

# Key Events in American History

The World Almanac Key Events in American History is a brief summary of important turning points in the history of the nation. It provides a capsule description of an event or movement along with brief accounts of its significance. Use this section to review the content in *American Anthem*.

## 2,000 B.C.E. Migrations to America

The first people arrived in North America at least 10,000 years ago, during the last Ice Age. With much of Earth's water frozen in ice sheets, sea levels dropped and a land bridge connected Asia and North America. Hunters from Siberia migrated over the land bridge to North America.

**Significance** The migration brought the first people to the Western Hemisphere. Archaeologists think that by about 11,000 years ago Native Americans were living in both North and South America.

## 1492–1502 Columbus's Voyages

The 1492 Italian-born explorer Christopher Columbus sailed west from Europe with the goal of finding a sea route to Asia. His ships landed on the Caribbean island of Hispaniola. Believing he had reached the Indies, Columbus called the people he met "Indians." Columbus made three more journeys to the Americas, exploring Caribbean islands and making stops in Central and South America.

**Significance** Columbus' voyages opened the Western Hemisphere to exploration and conquest by Spain and other European powers. They also led to the Columbian Exchange—an exchange of plants, animals, and diseases between the Western Hemisphere and Europe and Africa.

## 1607 Settlement of Jamestown

Founded in Virginia in 1607, Jamestown was the first permanent English colony in North America. Plagued by an unhealthy location, the colony barely managed to survive. Captain John Smith provided critical leadership. John Rolfe planted tobacco in Jamestown, giving the colony a cash crop that was in high demand in England. A small group of enslaved Africans arrived in Jamestown in 1619.

**Significance** After Jamestown, the English established other colonies along the east coast of North America. Successful tobacco farming in Jamestown led to the growth of plantation agriculture and slave labor. The Virginia House of Burgesses, established in 1619, was America's first elected legislature.

## 1620 Pilgrims arrive at Plymouth

The Pilgrims were religious dissenters from the Church of England who sought the freedom to worship according to their beliefs. In 1620 they traveled to North America on the *Mayflower*. The Pilgrims founded a colony at Plymouth, Massachusetts, which survived with the aid of friendly Wampanoag Indians. The colony marked its first harvest with a feast which forms the basis for the Thanksgiving holiday.

**Significance** The Pilgrims were the first colonists motivated to found a colony by a desire to freely practice their own religion. This became an important motivation for several other groups of colonists, and eventually the free practice of religion became a fundamental principle of the U.S. Constitution.

## 1651–1673 Navigation Acts

The Navigation Acts were a series of trade laws passed by the English government between 1651 and 1673. The laws sought to control trade with England's colonies to the benefit of the mother country. Among other things, the laws required that colonial goods be shipped only on English ships.

**Significance** England got what it wanted from the Navigation Acts—raw materials and tax revenues from the colonies. Colonists, on the other hand, were angered by the laws and often avoided paying taxes by smuggling goods into and out of the colonies.

## 1730s–1740s The Great Awakening

The Great Awakening was a religious revival in the English colonies that began in the 1730s. One of its leading voices was the colonial Puritan clergyman Jonathan Edwards, who appealed to his listeners' fears and emotions. Another was the English Methodist minister George Whitefield, who moved large audiences to cry and confess their sins.

**Significance** The Great Awakening countered the spread of Enlightenment ideas in the colonies, which were causing some people to question long-accepted religious beliefs. It led to the growth of new Protestant denominations in America, including the Methodist, Baptist, and Presbyterian churches.



## 1754–1763 French and Indian War

The Seven Years' War was the fourth and decisive war fought between Britain and France for control of land in North America. Its European phase is known as the Seven Years' War, but colonists called this conflict the French and Indian War because France and its Indian allies battled Britain and the colonists. After several early setbacks, the British won the crucial Battle of Quebec in 1759. France surrendered the following year.

**Significance** The French and Indian War marked the end of French power in North America. Britain gained all of France's lands east of the Mississippi River, helping to establish the basis for a mighty British empire. British leaders tried to recover some of cost of the war by taxing colonists, a policy which led to growing tensions between Britain and its colonies in America.

## 1765 Stamp Act

Passed by Parliament in 1765, the Stamp Act was a tax designed to raise money from colonists to help pay the cost of protecting the colonies. Resentful colonists called this "taxation without representation" because they had no voice in Parliament. In October 1765, delegates from nine colonies met at the Stamp Act Congress to protest the tax. Parliament repealed the Stamp Act in 1766.

**Significance** The Stamp Act was the first time Parliament had directly taxed the colonists. Colonial leaders from different regions, who were not used to working together, united to protest the tax. The united action of leaders from different colonies would become a model for future action.

## 1770 Boston Massacre

Tensions between British soldiers and the people of Boston were growing in early 1770. This anger exploded on March 5, 1770, when a group of British soldiers opened fire on a colonial mob that was taunting and threatening them. Local colonial leaders called the event the Boston Massacre, describing it as a deliberate attack on innocent civilians.

**Significance** The Boston Massacre served the cause of radicals like Samuel Adams who were eager to paint the British as cruel oppressors. The Massacre became a rallying cry for proponents of independence from Britain.

## 1775–1783 American Revolution

The American colonies' fight for independence from Britain began in April 1775 with the Battles of Lexington and Concord. Over the next six years, George Washington led the often undermanned and poorly

equipped Continental Army. The American victory at the Battle of Saratoga in 1777 was a pivotal turning point; it convinced the French to join the war on the American side. The last significant battle was Washington's defeat of Lord Cornwallis' army at Yorktown, Virginia, in 1781.

**Significance** The Treaty of Paris, which ended the war in 1783, acknowledged the independence of the United States. The American Revolution was the first successful democratic revolution against a colonial ruler. A direct result was the establishment of the United States of America as a independent democratic republic.

## 1776 Declaration of Independence

Written largely by Thomas Jefferson in June 1776, the Declaration of Independence explained the reasons colonial leaders decided to break free from Britain and declared the United States to be an independent country. It was presented to Congress on July 2, 1776, and members voted to declare independence on that day. Two days later, on July 4, Congress approved the Declaration of Independence.

**Significance** The Declaration marked a point of no return for Americans—people were now forced to take sides in the struggle between Patriots and Loyalists. In addition, the Declaration boldly stated the principles of government that form the basis for American democracy, and it has been an inspiration to other freedom movements ever since.

## 1786 Shays's Rebellion

High taxes forced many Massachusetts farmers into heavy debt in the 1780s. When a court ordered their farms and homes be sold to pay the debts, Daniel Shays, a Revolutionary War veteran, led a rebellion. After some success delaying court proceedings, the rebellion was quickly put down by state militia.

**Significance** Shays's Rebellion frightened many Americans and helped convince them that the central government under the Articles of Confederation was not strong enough to deal with the country's problems. This fueled the movement to form a stronger federal government, which led to the Constitutional Convention.

## 1787 Northwest Ordinance

Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance to encourage orderly settlement and the formation of new states on the land north and west of the Ohio River. The law promised settlers religious freedom and barred slavery. It also set up a system for the eventual admission of new states.



**Significance** The Northwest Ordinance created a pattern for settlement in western territory, leading to rapid expansion of the population of these lands. It also barred slavery from the Northwest Territory, which later became the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota.

### 37 Constitutional Convention

Delegates came to the convention in Philadelphia to discuss ways to strengthen the Articles of Confederation. Instead they drafted an entirely new plan of government, the United States Constitution.

**Significance** Ratified in 1788, the Constitution created a plan of government—with checks and balances between three branches of government—that endured for well over 200 years. The Bill of Rights, ten amendments protecting the freedoms of individual Americans, was ratified in 1791.

### 33 Marbury v. Madison

The case of *Marbury v. Madison* was brought by William Marbury, who was appointed to a judgeship in 1801 by outgoing President John Adams. When incoming President Thomas Jefferson refused to give Marbury his commission, Marbury sued to get it. The Supreme Court ruled that it did not have the power to force Jefferson to deliver the commission. The Justices also declared that the law that had given the Court that power—the Judiciary Act of 1789—was unconstitutional.

**Significance** *Marbury v. Madison* established the Supreme Court's right to declare that a law violates the Constitution. This power, known as judicial review, greatly expanded the influence of the Supreme Court.

### 1803 Louisiana Purchase

President Jefferson sent James Monroe to France to try to attempt to buy New Orleans, a port of critical importance to western farmers. Much to Monroe's surprise, the French offered to sell all of Louisiana, stretching from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains. The final price of the Louisiana Purchase was about \$15 million.

**Significance** The Louisiana Purchase almost doubled the size of the United States, opening up huge new tracts of land to future American settlement. It also removed an important foreign power as an obstacle for American expansion in North America.

### 1812 The War of 1812

The War of 1812 between Great Britain and the United States actually lasted three years, from 1812-1815. It arose from a dispute over American

rights to trade with France, Britain's enemy in the Napoleonic Wars. Native American efforts, aided by the British, to resist United States expansion also played a role in triggering conflict. The war ended with no clear winner.

**Significance** The war's conclusion reaffirmed American independence and spurred a period of intense patriotic feeling. Two of its military heroes, William Henry Harrison and Andrew Jackson, later went on to become presidents. Francis Scott Key wrote "Star-Spangled Banner," the national anthem, to celebrate American resistance to British bombardment of Fort McHenry in Baltimore harbor.

### 1820s-1830s Second Great Awakening

The Second Great Awakening was a national religious movement that was especially strong in the North. Americans attended revivals, embraced religious teachings, and joined churches in record numbers. New religious denominations, including the Mormon Church, were formed at this time.

**Significance** By 1850 the majority of Americans considered themselves to be Protestant. The Second Great Awakening helped launch the Reform Era, which lasted from about 1830 to 1860. Inspired by religious ideals, Americans attempted to reshape society by promoting temperance, improved education, and other reforms.

### 1820 Missouri Compromise

Missouri's desire to join the Union as a slave state sparked a crisis, because the Union was then balanced between slave states and free states. In 1820 Congress reached a compromise: Missouri was admitted to the union as a slave state, while Maine entered the Union as a free state. In addition, the Missouri Compromise banned slavery in the Louisiana Territory north of a line stretching west from the southern border of Missouri.

**Significance** The Missouri Compromise temporarily defused the tension between free and slave states, but it did not end the debate over slavery in western lands. The crisis illustrated the intense feelings of sectionalism that would eventually split the nation in two.

### 1823 Monroe Doctrine

After the former Spanish colonies in Latin America won their independence, U.S. leaders were concerned that Britain and other European nations might try to expand their influence in the Western Hemisphere. In 1823 President James Monroe issued the Monroe Doctrine, declaring that the Western Hemisphere was no longer open to colonization by European countries. Any attempt to do so, Monroe



declared, would be viewed as a hostile act directed against the United States.

**Significance** The Monroe Doctrine was a bold statement for the young United States to make. European powers did not welcome the policy, but for the most part they did not challenge it. In the decades after the Monroe Doctrine, the United States continued to expand its influence in Latin America.

### 1825 Completion of the Erie Canal

The 363-mile long Erie Canal ran across New York State, connecting the Great Lakes with the Hudson River. The canal provided a quick and economical way to ship manufactured goods to the west and farm products to the east.

**Significance** Trade generated by the Erie Canal helped make New York City into a great trading and financial center. The success of the canal set off a “canal craze” in the United States. Within 15 years a network of canals crisscrossed the northeast. These transportation improvements contributed to rapid economic growth.

### 1830 Indian Removal Act

In 1830 President Andrew Jackson signed the Indian Removal Act, which called for the relocation of five Indian tribes from the Southeast to an area west of the Mississippi River. Though the Supreme Court declared the forced relocation unconstitutional, Jackson refused to follow the Court’s decision.

**Significance** The Indian Removal Act demonstrated that Native Americans had little protection under the law in the United States. U.S. Army troops supervised the removal of the tribes to Indian Territory. The forced removal of the Cherokee became known as the Trail of Tears, as thousands died on the miserable journey west.

### 1835–1836 Texas Revolution

In the 1820s a small group of Americans moved to Texas at the invitation of the Mexican government. The new residents clashed with Mexican authorities, who banned slavery and wanted all residents to follow Roman Catholicism. When the Texans moved to armed resistance, Antonio López de Santa Anna, the dictator of Mexico, marched an army into Texas to crush the revolt. The Texans defeated Santa Anna, and declared their independence.

**Significance** Texas became an independent country known as the Republic of Texas. The United States annexed Texas in 1845, angering Mexican leaders. This set in motion a chain of events that led to the Mexican-American War.

### 1846–1848 Mexican-American War

A dispute over the southern boundary of Texas led to the outbreak of the Mexican-American War in 1846. American forces drove through Mexican defenses and captured Mexico City. Under the terms of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which ended the war in 1848, Mexico was forced to cede more than half a million square miles of land to the United States. This land included areas that became the states of Arizona, New Mexico, and California.

**Significance** The Mexican Cession vastly increased the size of the United States and helped fulfill the claims of manifest destiny. California became part of the United States just as gold was discovered there. The war also contributed to poor relations with Mexico for many years to come.

### 1848 Seneca Falls Convention

Held in July 1848 in Seneca Falls, New York, the Seneca Falls Convention was the country’s first women’s rights convention. It was organized by Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton. Stanton wrote the Seneca Falls Declaration, which stated that “all men and women are created equal.”

**Significance** The Seneca Falls Convention marked the beginning of an ongoing national campaign for women’s rights. One of the main goals was women’s suffrage, which was achieved in 1920 with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment.

### 1849 California Gold Rush

In 1848 a carpenter discovered gold in the American River in northern California. People as far away as Asia, South America, and Europe heard the news and headed to California, dreaming of striking it rich. The mass migration to California of miners—and business people who made money off the miners—is known as the Gold Rush. By 1854 300,000 people had migrated to California.

**Significance** The Gold Rush resulted in the rapid growth of California, which became a state in 1850. It also contributed to the wealth of a nation and helped fuel the dream of instant riches that has become part of American culture.

### 1854 The Birth of the Republican Party

The Republican Party began when former members of the Whig, Free Soil, and Democratic parties came together in opposition to the Kansas Nebraska Act. The main issue uniting Republicans was opposition to the expansion of slavery in the West.

**Significance** By 1860 and the election of Abraham Lincoln as president, the Republican Party had



become what it remains today, one of the two major political parties in the United States.

### 1857 **The Dred Scott Decision**

Dred Scott was an enslaved person owned by Dr. John Emerson, an army surgeon from Missouri. In the 1830s, Emerson brought Scott to Illinois and other free areas of the North. After returning to Missouri, Scott sued for his freedom, arguing that living where slavery was illegal, he had become free. The Supreme Court ruled against Scott in 1857. Chief Justice Roger Taney noted that the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution protected the property rights of slaveholders. In addition, the Court ruled that since the Constitution forbade Congress from making laws depriving people of their property, the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional.

**Significance** The Dred Scott decision added to the explosive tension between the North and South over slavery. Most white Southerners saw the ruling as a great victory. Many Northerners were outraged, fearing the government now lacked the authority to ban slavery in any territory.

### 1860–1861 **Secession of the South**

On December 20, 1860, soon after Abraham Lincoln's election as president, South Carolina became the first state to secede. Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas followed quickly. In response to the fall of Fort Sumter in April 1861, Lincoln called on the remaining states to supply soldiers to put down the southern rebellion. Rather than comply, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas seceded and joined the Confederacy.

**Significance** The secession of the southern states, along with Lincoln's determination to hold the Union together, resulted in the Civil War.

### 1861–1865 **The Civil War**

The Civil War began in April 1861 with the Confederate attack on Fort Sumter. The South won key early battles, largely thanks to the superior military skill of its generals. Northern victories at Vicksburg and Gettysburg in 1863 helped turn the tide of the war. The fighting ended in April 1865, when Confederate commander General Robert E. Lee surrendered to Union commander General Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Court House, Virginia.

**Significance** More than 600,000 Americans died in the Civil War, making it the costliest war in U.S. history. Fighting left the South's farms, factories, and transportation system in ruins. The Northern victory ensured the preservation of the Union and led to the end of slavery everywhere in the United States.

### 1862 **Homestead Act**

The Homestead Act allowed any head of a household over the age of 21 to claim 160 acres of public land. Each homesteader had to build a home on the land, make improvements, and farm the land for five years before gaining full ownership of the land. In the 124 years the Act was in force, nearly two million people tried to claim land under its provisions.

**Significance** The Homestead Act led to rapid settlement of the Great Plains, which had previously been considered a "Great American Desert." Settlers turned this into one of the most productive farming regions in the world. Many of the settlers were immigrants from northern Europe, whose descendants still populate the Great Plains today.

### 1862 **Emancipation Proclamation**

Announced in September 1862, Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation declared that as of January 1, 1863, all slaves in areas of the South in rebellion against the Union would be free. Its immediate impact was limited, since unconquered areas of the South were not effected. It also did not free slaves in the Border States, which were still in the Union.

**Significance** The Emancipation Proclamation widened the goals of the war to include the end of slavery. It also helped assure the neutrality of Great Britain, which had been expected to enter the war on the side of the Confederacy. Strong anti-slavery sentiment in Great Britain made any plans to aid the Confederacy unfeasible.

### 1865 **Assassination of Lincoln**

Lincoln was assassinated on April 14, 1865, five days after Lee's surrender. He was attending a play at Ford's Theater when John Wilkes Booth, a well-known actor and a bitter Confederate sympathizer, entered Lincoln's box and shot him in the head. Booth escaped from the scene, but was hunted down and died in a shoot out with Union troops.

**Significance** Lincoln's death produced a national outpouring of grief. As a successful wartime leader, Lincoln might have been able to push his relatively lenient Reconstruction plan through Congress. Vice President Andrew Johnson, a southerner, had far less influence with Republican congressional leaders. A fierce battle between Johnson and Congress over the direction of Reconstruction soon began.

### 1865–1877 **Reconstruction**

Reconstruction was the process of readmitting the Southern states into the Union after the Civil War. After Southern leaders passed Black Codes to



limit the rights of African Americans, the Republican-controlled Congress passed the Reconstruction Acts. These acts divided the South into five military districts under the control of the U.S. Army and required southern states to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment and write new state constitutions guaranteeing freedmen the right to vote. A major political struggle over Reconstruction policy between President Andrew Johnson and Congress led to Johnson's impeachment and near conviction.

**Significance** Reconstruction included three Constitutional amendments that initially helped African Americans. But enforcement of these reforms was dependent on the presence of the Union Army in the South. When the army withdrew in 1877, reconstruction collapsed and African Americans were denied their civil rights. Reconstruction also contributed to the lasting bitterness between North and South.

### 1865-1870 Reconstruction Amendments

The Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery in the United States. The Fourteenth Amendment conferred citizenship on all persons born in the United States, thus extending citizenship to all freed African Americans. It also said that people could not be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law. The Fifteenth Amendment made it unconstitutional to deprive a citizen of the right to vote because of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

**Significance** The three amendments helped make full citizens of freed African Americans during Reconstruction. With the collapse of Reconstruction, however, African Americans lost most of their rights until the Civil Rights Movement of the mid-1900s.

### 1869 Completion of the Transcontinental Railroad

In 1862 Congress provided land for the building of a transcontinental railroad to connect the East and West coasts of the United States. Workers for the Union Pacific Railroad laid tracks west from Nebraska while Central Pacific Railroad built tracks east from California. The workforce was made up largely of immigrants from China, Ireland, and Germany, as well as African Americans and Native Americans. On May 10, 1869, the two rail lines met at Promontory Summit in Utah Territory.

**Significance** The rail line helped speed up the settlement of the West by making it easier to move people, goods, and resources across the country. It helped unite the country, both physically and economically. Other transcontinental railroads were soon built, and regional railroads expanded.

### 1876 Invention of the Telephone

In 1876 Scottish-born Alexander Graham Bell patented his design for a "talking telegraph," or, as it came to be known, telephone. Companies quickly found it to be an essential business tool, and people wanted them in their homes.

**Significance** Along with inventions such as the telegraph and typewriter, the telephone was part of a communication revolution in the 1800s. By 1900 more than a million telephones had been installed in offices and homes across the nation.

### 1880s-1910s New Wave of Immigrants

Prior to 1880 most immigrants had come to the United States from northern and western Europe. Beginning in the 1880s, waves of immigrants came from southern and eastern Europe. Millions came every decade until 1920. Thousands of immigrants came from Asia as well.

**Significance** Between 1880 and 1910, nearly 18 million newcomers came to the United States. The new immigrants helped power America's growing industries. The wave of immigration also changed the makeup of the American population. By 1910 nearly one out of every seven Americans was foreign-born.

### 1883 Pendleton Civil Service Act

The Pendleton Civil Service Act was designed to end the spoils system, a long-standing practice of filling government jobs with supporters of the winning political party. The law required that federal appointments be based on merit, not on political connections. It also guaranteed the rights of people to compete for jobs regardless of race, religion or national origin.

**Significance** The new law initially applied to only 10 percent of federal jobs, but was still an important first step in reducing corruption in the federal government. By 1980 the law applied to more than 90 percent of all federal positions.

### 1886 Formation of the AFL

Samuel Gompers formed the American Federation of Labor (AFL) in 1886. The AFL was a coalition of skilled workers in trade and craft unions. Unlike more radical unions, the AFL was more concerned with better wages and working conditions than with pushing larger political reforms.

**Significance** The AFL became the most powerful union of its time. Gompers used collective bargaining and strikes to gain higher wages and shortened work hours for union workers.



## 1887 Dawes Act

The Dawes Act divided up Native American reservation lands, allotting small individual plots to families. The goal of the law was to encourage Native Americans to value private property and live more like typical American farmers. The land many Native Americans received included desert or near-desert lands unsuitable for farming. Many who did want to farm could not afford the tools, animals, seed, and other supplies necessary to get started.

**Significance** Under the Dawes Act, land not allotted to Native Americans was sold, thus decreasing the amount of land under Indian control. Native American traditional life was weakened, and poverty on reservations became more widespread.

## 1890 Formation of the National American Woman Suffrage Association

The National American Woman Suffrage Association was the largest suffrage group in the United States. NAWSA activists worked to persuade state legislatures to grant women the vote.

**Significance** NAWSA's membership grew to nearly a million under the leadership of Carrie Chapman Catt. Working at both the state and federal levels, the organization played a key role in pressuring Congress to pass the Nineteenth Amendment, granting women full voting rights. A successor organization, the League of Women's Voters, exists today.

## 1890 Sherman Anti-Trust Act

Though the United States had a tradition of laissez-faire capitalism, in the late 1800s the federal government became concerned about the power of expanding corporations. The Sherman Antitrust Act made it illegal for corporations to form trusts that interfered with free trade.

**Significance** The Sherman Anti-Trust Act was the first federal action taken against trusts. The act was vaguely written, however, and corporations were easily able to avoid prosecution. The government soon stopped trying to enforce the Sherman Act. Consolidation of corporations continued. Congress later toughened the regulation of trusts by passing the Clayton Antitrust Act in 1914.

## 1896 Plessy v. Ferguson

*Plessy v. Ferguson* provided the legal justification for segregation in the South. The Supreme Court ruled that "separate but equal" facilities for blacks and whites did not violate the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

**Significance** *Plessy v. Ferguson* gave the force of federal law to the segregation practices that had been initiated in the South after the end of Reconstruction. The ruling was overturned in 1954 by the Supreme Court's decision in the *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* case.

## 1898 Spanish-American War

The Spanish-American War was a four-month conflict in which American forces defeated Spain in Cuba and the Philippines. In the treaty ending the war, the United States gained control of Cuba, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. Cuba was quickly granted independence, but remained under American influence.

**Significance** The Spanish-American War marked the establishment of the United States as a major international power. The capture of colonies set off a broad debate in the United States between expansionists and anti-imperialists. In the Philippines, Filipino nationalists rebelled against American rule. United States forces eventually crushed the rebellion in a war that lasted 15 years and claimed the lives of hundreds of thousands of Filipinos and over 4,000 U.S. soldiers.

## 1899 Open Door Policy

In the late 1890s Japan and European powers carved out spheres of influence in China. Fearing the United States would be shut out of trade with China, U.S. Secretary of State John Hay proposed the Open Door Policy. This policy would give all nations equal trading rights in China.

**Significance** The Open Door Policy was neither accepted nor rejected right away by other imperialist powers. The Boxer Rebellion, however, convinced Western nations that competing among themselves threatened their ability to exploit China. This led to increased support for the Open Door Policy.

## 1903 Invention of the Airplane

Orville and Wilbur Wright, two bicycle mechanics from Dayton, Ohio, built the first successful airplane. On December 17, 1903, at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, Orville Wright became the first man ever to fly an airplane.

**Significance** Orville Wright's first flight lasted just 12 seconds, but it was the first true airplane flight in history. The Wright brothers and others began manufacturing airplanes. Air travel quickly changed transportation, increased demand for oil, and affected warfare.



## 1908 Henry Ford Begins selling Model T Automobiles

Henry Ford's goal was to build a car that most working Americans could afford. He achieved this in 1908 with the introduction of his Model T. Ford used the assembly line to produce cars quickly and cheaply, lowering the Model T's price to less than \$500.

**Significance** By 1929 there were almost 30 million cars in the country. The auto industry created huge spin-off industries, such as road construction, oil refining, and gasoline retailing. The invention of the assembly line changed the way goods were produced. The wide availability of cars made it easier for more people to live some distance from their jobs, which led to the rise of suburbs.

## 1909 Founding of NAACP

A multiracial group of activists, including Ida Wells-Barnett, W.E.B. Du Bois, and Jane Addams, formed the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), to fight for the rights of African Americans. Early actions included defending African Americans falsely accused of crimes and protesting segregation in the federal government.

**Significance** The NAACP was the first national civil rights organization. In 1954 NAACP lawyers won the case of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*, in which the Supreme Court declared segregation in public schools to be unconstitutional.

## 1913 Passage of Sixteenth Amendment

The Sixteenth Amendment gave Congress the power to levy taxes based on personal income. The Treasury Department set up the Internal Revenue Service to collect income taxes.

**Significance** Under the first income tax laws, less than one percent of the population paid income taxes. This percentage, along with income tax rates, rose as government grew and the nation faced challenges such as World Wars I and II.

## 1914 Opening of the Panama Canal

Work on the Panama Canal began in May 1904 and lasted until 1914. The 50-mile canal across the Isthmus of Panama connected the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, greatly shortening maritime travel times.

**Significance** The Panama Canal helped make the United States a great naval power by allowing the U.S. fleet to move more quickly from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It also greatly facilitated world trade. Protecting the canal and other economic interests became a central element of U.S. foreign policy in Latin America.

## 1914–1918 World War I

Increasingly intense rivalries in Europe, along with growing feelings of nationalism and a system of military alliances, led to the start of World War I. The primary opponents were the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy) and the Allied Powers (Great Britain, France and Russia). New technology such as machine guns and poison gas made this the deadliest war the world had seen to that point. The United States entered the war in 1917, helping the Allies gain eventual victory.

**Significance** World War I caused levels of casualties far higher than any previous war—combat, disease, and starvation killed more than 14 million people. Another 7 million men were left permanently disabled. The war led to the overthrow of monarchies in Russia, Austria-Hungary, Germany, and Turkey, and contributed to the rise of the Communists to power in Russia. The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the war, imposed harsh penalties on Germany, causing bitterness that later contributed to the outbreak of World War II.

## 1910s–1920s The Great Migration

In the early 1900s most African Americans lived in the South, where strict segregation laws kept them in a separate but unequal world. The Great Migration was a massive movement of African Americans from the South to the North, where they hoped to find economic opportunity and greater personal freedom. This movement accelerated with the outbreak of World War I, as northern factories needed workers to meet the demand for war supplies.

**Significance** The Great Migration was the largest internal migration in American history. Hundreds of thousands of African Americans streamed into northern cities such as New York, Chicago, and Detroit. This led to a mixing of cultures, and transformed race from a regional to a national issue.

## 1919 Treaty of Versailles

The Treaty of Versailles ended World War I. Against the advice of President Woodrow Wilson, Germany was forced to make large reparations payments to the Allies. The treaty also created nine new nations and established the League of Nations, an international organization designed to settle disputes, protect democracy, and prevent future wars.

**Significance** It is widely believed that the harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles contributed to the rise of the Nazis in Germany and, therefore, the start of World War II. In the United States, Wilson's unwillingness to compromise with the Senate led to rejection of the treaty by the United States.



## 1920–1933 Prohibition

Prohibition was a period lasting from 1920 to 1933 during which the manufacture, transportation, and sale of alcohol was outlawed by the 18th Amendment. Prohibition proved unenforceable and was repealed by the 21st Amendment in 1933.

**Significance** Prohibition led to the creation of organized criminal groups who defied the law. It also led to strengthening of the Bureau of Investigation, forerunner to today's FBI, to combat crime. Its failed, widely discredited efforts to legislate what many considered an area of private morality.

## 9 The Palmer Raids

During the Red Scare that followed World War I, fear of communists and radicals grew to an intense level in the United States. The Palmer Raids, led by U.S. Attorney General Mitchell Palmer, were a series of government raids on suspected radicals. Thousands of suspects were arrested, in some cases without proper legal authority.

**Significance** Far from criticizing the Palmer raids, many Americans cheered, or demanded even tougher action. This demonstrated the level of fear that existed in American society. The Red Scare gradually died out as it became clear that radicals had little power or support in the United States.

## 1920s Harlem Renaissance

The Harlem Renaissance was a creative movement of African American writers, musicians and artists that took place in the New York City neighborhood of Harlem in the 1920s. Important writers of the movement included James Weldon Johnson, Zora Neale Hurston, and Langston Hughes. Jacob Lawrence and William Johnson were two artists who won fame, as did such musicians as Paul Robeson, Louis Armstrong, and Duke Ellington.

**Significance** The Harlem Renaissance enriched American culture. Writers and artists made important contributions to American culture. Jazz swept the nation, contributing to a major cultural movement in the 1920s.

## 1930s The Dust Bowl

In the 1930s, drought and poor farming practices led to massive dust storms that turned portions of the Great Plains into what became known as the Dust Bowl. It was one of the worst ecological disasters in American history.

**Significance** The Dust Bowl contributed to a mass migration west among displaced farmers. The refugees from Dust Bowl states such as Oklahoma,

sometimes called "Okies," came to represent the difficulties of the 1930s. The Dust Bowl led to improved efforts at soil conservation.

## 1929 Stock Market Crash

Despite underlying weakness in the economy, the stock market continued to rise in 1929. In September, prices began to weaken. The great crash came on "Black Tuesday," October 29, 1929, when stock prices collapsed.

**Significance** Both individual investors and businesses were devastated by the stock market crash. The crash marked the beginning of large decline in the economy that became known as the Great Depression. The crash also led to reforms of the stock market, including the creation of the Securities and Exchange Commission.

## 1930 Smoot-Hawley Tariff

The Smoot-Hawley Tariff was intended to ease the plight of American farmers by raising tariffs on imported farm products. This tariff also raised tariff rates on many kinds of manufactured goods. The tariff rates under Smoot-Hawley were higher than at any point in American history.

**Significance** European nations responded to the American tariff with high tariffs of their own. International trade dropped 66 percent from its 1929 levels, causing economies everywhere to suffer. In this way, the tariff can be said to have deepened the Great Depression worldwide.

## 1932 Franklin D. Roosevelt elected President

As the 1932 presidential election approached, many Americans blamed President Herbert Hoover for causing the Great Depression, or at least for failing to provide relief from the crisis. Democratic nominee Franklin D. Roosevelt promised swift government action to improve the economy. Roosevelt won the election in a landslide.

**Significance** In addition to winning the White House, the Democratic Party gained firm control of both houses of Congress. This gave President Roosevelt the ability to push through his New Deal legislation, which changed the role of government in American life.

## 1933–1945 The Holocaust

Soon after gaining power in Germany in 1933, Adolf Hitler began using the power of the government to persecute German Jews. German conquests early in World War II brought nearly all of Europe's 9 million



Jews under Nazi control. The Nazis attempted to exterminate the entire Jewish population of Europe. This became known as the Holocaust.

**Significance** The Nazis murdered 6 million Jews in the Holocaust, decimating the Jewish population of Europe. Nazis also killed about 5 million others, including prisoners of war, disabled people, and Gypsies. After the war, many of the Nazi leaders were convicted of war crimes by an international court. These trials were meant to demonstrate the commitment of people around the world to prevent a repetition of the Holocaust.

### 1935 Passage of the Social Security Act

Signed into law by President Roosevelt on August 14, 1935, the Social Security Act created a program that provided pensions for many Americans age 65 and older. These pensions were paid for by a new tax on workers and employers.

**Significance** The Social Security Act marked a significant expansion of the role of government in the lives of Americans. Its passage showed that government intended to take a greater share of responsibility for the well-being of citizens.

### 1935 Passage of the Wagner Act

Named for its sponsor, Senator Robert F. Wagner, the Wagner Act outlawed many of the anti-labor strategies in wide use among business leaders in the 1930s. The act created the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB), which had the power to investigate unfair labor practices and assure employees the right to collective bargaining.

**Significance** The Wagner Act was a major victory for organized labor. In the four years after the act's passage, union membership jumped from under 3.8 million members to over 6.5 million members.

### 1939-1945 Manhattan Project

The Manhattan Project was a top-secret government program to develop an atomic bomb during World War II. It was motivated by the danger that Germany might be the first to develop atomic weapons. Manhattan Project scientists worked in Los Alamos, New Mexico. They successfully tested the first atomic bomb near Alamogordo, New Mexico, on July 16, 1945.

**Significance** The Manhattan Project initiated the age of nuclear weapons. In August 1945, U.S. planes dropped atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, forcing Japan's surrender in World War II. During the Cold War that followed World War II, the United States and Soviet Union competed in a nuclear arms race.

### 1941 Lend-Lease Act

Passed by Congress during World War II, the Lend-Lease Act gave the U.S. government authority to make weapons available to Great Britain without regard for its ability to pay. Lend-lease aid was extended to the Soviet Union after the Nazis invaded Soviet territory in March 1941.

**Significance** At the time the Lend-Lease Act was passed, Britain was standing alone against Germany in World War II and desperately needed the assistance. Lend-Lease aid helped both Britain and the Soviet Union resist German attacks. It also moved the United States one step closer to full participation in World War II.

### 1941 Attack on Pearl Harbor

On Sunday morning, December 7, 1941, Japanese forces launched a surprise attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Catching American forces completely unprepared, Japanese planes inflicted devastating damage on U.S. aircraft and ships at Pearl Harbor. Some 2,400 Americans were killed in the attack.

**Significance** The Pearl Harbor attack shocked and outraged Americans, erasing isolationist feeling in the United States. The United States immediately declared war on Japan. Japan's ally, Germany, declared war on the United States. United States forces played a major role in winning World War II, the largest and deadliest war in world history.

### 1942 Japanese American Internment

Fearing that Japanese Americans living along the West Coast might aid an attack by Japan, in March 1942 the federal government forcibly removed some 110,000 people of Japanese ancestry—most of them American citizens—to desolate inland internment camps. Most evacuees remained confined until the internment order was lifted in December 1944.

**Significance** Many of the internees lost their homes and belongings—some \$400 million in property—as well as their jobs. In 1988 President Ronald Reagan signed a bill authorizing the payment of \$20,000 to each surviving Japanese American evacuee and apologized for the violation of their civil liberties.

### 1942 Battle of Midway

Fought in the Pacific Ocean between June 3 and 6, 1942, the Battle of Midway was a major World War II naval battle between U.S. and Japanese forces. Using intelligence gained from intercepted and decoded Japanese messages, U.S. aircraft carrier-based planes surprised and sank four Japanese aircraft carriers with a loss of only one carrier.



**Significance** The Battle of Midway was a major turning point in the war in the Pacific. Japanese naval power, which had been a key to its early success, was greatly reduced. American forces were able to begin gaining back territory from Japan.

### 1944 D-Day

June 6, 1944, was D-Day—the day the Allies invaded Nazi-held Western Europe. In the largest combined air and sea invasion in history, more than 150,000 soldiers stormed the beaches at Normandy, France. Facing fierce German resistance, the Allies gained a beachhead from which to begin their massive invasion of Europe.

**Significance** D-Day was a major turning point of the war in Europe. The United States and Britain drove toward Germany from the west, while the Soviet Army attacked from the east. Germany was forced to surrender in May 1945.

### 1948-1949 Berlin Airlift

In June 1948, the Soviets suddenly blocked road, rail, and river traffic into West Berlin, cutting off the city's people from sources of food and fuel. In the Berlin Airlift, American and British pilots flew around the clock, bringing necessities into West Berlin by air. They sustained the effort until May 1949, when the Soviets lifted their blockade.

**Significance** The Berlin Airlift demonstrated how deeply committed the United States was to opposing the expansion of communism and Soviet power. This commitment became the central theme of U.S. foreign policy throughout the Cold War.

### 1947-1951 Marshall Plan

Named for its architect, U.S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall, the Marshall Plan was a U.S. program to help the nations of Western Europe recover from World War II. The United States government spent over 13 billion to buy food and farm equipment and to rebuild factories and homes.

**Significance** The Marshall Plan was very successful in helping Western European economies recover from the devastation of World War II. The program also strengthened political and economic ties between the United States and Western Europe.

### 1950-1953 Korean War

The Korean War began in 1950 when communist North Korea invaded South Korea. A United Nations force, made up mostly of American troops, entered the war to block the North Korean invasion. Chinese troops fought alongside the North Koreans. After several major back and forth battles, the war

ended in 1953 with North and South Korea divided along almost the same border as before the war.

**Significance** The Korean War was the first "shooting war" in the Cold War between Communists and U.S. forces. The United States defended South Korea to show it would protect nations from Communist attack. U.S. troops are still stationed in South Korea, more than fifty years after the fighting ended.

### 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* Decision

The "Brown" in this landmark Supreme Court case was an African American third-grader named Linda Brown, who was forced to travel a long distance to a segregated school in Topeka, Kansas. NAACP lawyers sued, demanding that Brown be allowed to enroll in an all-white school that was much closer to her home. In 1954 The Supreme Court ruled unanimously that separate schools for African American and white students were by their nature unequal, and thus unconstitutional.

**Significance** By declaring that segregation in public schools was a violation of the Constitution's guarantee of equal protection of the law, the Court reversed *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which had established the constitutionality of segregated facilities. This victory was just the beginning of the civil rights movement that changed the nation in the 1950s and 1960s.

### 1955-1956 Montgomery Bus Boycott

In December 1955 Rosa Parks, an African American woman, was arrested in Montgomery, Alabama, for refusing to move to the back of a segregated city bus. African Americans, led by Martin Luther King Jr., organized the Montgomery Bus Boycott to protest Parks' arrest and segregation on city buses. After more than a year, the boycott achieved its goal when the Supreme Court ruled the segregation policy unconstitutional.

**Significance** Beyond achieving local goals in Montgomery, the bus boycott made a national impact by inspiring similar boycotts in other southern cities. Martin Luther King Jr. gained nationwide attention and became a powerful leader of the growing civil rights movement.

### 1958 Formation of NASA

In 1957 the Soviet Union shocked the United States by launching Sputnik, the first-ever artificial satellite, into space. The United States responded in 1958 with the creation of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), a government agency dedicated to the exploration of space.



**Significance** NASA led the United States past the Soviet Union in the space race, moving quickly from single satellites to manned flights orbiting the Earth to the Apollo program that successfully landed men on the moon. NASA exhibited the success of American technology and boosted American pride and confidence during the Cold War.

### 1950s Television changes American life

Television ownership exploded in the 1950s, and by the end of the decade over 40 million American homes had at least one television set. Watching television became a favorite national pastime, as families across the country tuned in to the same comedies, game shows, and music programs.

**Significance** Television, like radio and movies, provided Americans with common cultural experiences. By 1960 TV had become the major means of advertising in the country. Politicians quickly learned that TV had an enormous power to impact their relationship with voters.

### 1954–1973 Vietnam War

In the Vietnam War the United States fought to try to prevent Communist forces from taking over all of Vietnam. U.S. troops supported non-Communist South Vietnam against Communist North Vietnam and guerilla forces known as the Vietcong. Though U.S. troop levels in Vietnam topped 500,000 in 1968, victory seemed nowhere in sight. With the American public turning against the war, the government began gradually withdrawing troops from Vietnam. The last soldiers left in 1973. In 1975 North Vietnam succeeded in taking over all of Vietnam.

**Significance** More than 58,000 Americans died in Vietnam, and more than 2 million Vietnamese soldiers and civilians were killed. The war caused bitter divisions in American society, as some protested the fighting, while others backed the government. Misleading statements by military and government leaders about the progress of the war caused many Americans to lose some faith in their government.

### 1962 Cuban Missile Crisis

In April 1961 Cuban exiles, backed by the United States, tried to invade Cuba and overthrow its dictator, Fidel Castro. The invasion of the Bay of Pigs failed. In October 1962 U.S. spy planes discovered that the Soviet Union was installing nuclear missiles in Cuba. The missiles would be able to strike almost any location in the United States. President John F. Kennedy demanded that the missiles be removed and announced that U.S. warships would enforce a naval blockade of Cuba. For several days the world

watched and waited for the Soviet response. The crisis finally lifted when Khrushchev agreed to dismantle the Soviet missiles in Cuba in return for a U.S. promise not to invade the island.

**Significance** The Cuban missile crisis marked the closest the world has ever come to the outbreak of nuclear war. Sobered by the experience, Kennedy and Khrushchev took steps to ease Cold War tensions. They set up a hot line that would allow American and Soviet leaders to communicate directly during times of crisis, and signed the Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, banning the testing of nuclear weapons in the atmosphere and underwater.

### 1963 March on Washington

In the aftermath of police violence against civil rights protests, on August 28 about 250,000 people from across the country, about a quarter of them white, took part in the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom. The march brought together several major civil rights organizations to demand school desegregation, jobs programs, a minimum wage, and various civil rights laws.

**Significance** Part protest and part celebration, the demonstration was the largest ever in Washington and the first to be covered on television. It is remembered for the peacefulness of the event and for the stirring “I Have a Dream” speech by Martin Luther King Jr., one of the most famous in U.S. history.

### Civil Rights Act of 1964

Following the assassination of President Kennedy, the new president, Lyndon Johnson, secured passage of a landmark civil rights bill first proposed by President Kennedy. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 banned segregation in public places and discrimination in employment. It set up the Equal Opportunity Commission to end job discrimination—another provision allowed the government to withhold federal funds from school districts that violated integration orders.

**Significance** The Civil Rights Act of 1964 has been called the most significant civil right law since the Reconstruction amendments. The Civil Rights Act, along with the Voting Right Act of 1965, were major victories for the civil rights movement. These new laws gave the federal government the power to prevent racial discrimination.

### 1965 Passage of Medicare & Medicaid

Established in 1965, Medicaid and Medicare were parts of President Lyndon B. Johnson’s ambitious program of domestic reform known as the Great Society. Medicaid is a government program that



Provides free or low-cost health care for poor people. Medicare is a government funded health care program for people over age 65.

**Significance** Medicare and Medicaid have helped provide health services for millions of Americans. The New Deal programs of the 1930s, Johnson's Great Society programs expanded the role of the federal government in American society.

### 1965-1970 United Farm Workers Grape Boycott

In 1965 farm workers in California went on strike when their employer cut their pay during the grape harvest. César Chávez and Dolores Huerta, leaders of the National Farm Workers Association (NFWA), helped lead a nationwide grape boycott to support striking farm workers. Millions of Americans refused to buy grapes.

**Significance** The pressure on the grape growers eventually forced them to negotiate a settlement. The success of the grape boycott brought César Chávez to national prominence as a leader in the fight for civil rights for Hispanic Americans.

### 1966 Formation of National Organization for Women (NOW)

The National Organization for Women (NOW) is a women's rights organization founded by women's rights leaders in 1966. NOW actively campaigned for passage of the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). Though the ERA eventually failed, NOW helped women make important gains in the 1970s.

**Significance** The organization continues to be an influential voice in American politics. NOW's goals include fighting discrimination in the workplace, schools, and the justice system. It also works to end violence against women and to protect women's reproductive rights.

### 1969 Apollo 11 Moon Landing

The goal of NASA's Apollo program was to land American astronauts on the moon. The program achieved this goal with the Apollo 11 mission. On July 20, 1969, Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin became the first humans to walk on the moon. Millions of amazed viewers around the world watched the moon landing on television.

**Significance** The Apollo 11 mission fulfilled a bold promise made by President Kennedy at the start of the 1960s to place a man on the moon in that decade. It was a triumph for American technology and was a source of wonder and pride to Americans, as well as people all over the world.

### 1970 Creation of the Environmental Protection Agency

In 1970 Congress established the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to research, monitor, and set and enforce standards on air and water quality and noise and radiation pollution. The EPA administers the "Superfund" toxic waste cleanup act, established in 1980.

**Significance** The creation of the EPA was one of Richard M. Nixon's presidential legacies. The agency has overseen the restoration of polluted waterways, the creation of antipollution standards for industries, and the cleanup of toxic waste sites throughout the country.

### 1972 Nixon Goes to China

As part of his "realpolitik" approach to foreign policy, President Richard Nixon made a historic visit to communist China in 1972. Nixon hoped that improved U.S.-China relations would spur the Soviets also to seek better relations with the United States.

**Significance** The visit was a huge success for Nixon. Not only did U.S.-China relations improve, but the trip also had the hoped-for effect on the Soviets: shortly after the China visit, Nixon and Soviet leaders reached a nuclear arms control agreement. This opened a period of détente, a time of easing Cold War tensions.

### 1965 Immigration Act of 1965

This act repealed the national-origin immigration quotas in effect since 1924 and set hemisphere-based quotas instead. Priority was given to those applicants with relatives already in the United States and possessing desired job skills. The effect was to open up immigration to people from countries that had previously been denied entry to the United States.

**Significance** The act triggered a new wave of immigration to the United States that continues today. Asian and Latin American nations replaced European nations as the main sources of immigrants, altering the cultural mix in the United States.

### 1979 Iran Hostage Crisis

On November 4, 1979, a student-led Islamic revolutionary group opposed to American support of the pro-Western Iranian government seized the U.S. Embassy in Iranian capital, Tehran. The rebels held 52 Americans hostage for 444 days. President Jimmy Carter imposed economic penalties, conducted diplomatic negotiations, and ordered a rescue attempt, which failed. The hostages were released on the day of Ronald Reagan's inauguration, January 20, 1981.



**Significance** The crisis, and the poorly executed military rescue attempt, traumatized the country and strongly contributed to Carter's election defeat in 1980. It marked a sharp decline in relations between the United States and the Muslim world.

### 1982 Strategic Arms Reduction Talks

After more than a decade of work to limit increases in the superpowers' nuclear forces, President Ronald Reagan and Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev began negotiations aimed at reducing the huge stockpiles of atomic weapons. The talks resulted in the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START), signed by Gorbachev and President George H. W. Bush in 1991.

**Significance** START took place during the collapse of the Soviet empire and the end of the Cold War. START II, signed by Bush and Russian President Boris Yeltsin in 1993, was never ratified by the United States, but the two countries have far exceeded the nuclear reduction goals of START I and II.

### 1991 Collapse of the Soviet Union

In the 1980s economic and political reforms by Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev led to calls for greater freedom in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. Under this pressure, communist governments in Eastern Europe began collapsing in 1989. In 1991 the Soviet government itself collapsed as former Soviet republics declared their independence.

**Significance** The fall of the Soviet Union marked the end of the Cold War. Millions of people in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union gained freedom from communist dictatorships. The United States was left as the world's only superpower.

### 1991 Operation Desert Storm

In August 1990 Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein invaded and conquered the neighboring oil-rich nation of Kuwait. President George H.W. Bush built an international coalition of allies to oppose the Iraqi action. In Operation Desert Storm, a U.S.-led coalition drove Hussein's troops out of Kuwait.

**Significance** The U.S.-led forces succeeded in freeing Kuwait from Iraqi control, demonstrating the effectiveness of international cooperation. Saddam Hussein, however, remained in power in Iraq. Just over 12 years later, the United States would be at war with Hussein again.

### 1993 Passage of NAFTA

Passed in 1993, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) eliminated trade barriers between the United States, Mexico, and Canada. This allowed most products to be sold across borders

without tariffs. The agreement caused controversy, with critics arguing it would cost American jobs, and supporters insisting it would increase trade.

**Significance** The debate over NAFTA was part of a larger debate about international trade and globalization. This will continue to be a major issue for Americans as the world's economies become more interconnected.

### 2001 Terrorist Attacks of 9/11

On September 11, 2001, terrorists hijacked four planes, crashing two of them into the towers of the World Trade Center in New York City and a third into the Pentagon near Washington, D.C. A fourth plane crashed in Pennsylvania after passengers attempted to take back the plane from the terrorists. It is believed the target for that plane was either the Capitol or the White House. A total of about 3,000 people were killed in these attacks—making these attacks even deadlier than the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941.

**Significance** President George W. Bush declared a war on terror. U.S. officials identified the hijackers as members of al Qaeda, an extremist Islamic terrorist group led by Osama bin Laden and based in Afghanistan. In October 2001, U.S. forces invaded Afghanistan, driving out the Taliban government, which had supported bin Laden. The ongoing war against terror has been the main focus of U.S. foreign policy since the September 11 attacks.

### 2003 Iraq War

Following the success in Afghanistan, President Bush focused on the concern that Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein was building weapons of mass destruction. These weapons, Bush argued, could be used against the United States or given to a terrorist. Working in 2002 and 2003, UN weapons inspections turned up no evidence of weapons of mass destruction. Saddam, however, refused to fully cooperate with these inspections. Though many of America's allies argued against going to war, Bush insisted the Iraqi threat must be countered. With the support of Great Britain and several other allies, American forces invaded and quickly conquered Iraq in 2003. Saddam was captured in late 2003.

**Significance** In June 2004, American officials handed control over to an Iraqi government. Iraqis began electing their own leaders in 2005. The violence continued, however, as insurgents thought to include Saddam loyalists and Islamic extremists carried out deadly attacks against American troops and Iraqis. To date, American and international teams have found no weapons of mass destruction.



# Presidents



## 1 GEORGE WASHINGTON

Born: 1732 Died: 1799  
Years in Office: 1789–97  
Political Party: None  
Home State: Virginia  
Vice President:



## 2 JOHN ADAMS

Born: 1735 Died: 1826  
Years in Office: 1797–1801  
Political Party: Federalist  
Home State: Massachusetts  
Vice President: Thomas Jefferson



## 3 THOMAS JEFFERSON

Born: 1743 Died: 1826  
Years in Office: 1801–09  
Political Party: Republican\*  
Home State: Virginia  
Vice Presidents: Aaron Burr,  
George Clinton



## 4 JAMES MADISON

Born: 1751 Died: 1836  
Years in Office: 1809–17  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Virginia  
Vice Presidents: George Clinton,  
Elbridge Gerry



## 5 JAMES MONROE

Born: 1758 Died: 1831  
Years in Office: 1817–25  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Virginia  
Vice President: Daniel D. Tompkins



## 6 JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

Born: 1767 Died: 1848  
Years in Office: 1825–29  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Massachusetts  
Vice President: John C. Calhoun



## 7 ANDREW JACKSON

Born: 1767 Died: 1845  
Years in Office: 1829–37  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: Tennessee  
Vice Presidents: John C. Calhoun,  
Martin Van Buren



## 8 MARTIN VAN BUREN

Born: 1782 Died: 1862  
Years in Office: 1837–41  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New York  
Vice President: Richard M. Johnson

\*The third through sixth presidents is not the party of Abraham Lincoln, which was founded in 1854.





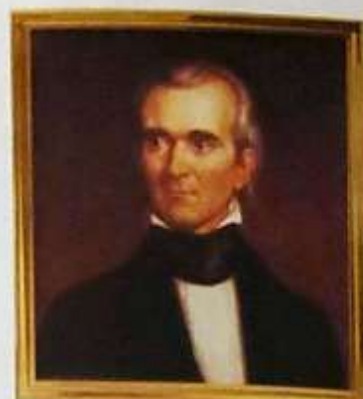
### 9 WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON

Born: 1773 Died: 1841  
 Years in Office: 1841  
 Political Party: Whig  
 Home State: Ohio  
 Vice President: John Tyler



### 10 JOHN TYLER

Born: 1790 Died: 1862  
 Years in Office: 1841–45  
 Political Party: Whig  
 Home State: Virginia  
 Vice President: None



### 11 JAMES K. POLK

Born: 1795 Died: 1849  
 Years in Office: 1845–49  
 Political Party: Democratic  
 Home State: Tennessee  
 Vice President: George M. Dallas



### 12 ZACHARY TAYLOR

Born: 1784 Died: 1850  
 Years in Office: 1849–50  
 Political Party: Whig  
 Home State: Louisiana  
 Vice President: Millard Fillmore



### 13 MILLARD FILLMORE

Born: 1800 Died: 1874  
 Years in Office: 1850–53  
 Political Party: Whig  
 Home State: New York  
 Vice President: None



### 14 FRANKLIN PIERCE

Born: 1804 Died: 1869  
 Years in Office: 1853–57  
 Political Party: Democratic  
 Home State: New Hampshire  
 Vice President: William R. King



### 15 JAMES BUCHANAN

Born: 1791 Died: 1868  
 Years in Office: 1857–61  
 Political Party: Democratic  
 Home State: Pennsylvania  
 Vice President: John C. Breckinridge



### 16 ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Born: 1809 Died: 1865  
 Years in Office: 1861–65  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: Illinois  
 Vice Presidents: Hannibal Hamlin,  
 Andrew Johnson



### 17 ANDREW JOHNSON

Born: 1808 Died: 1875  
 Years in Office: 1865–69  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: Tennessee  
 Vice President: None





### 18 ULYSSES S. GRANT

Born: 1822 Died: 1885  
Years in Office: 1869–77  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Illinois  
Vice Presidents: Schuyler Colfax,  
Henry Wilson



### 19 RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

Born: 1822 Died: 1893  
Years in Office: 1877–81  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice President: William A. Wheeler



### 20 JAMES A. GARFIELD

Born: 1831 Died: 1881  
Years in Office: 1881  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice President: Chester A. Arthur



### 21 CHESTER A. ARTHUR

Born: 1829 Died: 1886  
Years in Office: 1881–85  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: New York  
Vice President: None



### 22 GROVER CLEVELAND

Born: 1837 Died: 1908  
Years in Office: 1885–89  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New York  
Vice President: Thomas A. Hendricks



### 23 BENJAMIN HARRISON

Born: 1833 Died: 1901  
Years in Office: 1889–95  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Indiana  
Vice President: Levi P. Morton



### 24 GROVER CLEVELAND

Born: 1837 Died: 1908  
Years in Office: 1893–97  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New York  
Vice President: Adlai E. Stevenson



### 25 WILLIAM MCKINLEY

Born: 1843 Died: 1901  
Years in Office: 1897–1901  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice Presidents: Garret A. Hobart,  
Theodore Roosevelt



### 26 THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Born: 1858 Died: 1919  
Years in Office: 1901–09  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: New York  
Vice President: Charles W. Fairbanks





### 27 WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

Born: 1857 Died: 1930  
Years in Office: 1909–13  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice President: James S. Sherman



### 28 WOODROW WILSON

Born: 1856 Died: 1924  
Years in Office: 1913–21  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New Jersey  
Vice President: Thomas R. Marshall



### 29 WARREN G. HARDING

Born: 1865 Died: 1923  
Years in Office: 1921–23  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice President: Calvin Coolidge



### 30 CALVIN COOLIDGE

Born: 1872 Died: 1933  
Years in Office: 1923–29  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Massachusetts  
Vice President: Charles G. Dawes



### 31 HERBERT HOOVER

Born: 1874 Died: 1964  
Years in Office: 1929–33  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: California  
Vice President: Charles Curtis



### 32 FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

Born: 1882 Died: 1945  
Years in Office: 1933–45  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New York  
Vice Presidents: John Nance Garner,  
Henry Wallace, Harry S. Truman



### 33 HARRY S. TRUMAN

Born: 1884 Died: 1972  
Years in Office: 1945–53  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: Missouri  
Vice President: Alben W. Barkley



### 34 DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

Born: 1890 Died: 1969  
Years in Office: 1953–61  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Kansas  
Vice President: Richard M. Nixon



### 35 JOHN F. KENNEDY

Born: 1917 Died: 1963  
Years in Office: 1961–63  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: Massachusetts  
Vice President: Lyndon B. Johnson





### 36 LYNDON B. JOHNSON

Born: 1908 Died: 1973  
 Years in Office: 1963–69  
 Political Party: Democratic  
 Home State: Texas  
 Vice President: Hubert H. Humphrey



### 37 RICHARD M. NIXON

Born: 1913 Died: 1994  
 Years in Office: 1969–74  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: California  
 Vice Presidents: Spiro T. Agnew,  
 Gerald R. Ford



### 38 GERALD R. FORD

Born: 1913  
 Years in Office: 1974–77  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: Michigan  
 Vice President: Nelson A. Rockefeller



### 39 JIMMY CARTER

Born: 1924  
 Years in Office: 1977–81  
 Political Party: Democratic  
 Home State: Georgia  
 Vice President: Walter F. Mondale



### 40 RONALD REAGAN

Born: 1911 Died: 2004  
 Years in Office: 1981–89  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: California  
 Vice President: George Bush



### 41 GEORGE BUSH

Born: 1924  
 Years in Office: 1989–93  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: Texas  
 Vice President: J. Danforth Quayle



### 42 BILL CLINTON

Born: 1946  
 Years in Office: 1993–2001  
 Political Party: Democratic  
 Home State: Arkansas  
 Vice President: Albert Gore Jr.



### 43 GEORGE W. BUSH

Born: 1946  
 Years in Office: 2001–  
 Political Party: Republican  
 Home State: Texas  
 Vice President: Richard B. Cheney



# Supreme Court Decisions

## *Gibbons v. Ogden* (1824)

**Significance:** The first case to deal with the commerce clause of the Constitution, *Gibbons v. Ogden* reaffirmed Congress's exclusive power to regulate interstate and foreign commerce.

**Background:** Aaron Ogden held a monopoly license issued by New York state to operate a steamboat ferry service between New Jersey and New York. Thomas Gibbons had a federal license to travel along the coast and began operating a competing ferry between New York and New Jersey. Ogden sued to protect his monopoly and won. Gibbons appealed the decision to the Supreme Court.

**Decision:** By a vote of 6–0, the Court ruled in favor of Gibbons. Chief Justice John Marshall wrote the opinion. The Court determined that the states could regulate transportation within their own borders but not between states. The power to regulate commerce between states belonged only to Congress, so Gibbons's federal license was valid. The ruling broadly defined commerce to include more than simply the exchange of goods, but also the transportation of people and the use of new inventions such as the steamboat.

## *Worcester v. Georgia* (1832)

**Significance:** This case showed the limits of the Court's power to enforce one of its decisions if it chose not to use further legal action to compel cooperation. As a result, Georgia and other states continued to force American Indian tribes off lands protected by treaties with the federal government.

**Background:** The state of Georgia wanted to remove Cherokee Indians from lands the Indians held by federal treaty. Samuel Worcester, a mis-

sionary who worked with the Cherokee Nation, was arrested and convicted for refusing to leave the lands. Worcester appealed, charging that Georgia had no legal authority on Cherokee lands.

**Decision:** This case was decided in favor of Worcester by a 5–1 vote. Chief Justice John Marshall spoke for the majority, which ruled that the Cherokee Nation was "a distinct community occupying its own territory." Under the Constitution and the treaties between the United States and the Cherokees, only the federal government, and not the state of Georgia, had the power to control dealings with the Cherokee people. Georgia defied the decision, and President Andrew Jackson refused to act to uphold the Supreme Court's decision.

## *Civil Rights Cases* (1883)

**Significance:** This decision limited Congress's ability to outlaw "whites only" facilities. As a result, blacks in many areas continued to be subject to inferior treatment. This situation continued until the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s led to new civil rights laws based on the commerce clause rather than on the Fourteenth Amendment.

**Background:** After the Civil War, many facilities of public accommodation like hotels, theaters, restaurants, and buses were restricted to whites only, or had separate (and often inferior) sections for blacks. In the Civil Rights Act of 1875, Congress attempted to outlaw this race-based discrimination. The U.S. government and blacks who had been denied admission to these facilities brought a series of cases seeking to enforce the Act. The cases were appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court and were combined for decision.

Justice Scalia



Justice Ginsberg



Justice Souter



Justice Roberts



Justice Alito





**Decision:** In an opinion by Justice Joseph P. Bradley, the Court ruled that although the Fourteenth Amendment prohibited racial discrimination by state and federal governments, it did not give Congress the power to outlaw discrimination by state individuals or businesses. Because the law was beyond Congress's authority, it was ruled unconstitutional.

Justice John Harlan wrote a strong dissent, stating that many states were refusing to protect basic rights of black people and that Congress should have the power under the Fourteenth Amendment to make all citizens equal.

### **Wabash, St. Louis & Pacific R.R. v. Illinois (1886)**

**Significance:** The ruling marked the end of railroad regulation by the individual states and led to the passage of the federal Interstate Commerce Act the following year. In preventing individual states from interfering with national commerce, the case helped develop a more unified national economy.

**Background:** In *Munn v. Illinois* (1877) the Supreme Court had allowed states to regulate rates of interstate commerce where Congress had not acted. Following the logic of that ruling, Illinois passed a law allowing it to control railroad rates by regulating the shipping contracts of railroads passing through Illinois. The state sued the Wabash, St. Louis & Pacific Railroad for not following the law. The railroad responded that the law did not apply to shipments going from Illinois to another state.

**Decision:** In a 6–3 decision written by Justice Samuel F. Miller, the Court drew back from *Munn v. Illinois* and overruled Illinois's railroad law. The commerce clause, the Court ruled, prevents states from imposing direct burdens on interstate commerce. This meant that states could not enact laws that interfered with the free flow of goods across the country.

Justice Stevens



Justice Breyer



### **United States v. E.C. Knight Co. (1895)**

**Significance:** The ruling was a major setback for federal antitrust regulation. Freed by this case from the fear of federal prosecution, manufacturers began a period of significant merger and consolidation. Manufacturing monopolies continued largely unrestricted until President Theodore Roosevelt tackled "trust busting" in the early 1900s.

**Background:** In the early 1890s, the American Sugar Refining Company bought out its major competitors. The purchases gave American Sugar Refining, owned by E.C. Knight Co., almost total control over the manufacturing of refined sugar in the United States. The U.S. government sued, claiming the company had violated the Sherman Antitrust Act. This act, passed in 1890, outlawed monopolies and prohibited "restraint of trade" in interstate commerce.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court ruled 8–1 in favor of Knight. Chief Justice Melville Fuller wrote the majority opinion, taking a very narrow view of commerce that distinguished the manufacture of goods from their sale. Under this analysis, Congress could regulate sales under the commerce clause, but it did not have the power to regulate manufacturing.

### **In Re Debs (1895)**

**Significance:** This case confirmed the federal government's power to get an injunction (court order) to end unlawful strikes and force striking workers to return to work. The government used injunctions to stop major strikes for the next 30 years.

**Background:** In 1894 workers making railroad cars at the Pullman Company rebelled against poor working conditions. After the company hired armed guards to subdue the protesters, the American Railroad Union refused to handle trains with Pullman cars. The strike disrupted rail service nationwide.

Justice Thomas



Justice Kennedy





and railroad managers sought federal intervention. The government claimed the strike was impeding interstate trade and interfering with delivery of the U.S. mail—a federal offense. When the union ignored a court order to stop the strike, the union's leader, Eugene V. Debs was jailed for contempt of court. He petitioned for release on the grounds that the order was unconstitutional.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court ruled unanimously against Debs. Justice David Brewer wrote that the federal government has control over interstate commerce and the delivery of the mails and therefore had the right to ask a judge to stop the strike. The strike created a public nuisance by interfering with the mail, so the judge acted correctly in ordering it stopped and in jailing Debs for contempt when he refused to obey the order.

### ***Northern Securities Co. v. United States* (1904)**

**Significance:** This ruling revived the federal government's power to prohibit monopolies, a power that had been undercut by *United States v. E.C. Knight Co.* (1895). The government's victory in this case resulted in the dissolution of the Northern Securities Company and paved the way for stricter regulation of large corporations.

**Background:** In 1901 three competing railroads that ran from the Pacific Northwest to the Great Lakes agreed to merge by turning over their stock to a new holding company, the Northern Securities Company. The U.S. government sued under the Sherman Antitrust Act. It claimed that the holding company was created to reduce competition in the railroad business and therefore violated the Sherman Act's prohibition on restraint of commerce. The Northern Securities Company argued that it merely owned the railways' stock and did not itself engage in commerce. It was a state-chartered corporation, and federal interference would violate state powers protected by the Tenth Amendment.

**Decision:** In a 5–4 decision, the Supreme Court sided with the government. The states can charter corporations, but corporations are still subject to federal law, and the Sherman Antitrust Act did apply in this case. The Court interpreted the act broadly, ruling that a business combination was illegal if it restrained commerce in any way, even if it didn't directly engage in commerce.

### ***Lochner v. New York* (1905)**

**Significance:** This decision limited the states' ability to regulate labor and industry. For more than 30 years, *Lochner* was used as a precedent to strike down state laws such as minimum-wage laws, child labor laws, and regulations on the banking and transportation industries.

**Background:** In 1895 the state of New York passed a labor law limiting bakers to working no more than 10 hours per day or 60 hours per week. The purpose of the law was to protect the health of bakers, who worked in hot, damp conditions and breathed in large quantities of flour dust. In 1902 Joseph Lochner, the owner of a small bakery in New York, claimed that the state law violated his Fourteenth Amendment due process rights by depriving him of the freedom to make contracts with employees.

**Decision:** The case was decided in Lochner's favor by a 5–4 vote. The Supreme Court ruled that the right to sell and buy labor was implicit in the Fourteenth Amendment's concept of personal liberty. Thus any state law restricting that right was unconstitutional. The Court rejected the argument that limited work hours were necessary to prevent worker exploitation.

### ***Muller v. Oregon* (1908)**

**Significance:** This was the first case in which the Supreme Court recognized social conditions (in this case, women's health) as a factor in judging the constitutionality of state laws. The decision marked the beginning of the Court's gradual retreat from the strict doctrine of *Lochner v. New York* (1905), which had appeared to prohibit state regulation of the workplace.

**Background:** In 1903 Oregon passed a law limiting workdays to 10 hours for women workers in laundries and factories. In 1905 Curt Muller's Grand Laundry was found guilty of breaking this law. Muller appealed, arguing (as Lochner successfully had) that the state law violated his freedom of contract. When the matter came to the Supreme Court, lawyer Louis D. Brandeis presented Oregon's case in a novel and compelling way. He supplied not only legal arguments, but also medical, social, and economic data on the impact of long working hours on women's health.

**Decision:** In 1908 a unanimous Supreme Court upheld the Oregon law. The Court agreed that the government had a legitimate interest in women's well-being and concluded that the 10-hour law was a valid way of protecting that interest. Although the Court did not overrule *Lochner*, it did show a



willingness to accept some workplace regulation as justifiable.

### **Watkins v. United States (1957)**

**Significance:** This decision recognized limits on congressional investigations. Congress may not expose the private affairs of citizens unless they pertain to a legitimate legislative inquiry.

**Background:** In 1954 the House Un-American Activities Committee was investigating communists. The committee subpoenaed John Watkins, a labor organizer, to testify. Watkins was willing to answer questions about his affiliation with the Communist Party and also to identify current party members. He refused, however, to name people who had left the party. Watkins was convicted for contempt of Congress, a federal offense.

**Decision:** Chief Justice Earl Warren wrote the Court's 6–1 decision holding that Watkins's conviction violated the due process clause of the Fifth Amendment. Watkins did not have to answer questions unrelated to the official inquiry of the committee. The Court ruled that the committee had to clearly define the scope of its inquiry and establish the relevance of questions about former members of the Communist Party.

### **Mapp v. Ohio (1961)**

**Significance:** This decision created the legal rule that states cannot use evidence obtained from an illegal search in state criminal proceedings.

**Background:** In 1957 the police forced their way into Dollree Mapp's house without a search warrant. They were looking for a suspected bomber, but instead they found obscene pictures. Mapp was arrested and convicted for possession of pornography—a crime in Ohio. Mapp appealed to the Supreme Court, which had ruled in 1914 that evidence illegally obtained by the police could not be used in a federal criminal prosecution. The purpose of this “exclusionary rule” was to encourage the police to respect individuals' Fourth Amendment rights. However, until the *Mapp* case, states could decide for themselves whether to follow the exclusionary rule.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court ruled in Mapp's favor, 6–3. The majority held that the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment makes the protections of the Fourth Amendment apply to the states. Thus the exclusionary rule applies in state criminal cases as well as in federal court.

### **Baker v. Carr (1962)**

**Significance:** This decision held that federal courts could review apportionment, or the distribution of seats, in state legislatures. The case led to the widespread redrawing of legislative districts to equalize representation and ensure “one person, one vote.” As a result, political power shifted from rural to urban areas in most states.

**Background:** Many states had kept the same legislative district lines for decades, despite dramatic population shifts as people moved from the country to the cities. In Tennessee rural voters made up a minority of the population, but they had far more representatives in government than urban voters. Charles Baker and others brought suit against Joseph Carr, the Tennessee secretary of state, claiming that as urban dwellers, their votes were so diluted that they were denied equal protection under the law. The case reached the Supreme Court after being dismissed by the federal district court, which considered apportionment a political question to be decided by the legislature.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court did not rule on the legality of Tennessee's voting districts. However, it affirmed that the courts can indeed consider such cases. Justice William Brennan wrote that a state's failure to apportion its legislative districts equally would violate the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Thus Baker's constitutional rights were at stake, and the case went back to the federal district court for trial.

### **Engel v. Vitale (1962)**

**Significance:** This was a landmark case on the subject of religious freedom. In a ruling that remains highly controversial, the Supreme Court held that state-sponsored prayer in public schools is unconstitutional. Attempts have since been made to amend the Constitution to permit prayer, but none have succeeded.

**Background:** The New York Board of Regents wrote a short, nondenominational prayer for students to say at the beginning of the school day. A group of parents sued, arguing that the prayer violated the establishment clause of the First Amendment—the clause banning the establishment of religion. Although students could remain silent during the prayer, the parents claimed they would always feel pressure to join in the recitation.

**Decision:** By a 7–1 margin, the Court agreed with the parents and invalidated the school prayer. Justice Hugo Black wrote for the majority. He pointed



out that prayer is clearly a religious activity and that under the First Amendment, promoting prayer "is no part of the business of government." The lone dissenter, Justice Potter Stewart, argued that the establishment clause forbids only the creation of an official state religion; it should not be interpreted to deny schoolchildren the opportunity to pray voluntarily.

---

### ***Gideon v. Wainwright* (1963)**

**Significance:** This case established the right of all criminal defendants to be given a lawyer if they cannot afford one. The ruling reflected a growing concern to ensure equal justice for the poor.

**Background:** Clarence Earl Gideon was accused of robbery in Florida. Gideon could not afford a lawyer for his trial, and the judge refused to supply him with one for free. Gideon tried to defend himself and was found guilty. He eventually appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, claiming that the lower court's denial of a court-appointed lawyer violated his Sixth and Fourteenth Amendment rights.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court ruled unanimously in Gideon's favor in 1963. The Court agreed that the Sixth Amendment's right to counsel requires the government to provide a lawyer if the defendant cannot afford one. The Court also agreed that the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment makes the Sixth Amendment's right to counsel binding on the states as well as on the federal government.

---

### ***Heart of Atlanta Motel v. United States* (1964)**

**Significance:** This decision upheld the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which banned racial discrimination in places of public accommodation.

**Background:** The owner of the Heart of Atlanta Motel, a whites-only facility that served many interstate travelers, sued to overturn the Civil Rights Act of 1964. His primary argument was that the law went beyond Congress's authority to regulate interstate commerce under the commerce clause. A trial court ruled against the motel, and the owner appealed to the Supreme Court.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court found that Congress had carefully limited Title II of the Civil Rights Act to facilities that had a direct and substantial relation to the interstate flow of goods and people. Testimony before Congress had shown that Americans were increasingly mobile and that black travelers in particular often faced difficulty finding accommodations. Writing for a unanimous court, Justice Tom C. Clark concluded that Title II was therefore

a valid exercise of congressional power under the commerce clause.

---

### ***Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* (1969)**

**Significance:** This case established the right of public school students to express political opinions at school.

**Background:** Some high school and junior high school students in Des Moines, Iowa, planned to wear black armbands to school to show their opposition to the Vietnam War. Two days before they were going to start this protest, the school board created a new policy forbidding armbands at school. Three students, including Mary Beth Tinker and John Tinker, wore the armbands and were suspended. They sued the school district, claiming that the armband rule violated their First Amendment right of free speech.

**The Decision:** By a 7–2 margin, the Court agreed with the students. Justice Abe Fortas wrote that students do not "shed their constitutional rights to freedom of speech . . . at the schoolhouse gate." Protected speech includes not only spoken words but also "symbolic speech," or acts that express an opinion. Although school officials have the right to set rules, these rules must respect the First Amendment. Here the students had not been disruptive and their armbands did not interfere with anyone else's rights. Also, students were allowed to wear other political symbols, such as campaign buttons. School officials could not constitutionally pick which opinions students could express and which would be prohibited.

---

### ***Reed v. Reed* (1971)**

**Significance:** This was the first case to hold that gender discrimination violates the Fourteenth Amendment equal protection clause. *Reed v. Reed* case was later used to strike down other statutes that discriminated against women.

**Background:** Cecil and Sally Reed were separated when their son Richard died. Each parent asked to be appointed administrator of Richard's modest estate. According to Idaho law at that time, when picking between two equally qualified administrators, "males must be preferred to females." When the judge appointed Cecil as the law required, Sally sued, challenging the gender preference in the law.

**Decision:** Chief Justice Warren Burger wrote the unanimous Supreme Court decision. Although some distinctions based on gender are permissible, the distinction must be reasonable rather than



arbitrary. Because there is no reason to assume that men will be better administrators than women, the law did not have any rational basis. The Court therefore ruled that the law was unconstitutional. This did not mean that Sally would automatically get appointed, but it did require the appointing judge to assess her qualifications and make a considered choice between her and Cecil.

### **Roe v. Wade (1973)**

**Significance:** This case established a woman's right to an abortion as part of the constitutional right of privacy. The decision led to an ongoing battle in American politics between "pro-life" and "pro-choice" voters.

**Background:** In 1970 an unmarried, pregnant Texas woman filed suit to overturn the state's anti-abortion law. Texas, like many other states, had made it a crime for anyone to perform an abortion except to save the life of the mother. The case was argued before the Supreme Court in 1971 and reheargued at the Court's request in 1972. The plaintiff was called by a fictitious name, Jane Roe, to protect her privacy.

**Decision:** The Court voted 7–2 to invalidate the Texas law. Writing for the majority, Justice Harry Blackmun concluded that a woman's rights to privacy and control over her own body needed to be balanced against the state's interest in protecting maternal health and preserving the potentiality of human life. During the first trimester (three-month period) of pregnancy, abortion would be at the discretion of the woman and her physician. During the second trimester the state could impose restrictions related to the woman's health. In the final trimester the state could prohibit abortions entirely except where medically necessary to protect the life or health of the mother. Blackmun also concluded that the fetus did not have rights under the Fourteenth Amendment because the original intent of the Constitution and of that amendment was not to consider an unborn child as a "person." Justice Byron White wrote a strong dissent saying that nothing in the Constitution guaranteed the right to abortion.

### **United States v. Nixon (1974)**

**Significance:** This decision led to the resignation of President Richard Nixon. The case confirmed that the president is not above the law and that the Supreme Court makes the final decision on constitutional questions.

**Background:** In 1972 senior Nixon administration officials helped plan, and then cover up, a break-in at the Democratic Party's campaign headquarters

in the Watergate building in Washington. After the break-in came to light, a special prosecutor began a criminal investigation. He subpoenaed President Nixon to turn over secret tape recordings of conversations with his aides, but Nixon refused. He claimed "executive privilege," a right that past presidents had asserted to withhold information from other branches of government in order to protect confidentiality or the public good.

**Decision:** In a unanimous opinion written by Chief Justice Warren Burger, the Supreme Court ordered President Nixon to deliver his secret Oval Office tapes to the special prosecutor. The Court insisted that the president is not immune from the judicial process. Executive privilege may be invoked under certain circumstances, but in this case, President Nixon did not claim that military, diplomatic, or sensitive national security matters were at stake. Moreover, under the constitutional separation of powers, the legitimate needs of the courts in criminal proceedings may outweigh the President's need for confidentiality.

### **Texas v. Johnson (1989)**

**Significance:** This case decided whether the First Amendment allows the burning of the U.S. flag as a form of symbolic speech. The decision has been controversial because it involves the flag, one of our national symbols. Since this case was decided, several amendments banning flag burning have been proposed in Congress but have not been adopted.

**Background:** Gregory Lee Johnson burned an American flag as part of a political demonstration during the 1984 Republican National Convention in Dallas, Texas. Johnson was convicted of violating a Texas law that made it a crime to desecrate, or treat disrespectfully, the national flag. He was sentenced to one year in prison and fined \$2,000. The Texas Court of Criminal Appeals reversed Johnson's conviction, reasoning that burning the flag was a form of symbolic speech protected by the First Amendment. Texas then appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court.

**Decision:** The Court ruled for Johnson, 5–4, in an opinion written by Justice William Brennan. Brennan accepted the argument that flag burning is constitutionally protected as a form of symbolic speech—like the students wearing armbands in *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* (1969). Brennan recognized that many people might be deeply upset by Johnson's actions, but he wrote that "government may not prohibit the expression of an idea [because it is] offensive." Chief Justice William Rehnquist dissented, writing that "for more than 200 years, the



American flag has occupied a unique position as the symbol of our Nation, a uniqueness that justifies a governmental prohibition against flag burning in the way respondent Johnson did here.”

### ***Cruzan v. Director, Missouri Department of Health (1990)***

**Significance:** This was the first “end of life” medical treatment case to reach the Supreme Court. In its ruling, the Court recognized that even unconscious patients have the right to refuse medical care (through their parents or guardians). At the same time, the Court allowed the states flexibility in setting standards for deciding whether to approve the termination of treatment.

**Background:** Nancy Cruzan was seriously injured in an auto accident. Because she was unable to swallow, her doctors put in a feeding tube to give her food and liquids. She remained unconscious in a persistent vegetative state for years afterwards. Eventually, when it became clear that she had virtually no chance of improvement, her parents asked the Missouri Supreme Court to instruct the doctors to stop administering food and liquids artificially. This action would have ended Cruzan’s life. The state court denied the parents’ request because they had not presented “clear and convincing” evidence of what their daughter would have wanted, as required by Missouri law. The parents then asked the U.S. Supreme Court to hear the case.

**Decision:** Chief Justice William Rehnquist wrote for the majority in a 5–4 decision. He stated that Missouri could constitutionally decline to grant the parents’ request where they had not presented “clear and convincing” evidence that Cruzan herself would have wanted feeding and hydration discontinued. Although the Court upheld the state’s right to set standards for deciding when medical treatment can be terminated, it also was willing to assume that people have a constitutional right to refuse life-sustaining medical treatment such as feeding by a tube. The decision left open the possibility that the parents could return to the trial court with more conclusive evidence of their daughter’s wishes, which they eventually did. The trial court ultimately authorized removal of the feeding tube, and Cruzan died soon afterwards.

### ***Planned Parenthood of Southeastern Pennsylvania v. Casey (1992)***

**Significance:** This case upheld the basic premise of *Roe v. Wade*, even though the Supreme Court had

become more conservative with the appointment of several new justices. The decision introduced a more flexible legal approach that gave state legislatures more leeway in imposing restrictions on abortions.

**Background:** Pennsylvania’s 1982 Abortion Control Act outlined three conditions that had to be met before an abortion could be performed. First, under an “informed consent” rule, doctors were required to tell women the health risks and possible complications of having an abortion. This information had to be provided at least 24 hours in advance of the procedure. Second, a “spousal notification” rule required married women to notify their husbands. Third, a “parental notification” rule required minors to notify their parents. Five abortion clinics and one physician brought suit to challenge the constitutionality of these requirements.

**Decision:** The Supreme Court issued a plurality decision, meaning that no single opinion had the support of a majority of the justices. Justices Sandra Day O’Connor, Anthony Kennedy, and David Souter wrote the plurality opinion and other justices joined in various parts. The decision created a new “undue burden” standard for abortion cases, saying that abortion laws must not have “the purpose or effect of placing a substantial obstacle in the path of a woman seeking an abortion of a nonviable fetus.” Using this standard, the Court invalidated the spousal notification requirement because it gave husbands too much control over their wives’ medical decisions and would be dangerous in cases of spousal abuse. However, the Court accepted the 24-hour waiting period and the informed consent and parental notification requirements, finding that none of these imposed an undue burden on abortion seekers.

### ***Vernonia School District v. Acton (1995)***

**Significance:** This decision allowed schools to administer drug tests to all students who wanted to play sports. The case paved the way for *Board of Education v. Earls* (2002), which allowed drug testing for students in all extracurricular activities.

**Background:** In an effort to reduce drug use, particularly among student athletes, the Vernonia (Oregon) School District started a program for random urinalysis drug testing of students participating in sports. Jason Acton signed up for seventh grade football, but he and his parents refused to sign the consent form for drug testing. When he was not allowed to play, he sued the school district. In his view, the drug testing constituted an unreasonable search of his body, in violation of the Fourth Amendment. The trial court dismissed the



case but an appellate court reinstated it. Eventually the case went to the Supreme Court.

**Decision:** In a 6–3 decision, the Supreme Court upheld the school district's drug testing policy. Justice Antonin Scalia wrote that the district's collection and testing of urine amounted to a reasonable search. Vernonia students could choose whether or not to go out for sports, and those who did could expect some restrictions and intrusions on their privacy. The urine samples were collected in ways that minimized the violation of students' privacy. However, given the government's interest in reducing student drug use, the extent of the search was reasonable and permissible. In dissent, Justice Sandra Day O'Connor argued that the blanket testing of student athletes was more intrusive and unreasonable than a suspicion-based testing of students who actually appeared to be using drugs.

### ***Bush v. Gore* (2000)**

**Significance:** As a practical matter, this case decided the 2000 presidential election, confirming George W. Bush as the winner. The question before the Court was whether ballots that could not be read by voting machines should be recounted by hand. The broader issue was whether the Supreme Court would overrule the Florida Supreme Court on its interpretation of Florida state law.

**Background:** The 2000 presidential election between Democrat Al Gore and Republican George W. Bush was extremely close. As the votes were counted, it became clear that the winner of Florida's electoral votes would win the election. According to the first count, Bush won the state of Florida by a few hundred votes, and Florida's Election Commission declared Bush the victor. However, about 60,000 ballots were not counted because of problems reading them mechanically. Gore challenged the outcome, and the Florida Supreme Court ordered counties to recount all those votes by hand. Bush appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, which ordered a halt to the recounts while it considered the case.

**The Decision:** On December 12, 2000, the Supreme Court voted 5–4 to end the hand recount of votes. The majority said that the Florida Supreme Court had ordered the recount without clarifying what was a valid vote. The contested ballots were not always clearly marked, and different vote counters might use different standards to tally them. The Court said that this inconsistency meant that votes were treated arbitrarily, based on a counter's choice rather than on fixed standards. This arbitrariness violated the due process and equal protection

clauses of the Constitution. Furthermore, because the deadline for counting the votes under Florida law had expired, there was no time for the state to create new rules for the recount.

### ***Hamdi v. Rumsfeld* and *Rasul v. Bush* (2004)**

**Significance:** These cases considered whether the Constitution's promise of due process applies to Americans or foreigners accused of fighting against the United States in its war on terror. The prisoners in both cases sought access to lawyers and the right to have their incarceration reviewed by an American court.

**Background Detaining American Citizens:** Yaser Hamdi, an American citizen, was captured in Afghanistan in 2001 and accused of fighting for the Taliban against the United States. The U.S. military declared Hamdi an "enemy combatant" and claimed the right to hold him indefinitely without trial and without access to an attorney.

























**Detaining Foreigners at Guantanamo Bay:** Shafiq Rasul and two other foreign nationals were captured abroad and confined for over two years at Guantanamo Bay Naval Base in Cuba. They tried to challenge the legality of their detention in the U.S. courts. Cuba leases the base to the United States. In a World War II era case, the Court had ruled that "if an alien is outside the country's sovereign territory, then . . . the alien is not permitted access to the courts of the United States to enforce the Constitution."

**Decisions:** Although there was no majority opinion in *Hamdi*, six justices agreed, the Court ruled 6–3 that Hamdi had a right to a limited hearing at which he could contest the government's determination that he was an enemy combatant. Justice Sandra Day O'Connor wrote that "a state of war is not a blank check for the president when it comes to the rights of the nation's citizens." Hamdi was ultimately released to Saudi Arabia in October, 2004, after agreeing to give up his U.S. citizenship.

In *Rasul*, a six-justice majority concluded that the prisoners had the right to go to the federal courts for review of their claims that they were unlawfully held in indefinite detention. The government eventually released two of the prisoners in *Rasul* and announced its intention to try the third before a military tribunal. Other cases have been filed challenging the constitutionality of the military tribunals.






















# Facts About the States

State	Year of Statehood	2005 Population	Area (Sq. Mi.)	Population Density (Sq. Mi.)	Capital
 Alabama	1819	4,527,166	50,744	89.2	Montgomery
 Alaska	1959	661,110	571,951	1.2	Juneau
 Arizona	1912	5,868,004	113,635	51.6	Phoenix
 Arkansas	1836	2,777,007	52,068	53.3	Little Rock
 California	1850	36,038,859	155,959	231.1	Sacramento
 Colorado	1876	4,617,962	103,718	44.5	Denver
 Connecticut	1788	3,503,185	4,845	723.1	Hartford
 Delaware	1787	836,687	1,954	428.2	Dover
 District of Columbia*	—	551,136	61	9,035.0	—
 Florida	1845	17,509,827	53,927	324.7	Tallahassee
 Georgia	1788	8,925,796	57,906	154.1	Atlanta
 Hawaii	1959	1,276,552	6,423	198.7	Honolulu
 Idaho	1890	1,407,060	82,747	17.0	Boise
 Illinois	1818	12,699,336	55,584	228.5	Springfield
 Indiana	1816	6,249,617	35,867	174.2	Indianapolis
 Iowa	1846	2,973,700	55,869	53.2	Des Moines
 Kansas	1861	2,751,509	81,815	33.6	Topeka
 Kentucky	1792	4,163,360	39,728	104.8	Frankfort
 Louisiana	1812	4,534,310	43,562	104.1	Baton Rouge
 Maine	1820	1,318,557	30,862	42.7	Augusta
 Maryland	1788	5,600,563	9,774	573.0	Annapolis
 Massachusetts	1788	6,518,868	7,840	831.5	Boston
 Michigan	1837	10,207,421	56,804	179.7	Lansing
 Minnesota	1858	5,174,743	79,610	65.0	St. Paul

\*Note: The District of Columbia is a Federal District; it is not a state.



State	Year of Statehood	2005 Population	Area (Sq. Mi.)	Population Density (Sq. Mi.)	Capital
 Mississippi	1817	2,915,696	46,907	62.2	Jackson
 Missouri	1821	5,765,166	68,886	83.7	Jefferson City
 Montana	1889	933,005	145,552	6.4	Helena
 Nebraska	1867	1,744,370	76,872	22.7	Lincoln
 Nevada	1864	2,352,086	109,826	21.4	Carson City
 New Hampshire	1788	1,314,821	8,968	146.6	Concord
 New Jersey	1787	8,745,279	7,417	1,179.1	Trenton
 New Mexico	1912	1,902,057	121,356	15.7	Santa Fe
 New York	1788	19,258,082	47,214	407.9	Albany
 North Carolina	1789	8,702,410	48,711	178.7	Raleigh
 North Dakota	1889	635,468	68,976	9.2	Bismarck
 Ohio	1803	11,477,557	40,948	280.3	Columbus
 Oklahoma	1907	3,521,379	68,667	51.3	Oklahoma City
 Oregon	1859	3,596,083	95,997	37.5	Salem
 Pennsylvania	1787	12,426,603	44,817	277.3	Harrisburg
 Rhode Island	1790	1,086,575	1,045	1,039.8	Providence
 South Carolina	1788	4,239,310	30,109	140.8	Columbia
 South Dakota	1889	771,803	75,885	10.2	Pierre
 Tennessee	1796	5,965,317	41,217	144.7	Nashville
 Texas	1845	22,775,044	261,797	87.0	Austin
 Utah	1896	2,417,998	82,144	29.4	Salt Lake City
 Vermont	1791	630,979	9,250	68.2	Montpelier
 Virginia	1788	7,552,581	39,594	190.8	Richmond
 Washington	1889	6,204,632	66,544	93.2	Olympia
 West Virginia	1863	1,818,887	24,078	75.5	Charleston
 Wisconsin	1848	5,554,343	54,310	102.3	Madison
 Wyoming	1890	507,268	97,100	5.2	Cheyenne



# American Flag



**T**he American flag is a symbol of the nation. It is recognized instantly, whether as a big banner waving in the wind or a tiny emblem worn on a lapel. The flag is so important that it is a major theme of the national anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner." One of the most popular names for the flag is the Stars and Stripes. It is also known as Old Glory.

## THE MEANING OF THE FLAG

The American flag has 13 stripes—7 red and 6 white. In the upper-left corner of the flag is the union—50 white five-pointed stars against a blue background.

The 13 stripes stand for the original 13 American states, and the 50 stars represent the states of the nation today. According to the U.S. Department of State, the colors of the flag also are symbolic:

Red stands for courage.

White symbolizes purity.

Blue is the color of vigilance, perseverance, and justice.

## DISPLAYING THE FLAG

It is customary not to display the American flag in bad weather. It is also customary for the flag to be displayed outdoors only from sunrise to sunset, except on certain occasions. In a few special places, however, the flag is always flown day and night. When flown at night, the flag should be illuminated.

Near a speaker's platform, the flag should occupy the place of honor at the speaker's right. When carried in a parade with other flags, the American flag should be on the marching right or in front at the center. When flying with the flags of the 50 states, the national flag must be at the center and the highest point. In a group of national flags, all should be of equal size and all should be flown from staffs, or flagpoles, of equal height.

The flag should never touch the ground or the floor. It should not be marked with any insignia, pictures, or words. Nor should it be used in any disrespectful way—as an advertising decoration, for instance. The flag should never be dipped to honor any person or thing.

## SALUTING THE FLAG

The United States, like other countries, has a flag code, or rules for displaying and honoring the flag. For example, all those present should stand at attention facing the flag and salute it when it is being raised or lowered or when it is carried past them in a parade or procession. A man wearing a hat should take it off and hold it with his right hand over his heart. All women and hatless men should stand with their right hands over their hearts to show their respect for the flag. The flag should also receive these honors during the playing of the national anthem and the reciting of the Pledge of Allegiance.

## THE PLEDGE OF ALLEGIANCE

The Pledge of Allegiance was written in 1892 by Massachusetts magazine (*Youth's Companion*) editor Francis Bellamy. (Congress added the words "under God" in 1954.)

*I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the republic for which it stands, one nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.*

Civilians should say the Pledge of Allegiance with their right hands placed over their hearts. People in the armed forces give the military salute. By saying the Pledge of Allegiance, we promise loyalty ("pledge allegiance") to the United States and its ideals.



# American Flag



**T**he American flag is a symbol of the nation. It is recognized instantly, whether as a big banner waving in the wind or a tiny emblem worn on a lapel. The flag is so important that it is a major theme of the national anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner." One of the most popular names for the flag is the Stars and Stripes. It is also known as Old Glory.

## THE MEANING OF THE FLAG

The American flag has 13 stripes—7 red and 6 white. In the upper-left corner of the flag is the union—50 white five-pointed stars against a blue background.

The 13 stripes stand for the original 13 American states, and the 50 stars represent the states of the nation today. According to the U.S. Department of State, the colors of the flag also are symbolic:

- Red stands for courage.
- White symbolizes purity.
- Blue is the color of vigilance, perseverance, and justice.

## DISPLAYING THE FLAG

It is customary not to display the American flag in bad weather. It is also customary for the flag to be displayed outdoors only from sunrise to sunset, except on certain occasions. In a few special places, however, the flag is always flown day and night. When flown at night, the flag should be illuminated.

Near a speaker's platform, the flag should occupy the place of honor at the speaker's right. When carried in a parade with other flags, the American flag should be on the marching right or in front at the center. When flying with the flags of the 50 states, the national flag must be at the center and the highest point. In a group of national flags, all should be of equal size and all should be flown from staffs, or flagpoles, of equal height.

The flag should never touch the ground or the floor. It should not be marked with any insignia, pictures, or words. Nor should it be used in any disrespectful way—as an advertising decoration, for instance. The flag should never be dipped to honor any person or thing.

## SALUTING THE FLAG

The United States, like other countries, has a flag code, or rules for displaying and honoring the flag. For example, all those present should stand at attention facing the flag and salute it when it is being raised or lowered or when it is carried past them in a parade or procession. A man wearing a hat should take it off and hold it with his right hand over his heart. All women and hatless men should stand with their right hands over their hearts to show their respect for the flag. The flag should also receive these honors during the playing of the national anthem and the reciting of the Pledge of Allegiance.

## THE PLEDGE OF ALLEGIANCE

The Pledge of Allegiance was written in 1892 by Massachusetts magazine (*Youth's Companion*) editor Francis Bellamy. (Congress added the words "under God" in 1954.)

*I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the republic for which it stands, one nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.*

Civilians should say the Pledge of Allegiance with their right hands placed over their hearts. People in the armed forces give the military salute. By saying the Pledge of Allegiance, we promise loyalty ("pledge allegiance") to the United States and its ideals.



# American Flag



**T**he American flag is a symbol of the nation. It is recognized instantly, whether as a big banner waving in the wind or a tiny emblem worn on a lapel. The flag is so important that it is a major theme of the national anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner." One of the most popular names for the flag is the Stars and Stripes. It is also known as Old Glory.

## THE MEANING OF THE FLAG

The American flag has 13 stripes—7 red and 6 white. In the upper-left corner of the flag is the union—50 white five-pointed stars against a blue background.

The 13 stripes stand for the original 13 American states, and the 50 stars represent the states of the nation today. According to the U.S. Department of State, the colors of the flag also are symbolic:

Red stands for courage.

White symbolizes purity.

Blue is the color of vigilance, perseverance, and justice.

## DISPLAYING THE FLAG

It is customary not to display the American flag in bad weather. It is also customary for the flag to be displayed outdoors only from sunrise to sunset, except on certain occasions. In a few special places, however, the flag is always flown day and night. When flown at night, the flag should be illuminated.

Near a speaker's platform, the flag should occupy the place of honor at the speaker's right. When carried in a parade with other flags, the American flag should be on the marching right or in front at the center. When flying with the flags of the 50 states, the national flag must be at the center and the highest point. In a group of national flags, all should be of equal size and all should be flown from staffs, or flagpoles, of equal height.

The flag should never touch the ground or the floor. It should not be marked with any insignia, pictures, or words. Nor should it be used in any disrespectful way—as an advertising decoration, for instance. The flag should never be dipped to honor any person or thing.

## SALUTING THE FLAG

The United States, like other countries, has a flag code, or rules for displaying and honoring the flag. For example, all those present should stand at attention facing the flag and salute it when it is being raised or lowered or when it is carried past them in a parade or procession. A man wearing a hat should take it off and hold it with his right hand over his heart. All women and hatless men should stand with their right hands over their hearts to show their respect for the flag. The flag should also receive these honors during the playing of the national anthem and the reciting of the Pledge of Allegiance.

## THE PLEDGE OF ALLEGIANCE

The Pledge of Allegiance was written in 1892 by Massachusetts magazine (*Youth's Companion*) editor Francis Bellamy. (Congress added the words "under God" in 1954.)

*I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the republic for which it stands, one nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.*

Civilians should say the Pledge of Allegiance with their right hands placed over their hearts. People in the armed forces give the military salute. By saying the Pledge of Allegiance, we promise loyalty ("pledge allegiance") to the United States and its ideals.





- Bernathy, Ralph** (1926–1990) Martin Luther King Jr.'s successor as head of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference; he led the Poor People's Campaign after King's death. (p. 939)
- Bess, Abigail** (1744–1818) Wife of President John Adams; mother of President John Quincy Adams, lawyer, and American feminist, she was also the first First Lady to live in what was later known as the White House. (p. 120)
- Benson, John** (1735–1826) American statesman; he was a delegate to the Continental Congress, a member of the committee that drafted the Declaration of Independence, vice president to George Washington and second president of the United States. (p. 115)
- Benson, John Quincy** (1767–1848) Son of President John Adams and secretary of state to James Monroe; he only formulated the Monroe Doctrine. He was the eighth president of the United States and later became representative in Congress. (p. 241)
- Benson, Samuel** (1722–1803) American revolutionary who led the agitation that led to the Boston Tea Party; he signed the Declaration of Independence. (p. 107)
- Benson, Jane** (1860–1935) American social worker and activist; she was the co-founder of Hull House, an organization that focused on the needs of immigrants. She won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1931. (p. 498)
- Benigno, Emilio** (1869–1964) Self-proclaimed President of the new Philippine Republic in 1899; he fought for Filipino independence from the United States. (p. 561)
- Benson, Marian** (1897–1993) Singer who fought discrimination in the 1930s; Eleanor Roosevelt arranged for her to perform on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial in 1939. (p. 723)
- Benson, Robert** (1805–1871) Union commander in charge of Fort Sumter when it was attacked by the Confederacy. (p. 357)
- Benson, Susan B.** (1820–1906) American social reformer; she was active in the temperance, abolitionist, and women's suffrage movements and was co-organizer and president of the National Woman Suffrage Association. (p. 532)
- Benson, Louis** (1901–1971) Leading African American jazz musician during the Harlem Renaissance; he was a talented trumpeter whose style influenced many later musicians. (p. 659)
- Benson, Neil** (1930–) American astronaut; he was the first man to set foot on the moon. (p. 1023)

- Arthur, Chester A.** (1829–1886) Vice president of the United States in 1880; he became the twenty-first president of the United States upon the death of James Garfield. (p. 502)
- Austin, Moses** (1767–1828) American banker who requested land in Texas from the Mexican government on which to build a colony; he died before he received the land and his son, Stephen Austin, later founded a colony there. (p. 303)
- Austin, Stephen F.** (1793–1836) American colonizer in Texas; after helping Texas win independence from Mexico, he became secretary of state for the Texas Republic. (p. 303)

## B

- Ball, Lucille** (1911–1989) Actress and star of the television comedy series *I Love Lucy*, one of the most popular programs of the 1950s. (p. 862)
- Baltimore, Lord** (1580?–1632) (also known as George Calvert) English and the first Lord Baltimore; he requested land to establish a colony for Catholics in America, but died before it was granted. His son, the second Lord Baltimore later established a settlement in Maryland in 1632. (p. 65)
- Barton, Clara** (1821–1912) Founder of the American Red Cross; she administered care to the Union soldiers during the American Civil War. (p. 378)
- Baruch, Bernard** (1870–1965) American business leader and head of the War Industries Board during World War I; he later advised many American political leaders. (p. 599)
- Beecher, Catharine** (1800–1878) American educator and the daughter of Lyman Beecher; she promoted education for women in such writings as *An Essay on the Education of Female Teachers*. She founded the first all-female academy. (p. 282)
- Bell, Alexander Graham** (1847–1922) American inventor and educator; his interest in electrical and mechanical devices to aid the hearing-impaired led to the development and patent of the telephone. (p. 479)
- Bell, John** (1797–1869) American politician; he was nominated for president in 1860 by the Constitutional Union Party because of his moderate pro-slavery and pro-Union views. (p. 342)
- Bethune, Mary McLeod** (1875–1955) African American leader and advocate; she served as Director of Negro Affairs in the National Youth Administration and led the Black Cabinet of unofficial African American advisors to Franklin D. Roosevelt. (p. 718)



**bin Laden, Osama** (1957–) Founder of al Qaeda, the terrorist network responsible for the attacks of September 11, 2001 and other attacks. (p. 1094)

**Booth, John Wilkes** (1838–1865) Actor and Confederate supporter who assassinated Abraham Lincoln. (p. 407)

**Bradford, William** (1590–1657) Leader of the Pilgrims who came to New England aboard the Mayflower and established a colony at Plymouth; he served as the governor of Plymouth from 1621 to 1656. (p. 52)

**Bradley, Omar** (1893–1981) American general who led the Allied troops in Operation Overlord during World War II. (p. 775)

**Breckinridge, John C.** (1821–1875) American politician; he served as vice president under President James Buchanan and ran for president as a Southern Democrat in 1860. (p. 342)

**Brown, John** (1800–1859) American abolitionist; he started the Pottawatomie Massacre in Kansas to revenge killings of abolitionists. He later seized the federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Virginia, to encourage a slave revolt. He was tried and executed. (p. 331)

**Brutus** Name used by Robert Yates (1738–1801), an American lawyer and leader of the Antifederalists, when writing letters to the Constitutional Convention in opposition of the Constitution. (p. 159)

**Bryan, William Jennings** (1860–1925) American lawyer and Populist politician, he favored the free coinage of silver, an economic policy expected to help farmers. He was a Democratic candidate for president in 1896 and was defeated by William McKinley. He later led the prosecution in the Scopes Trial. (p. 651)

**Buchanan, James** (1791–1868) American politician and fifteenth president of the United States; he was chosen as the Democratic nominee for president in 1854 for being politically experienced and not offensive to slave states. (p. 332)

**Burr, Aaron** (1756–1836) American soldier, lawyer, senator, and vice president of the U.S. (1801–1805); he shot and killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel in 1804, was arrested for treason against the U.S. in 1807 and later acquitted. His trial ended his political career. (p. 215)

**Bush, George H. W.** (1924–) American politician and the forty-first president of the United States; he was president at the end of the Cold War and during Operation Desert Storm. (p. 1059)

**Bush, George W.** (1946–) American politician and the forty-third president of the United States; the son of former president George H.W. Bush. (p. 1085)



**Calhoun, John C.** (1782–1850) American politician and supporter of slavery and states' rights; he served as vice president to Andrew Jackson and was instrumental in the South Carolina nullification crisis. (p. 249)

**Carmichael, Stokely** (1941–1998) Civil rights activist in the United States; he was an important leader of the black nationalism movement in the 1960s. (p. 935)

**Carnegie, Andrew** (1835–1919) American industrialist and humanitarian; he focused his attention on steelmaking and made a fortune through his vertical integration method. (p. 469)

**Carter, James Earl "Jimmy"** (1924–) Thirty-ninth president of the United States; he negotiated a peace agreement between Israel and Egypt. He was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace in 2002 for his work in international diplomacy. (p. 1033)

**Castro, Fidel** (1926–) Communist political leader of Cuba; he helped overthrow the Cuban government in 1959 and seized control of the country, exercising total control of the government and economy. (p. 880)

**Chamberlain, Neville** (1869–1940) British prime minister; he supported the policy of appeasement, allowing Hitler to gain land and power in the 1930s. (p. 745)

**Chaplin, Charlie** (1889–1977) British comedian and movie star; he became famous for playing the character of the "Little Tramp" in silent movies in the 1920s. (p. 662)

**Chávez, César** (1927–1993) American activist; he co-founded the National Farm Workers Association as part of his commitment to improving the working conditions of migrant workers on American farms. (p. 996)

**Chiang Kai-shek** (1887–1975) Leader of the Chinese Nationalist government and a strong U.S. ally; his government was defeated by the Communists in 1949. (p. 830)

**Chief Joseph** (c.1840–1904) Chief of the Nez Percé tribe; he led resistance against white settlement in the Northwest. He eventually surrendered, but his eloquent surrender speech earned him a place in American history. (p. 442)

**Churchill, Winston** (1874–1965) British prime minister; he opposed the policy of appeasement and led Great Britain through World War II. (p. 747)

**Clark, George Rogers** (1752–1818) American Revolutionary soldier and frontier leader; he captured the British trading village of Kaskaskia during the Revolution and encouraged Indian leaders to remain neutral. (p. 133)

**Clark, William** (1770–1838) American soldier and friend of Meriwether Lewis; he was invited to explore the Louisiana Purchase and joined what became known as the Lewis and Clark expedition. (p. 219)



**Clemenceau, Georges** (1841–1929) French Premier during World War I; he was a member of the Big Four at the Paris Peace Conference after World War I. (p. 607)

**Cleveland, Grover** (1837–1908) Twenty-second and twenty-fourth president of the United States; he promoted civil service reform and a merit system of advancement for government jobs. (p. 476)

**Clinton, Hillary Rodham** (1947–) American politician and lawyer; she was a particularly influential First Lady during her husband Bill Clinton's presidency. She was elected to the U.S. Senate in 2000. (p. 1079)

**Clinton, William Jefferson "Bill"** (1946–) Forty-second president of the United States; he became the second U.S. president to be impeached. (p. 1078)

**Columbus, Christopher** (1451–1506) Italian explorer who reached the Americas in 1492 while searching for a western sea route from Europe to Asia. (p. 30)

**Coolidge, Calvin** (1872–1933) Thirtieth president of the United States; he became president upon the death of President Warren G. Harding. He was known for his honesty and his pro-business policies. (p. 636)

**Cornwallis, Charles** (1738–1805) (Also known as Lord Cornwallis) British general and commander of the British army at the battle of Yorktown in 1781. After the defeat of the British army he was forced to surrender to the Americans, ending the American Revolution. (p. 134)

**Cortés, Hernán** (1485–1547) Spanish conquistador; he conquered Mexico and brought about the fall of the Aztec Empire. (p. 41)

**Coughlin, Father Charles** (1891–1979) Catholic priest and popular radio broadcaster; his broadcasts praised Hitler and criticized Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal policies. (p. 704)

**Creel, George** (1876–1953) Newspaper reporter and political reformer; he was appointed by President Woodrow Wilson to head the Committee on Public Information. (p. 603)

**Custer, George Armstrong** (1839–1876) American army officer in the Civil War; he became a Native American fighter in the West and was killed with his troops in the Battle of the Little Bighorn. (p. 441)

**Darrow, Clarence** (1857–1938) Famous American criminal lawyer; he defended John Scopes's right to teach evolution in the Scopes Trial. (p. 651)

**Davis, Jefferson** (1808–1889) First and only president of the Confederate States of America after the election of President Abraham Lincoln in 1860 led to the secession of many southern states. (p. 347)

**Debs, Eugene V.** (1855–1926) Leader of the American Railway Union and supporter of the Pullman strike; he was the Socialist Party candidate for president five times. (p. 476)

**Dewey, George** (1837–1917) Commander of the U.S. Navy's Asiatic Squadron; he led the attack in the Pacific during the Spanish-American War. (p. 560)

**Díaz, Porfirio** (1830–1915) Mexican general and politician; he was president and dictator of Mexico for a total of 30 years. He ruled the people of Mexico harshly but encouraged foreign investment. (p. 573)

**Dix, Dorothea** (1802–1887) American philanthropist and social reformer; she helped change the prison system nationwide by advocating the development of state hospitals to treat the mentally ill instead of imprisonment. (p. 269)

**Dole, Sanford B.** (1844–1926) American sugar tycoon; he helped overthrow Queen Liliuokalani and later served as president and governor of Hawaii. (p. 555)

**Doolittle, James** (1896–1993) U.S. Army officer; he won a promotion for leading a bombing raid on Tokyo and other Japanese cities during World War II. (p. 787)

**Douglas, Stephen A.** (1813–1861) American politician and pro-slavery nominee for president; he debated Abraham Lincoln about slavery during the Illinois senatorial race. He proposed the unpopular Kansas-Nebraska Act, and he established the Freeport Doctrine, upholding the idea of popular sovereignty. (p. 325)

**Douglass, Frederick** (1817–1895) American abolitionist and writer; he escaped slavery and became a leading African American spokesman and writer. He published an autobiography, *The Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass*, and founded the abolitionist newspaper, the *North Star*. (p. 288)

**Drake, Edwin L.** (1819–1880) He drilled the first commercial oil well in the United States, drawing oil prospectors to the West. (p. 461)

**Drake, Sir Francis** (c.1540–1596) English naval captain; he circumnavigated the globe in 1577, plundering Spanish ships and towns as he sailed. (p. 45)

**Du Bois, W. E. B.** (1868–1963) African American educator, editor, and writer; he led the Niagara Movement, calling for economic and educational equality for African Americans. He helped found the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). (p. 509)

**Dulles, John Foster** (1888–1959) Secretary of State under President Dwight D. Eisenhower; he favored building up the American nuclear arsenal as part of an effort to decrease Soviet influence around the world. (p. 849)



## E

**Earhart, Amelia** (1897–1937?) American pilot; she was the first woman to fly across the Atlantic Ocean and set many speed and distance records. She disappeared over the Pacific Ocean in 1937. (p. 663)

**Edison, Thomas Alva** (1847–1931) American inventor of over 1,000 patents; he invented the light bulb and established a power plant that supplied electricity to parts of New York City. (p. 480)

**Edwards, Jonathan** (1703–1758) Important and influential revivalist leader in the Great Awakening religious movement; he delivered dramatic sermons on the choice between salvation and damnation. (p. 86)

**Eisenhower, Dwight D.** (1890–1969) Thirty-fourth president of the United States; he led the Allied invasion of North Africa and the D-Day invasion of France and commanded the Allied forces in Europe during World War II. He faced many Cold War challenges as president. (p. 773)

**Emerson, Ralph Waldo** (1803–1882) American essayist and poet; he was a supporter of the transcendentalist philosophy of self-reliance. (p. 269)

**Equiano, Olaudah** (c.1750–1797) African American abolitionist; he was an enslaved African who was eventually freed, became a leader of the abolitionist movement, and wrote *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano*. (p. 82)

**Eriksson, Leif** (c.980–?) Viking seaman who was the first European to land on the continent of North America (p. 30)

**Evers, Medgar** (1925–1963) Head of the NAACP in Mississippi, he was shot and killed in front of his home in 1963 by a member of the Ku Klux Klan. (p. 922)

## F

**Falwell, Jerry** (1933–) American evangelist; he founded an organization called the Moral Majority that is known for its conservative views. (p. 1049)

**Farmer, James** (1920–1999) American civil rights leader and founder of the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE); he believed in the practice of nonviolence as a means of achieving his organization's goals. (p. 917)

**Fillmore, Millard** (1800–1874) Thirteenth president of the United States; he oversaw the passage of the Compromise of 1850. (p. 325)

**Finney, Charles Grandison** (1792–1875) American clergyman and educator; he became influential in the Second Great Awakening after a dramatic religious experience and conversion. (p. 267)

**Fitzgerald, F. Scott** (1896–1940) American writer famous for his novels and stories, such as *The Great Gatsby*, capturing the mood of the 1920s. He gave the decade the nickname the “Jazz Age.” (p. 664)

**Ford, Gerald R.** (1913–) Thirty-eighth president of the United States; he became President after the resignation of Richard Nixon. (p. 1031)

**Ford, Henry** (1863–1947) American business leader; he revolutionized factory production through use of the assembly line and popularized the affordable automobile. (p. 629)

**Franco, Francisco** (1892–1975) Fascist dictator of Spain; he led the nationalists to victory in the Spanish Civil War in the 1930s and controlled the Spanish government for nearly 40 years. (p. 742)

**Franklin, Benjamin** (1706–1790) American statesman; he was a philosopher, scientist, inventor, writer, publisher, first U.S. postmaster, and member of the committee to draft the Constitution. (p. 84)

**Franz Ferdinand, Archduke** (1863–1914) Heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary whose assassination by a Serb nationalist started World War I. (p. 582)

**Frémont, John** (1813–1890) American explorer, army officer, and politician; he was chosen as the first Republican candidate for president. Against the spread of slavery, he was rejected by all but the free states as a “single issue” candidate in the election of 1856. (p. 332)

**Friedan, Betty** (1921–2006) American feminist and writer; her book, *The Feminine Mystique*, explored the frustrations of women with their domestic lives in the 1950s and 1960s. (p. 988)

**Fulbright, J. William** (1905–1995) American politician, he was a U.S. senator from Arkansas who was chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee from 1959 to 1974 and strongly advocated peace talks in the Vietnam War. (p. 963)

**Fulton, Robert** (1765–1815) American engineer and inventor; he built the first commercially successful full-sized steamboat, the *Clermont*, which led to the development of commercial steamboat ferry services for goods and people. (p. 255)

## G

**Gálvez, Bernardo de** (1746–1786) Governor of Spanish Louisiana; he captured key cities from the British, greatly aiding the American Patriot movement and enabling the Spanish acquisition of Florida. (p. 134)

**Gandhi, Mohandas** (1869–1948) Leader of India's struggle for independence from Great Britain; he taught nonviolent resistance, which was later practiced by many civil rights leaders in the 1950s and 1960s. (p. 917)



- Garfield, James A.** (1831–1881) Twentieth president of the United States; he was elected in 1880 but was assassinated only months after inauguration. (p. 502)
- Garrison, William Lloyd** (1805–1879) American journalist and reformer; he published the famous antislavery newspaper, the *Liberator*, and helped found the American Anti-Slavery Society, promoting immediate emancipation and racial equality. (p. 288)
- Garvey, Marcus** (1887–1940) African American leader who promoted self-reliance for African Americans; he started the Universal Negro Improvement Society (UNIA), which urged African Americans to take pride in their heritage. (p. 656)
- Gates, Bill** (1955–) American computer programmer and entrepreneur; he co-founded Microsoft Corporation, the world's largest computer software company. (p. 1066)
- Gaulle, Charles de** (1890–1970) French military and political leader; he led the Free French government in World War II. He remained an important figure in France's postwar government. (748)
- Georg, David Lloyd** (1863–1945) British prime minister during World War I; he was a member of the Big Four at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. (p. 607)
- Geronimo** (1829–1909) Chiricahua Apache leader; he was captured for years and led an opposition struggle against white settlements in the American Southwest until his eventual surrender. (p. 442)
- Gershwin, George** (1898–1937) Composer whose famous piece "Rhapsody in Blue" showed the impact of jazz music on the 1920s. (p. 665)
- Giuliani, Rudolph** (1944–) American lawyer and politician; he was the mayor of New York City from 1993 to 2002 and was praised for his leadership after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. (p. 1093)
- Glidden, Joseph** (1813–1906) Farmer who received a patent for barbed wire in 1874. (p. 448)
- Göering, Hermann** (1893–1946) German Nazi leader and one of Hitler's top assistants; he played a key role in persecuting Jews and in making Germany a totalitarian Nazi state before and during World War II. (p. 783)
- Goldwater, Barry** (1909–1998) American politician; he was a U.S. senator from Arizona and the Republican Party's presidential candidate in 1964. He was known for his extreme conservatism. (p. 897)
- Gompers, Samuel** (1850–1924) American labor leader; he helped found the American Federation of Labor to campaign for workers' rights. (p. 475)
- Gonzales, Rodolfo "Corky"** (1928–2005) Politician and activist; he founded an urban civil rights group called the Crusade for Justice and was a leader in the Chicano movement in the 1960s. (p. 997)
- Gorbachev, Mikhail** (1931–) Russian politician; he was the last president of the Soviet Union before the country's collapse in 1991. (p. 1055)

- Gore, Al** (1948–) American politician; he was vice president under President Clinton and the Democratic presidential candidate in the 2000 election. (p. 1079)
- Grant, Ulysses S.** (1822–1885) Eighteenth president of the United States; he received a field promotion to lieutenant general in charge of all Union forces. He accepted General Robert E. Lee's surrender at Appomattox Courthouse, ending the Civil War. (p. 366)
- Greene, Nathaniel** (1742–1786) American general during the Revolution and commander of the Army of the South; he is credited with having saved the Southern colonies from the British army. (p. 134)
- Greenspan, Alan** (1926–) American economist; he became Federal Reserve Board Chairman in 1987. (p. 1068)
- Grenville, George** (1712–1770) English politician whose policy of taxing the American colonists contributed to the start of the American Revolution. (p. 94)
- Griffith, D.W.** (1875–1948) Filmmaker who produced *Birth of a Nation* during World War I, which introduced many advanced filmmaking techniques. (p. 662)
- Guthrie, Woody** (1912–1967) American singer and songwriter; he wrote and performed songs about the experiences of common people during the Great Depression. He wrote the song "This Land Is Your Land." (p. 685)
- Gutierrez, Jose Angel** (1944–) American activist; he was among a group of students to found the Mexican American Youth Organization (MAYO) to work for Mexican American rights. (p. 997)

## H

- Hamer, Fannie Lou** (1917–1977) American civil rights activist; she was a prominent leader of the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party. (p. 928)
- Hamilton, Alexander** (1755–1804) American statesman and member of the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention; he was an author of the *Federalist Papers*, which supported ratification of the Constitution. He was the first secretary of treasury under George Washington and developed the Bank of the United States. (p. 158)
- Harding, Warren G.** (1865–1923) Twenty-ninth president of the United States; his policies favored business, but his administration was known for scandals. (p. 635)
- Harrison, William Henry** (1773–1841) American politician; he served as the governor of Indian Territory and fought Tecumseh in the Battle of Tippecanoe. He was the ninth president of the United States. (p. 225)
- Hayes, Rutherford B.** (1822–1893) Nineteenth president of the United States; he was a Civil War general and hero and, in the disputed presidential election of 1876, he was chosen president by a special electoral committee. (p. 426)



**Hearst, William Randolph** (1863–1951) American journalist; he was famous for sensational news stories, known as yellow journalism, that stirred feelings of nationalism and formed public opinion for the Spanish-American War. (p. 559)

**Hiss, Alger** (1904–1996) Former U.S. government official who was accused in 1948 of participating in a Communist spy ring. He denied the charges, but was convicted of lying under oath in 1950. (p. 832)

**Hitler, Adolf** (1889–1945) Totalitarian dictator of Germany; his invasion of European countries led to World War II. He believed in the supremacy of the German Aryan race and was responsible for the mass murder of millions of Jews and others in the Holocaust. (p. 741)

**Ho Chi Minh** (1890–1969) Vietnamese revolutionary leader and president of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam from 1945 to 1969; he wanted to bring communism to South Vietnam. (p. 949)

**Hobby, Oveta Culp** (1874–1964) Director of the Women's Army Corps during World War II; she held the rank of colonel. She later became the second woman cabinet member by serving as secretary of health, education, and welfare. (p. 760)

**Hoover, Herbert** (1874–1964) Thirty-first president of the United States; he helped save Europe from starvation after World War I but as president failed to deal effectively with the Great Depression. (p. 674)

**Houston, Sam** (1793–1863) American lawyer, politician, and soldier; he led U.S. settlers in a fight to secure Texas against Mexico and was instrumental in Texas' admission to the United States in 1845. (p. 306)

**Huerta, Victoriano** (1854–1916) Mexican general and politician; he overthrew Madero as Mexican president and faced revolts with many revolutionary leaders. His government was not recognized by the United States. (p. 573)

**Hughes, Charles Evans** (1862–1948) American politician who served as secretary of state and participated in the Washington Naval Conference. He served on the Supreme Court and helped the court deal with controversial New Deal laws. (p. 639)

**Hughes, Langston** (1902–1967) African American poet who described the rich culture of African American life using rhythms influenced by jazz music. He wrote of African American hope and defiance, as well as the culture of Harlem and had a major impact on the Harlem Renaissance. (p. 657)

**Humphrey, Hubert** (1911–1978) American politician, he was vice president under President Johnson, and presidential candidate of the Democratic Party in 1968 after Johnson decided not to seek re-election. (p. 968)

**Hurston, Zora Neale** (1891–1960) African American writer and folklore scholar who played a key role in the Harlem Renaissance. (p. 654)

**Hussein, Saddam** (1937–) President of Iraq from 1979–2003; he began wars with Iran and Kuwait, and established a brutal dictatorship in Iraq. He was captured and removed from power in 2003 by American-led forces. (p. 1064)

**Hutchinson, Anne** (1591–1643) Puritan leader who angered other Puritans by claiming that people's relationship to God did not need guidance from ministers; she was tried and convicted of undermining church authorities and was banished from Massachusetts colony; she later established the colony of Portsmouth in present-day Rhode Island. (p. 54)



**Isabella, Queen** (1451–1504) Queen of Spain who, together with her husband, King Ferdinand II, believed in uniting Spain under Catholicism; she funded Columbus' expedition in search of the New World. (p. 26)



**Jackson, Andrew** (1767–1845) Nicknamed Old Hickory, he was an American hero in the Battle of New Orleans. He defeated the Creek Indians, securing 23 million acres of land and his election as the seventh president of the United States marked an era of democracy called Jacksonian Democracy. (p. 227)

**Jackson, Jesse** (1941–) American civil rights leader, minister, and politician; he was an adviser to Martin Luther King Jr. He became famous for his work on behalf of underprivileged peoples around the world, and mounted campaigns for the Democratic presidential nomination in the 1980s. (p. 941)

**Jackson, Thomas "Stonewall"** (1824–1863) American Confederate general; he led the Shenandoah Valley campaign and fought with Lee in the Seven Days' Battles and the First and Second Battles of Bull Run. (p. 364)

**Jay, John** (1745–1829) American statesman and member of the Continental Congress; he authored some of the Federalist Papers and negotiated Jay's Treaty with Great Britain to settle outstanding disputes. (p. 160)

**Jefferson, Thomas** (1743–1826) American statesman; he was member of two Continental Congresses, chairman of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, the Declaration's main author and one of its signers, and the third president of the United States. (p. 115)

**Jobs, Steve** (1955–) American entrepreneur; he founded Apple Computer in 1977, a company that helped popularize personal computers. (p. 1066)



**Johnson, Andrew** (1808–1875) American politician who became the seventeenth president of the United States upon the assassination of Lincoln. He was impeached for his unpopular ideas about Reconstruction and held onto the office by a one-vote margin. (p. 407)

**Johnson, Hiram W.** (1866–1945) Governor of California and U.S. senator; he helped form the Progressive Party, or Bull Moose Party, and ran as its vice presidential candidate with Theodore Roosevelt in 1912. (p. 543)

**Johnson, James Weldon** (1871–1938) NAACP leader and writer; he wrote poetry and, with his brother, the song "Lift Every Voice and Sing." He was a key figure in the Harlem Renaissance. (p. 657)

**Johnson, Lyndon B.** (1908–1973) Thirty-sixth president of the United States; he took office after the assassination of John F. Kennedy. (p. 882)

## K

**Kearney, Denis** (1847–1907) Irish immigrant leader of the Workingmen's Party; he opposed Chinese immigration in California in the late 1870s. (p. 494)

**Kearny, Stephen** (1794–1848) American general who fought in the Mexican-American War, leading forces that captured New Mexico and helping in the capture of California from Mexico. (p. 310)

**Kennan, George F.** (1904–) American diplomat and expert on the Soviet Union; he developed the U.S. policy of containment to counter Soviet expansion after World War II. (p. 819)

**Kennedy, Jacqueline** (1929–1994) American First Lady; she was the wife of President Kennedy and was known for her style and social grace. (p. 888)

**Kennedy, John F.** (1917–1963) Thirty-fifth president of the United States; he was the youngest person and the first Roman Catholic elected president. He was assassinated in Dallas, Texas in 1963. (p. 879)

**Kennedy, Robert** (1925–1968) American politician; he was Attorney General during his brother President Kennedy's presidency, and was assassinated during his bid for the 1968 Democratic presidential nomination. (p. 879)

**Keynes, John Maynard** (1883–1946) British economist; his revolutionary economic theory provided the basis for some of Franklin D. Roosevelt's successful policies. (p. 716)

**Khomeini, Ayatollah Ruhollah** (1900?–1989) Islamic leader who led a revolution to overthrow Iran's government in 1979; he ruled the country for the next ten years on a strongly anti-American platform. (p. 1038)

**Khrushchev, Nikita** (1894–1971) Leader of the Soviet Union during the building of the Berlin Wall and the Cuban Missile Crisis. He and President Kennedy signed the Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty in 1963, temporarily easing Cold War tensions. (p. 850)

**Kim Il Sung** (1912–1994) Communist leader of North Korea; his attack on South Korea in 1950 started the Korean War. He remained in power until 1994. (p. 836)

**King, Martin Luther Jr.** (1929–1968) American civil rights leader; he was a celebrated and charismatic advocate of civil rights for African Americans in the 1950s and 1960s. He was assassinated in 1968. (p. 914)

**Kissinger, Henry** (1923–) German-born political scientist; he was an important foreign policy advisor during the 1960s and 1970s. He won the Nobel Prize for Peace for negotiating the cease-fire agreement that ended the Vietnam War. (p. 973)

## L

**La Follette, Robert M.** (1855–1925) Progressive American politician; he was active in local Wisconsin issues and challenged party bosses. As governor, he began the reform program called the Wisconsin Idea to make state government more professional. (p. 527)

**Lafayette, Marquis de** (1757–1834) French statesman and officer who viewed the American Revolution as important to the world; he helped finance the Revolution and served as major general. (p. 130)

**Lange, Dorothea** (1895–1965) American photographer who recorded the Great Depression by taking pictures of the unemployed and rural poor. (p. 719)

**Lee, Robert E.** (1807–1870) American general; he refused Lincoln's offer to head the Union Army and agreed to lead Confederate forces. He successfully led several major battles until his defeat at Gettysburg, and he surrendered to the Union's Commander General Grant at Appomattox Courthouse. (p. 335)

**Lewis, John L.** (1880–1969) American labor leader, president of the United Mine Workers, and founder of the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO); he helped win labor victories through strategies such as the sit-down strike. (p. 712)

**Lewis, John** (1940–) American politician and civil rights activist; he took part in major protest and sit-ins in the 1960s and became the head of the Student Nonviolent Coordination Committee (SNCC). He was elected to Congress in 1986. (p. 941)

**Lewis, Meriwether** (1774–1809) Former army captain selected by President Jefferson to explore the Louisiana Purchase; he led the expedition that became known as the Lewis and Clark expedition. (p. 219)



**Liliuokalani** (1838–1917) Queen of the Hawaiian Islands; she opposed annexation by the United States but lost power in a U.S.-supported revolt, which led to the installation of a new government in Hawaii. (p. 555)

**Lincoln, Abraham** (1809–1865) Sixteenth president of the United States; he promoted equal rights for African Americans in the famous Lincoln-Douglas debates. He issued the Emancipation Proclamation and set in motion the Civil War; determined to preserve the Union. He was assassinated in 1865. (p. 338)

**Lindbergh, Charles A.** (1902–1974) American pilot; he became the first person to fly alone across the Atlantic Ocean nonstop in 1927. He was a hero to millions of Americans. (p. 662)

**Little Turtle** (1752–1812) Chief of the tribe of Miami and Shawnee Native Americans; he won the greatest victory Native Americans had ever achieved over white armies in 1791. (p. 211)

**Lodge, Henry Cabot** (1850–1924) U.S. senator and head of the Committee of Foreign Relations; he led the reservationists in opposition to the League of Nations. (p. 609)

**Long, Huey P.** (1893–1935) Louisiana politician and senator; he criticized the New Deal and set up the Share Our Wealth Society. He wanted to tax wealthy Americans and give more money to poor Americans. (p. 704)

**Longstreet, James** (1809–1865) Confederate general who commanded Pickett's Charge at the Battle of Gettysburg. (p. 384)

**Lowell, Francis** (1775–1817) American industrialist who developed the Lowell system. He hired young women to live and work in his mill. (p. 253)

**Lucas, Eliza** (1722–1793) Plantation manager in the Carolinas; she was the first person to successfully grow Indigo in the colonies. (p. 81)

**Luther, Martin** (1483–1546) German monk who protested against the Catholic Church in 1517; which led to calls for reform and the movement known as the Reformation. (p. 25)

## M

**MacArthur, Douglas** (1880–1964) American general, he commanded U.S. troops in the Southwest Pacific during World War II and administered Japan after the war ended. He later commanded UN forces at the beginning of the Korean War until he was removed by President Truman. (p. 787)

**Madero, Francisco** (1873–1913) President of Mexico after Porfirio Díaz fled the country; he tried to establish a democratic government in Mexico. (p. 573)

**Madison, James** (1751–1836) American statesman; he was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention, the fourth president of the United States, and the author of some of the *Federalist Papers*. He is called the "father of the Constitution" for his proposals at the Constitutional Convention. (p. 151)

**Malcolm X** (1925–1965) Well-known supporter of the Nation of Islam and black leader; he spoke in support of black separatism, black pride, and the use of violence for self-protection. (p. 936)

**Mandela, Nelson** (1918–) Former guerrilla fighter who helped end apartheid; he became the first black president of South Africa. (p. 1064)

**Mann, Horace** (1796–1859) American educator; he is considered the father of American public education. (p. 268)

**Mansa Musa** (died 1332) Leader of Mali who held power from 1307 to 1332. (p. 19)

**Mao Zedong** (1893–1976) Leader of the Chinese Communists, he led a successful revolution and established a Communist government in China in 1949. (p. 830)

**Marshall, George C.** (1880–1959) American general and politician; he led U.S. mobilization for World War II and helped plan the nation's war strategy. He also developed the postwar European Recovery Program called the Marshall Plan. (p. 759)

**Marshall, Thurgood** (1908–1993) American jurist; he was the first African American to serve on the Supreme Court. (p. 910)

**Martí, José** (1853–1895) Cuban writer and independence fighter; he was killed in battle but became a symbol of Cuba's fight for freedom. (p. 559)

**Mauldin, Bill** (1921–2003) American cartoonist whose World War II cartoons gave people at home a soldier's point of view on life in the army. (p. 795)

**McCarthy, Eugene** (1916–) American politician, he was a U.S. senator who vied for the 1968 Democratic presidential nomination against President Johnson. (p. 967)

**McCarthy, Joseph** (1908–1957) U.S. senator from Wisconsin who gained national fame in the late 1940s and early 1950s by aggressively charging that communists were working in the U.S. government. He lost support in 1954, after making baseless attacks on U.S. Army officials. (p. 833)

**McClellan, George** (1826–1885) American army general put in charge of Union troops and later removed by Lincoln for failure to press Lee's Confederate troops in Richmond. (p. 364)

**McGovern, George** (1922–) American politician; he was the Democratic candidate for the presidency in 1972 losing to Richard Nixon. (p. 976)



**McKinley, William** (1843–1901) Twenty-fifth president of the United States; he enacted protective tariffs in the McKinley Tariff Act of 1890 and acquired Cuba, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines during his administration. He was later assassinated. (p. 505)

**McNamara, Robert S.** (1916–) American businessman and public official; he was the U.S. secretary of defense from 1961–1968. (p. 967)

**McNickle, D'Arcy** (1904–1977) Native American activist; he drafted the Declaration of Indian Purpose, a document that asserted the rights of Native Americans in the United States. (p. 991)

**McPherson, Aimee Semple** (1890–1944) American fundamentalist preacher who was well-known for her glamorous presentation. (p. 650)

**Meade, George** (1815–1872) American army officer; he served as a Union general at major Civil War battles. He forced back General Lee's Confederate army at Gettysburg but failed to obtain a decisive victory. (p. 384)

**Mans, Russell** (1939–) One leader of the American Indian Movement. (p. 992)

**Meddith, James** (1933–) Civil rights activist who entered the University of Mississippi after being denied admission because of his race. His entrance led to violent riots on the school's campus. (p. 920)

**Mitchell, Billy** (1879–1936) American general who supported the development of air power in the military. (p. 639)

**Monroe, James** (1758–1831) Leading Revolutionary figure, negotiator of the Louisiana Purchase, and the fifth president of the United States. He put forth the Monroe Doctrine establishing the U.S. sphere of influence in the Western Hemisphere that became the foundation of U.S. foreign policy. (p. 241)

**Morse, Samuel F.B.** (1791–1872) American artist and inventor; he applied scientists' discoveries of electricity and magnetism to develop the telegraph. (p. 255)

**Mott, Lucretia** (1793–1880) American reformer; she planned the Seneca Falls Convention with Elizabeth Cady Stanton, the first organized meeting for women's rights in the United States. (p. 283)

**Muhammad, Askia** (?–1538) Ruler of the West African kingdom of Songhai from 1493–1528; he was known for encouraging a revival of Muslim learning during his rule. (p. 20)

**Muir, John** (1838–1914) Naturalist who believed the wilderness should be preserved in its natural state. He was largely responsible for the creation of Yosemite National Park in California. (p. 539)

**Mussolini, Benito** (1883–1945) Italian Fascist leader; he ruled as Italy's dictator for more than 20 years beginning in 1922 and made Italy a totalitarian state. His alliance with Adolf Hitler brought Italy into World War II. (p. 740)

N

**Nation, Carry** (1846–1911) Temperance advocate; she took extreme measures to further her cause by entering saloons in her native state of Kansas and smashing bottles of alcohol with a hatchet. (p. 531)

**Nast, Thomas** (1840–1902) American political cartoonist; he helped turn public attention to the corruption of Tammany Hall and Boss Tweed. (p. 501)

**Ngo Dinh Diem** (1901–1963) Vietnamese political leader; he became president of South Vietnam in 1955. He was assassinated in 1963. (p. 951)

**Nimitz, Chester** (1885–1966) American admiral; he won major victories in the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway, stopping the Japanese advance during World War II. (p. 788)

**Nixon, Richard M.** (1913–1994) Thirty-seventh president of the United States and vice-president under President Eisenhower; he resigned from his second term because of the Watergate scandal. (p. 849)

**North, Oliver** (1943–) Officer in the U.S. Marines, he is known for his role in the Iran-Contra affair. (p. 1058)

O

**O'Connor, Sandra Day** (1930–) First woman on the Supreme Court; she was appointed by President Reagan in 1981 and announced her resignation in 2005. (p. 1069)

**Oglethorpe, James** (1696–1785) English soldier and humanitarian; he founded the colony of Georgia as a haven where debtors from England could come and begin new lives. (p. 63)

**Oliver, James** (1823–1908) American plow maker who developed a new plow with a sharper edge that helped farmers plow their fields with much less effort. (p. 453)

**Olmsted, Frederick Law** (1822–1903) American landscape architect; he designed New York City's Central Park, Boston's "Emerald Necklace" network of parks, and other urban parks. (p. 496)

**Oppenheimer, J. Robert** (1904–1967) American physicist; he led the Manhattan Project laboratory in Los Alamos, which developed the first nuclear bomb. (p. 762)

**Oswald, Lee Harvey** (1939–1963) The accused assassin of President Kennedy. (p. 892)

**Otis, Elisha** (1811–1861) American mechanic and inventor; he invented the mechanized safety elevator. (p. 496)



## P

**Paine, Thomas** (1737–1809) American political philosopher and author; he urged an immediate declaration of independence from England in his anonymously and simply written pamphlet, *Common Sense*. (p. 117)

**Palmer, A. Mitchell** (1872–1936) U.S. attorney general and opponent of communism; he ordered the Palmer raids against radicals and aliens during the Red Scare of 1919 and 1920. (p. 624)

**Patton, George S.** (1847–1931) American general; he was involved in the Normandy invasion and the Battle of the Bulge during World War II. (p. 776)

**Parks, Rosa** (1913–2005) American civil rights activist; she was arrested in 1955 after refusing to give her seat on a public bus to a white man. Her arrest led to a widespread bus boycott that was an important chapter in the civil rights movement. (p. 914)

**Paul, Alice** (1885–1977) American social reformer, suffragist, and activist; she was the founder of the National Woman's Party (NWP) that worked to obtain women's suffrage. (p. 544)

**Penn, William** (1644–1718) Quaker leader who founded a colony in Pennsylvania; the colony provided an important example of representative self-government and became a model of freedom and tolerance. (p. 60)

**Perkins, Frances** (1882–1965) First American woman to head an executive or cabinet department; she served as secretary of labor in Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration. She played an important role in shaping New Deal jobs programs and labor policy. (p. 718)

**Pershing, John J.** (1860–1948) American army commander; he commanded the expeditionary force sent into Mexico to find Pancho Villa. He was the major general and commander in chief of the American Expeditionary Forces in World War I. (p. 575)

**Pierce, Franklin** (1804–1869) Fourteenth president of the United States; he condemned Kansas's free-soil government as rebels, which led to the Sack of Lawrence in 1856. (p. 331)

**Pike, Zebulon M.** (1779–1813) Army officer sent on a mission to explore the West; he was ordered to find the headwaters of the Red River. He attempted to climb what is now known as Pikes Peak in Colorado. (p. 219)

**Pinchot, Gifford** (1865–1946) Conservationist who was chief of the Forest Service. Under his leadership millions of acres of land were added to the national forests under his leadership. (p. 540)

**Pocahontas** (c.1595–1617) Algonquian princess; she saved the life of John Smith when he was captured and sentenced to death by the Powhatan. She was later taken prisoner by the English, converted to Christianity, and married colonist John Rolfe. (p. 47)

**Polk, James** (1795–1849) Eleventh president of the United States; he negotiated the establishment of the Oregon Territory for the U.S. and acquired much land as a result of the Mexican-American War. (p. 299)

**Pitt, William** (1708–1778) English leader in Parliament who opposed taxing American colonists, but also opposed their requests for independence. (p. 93)

**Ponce de León, Juan** (1460–1521) Spanish explorer who explored Puerto Rico and became its governor in 1509. In 1513 he discovered landed off the east coast of Florida while looking for a fabled "fountain of youth" and claimed the region for Spain. (p. 41)

**Pontiac** (c.1720–1769) Ottawa chief who united the Great Lakes' Indians to try to halt the advance of European settlements. He attacked British forts in a battle known as Pontiac's Rebellion and eventually surrendered in 1766. (p. 94)

**Popé** Indian shaman who led a revolt of Pueblo Indians in 1680 against the Spanish in present-day New Mexico, driving out the Spanish and restoring the Pueblo way of life. The Spanish retook the area upon his death in 1692, but the Pueblo culture remained a part of this region. (p. 44)

**Powderly, Terence V.** (1849–1924) American labor leader for the Knights of Labor; he removed the secrecy originally surrounding the organization, leading to its becoming the first truly national American labor union. (p. 474)

**Powhatan** (1550?–1618) Algonquin Indian chief who was the head of the Powhatan Confederacy of Algonquin Peoples; he was also the father of Pocahontas. (p. 47)

**Publius** (1811–1861) The author name used by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay when writing the *Federalist Papers*. (p. 160)

**Pulitzer, Joseph** (1847–1911) American journalist and newspaper publisher; he established the Pulitzer Prize for public service and advancement of education. (p. 559)

**Pyle, Ernie** (1900–1945) American journalist and war correspondent; he reported on World War II from the point of view of an ordinary soldier. (p. 795)

## R

**Randolph, A. Philip** (1889–1979) African American union and civil rights leader; his protests during World War II led President Roosevelt to ban discrimination in government and defense jobs. (p. 763)

**Reagan, Nancy** (1921–) Wife of President Ronald Reagan; she headed a campaign against drugs. (p. 1049)



**Reagan, Ronald** (1911–2004) American politician and the fortieth president of the United States; his presidency focused on arms control, economics, and the end of the Cold War. (p. 1046)

**Revels, Hiram** (1822–1901) American clergyman, educator, and politician; he became the first African American in the U.S. Senate. (p. 418)

**Rice, Condoleezza** (1954–) American educator and politician; she was national security adviser (2001–2005) and secretary of state (2005–) under President George W. Bush. (p. 1089)

**Riis, Jacob** (1849–1914) Newspaper reporter, reformer, and photographer; his book, *How the Other Half Lives*, shocked Americans with its descriptions of slum conditions and led to tenement housing legislation in New York. (p. 522)

**Robeson, Paul** (1898–1976) African American actor and singer who promoted African American rights and left-wing causes. (p. 659)

**Robinson, Jackie** (1919–1972) American baseball player; he was the first black player in the major leagues. (p. 910)

**Robespierre, Maximilien** (1758–1794) French general who led troops against the British Army during the Revolutionary War. (p. 134)

**Rockefeller, John D.** (1839–1937) American industrialist and philanthropist; he made a fortune in the oil business and used vertical and horizontal integration to establish a monopoly on the steel business. (p. 468)

**Rolfe, John** (1585–1622) English colonist who was the first tobacco grower in Virginia; he helped make tobacco a profitable export to England; he married the Algonquian princess Pocahontas. (p. 48)

**Rommel, Erwin** (1891–1944) German general during World War II; he commanded the Afrika Korps and was nicknamed the Desert Fox for his leadership. (p. 772)

**Roosevelt, Eleanor** (1884–1962) Wife of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, social reformer, writer, and diplomat; she supported equal rights for women and African Americans. She served as the first U.S. ambassador to the United Nations. (p. 700)

**Roosevelt, Franklin Delano** (1882–1945) Thirty-second president of the United States; he was elected president four times. He led the United States during the major crises of the Great Depression and World War II. (p. 699)

**Roosevelt, Theodore** (1858–1919) Twenty-sixth president of the United States; he focused his efforts on trust busting, environmental conservation, and strong foreign policy. (p. 535)

**Rumsfeld, Donald** (1932–) American public official; he has held various government positions including secretary of defense (1975–77; 2001–) (p. 1089)

## S

**Sacagawea** (1786?–1812) Shoshone woman who, along with French fur trapper husband, accompanied and aided Lewis and Clark on their expedition. (p. 219)

**Salk, Jonas** (1914–1995) Scientist who developed the polio vaccine in 1952. (p. 865)

**Santa Anna, Antonio López de** (1794–1876) Mexican general, president and dictator; he fought in the Texas Revolution and seized the Alamo but was defeated and captured by Sam Houston at San Jacinto. (p. 305)

**Schlaflly, Phyllis** (1924–) American conservative columnist; she is known for speaking out for conservative causes, such as her opposition to the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). (p. 989)

**Scott, Winfield** (1786–1866) American army general who fought in the War of 1812, the Mexican-American War, and the Civil War; he also ran for president in 1852 but lost the election. (p. 311)

**Selassie, Haile** (1892–1975) Emperor of Ethiopia; he resisted the Italian invasion of Ethiopia during World War II and later helped modernize Ethiopia. (p. 743)

**Sherman, William Tecumseh** (1820–1891) Union army officer; his famous March to the Sea captured Atlanta, Georgia, an important turning point in the war. (p. 391)

**Sinclair, Upton** (1878–1968) Novelist whose 1906 book, *The Jungle*, depicted the unsanitary conditions at a meatpacking plant. Public outcry from the book led to consumer-protection laws. (p. 538)

**Singleton, Benjamin "Pap"** (1809–1892) African American leader, community builder, and former slave; he encouraged African Americans to build their own communities in the West. He later supported Black Nationalism and encouraged African Americans to move to Africa. (p. 452)

**Sitting Bull** (c.1831–1890) Native American leader who became head chief of the entire Sioux nation. He encouraged other Sioux leaders to resist government demands to buy lands on the Black Hills reservations. (p. 441)

**Slater, Samuel** (1768–1835) English industrialist who brought a design for a textile mill to America; known as the founder of the American cotton industry. (p. 251)

**Smith, Bessie** (1898?–1937) African American blues singer who played an important part in the Harlem Renaissance. (p. 659)

**Smith, John** (c.1580–1631) English colonist to the Americas who helped found Jamestown Colony. (p. 47)

**Stalin, Joseph** (1879–1953) Totalitarian dictator of the Soviet Union; he led the Soviet Union through World War II and created a powerful Soviet sphere of influence in Eastern Europe after the war. (p. 742)



**Stanton, Elizabeth Cady** (1815–1892) American suffrage leader; she organized the Seneca Falls Convention with Lucretia Mott. The convention was the first organized meeting for women's rights in the United States. (p. 283)

**Steffens, Lincoln** (1865–1936) Muckraker and managing editor of *McClure's* magazine; he exposed government corruption in his 1904 book, *The Shame of the Cities*. (p. 523)

**Stevens, Thaddeus** (1792–1858) American lawyer and politician; he was the leader of the Radical Republicans in the Reconstruction effort and was an opponent and critic of Andrew Johnson's policies. (p. 406)

**Stockman, David A.** (1945–) American politician; he was appointed by President Reagan to help put his economic plan into action. (p. 1950)

**Stowe, Harriet Beecher** (1811–1896) American author and daughter of Lyman Beecher; she was an abolitionist and author of the famous antislavery novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. (p. 325)

**Sunday, Billy** (c.1862–1935) American fundamentalist minister; used colorful language and powerful sermons to drive home the message of salvation through Jesus and to oppose radical and progressive groups. (p. 650)

**Syngman Rhee** (1875–1965) Korean leader who became president of South Korea after World War II and led South Korea during the Korean War. (p. 836)

## T

**Taft, William Howard** (1857–1930) Twenty-seventh president of the United States; he angered progressives by moving cautiously toward reforms and by supporting the Payne-Aldrich Tariff. He lost Roosevelt's support and was defeated for a second term. (p. 541)

**Tarbell, Ida** (1857–1944) Investigative journalist; she wrote a report condemning the corrupt business practices of John D. Rockefeller in *McClure's* magazine. These articles became the basis for her book, *The History of the Standard Oil Company*. (p. 523)

**Taylor, Zachary** (1774–1850) American general and twelfth president of the United States; he led American troops during the Mexican-American War. He was the first president elected after the Mexican-American War, but died only 16 months after taking office. (p. 310)

**Tecumseh** (1768–1813) Shawnee chief who attempted to form an Indian confederation to resist white settlement in the Northwest Territory. (p. 225)

**Thomas, Clarence** (1948–) Associate justice on the Supreme Court; he was appointed in 1991 and was the second African American to serve on the court. (p. 1071)

**Thoreau, Henry David** (1817–1849) American writer and transcendentalist philosopher; he studied nature and published a magazine article, "Civil Disobedience," as well as his famous book, *Walden Pond*. (p. 274)

**Tocqueville, Alexis de** (1805–1859) French philosopher, politician and author; his work, *Democracy in America*, encouraged Americans to form their own culture rather than mimicking that of Europeans. (p. 288)

**Tojo, Hideki** (1884–1948) Japanese militarist and general; he took control of Japan during World War II. He was later tried and executed for war crimes. (p. 750)

**Townsend, Dr. Francis** (1857–1946) New Deal critic who focused on the needs of older Americans; his drive for a pension plan for retirees contributed to the formation of Social Security. (p. 706)

**Travis, William** (1809–1836) American lawyer and commander of Texas forces at the Alamo. (p. 306)

**Truman, Harry** (1884–1972) Thirty-third president of the United States; he became president upon the death of President Franklin D. Roosevelt. He led the United States through the end of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War. (p. 805)

**Tubman, Harriet** (c.1820–1913) American abolitionist who escaped slavery and assisted other enslaved Africans to escape. She is the most famous Underground Railroad conductor. (p. 266)

**Turner, Frederick Jackson** (1861–1932) American historian; he developed the idea that the existence of the frontier made the United States distinctive. (p. 451)

**Turner, Nat** (1800–1831) American slave leader; he claimed that divine inspiration had led him to end the slavery system. He led the most violent slave revolt in U.S. history; he was tried, convicted, and executed. (p. 286)

**Tweed, William Marcy** (1823–1878) American politician; he gained control of New York City's Tammany Hall became known as Boss Tweed. He was convicted of stealing from the New York City treasury. (p. 501)

**Tyler, John** (1790–1862) Tenth president of the United States; he favored annexation of Texas and signed the joint resolution of Congress into law three days before his term ended in 1845. (p. 309)

## V

**Van Buren, Martin** (1782–1862) Eighth president of the United States; he extended the 10-hour work day plan, initiated by Jackson, to include other groups in 1840. (p. 277)

**Vanderbilt, Cornelius** (1794–1877) American business leader who controlled the New York Central Railroad and up to 4,500 miles of railroad track; he later donated \$1 million to a Tennessee university. (p. 470)



**Villa, Francisco "Pancho"** (1878–1923) Mexican bandit and revolutionary leader; he led revolts against Carranza and Huerta. He was pursued by the United States but evaded General Pershing. (p. 573)

**Villaraigosa, Antonio** (1953–) Latino mayor of Los Angeles, elected to office in 2005. (p. 1099)

W

**Walesa, Lech** (1943–) Polish labor leader and electrician, he was president of Poland from 1990–1995. (p. 1055)

**Wald, Lillian** (1867–1940) Founder of the Henry Street Settlement house in New York City. (p. 498)

**Wallace, George** (1919–1998) American politician; he was a four-time governor of Alabama who fought against segregation in the South in the 1960s. (p. 970)

**Warren, Earl** (1891–1974) American jurist and politician, he was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court from 1953 to 1969. Under his leadership the court made many decisions that extended individual rights. (p. 890)

**Washington, Booker T.** (1856–1915) African American educator and civil rights leader; he was born into slavery and later became head of the Tuskegee Institute for career training for African Americans. (p. 509)

**Washington, George** (1732–1799) First president of the United States; he served as a representative to the Continental Congresses and commanded the Continental Army during the Revolutionary War. (p. 90)

**Watson, Stand** (1806–1871) Cherokee leader and Confederate general; he was the only Native American on either side to hold such rank in the war. (p. 382)

**Webster, Noah** (1758–1843) American author who published works on American grammar and language, his most famous work was *An American Dictionary of the English Language*, published in 1828, which included thousands of words that had not been previously defined in other dictionaries. (p. 240)

**Westmoreland, William** (1914–) American general in the U.S. Army; he was the commander of U.S. ground troops in South Vietnam during the Vietnam War. (p. 958)

**Whitefield, George** (1714–1770) British minister who held religious open-air meetings throughout the American colonies during the Great Awakening. (p. 86)

**Whitney, Eli** (1765–1825) American inventor whose cotton gin changed cotton harvesting procedures and enabled large increases in cotton production; he introduced the technology of mass production through the development of interchangeable parts in gun-making. (p. 256)

**Wilhelm II, Kaiser** (1859–1941) German emperor and king of Prussia; his militarism helped cause and prolong World War I. (p. 583)

**Wilkie, Wendell** (1892–1944) Franklin Roosevelt's opponent in the 1940 Presidential election. (p. 755)

**Willard, Frances** (1839–1898) Temperance and women's suffrage advocate, she was a leader in the Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) and the Prohibition Party. (p. 531)

**William and Mary** King William III (1650–1702) and Queen Mary II (1662–1694); Rulers of Great Britain who replaced King James II as a result of the Glorious Revolution. (p. 74)

**Williams, Roger** (1603–1683) Puritan Separatist who was banished from the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1635 for preaching that government and religion should be separate, and that settlers should compensate Native Americans for their land, rather than taking it. He later established a colony in Providence, Rhode Island in 1636 where all religions were welcome. (p. 54)

**Wilson, Woodrow** (1856–1924) Twenty-eighth president of the United States; he proposed the League of Nations after World War I. His reform legislation included direct election of senators, prohibition, and women's suffrage. He also created the Federal Reserve System and the Federal Trade Commission, and he enacted child labor laws. (p. 543)

**Winthrop, John** (1588–1649) Leader of the Massachusetts Bay Colony who led Puritan colonists to Massachusetts to establish an ideal Christian community; he later became the colony's first governor. (p. 53)

**Wright, Orville** (1871–1948) and **Wilbur** (1867–1912) American pioneers of aviation; they went from experiments with kites and gliders to piloting the first successful gas-powered airplane flight and later founded the American Wright Company to manufacture airplanes. (p. 479)

Y

**Young, Andrew** (1932–) American politician with a background in the civil rights movement; he served as American ambassador to the United Nations under President Carter. (p. 941)

**Yeltsin, Boris** (1931–) Russian politician and president of Russia in the 1990s; he was the first popularly elected leader of the country. (p. 1062)

Z

**Zapata, Emiliano** (1879–1919) Mexican revolutionary, he led the revolt against Porfirio Díaz in the south of Mexico during the Mexican Revolution. (p. 573)