que estrellaba deliberadamente un avión bombardero contra un blanco militar. (p. 581)
- Kent State University [Universidad Estatal de Kent] s. universidad de Ohio donde guardias militares abrieron fuego contra estudiantes durante una protesta contra la Guerra de Vietnam el 4 de mayo de 1970, hiriendo a nueve de ellos y matando a cuatro. (p. 756)

- Kerner Commission [Comisión Kerner] s. grupo designado por el presidente Lyndon B. Johnson para estudiar las causas de la violencia urbana; recomendó eliminar la segregación de facto en la sociedad estadounidense. (p. 722)
- King Philip's War [Guerra del Rey Felipe] s. conflicto, en los años 1675 y 1676, entre los colonos de Nueva Inglaterra y grupos amerindios aliados bajo la dirección del cacique Metacom de los wampanoagas. (p. 25)
- Kongo s. serie de pequeños reinos unidos bajo un líder a finales del siglo 15 en las selvas tropicales a lo largo del río Zaire (Congo) en África Central-Occidental. (p. 9)
- Korean War [Guerra de Corea] s. guerra de 1950 a 1953 entre Corea del Norte y Corea del Sur; China respaldó a Corea del Norte y las tropas de las Naciones Unidas, integradas en su mayoría por soldados estadounidenses, apoyaron a Corea del Sur. (p. 611)
- Kristallnacht s. "noche del cristal quebrado", noviembre 9 de 1938, noche en que milicianos nazis atacaron viviendas, negocios y sinagogas judías en Alemania. (p. 543)
- Ku Klux Klan s. sociedad secreta de hombres blancos en los estados sureños después de la Guerra Civil que desató terror para restaurar la supremacía blanca. (p. 188)
- La Raza Unida s. organización política latina establecida en 1969 por José Ángel Gutiérrez. (p. 770)
- League of Nations [Liga de las Naciones] s. organización internacional establecida en 1920 para promover la cooperación y la paz internacional. (p. 399)
- Lend-Lease Act [Ley de Préstamo y Alquiler] s. ley aprobada en 1941, que autorizó al gobierno a mandar armas y otros productos, sin pago inmediato, a las naciones que luchaban contra el Eje. (p. 552)
- Limited Test Ban Treaty [Tratado de Limitación de Pruebas Nucleares] s. tratado de 1963 en que Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética acordaron no realizar pruebas de armas nucleares en la atmósfera. (p. 678)
- long drive [arreo de ganado] s. proceso mediante el cual los vagueros llevaban por tierra ganado hacia el mercado. (p. 210)
- longhorn s. resistente raza de ganado vacuno de cuernos largos llevada por los españoles a México, muy apta para las condiciones de esa región. (p. 208)
- **Louisiana Purchase** [Compra de Louisiana] s. compra de terrenos a Francia por 15 millones de dólares en 1803 de las tierras desde el río Mississippi hasta las montañas Rocosas. (p. 114)
- Lowell textile mills [fábrica de textiles de Lowell] s. talleres para la fabricación de tela de Lowell, Massachusetts, del siglo 19; empleaban principalmente a trabajadoras jóvenes. (p. 142)
- Loyalist [realista] s. colono que apoyaba al gobierno británico durante la Revolución Norteamericana. (p. 59)
- Lusitania s. barco británico de pasajeros que se hundió cerca de costas irlandesas el 7 de mayo de 1915, tras ser atacado por un submarino alemán. (p. 378)

- mandate [mandato] s. conquista de una porción suficientemente grande del voto, que indica que un líder elegido tiene apoyo popular para sus programas. (p. 680)
- Manhattan Project [Proyecto Manhattan] s. programa estadounidense que se inició en 1942 con el fin de diseñar una bomba atómica para la II Guerra Mundial. La primera detonación atómica completa ocurrió en Alamogordo, New Mexico, el 16 de julio de 1945. (p. 567)
- manifest destiny [destino manifiesto] s. término usado en la década de 1840 para describir la creencia de que Estados Unidos estaba inexorablemente destinado a adquirir más territorio, especialmente mediante su expansión hacia el oeste. (p. 131)
- Marbury v. Madison s. caso de 1803 en que la Suprema Corte decidió que tenía el poder de abolir decretos legislativos declarándolos inconstitucionales; ese poder se conoce como revisión judicial. (p. 113)
- market revolution [revolución mercantil] s. gran cambio económico que llevó a comprar y vender productos en lugar de hacerlos en el hogar. (p. 139)
- Marshall Plan [Plan Marshall] s. plan formulado por el Secretario de Estado George Marshall en 1947, mediante el que se ofreció ayuda a países europeos con el fin de reparar los daños de la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 606)
- mass media [medios informativos] s. medios de comunicación tales como televisión, prensa y radio— que llegan a grandes audiencias. (p. 652)
- mass transit [transporte público] s. sistemas de transporte diseñados para llevar grandes números de personas por rutas fijas. (p. 264)
- McCarthyism [macartismo] s. ataques, a menudo sin respaldo, del senador Joseph McCarthy y otros contra presuntos comunistas en los años 50. (p. 620)
- Meat Inspection Act [Ley de Inspección de la Carne] s. ley de 1906 que establecía estrictos requisitos sanitarios en las empacadoras de carne, así como un programa federal de inspección de carnes. (p. 320)
- Medicaid s. programa federal que se inició en 1965 para brindar atención médica a las personas que reciben ayuda pública. (p.690)
- Medicare s. programa federal que se inició en 1965 para brindar seguros médicos y de hospitalización a bajo costo a los mayores de 65 años. (p. 690)
- melting pot [crisol de culturas] s. mezcla de personas de diferentes culturas y razas que se amalgaman y abandonan su idioma y cultura natal. (p. 258)
- mercantilism [mercantilismo] s. sistema económico en que un país aumenta su riqueza y poder al incrementar su posesión de oro y plata, y al exportar más productos de los que importa. (p. 28)
- mestizo adj. con mezcla de español e indígena. (p. 16)
- middle passage [travesía intermedia] s. tramo de África a las Antillas; parte del triángulo comercial de esclavos. (p. 32)
- militarism [militarismo] s. política de mantener una sólida organización militar como preparación agresiva para la guerra y su empleo como herramienta diplomática. (p. 373)

- Missouri Compromise [Acuerdo de Missouri] s. serie de acuerdos aprobados por el Congreso en 1820–1821 para mantener un equilibrio seccional entre los estados esclavistas y los estados libres. (p. 122)
- Monroe Doctrine [Doctrina Monroe] s. declaración del presidente Monroe en 1823 que establecía que Estados Unidos no permitiría la interferencia europea en los asuntos del Hemisferio Occidental. (p. 117)
- Moral Majority [Mayoría Moral] s. coalición política de organizaciones religiosas conservadoras en los años 70 y 80 que recaudó dinero para respaldar agendas y candidatos conservadores, y condenó actitudes y comportamientos liberales. (p. 831)
- **Morrill Acts** [Leyes Morrill] s. leyes aprobadas en 1862 y 1890 que otorgaban tierras federales a los estados para financiar universidades agrícolas. (p. 217)
- **muckraker** s. uno de los reporteros de revistas que desenmascaraban el lado corrupto de las empresas y de la vida pública a principios del siglo 20. (p. 308)
- Munn v. Illinois s. caso de la Suprema Corte en 1877; estableció el derecho del gobierno federal a regular la industria privada en beneficio del interés público. (p. 239)
- My Lai s. pueblo del norte de Vietnam del Sur, donde más de 200 civiles desarmados, incluso mujeres y niños, fueron masacrados por las tropas de EE.UU. en mayo de 1968. (p. 756)
- **NAACP** s. National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (Asociación Nacional para el Avance de la Gente de Color), organización fundada en 1909 y dedicada a la igualdad racial. (p. 325)
- NACW s. National Association of Colored Women (Asociación Nacional de Mujeres de Color), organización de servicio social fundada en 1896. (p. 315)
- NAFTA s. North American Free Trade Agreement (Tratado de Libre Comercio, TLC), tratado de 1993 que redujo aranceles e incorporó a México en la zona de libre comercio ya vigente entre Estados Unidos y Canadá. (p. 864)
- **napalm** s. sustancia incendiaria de gasolina que lanzaban los aviones estadounidenses en Vietnam, con el fin de incendiar la selva y revelar los escondites del Vietcong. (p. 739)
- NASDAQ s. sigla de National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotation System, una bolsa de valores de venta directa dominada por companías tecnológicas. (p. 871)
- National Energy Act [Ley Nacional de Energía] s. ley promulgada durante la administración Carter para aliviar la crisis energética; aplicó impuestos a los autos que usan gasolina de manera ineficiente y suspendió el control de precios del petróleo y el gas natural estadounidenses. (p. 813)
- National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) [Ley Nacional de Recuperación Industrial] s. ley aprobada en 1933 que establecía agencias para supervisar industrias y suministrar empleos. (p. 491)
- nationalism [nacionalismo] s. devoción a los intereses y la cultura de la nación propia. (p. 373)

- National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) [Junta Nacional de Relaciones Laborales] s. agencia creada en 1935 con el fin de prevenir prácticas laborales injustas y mediar en disputas laborales. (p. 518)
- National Organization for Women (NOW) [Organización Nacional de la Mujer] s. organización fundada en 1966 con el fin de impulsar metas feministas, tales como mejores guarderías, mayores oportunidades educativas y el fin de la discriminación laboral. (p. 778)
- **National Trades' Union** [Unión Nacional de Sindicatos] s. primera asociación nacional de sindicatos, creada en 1834. (p. 143)
- National Youth Administration [Administración Nacional de Recursos para la Juventud] s. programa que suministraba ayuda y empleos a jóvenes durante la Depresión. (p. 499)
- Nation of Islam [Nación del Islam] s. grupo religioso, popularmente conocido como musulmanes negros, fundado por Elijah Muhammad para promover el separatismo negro y la religión islámica. (p. 719)
- nativism [patriotería] s. favoritismo de los intereses de las personas nacidas en un lugar sobre los de las personas extranjeras. (pp. 258, 412)
- **Navigation Acts** [Leyes de Navegación] s. serie de leyes aprobadas a partir de 1651 que imponían un control más rígido del comercio en las colonias inglesas. (p. 28)
- NAWSA s. National American Woman Suffrage Association (Asociación Nacional Americana del Sufragio Femenino), creada en 1890 para obtener derechos electorales para la mujer. (p. 316)
- Nazism [nazismo] s. movimiento político basado en un extremo nacionalismo, racismo y expansionismo militar; instituido en Alemania como sistema de gobierno por Adolfo Hitler en 1933. (p. 531)
- **Neutrality Acts** [Leyes de Neutralidad] s. serie de leyes aprobadas por el Congreso en 1935 y 1936 que prohibieron la venta y el alquiler de armas a naciones en guerra. (p. 535)
- **New Deal** s. medidas económicas y políticas adoptadas por el presidente Franklin Roosevelt en los años 30 para promover recuperación económica, ayuda a los necesitados y reforma financiera. (p. 489)
- New Deal Coalition [Coalición del New Deal] s. alianza temporal de distintos grupos, tales como blancos sureños, afroamericanos y sindicalistas, que apoyaban al Partido Demócrata en los años 30 y 40. (p. 507)
- **New Federalism** [Nuevo Federalismo] s. programa del presidente Richard Nixon para distribuir una porción del poder del gobierno federal a gobiernos estatales y locales. (p. 795)
- **New Frontier** [Nueva Frontera] s. agenda legislativa del presidente John F. Kennedy; tenía medidas de atención médica para ancianos, renovación urbana y apoyo a la educación, que fueron rechazadas por el Congreso, así como medidas que sí se aprobaron de defensa nacional, ayuda internacional y programas espaciales. (p. 677)

- New Left [Nueva Izquierda] s. movimiento político iuvenil de los años 60 con organizaciones como Students for a Democratic Society (Estudiantes por una Sociedad Democrática) y el Free Speech Movement (Movimiento de Libre Expresión). (p. 744)
- New Right [Nueva Derecha] s. alianza política de grupos conservadores de fines del siglo 20, con énfasis en asuntos culturales, sociales y morales. (p. 831)
- Niagara Movement [Movimiento Niágara] s. fundado en 1905 por W. E. B. Du Bois para promover la enseñanza de humanidades entre los afroamericanos. (p. 285)
- Nineteenth Amendment [Enmienda 19] s. enmienda a la Constitución adoptada en 1920 que le otorga a la mujer el derecho de votar. (p. 335)
- "no man's land" [tierra de nadie] s. en la I Guerra Mundial, extensión baldía de tierra entre trincheras de ejércitos enemigos. (p. 376)
- nomadic [nómade] adj. que no tiene hogar fijo, que se muda de un lugar a otro según las estaciones y la disponibilidad de comida y agua. (p. 5)
- nonaggression pact [pacto de no agresión] s. acuerdo entre dos naciones de no luchar entre sí. (p. 539)
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) [Organización del Tratado del Atlántico Norte] s. alianza militar defensiva formada en 1949 por diez países de Europa del oeste, Estados Unidos y Canadá. (p. 608)
- Northwest Ordinance of 1787 [Ordenanza del Noroeste de 1787] s. procedimiento para la admisión de nuevos estados a la Unión. (p. 67)
- nullification [anulación] s. rechazo de un estado a reconocer cualquier ley del Congreso que considere inconstitucional. (p. 79)
- Nuremberg trials [juicios de Nuremberg] s. juicios llevados a cabo en Nuremberg, Alemania, inmediatamente después de la II Guerra Mundial, a líderes nazis por sus crímenes de guerra. (p. 586)
- Office of Price Administration (OPA) [Oficina de Administración de Precios] s. agencia establecida por el Congreso durante la II Guerra Mundial con facultad para combatir la inflación al congelar los precios de la mayoría de los artículos. (p. 567)
- Ohio gang [pandilla de Ohio] s. amigos y partidarios políticos del presidente Warren G. Harding, a quienes éste nombró a su gabinete, (p. 420)
- **OPEC** s. Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (Organización de Países Exportadores de Petróleo, OPEP), alianza económica para ejercer influencia sobre los precios del petróleo. (p. 799)
- **Open Door notes** [notas de Puertas Abiertas] s. notas que el Secretario de Estado John Hay envió a Gran Bretaña, Francia, Alemania, Italia, Japón y Rusia, instándolos a no interponerse entre el comercio de Estados Unidos y China. (p. 356)
- **Operation Desert Storm** [Operación Tormenta del Desierto] s. operación militar en la que fuerzas de las Naciones Unidas, encabezadas por Estados Unidos, liberaron a Kuwait y derrotaron al ejército iraquí. (p. 855)

- Oregon Trail [Sendero de Oregon] s. camino que va de Independence, Missouri, a la ciudad de Oregon, Oregon. (p. 131)
- Panama Canal [canal de Panamá] s. canal artificial construido a través del istmo de Panamá para abrir paso entre los océanos Atlántico y Pacífico; se abrió en 1914. (p. 360)
- parity [paridad] s. regulación de precios de ciertos productos agrícolas, apoyada por el gobierno, con el fin de mantener estables los ingresos agrícolas. (p. 518)
- Patriot [patriota] s. colono que apoyaba la independencia norteamericana de Gran Bretaña. (p. 59)
- patronage [clientelismo] s. sistema de otorgar empleos a personas que ayudan a la elección de un candidato. (p. 270)
- pay equity [equidad salarial] s. sistema que basa el salario de un empleado en los requisitos del trabajo y no en escalas salariales tradicionales, que normalmente pagan menos a la mujer. (p. 842)
- Payne-Aldrich Tariff [Arancel Payne-Aldrich] s. serie de reglamentos de impuestos, aprobados por el Congreso en 1909, que no logró reducir mucho los aranceles de productos manufacturados. (p. 329)
- Peace Corps [Cuerpo de Paz] s. programa fundado en 1965 bajo iniciativa del presidente Kennedy, que envía voluntarios a las naciones en desarrollo de Asia, África y Latinoamérica para ayudar en escuelas, clínicas y otros proyectos. (p. 680)
- Pendleton Act [Ley Pendleton] s. ley de 1883 que autorizaba nombrar empleados del servicio civil por mérito. (p. 270)
- Pentagon Papers [Documentos del Pentágono] s. documento de 7,000 páginas que dejó filtrar a la prensa en 1971 el antiguo funcionario del Departamento de Defensa Daniel Ellsberg, donde se revela que el gobierno mintió sobre sus planes en la Guerra de Vietnam. (p. 757)
- perestroika s. palabra rusa para designar la reestructuración económica y burocrática de la Unión Soviética que ocurrió en los años 80. (p. 849)
- planned obsolescence [obsolencia planeada] s. diseño de artículos que se desgastan o pasan de moda muy pronto, para crear la necesidad de remplazarlos con frecuencia. (p. 648)
- Platt Amendment [Enmienda Platt] s. serie de medidas implantadas por Estados Unidos en 1901, las cuales debieron ser incluidas por Cuba en su nueva constitución para quedar libre de su deuda y por las que Estados Unidos obtenía el derecho a intervenir el país y a comprar o alquilar el territorio cubano para establecer estaciones navales y de combustible. (p. 354)
- Plessy v. Ferguson s. caso de 1896 en que la Suprema Corte declaró legal la separación de razas en instalaciones públicas y estableció la doctrina de "separados aunque iguales". (p. 287)
- political machine [maquinaria política] s. grupo organizado que controla un partido político en una ciudad y ofrece servicios a los votantes y negocios a cambio de apoyo político y financiero. (p. 268)
- poll tax [impuesto para votar] s. impuesto anual que los ciudadanos debían pagar en algunos estados sureños para poder votar. (p. 287)

- popular sovereignty [soberanía popular] s. sistema en el cual los ciudadanos votan para decidir sobre un tema. (p. 157)
- Populism [populismo] s. movimiento político de finales del siglo 19 que exigía la voz popular en el gobierno y que representaba los intereses de los granjeros y promovía una reforma del sistema monetario. (p. 221)
- price support [apoyo de precios] s. apoyo de los precios de ciertos artículos al valor del mercado o por encima, algunas veces mediante la compra de excedentes por parte del gobierno. (p. 465)
- Proclamation of 1763 [Proclama de 1763] s. decreto británico que prohibía que los colonos se instalaran al oeste de los montes Apalaches. (p. 39)
- progressive [progresista] s. que favorece el avance hacia mejores condiciones o nuevas ideas. (p. 258)
- **progressive movement** [movimiento progresistal s. movimiento reformista de comienzos del siglo 20 cuyos objetivos eran mejorar el bienestar social, promover la moralidad, incrementar la justicia económica y devolver a la ciudadanía el control del gobierno. (p. 307)
- **prohibition** [prohibición] s. prohibición de bebidas alcohólicas. (p. 307)
- Prohibition [Ley Seca] s. período entre 1920 y 1933 durante el cual, por medio de la decimoctava enmienda, se prohibió la producción y la venta de alcohol en Estados Unidos. (p. 436)
- propaganda s. comunicación prejuiciada diseñada para influir los pensamientos y actos de la gente. (p. 390)
- **Proposition 187** [Propuesta 187] s. proyecto de ley aprobado en California en 1994, el cual canceló todos los beneficios educativos y de salud que no fueran emergencias a los inmigrantes ilegales. (p. 886)
- protective tariff [arancel proteccionista] s. impuesto aplicado a productos importados para proteger las empresas nacionales de la competencia extranjera. (p. 76)
- **protectorate** [protectorado] s. nación cuyo gobierno y asuntos son controlados por una potencia más fuerte. (p. 354)
- Pueblo s. amerindios descendientes de los anasazi; viven en los desiertos del Suroeste. (p. 6)
- Pure Food and Drug Act [Ley de Pureza de Alimentos y Drogas] s. ley de 1906 que paró la venta de alimentos y drogas contaminadas y demandó etiquetas fidedignas. (p. 322)
- Puritan [puritano] s. miembro de la Iglesia Anglicana que deseaba eliminar las tradiciones católicas y simplificar los servicios religiosos. (p. 24)
- Quaker [cuáquero] s. miembro de una secta religiosa considerada radical en el siglo 17, también conocida como Sociedad de Amigos. (p. 26)
- quota system [sistema de cuotas] s. sistema que limita el número de inmigrantes de varios países que pueden ser admitidos a Estados Unidos cada año. (p. 415)

- ratification [ratificación] s. aprobación oficial de la Constitución, o de una enmienda, por parte de los estados. (p. 69)
- rationing [racionamiento] s. medida tomada durante tiempos de guerra para limitar la cantidad de ciertos alimentos y otros productos que cada persona puede comprar. (p. 568)
- Reaganomics [reaganomía] s. nombre dado a la política económica del presidente Reagan, que abogaba por recortes presupuestarios y por una gran reducción en los impuestos con el fin de incrementar la inversión privada y por consiguiente expandir el suministro de productos y servicios. (p. 834)
- realpolitik s. enfoque de política exterior, identificado con Henry Kissinger y Richard Nixon, que propone hacer lo que resulte realista y práctico en lugar de seguir una política al pie de la letra. (p. 799)
- reapportionment [nueva repartición] s. redistribución de distritos electorales cuando cambia el número de personas en un distrito. (p. 691)
- recall [destitución] s. reforma gubernamental que permite a los votantes deponer a funcionarios públicos elegidos. (p. 312)
- Reconstruction [Reconstrucción] s. período de reconstrucción después de la Guerra Civil y readmisión a la Unión de los estados de la Confederación que habían sido derrotados; de 1865 a 1877. (p. 184)
- Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) [Corporación Financiera de la Reconstrucción] s. organización establecida en 1932 para dar financiación de emergencia a bancos, aseguradoras de vida, compañías ferroviarias y otras empresas grandes. (p. 481)
- referendum [referendo] s. procedimiento que permite someter al voto popular propuestas legislativas. (p. 312)
- Reformation [Reforma] s. movimiento religioso en la Europa de comienzos del siglo 16, encaminado a reformar la Iglesia Católica Romana; condujo a la formación del protestantismo. (p. 10)
- Renaissance [Renacimiento] s. período de la historia europea, que se extendió aproximadamente desde 1400 a 1600, durante el cual un renovado interés en la cultura clásica originó cambios trascendentales en las artes, el aprendizaje y la visión del mundo. (p. 11)
- reparations [reparación] s. compensación que paga una nación derrotada en una guerra por las pérdidas económicas del vencedor o por crímenes cometidos contra individuos. (p. 400)
- republic [república] s. gobierno en el que los ciudadanos mandan por medio de sus representantes elegidos. (p. 67)
- Republic of California [República de California] s. nación proclamada por los colonos estadounidenses en California, al declarar éstos su independencia de México en 1846. (p. 136)
- revenue sharing [distribución de rentas] s. plan puesto en práctica en 1972 que faculta a los gobiernos estatales y locales a invertir el dinero federal a su conveniencia. (p. 795)
- reverse discrimination [discriminación a la inversa] s. tratamiento injusto de los miembros de un grupo mayoritario, típicamente hombres blancos, como resultado de los esfuerzos por remediar la discriminación contra otros grupos. (p. 831)

- rock 'n' roll s. forma de música popular estadounidense que evolucionó a finales de los 40 y durante los 50, a partir del rhythm and blues, el country, el jazz, el gospel y el pop; forma musical estadounidense caracterizada por ritmos fuertes y melodías simples, la cual se ha expandido por todo el mundo y ha tenido impactos significantes en el baile social, la moda de la vestimenta y las expresiones de protesta. (p. 655)
- Roosevelt Corollary [Corolario de Roosevelt] s. declaración de 1904 del presidente Theodore Roosevelt en que advertía que Estados Unidos intervendría militarmente en los asuntos de cualquier nación del Hemisferio Occidental para proteger sus intereses económicos si fuera necesario. (p. 362)
- Rough Riders s. regimiento de caballería voluntario comandado por Leonard Wood y Theodore Roosevelt en la Guerra Española-Norteamericana-Cubana. (p. 350)
- rural free delivery (RFD) [correo rural gratuito] s. entrega gubernamental gratis de correo y paquetes a zonas rurales; se inició en 1896. (p. 321)
- SALT I Treaty [Tratado Salt I] s. acuerdo de cinco años entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética que surgió de las Conversaciones sobre Limitación de Armas Estratégicas de 1972; limitó el número de misiles balísticos intercontinentales y de misiles de submarinos. (p. 801)
- Sandinista adj. relativo a las fuerzas izquierdistas rebeldes que derrocaron al gobierno nicaragüense en 1979; el presidente Reagan, quien respaldaba a la contra anticomunista, se les opuso. (p. 851)
- Santa Fe Trail [Sendero de Santa Fe] s. camino que va de Independence, Missouri, a Santa Fe, New Mexico. (p. 131)
- satellite nation [nación satélite] s. país dominado política y económicamente por otro. (p. 605)
- Saturday Night Massacre [Masacre de Sábado en la Noche] s. nombre dado a la renuncia del procurador general y al despido de su comisionado el 20 de octubre de 1973, después de haberse negado a acatar la orden del presidente Nixon de despedir al fiscal especial en el caso Watergate. (p. 805)
- scalawag s. término despectivo para referirse a los sureños blancos que se unieron al Partido Republicano y apoyaron la Reconstrucción después de la Guerra Civil. (p. 186)
- scientific management [administración científica] s. aplicación de principios científicos para simplificar y facilitar las tareas laborales. (p. 308)
- **Scopes trial** [juicio de Scopes] s. sensacional juicio de 1925 en el que el maestro de biología John T. Scopes fue juzgado por desafiar una ley de Tennessee que prohibía la enseñanza de la evolución. (p. 438)
- search-and-destroy mission [misión de búsqueda y destrucción] s. ataque militar estadounidense a aldeas de Vietnam del Sur con el fin de erradicar al Vietcong, que solía resultar en la destrucción de la aldea y el desplazamiento de sus habitantes. (p. 739)
- secession [secesión] s. retiro formal de un estado de la Unión federal. (p. 157)

- Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) [Comisión de Valores y Cambios] s. agencia creada en 1934 para controlar el mercado bursátil y hacer cumplir las leyes que rigen la venta de acciones y bonos. (p. 517)
- segregation [segregación] s. separación de la gente según su raza.
- Selective Service Act [Ley de Servicio Selectivo] s. ley aprobada por el Congreso en mayo de 1917 que ordena que todos los hombres se inscriban para el servicio militar obligatorio. (p. 382)
- Seneca Falls Convention [convención de Seneca Falls] s. convención de derechos femeninos celebrada en 1848 en Seneca Falls, New York. (p. 149)
- service sector [sector de servicios] s. renglón de la economía que ofrece servicios en vez de productos. (p. 870)
- settlement house [casa de beneficencia] s. centro comunitario en un barrio pobre que ayudaba a los residentes, particularmente a los inmigrantes. (p. 266)
- Seventeenth Amendment [Enmienda 17] s. enmienda a la Constitución adoptada en 1913; dispone que los senadores federales sean elegidos por los votantes y no por cuerpos legislativos estatales. (p. 312)
- shantytown [tugurio] s. vecindario en donde la gente vivía en chozas temporales. (p. 473)
- share cropping [aparcería] s. sistema en el cual se da a los agricultores tierra, semillas, herramientas y alimentos para vivir, así como una parte de la cosecha, por cultivar la tierra. (p. 188)
- Shays's Rebellion [Rebelión de Shays] s. sublevación de granjeros endeudados de Massachusetts en 1787, en protesta por los impuestos estatales. (p. 67)
- **Sherman Antitrust Act** [Ley Antitrust Sherman] s. ley contra los monopolios de 1890 que declaró ilegal la formación de consorcios que obstruyeran el libre comercio. (p. 244)
- silent majority [mayoría silenciosa] s. nombre dado por el presidente Richard Nixon a los estadounidenses moderados que apoyaban silenciosamente su involucramiento en la Guerra de Vietnam. (p. 756)
- sit-in s. forma de protesta —iniciada por el Congreso de Igualdad Racial en los años 40 y empleada con frecuencia en los años 60- en la que afroamericanos ingresaban a un lugar segregado, tal como el mostrador de un restaurante, y se negaban a salir hasta que se les sirviera. (p. 706)
- Social Darwinism [darvinismo social] s. conjunto de creencias políticas y económicas basadas en la teoría del biólogo Charles Darwin sobre la selección natural o supervivencia del más apto; favorecía una competencia libre, no regulada, y creía que los individuos o grupos triunfaban porque eran genéticamente superiores. (p. 242)
- Social Gospel movement [movimiento del Evangelio Social] s. movimiento de reforma del siglo 19 basado en la noción de que los cristianos tenían la responsabilidad social de mejorar las condiciones laborales y aliviar la pobreza urbana. (p. 266)
- Social Security Act [Ley de Seguro Social] s. ley aprobada en 1935 para ayudar a los jubilados, desempleados, incapacitados y familias con niños dependientes. (p. 501)

- **soddy** [choza de tepe] *s.* casa provisional hecha de césped, muy común en las llanuras, donde la madera era escasa. (p. 216)
- soup kitchen [comedor de beneficencia] s. lugar donde se sirven alimentos gratis o a bajo costo a los necesitados, muy común durante la Depresión. (p. 473)
- Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)
  [Conferencia de Líderes Cristianos del Sur] s. organización
  formada en 1957 por el doctor Martin Luther King, Jr., y otros
  líderes para promover los derechos civiles sin violencia. (p. 706)
- **Southern strategy** [estrategia sureña] *s.* estrategia del presidente Nixon de apelar a los demócratas conservadores sureños que estaban descontentos con la integración y con una Suprema Corte liberal. (p. 797)
- speakeasy s. lugar donde se vendían bebidas alcohólicas ilegalmente, como ocurrió durante la Prohibición. (p. 436)
- speculation [especulación] s. transacciones de alto riesgo con el fin de obtener ganancias rápidas o grandes. (p. 467)
- **Square Deal** s. programa de reformas progresistas del presidente Theodore Roosevelt para proteger a la gente común y corriente de las grandes empresas. (p. 319)
- **stagflation** [estanflación] s. situación económica en la que hay niveles altos de inflación y desempleo simultáneamente. (p. 798)
- **Stalwart** *s.* republicano seguidor del "jefe" de New York City, Roscoe Conkling, quien favorecía el sistema de prebendas y se oponía a la reforma al servicio civil. (p. 292)
- **Stamp Act** [Ley del Timbre] s. primer impuesto directo aplicado en 1765 por Gran Bretaña a una variedad de artículos y servicios, tales como documentos legales y periódicos. (p. 47)
- Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) [Iniciativa para la Defensa Estratégica] s. sistema de defensa propuesto en los años 80, popularmente conocido como la Guerra de las Galaxias, cuyo fin era proteger a Estados Unidos de ataques de misiles. (p. 835)
- **strike** [huelga] s. interrupción del trabajo para presionar a un patrono a responder a ciertas demandas. (p. 142)

pación en el movimiento de derechos civiles. (p. 706)

- Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC)
  [Comité Coordinador de Estudiantes no Violentos] s. organización fundada en 1961, conocida como SNCC, para coordinar sit-ins y otras protestas, y para darles a los jóvenes negros mayor partici-
- Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) [Estudiantes por una Sociedad Democrática] s. grupo activista de los años 60, conocido como SDS, que urgía una mayor libertad y responsabilidad individual. (p. 744)
- **suburb** [suburbio] s. pueblo o comunidad residencial cerca de una ciudad. (p. 635)
- suffrage [sufragio] s. derecho a votar. (p. 315)
- Sugar Act [Ley del Azúcar] s. ley británica de 1764 que aplicó un impuesto comercial a la melaza, el azúcar y otras importaciones para reducir el contrabando en las colonias. (p. 44)
- supply-side economics [economía de oferta] s. teoría económica, practicada por el presidente Ronald Reagan, que sostiene que recortar los impuestos de los ricos beneficia a todos pues aumenta empleos, ahorros e inversiones. (p. 835)

- **Taino** [taíno] s. pueblo amerindio que Colón y su tripulación vieron al arribar a la isla hoy conocida como San Salvador, el 12 de octubre de 1492. (p. 14)
- **Teapot Dome scandal** [escándalo de Teapot Dome] s. escándalo generado cuando Albert Fall, Secretario del Interior del presidente Warren G. Harding, concedió en secreto valiosas reservas de petróleo en Wyoming y California a compañías privadas a cambio de dinero y tierras. (p. 421)
- **Telecommunications Act of 1996** [Ley de Telecomunicaciones] s. ley de 1996 que retiró las barreras que impedían que un tipo de compañía de comunicaciones ingresara a otro tipo de negocio en el mismo campo. (p. 878)
- **telecommute** v. trabajar desde la casa para una compañía ubicada en otra parte, mediante la nueva tecnología de comunicaciones, como computadoras, Internet y máquinas de fax. (p. 878)
- **tenement** [casa de pisos] s. vivienda urbana de varias familias, usualmente sobrepoblada y poco sanitaria. (p. 264)
- **Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA)** [Autoridad del Valle de Tennessee] s. corporación federal creada en 1933 para construir presas y centrales eléctricas en la región del valle de Tennessee con el objeto de generar electricidad así como prevenir inundaciones. (p. 519)
- **termination policy** [política de terminación] s. programa del gobierno federal en 1953 de cesar su responsabilidad hacia las naciones amerindias y eliminar el apoyo económico federal, suspender el sistema de reservaciones y redistribuir las tierras tribales. (p. 663)
- **Tet offensive** [ofensiva de Tet] *s.* sorpresivo ataque masivo del Vietcong a pueblos y ciudades de Vietnam del Sur a comienzos de 1968; la batalla, de un mes de duración, convenció a muchos estadounidenses de que no era posible ganar la guerra. (p. 749)
- **Texas Revolution** [Revolución de Texas] *s.* rebelión de 1836 con la que Texas se independizó de México. (p. 134)
- **Thirteenth Amendment** [Enmienda 13] s. enmienda a la Constitución, ratificada en 1865, que ha abolido la esclavitud y la servidumbre involuntaria. (p. 183)
- **Tiananmen Square** [plaza Tianamen] s. lugar de protestas estudiantiles en 1989 en Beijing, China, por la falta de libertades democráticas, donde el gobierno atacó a los estudiantes. (p. 850)
- **Tonkin Gulf Resolution** [Resolución del Golfo de Tonkin] s. resolución aprobada por el Congreso en 1964 que le otorgaba al presidente Johnson amplios poderes para la Guerra de Vietnam. (p. 735)
- **totalitarian** [totalitario] adj. característico de un sistema político en que el gobierno ejerce completo control sobre la vida de los ciudadanos. (p. 529)
- **Trail of Tears** [Sendero de las Lágrimas] s. marcha obligada del pueblo cherokee desde Georgia hasta el Territorio Indio entre 1838 y 1840, durante la cual murieron miles de ellos. (p. 124)
- **transcendentalism** [trascendentalismo] s. movimiento filosófico y literario que proponía llevar una vida sencilla y celebrar la verdad implícita de la naturaleza, la emoción personal y la imaginación. (p. 145)

- transcontinental railroad [ferrocarril transcontinental] s. línea férrea finalizada en 1869 que unía la costa Atlántica y la costa Pacífica. (p. 237)
- Treaty of Fort Laramie [Tratado del Fuerte Laramie] s. tratado que requería que los sioux vivieran en una reservación a lo largo del río Missouri. (p. 204)
- Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo [Tratado de Guadalupe Hidalgo] s. tratado de 1848 que puso fin a la guerra entre Estados Unidos y México, mediante el cual Estados Unidos obtuvo enormes tierras en el Oeste y el Suroeste. (p. 136)
- Treaty of Paris (1783) [Tratado de París] s. tratado que puso fin a la Guerra Revolucionaria Norteamericana y estableció las fronteras de la nueva nación. (p. 62)
- Treaty of Paris (1898) [Tratado de París] s. tratado el cual puso fin a la guerra entre España y Estados Unidos. Por medio de este tratado España liberó a Cuba, cedió las islas de Guam y Puerto Rico a Estados Unidos y vendió las Filipinas a este país por 20 millones de dólares. (p. 350)
- Treaty of Tordesillas [Tratado de Tordesillas] s. tratado de 1494 que dividió las Américas entre España y Portugal mediante una línea vertical imaginaria en el Atlántico; cada país tenía poder sobre un lado de la línea. (p. 15)
- Treaty of Versailles [Tratado de Versalles] s. tratado de paz firmado en 1919 al finalizar la I Guerra Mundial, el cual establecía nuevas naciones, fronteras y reparaciones de guerra. (p. 400)
- **trench warfare** [guerra de trincheras] s. guerra en que los combatientes atacan desde un sistema de zanjas fortificadas y no en un campo abierto de batalla. (p. 376)
- triangular trade [triángulo comercial de esclavos] s. sistema transatlántico de comercio en el cual la mercancía, incluidos los esclavos, se intercambiaba entre África, Inglaterra, Europa, las Indias Occidentales y las colonias de Norteamérica. (p. 32)
- **Truman Doctrine** [Doctrina Truman] s. declaración del presidente Truman en 1947, que establecía que Estados Unidos debía dar apoyo económico y militar para liberar a naciones amenazadas por fuerzas internas o externas. (p. 606)
- Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute [Instituto Normal e Industrial Tuskegee] s. fundado en 1881 y dirigido por Booker T. Washington para otorgar diplomas de magisterio y enseñar destrezas comerciales y agrícolas a los afroamericanos. (p. 285)
- two-party system [bipartidismo] s. sistema político dominado por dos partidos. (p. 76)
- Underground Railroad [Ferrocarril Subterráneo] s. red secreta de personas que ayudaban a los esclavos fugitivos a escapar a lo largo de diversas rutas hacia Canadá o hacia zonas seguras en los estados libres. (p. 158)
- Unitarian [unitario] s. miembro de un grupo religioso que destaca la razón y la fe en el individuo. (p. 145)
- United Farm Workers Organizing Committee (UFWOC) [Comité Organizador de Trabajadores Agrícolas Unidos] s. sindicato establecido en 1966 por César Chávez para mejorar los salarios y las condiciones laborales de los trabajadores agrícolas. (p. 770)

- United Nations (UN) [Naciones Unidas] s. organización internacional promotora de la paz a la que pertenecen la mayoría de naciones, fundada en 1945 para fomentar la paz, la seguridad y el desarrollo económico del mundo. (p. 603)
- urban flight [huida urbana] s. migración de las ciudades a los suburbios aledaños. (p. 882)
- urbanization [urbanización] s. movimiento de personas a una ciudad. (p. 262)
- urban renewal [renovación urbana] s. práctica que se inició con la Ley Nacional de Vivienda de 1949, de remplazar vecindarios urbanos decaídos por viviendas nuevas para gente de bajos recursos. (p. 661)
- urban sprawl [explosión urbana] s. expansión desordenada y desmedida de las ciudades a las áreas contiguas. (p. 424)
- **USS Maine** s. buque de guerra estadounidense que explotó y naufragó misteriosamente el 15 de febrero de 1898 en el puerto de La Habana, Cuba. (p. 348)
- U-2 incident [incidente del U-2] s. derribo en 1960 de un avión espía estadounidense U-2 en suelo soviético; complicó las conversaciones de paz entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética. (p. 627)
- V-E Day [Día V-E] s. mayo 8 de 1945, día de la victoria europea, cuando el general Eisenhower aceptó la rendición incondicional de Alemania; puso fin a la II Guerra Mundial en Europa. (p. 585)
- vertical integration [integración vertical] s. proceso mediante el cual una compañía se adueña de sus proveedores y distribuidores así como de los sistemas de transporte, con lo que obtiene control total sobre la calidad y el costo de su producción. (p. 242)
- Vietcong s. rebeldes comunistas de Vietnam del Sur apoyados por Vietnam del Norte a partir de 1959. (p. 73)
- Vietminh [Vietmin] s. organización de comunistas vietmanitas y otros grupos nacionalistas que luchó contra los franceses por la independencia de Vietnam de 1946 a 1954. (p. 731)
- Vietnamization [vietnamización] s. plan del presidente Nixon de retiro gradual de las tropas estadounidenses de Vietnam y su remplazo por el ejército vietnamita. (p. 755)
- Voting Rights Act of 1965 [Ley de Derechos Electorales de 1965] s. ley para facilitarles a los afroamericanos inscribirse para votar; eliminó las pruebas discriminatorias de lectura y escritura, y autorizó a los examinadores federales inscribir votantes rechazados a nivel local. (p. 716)
- Wagner Act [Ley Wagner] s. ley—también conocida como Ley Nacional de Relaciones Laborales—promulgada en 1935 para proteger los derechos de los trabajadores después de que la Corte Suprema consideró que la Ley Nacional de Recuperación Industrial (NIRA) era inconstitucional. (p. 499)
- war-guilt clause [cláusula de culpabilidad] s. cláusula del Tratado de Versalles que obligaba a Alemania a reconocer que había sido totalmente responsable por la I Guerra Mundial. (p. 400)

- War Industries Board (WIB) [Junta de Industrias Bélicas] s. junta establecida en 1917 que animaba a las compañías a usar técnicas de producción en masa para mejorar la eficiencia durante la I Guerra Mundial. (p. 389)
- War Powers Act (WPA) [Ley de Poderes de Guerra] s. ley aprobada en 1973 tras la Guerra de Vietnam que limitaba el derecho de un presidente a enviar tropas a combatir sin consultar con el Congreso. (p. 761)
- War Production Board (WPB) [Junta de Producción Bélica] s. agencia establecida durante la II Guerra Mundial para coordinar la producción de suministros militares por la industria nacional. (p.578)
- Warren Commission [Comisión Warren] s. grupo encabezado por Earl Warren, presidente de la Suprema Corte, que realizó la investigación oficial del asesinato del presidente Kennedy y concluyó que Lee Harvey Oswald había actuado por su cuenta. (p. 683)
- Warren Court [la Corte Warren] s. la Suprema Corte de la que fue presidente Earl Warren, que se destacó por sus actividades en torno a los derechos civiles y la libre expresión. (p. 691)
- Warsaw Pact [Pacto de Varsovia] s. alianza militar formada en 1955 por la Unión Soviética y las naciones satélite de Europa del este. (p. 624)
- Watergate s. serie de escándalos en que el presidente Nixon trató de encubrir la participación de su comité de relección en el allanamiento de la sede del Partido Demócrata en los apartamentos Watergate en 1972. (p. 802)
- Women's Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC) [Unidad Auxiliar de Mujeres (WAAC)] s. unidad del Ejército de EE.UU. creada durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial para permitir que las mujeres colaboraran en puestos que no fueran de combate. (p. 563)
- Woodstock s. festival gratuito de música que atrajo a más de 400,000 jóvenes a una granja del estado de New York en agosto de 1969. (p. 782)
- Works Progress Administration (WPA) [Administración para el Progreso de Obras] s. agencia gubernamental del New Deal que empleó a personal desocupado en construcción de escuelas y hospitales, reparación de carreteras, enseñanza, escritura y artes. (p. 498)
- XYZ Affair [Asunto XYZ] s. incidente diplomático de 1797 en el que funcionarios franceses trataron de sobornar a funcionarios estadounidenses para entrevistarse con un alto ministro francés. (p.78)
- yellow journalism [prensa amarillista] s. uso de métodos sensacionalistas en periódicos o revistas para atraer o influenciar lectores. (p. 347)
- Zimmermann note [nota Zimmermann] s. mensaje enviado por el canciller alemán en 1917 al canciller mexicano en el que prometía a México los estados de Texas, New Mexico y Arizona si se aliaba a Alemania en contra de Estados Unidos en la I Guerra Mundial. (p. 379)

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