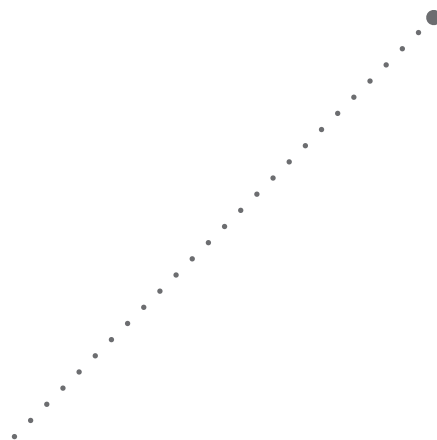




AP^{*}

UNITED STATES HISTORY

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE



U.S. HISTORY ○ Contains

- Short History of the United States
- Time Line of United States History
- Presidential Administrations
- Glossary
- Test-Taking Tips
- DBQ and FRQ Writing Guides



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INTRODUCTION

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The advantages of this guide include:

- It is the collected works of many AP U.S. History teachers.
- It is student-tested in real class situations by an AP U.S. History teachers (Many study guides are written by people who have never taught the subject).
- The A Brief History of the United States, U.S. History Timeline, and the Short Outline of U.S. History are short enough that you can study the material several times before the AP test
- (Most other study guides have too much information to cover in a short time).
- The Guide to Writing a Free Response Essay, Guide to Approaching a DBQ, and the Guide to Writing a DBQ will teach you the techniques needed to write successful A.P. U.S. essays (Many of the skills you have learn in Language Arts do not apply to this type of writing).
- The Nine-point Rubric is simplified so that you can use them as a guide to writing your essays.
- The multiple-choice section of the AP test consists of 50% of the grade; the Multiple Choice Tips section will improve your chances of increasing your score and possibly passing the test.
- The section on Test Anxiety will allow you to overcome one of the major reasons students do not do well on any test much less an AP test.
- The section on 24 Hours Before The Test will, if followed, have you ready to perform at your peak at test time.
- The Glossary of U.S. History will allow you to quick reference terms.

I would like to thank all of my fellow teachers, and my students for all their work that I used to develop this study guide.

A Brief History of the United States

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

The Age of Discovery

After the period of the Crusades (11th to 14th centuries), Europe forsook her many centuries of isolation and medieval culture. Through the Near East came increasingly large amounts of the goods of the ancient East, especially from India, China, and Japan.

In 1453, the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople and made the overland trade with the East hazardous. New nations such as Spain, Portugal, France, and England also found the Eastern Mediterranean trade already virtually monopolized by such Italian City-States as Genoa and Venice. Thus, the new nations sought other routes to the East and its riches.

Portugal, as a result of its strategical location, led the way in this search, closely followed by Spain. Prince Henry the Navigator, of Portugal, sent out the best-equipped sailors of the day. Through his efforts, Portugal developed the caravel, a sailing vessel, as a special tool of discovery. In 1486, after the death of Prince Henry, the Portuguese finally reached the Cape of Good Hope under the leadership of Bartholomeu Dias. Finally, in 1498, Calicut in India was reached by Vasco Da Gama. In 1500, another great Portuguese sea captain, Cabral, sailing westward to catch the westerlies for India, was carried too far to the West and sighted South America. Portugal set up a claim to this territory and it came to be called Brazil. But Columbus had found the Americas eight years before.

America Discovered—The World Circumnavigated

Christopher Columbus, an Italian sailor, sailed from Spain in August 1492 into uncharted western waters bound for the East. Thirty-three days later, his three caravels, guided by a crude navigation instrument called the astrolabe and some brilliant dead-reckoning celestial navigation, found the New World. He touched first, it is thought, at the little island of San Salvador.

The conflicting claims of Spain and Portugal over the increasing number of new discoveries caused the Pope to divide the new worlds between the two nations in the famous Papal Line of Demarcation in 1493. Portugal requested a correction of this decision. This was done and the line moved farther west in 1494 through the Treaty of

Tordesillas. This arrangement enabled Portugal to claim Brazil, which is why the present population there speaks Portuguese.

Explorers kept looking for a passage through the new lands that would lead them to Asia. In 1513, Vasco Nunez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama from Darien and became the first white man to look upon the Pacific Ocean from the western hemisphere.

In 1519, the great Portuguese navigator Ferdinand Magellan, in the service of Spain, crossed the Atlantic to the coast of South America, sailed south and through the dangerous straits, now called the Straits of Magellan, up the west coast of South America briefly, and then out across the Pacific in a remarkable voyage filled with adventure, starvation, and death. After finding the Philippine Islands, which Spain claimed, and losing his life there, one vessel of the expedition got back to Spain two years later. Pigafetta, the official chronicler, made the entire journey. Europe was stirred deeply by the news. Now the true relative position of the continents and oceans of the world was at last known.

Conquistadores, Conquests, European Expansion

Spanish conquistadores, or conquerors, soon mapped out and claimed much of South and Central America and much of what is now the United States. In 1519, Hernando Cortes and a small band of conquistadores conquered the mighty Aztec Indian empire after a romantic and dangerous expedition. At what is now Mexico City, Cortes established what came to be known as New Spain, from which many other expeditions went out in search of more lands and more gold such as had come from the Aztec conquest.

In 1532, Francisco Pizarro overran and conquered the ancient and fabulous Inca kingdom of Peru. Immense stores of gold were found here too. Many years were required to subdue the Incas deeper into South America, but it was finally done. All of South America except Brazil came under the Spanish flag.

Spaniards were also penetrating North America, and within a few decades had claimed a huge area there from Florida to California and the northwest. In 1513, Juan Ponce de Leon made the first discoveries in what is now the United States when he explored Florida. This expedition and another by him in 1521 failed to discover the Fountain of Youth. Between 1539–1542, a Pizarro veteran, Hernando de Soto, explored Florida and penetrated far inland. Crossing the Mississippi, which he was the first European to see above its mouth, de Soto and his men wandered into the American southwest, perhaps so far as the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. Returning to the Mississippi, de Soto died and the survivors of the expedition with difficulty got back to Mexico.

Francisco de Coronado, between 1540–1542, led a vast expedition from New Spain northwards into what is now the United States in search of the reputedly rich Seven Cities of Cibola. These cities turned out to be the pueblo cities of our southwest, and no gold was found. Part of Coronado's expedition wandered into Kansas and another part wandered over much of the arid regions of the southwest, discovering the Grand Canyon.

European Institutions and the New World

The Spanish dominated the colonization of the New World in the 16th century. The Spanish king considered the new possessions his private hacienda, or estates. Under the patronage of the Spanish king, the Catholic Church was made supreme in all Spanish America. The same was true in Portuguese America, or Brazil. Colonies were considered useful chiefly as sources of raw materials and as markets. This economic policy is known as mercantilism and was the economic policy of all European states in America for three hundred years. The Spanish policy of enforced Indian labor for exploiting the New World was called the encomienda system.

The Spanish developed colonies and scored of cities throughout Latin America. Churches and schools were widely established. By 1553, the University of Mexico and the University of Lima were founded and the University of Santo Domingo (1558), long before the first English university in the New World, Harvard (1636). The first printing press in the New World was set up in Mexico City in 1536. Art, literature, and science flourished in these Latin American colonies as American expression of the European Renaissance (revival of learning).

In the first decades of the 16th century, the Protestant revolt swept over Europe. Spain and France stayed within the Catholic Church, and their colonies became Catholic. England broke away, and various forms of Protestantism strove for control of the colonies later established by England.

Spanish America in the 16th century and after witnessed much racial intermixture: Whites and Indians intermingled to create Mestizos; whites and Negroes, Mulattoes; Negroes and Indians, Zambos; while whites of European extraction born in the New World were called Creoles. Much of the culture of this part of the New World was to be affected by these racial intermixtures.

AMERICAN COLONIES AND INSTITUTIONS

The Early Colonial Period, 1607–1689

Successful English colonization began with the Stuart kings. Jamestown, named in honor of James I, was established by an organization of Professional colonizers called the London Company, in 1607. The next successful attempt was the establishment of Plymouth in 1620 by religious refugees from England who had first gone to Holland to worship as they pleased but had left Holland in order to preserve their English language and customs. These people were known as Puritans because they wished to purify the Anglican Church of its Catholic forms. Upon leaving the Anglican Church, they became known as Separatists. In Holland they felt like “pilgrims in a strange land,” and the term “pilgrims” stuck.

Severe hardship attended the establishment of these early colonies. Men like Captain John Smith (of Jamestown) did much to keep colonization alive. More and more

colonists arrived in subsequent years, though, and before the Glorious Revolution (1689) against the Stuarts, all of the Atlantic seaboard colonies except Georgia (1732) had been founded.

The colonies fell into the following types: (1) Royal, established by charters from the king; (2) Proprietary, granted by the king to great proprietors such as Lord Baltimore (Maryland) and William Penn (Pennsylvania); (3) Self-governing, wherein the people had seized the right to be their own governors under charters from the king. There were only two of these: Rhode Island, established by Roger Williams, and Connecticut, established by emigrants from Massachusetts. One colony, New York, had been seized by the English in 1664 during a war with the Dutch. It was known before as New Amsterdam and had the finest harbor on the coast.

The Later Colonial Period, 1689–1776

From the time that James I came to the English throne in 1603 until 1660 a great controversy known as the Puritan Revolt raged in England. Under Charles I (1625–1649), it resulted in civil war and much bloodshed as well as the beheading of Charles. From 1649–1660, Cromwell ruled England as a Puritan dictator. The English colonies were left virtually to themselves. The chief rival was France, and the contest was on to see whether France or England should control the New World and other lands beyond the seas.

Meanwhile, the English colonies in what is now the United States continued to develop and grow. Geographically, they fell into three groups: (1) Puritan New England, where the clergy controlled public affairs until the 18th century when lawyers and merchants took over control; (2) the South, where plantation life and a slave economy were developing; and (3) the so-called Middle Colonies (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware) which combined some of the features of the other two areas and developed important manufactures towards the end of the second colonial period.

In this second colonial period, relations with England underwent a decided change. The Stuarts had been so busy with the Puritan Revolution that the colonies were neglected in considerable degree. Besides, the West Indies and their sugar had seemed more important to England. Now, though, the greater development of the American colonies on the Atlantic seaboard in population, wealth, and commercial products caused England to exercise more supervision. Starting in the latter Stuart period, a series of Acts of Trade were enacted by Parliament for the regulation and restriction of colonial trade. These acts affected both the ships and crews (Navigation Acts) and the commodities carried (Acts of Trade). British ships and crews were specified, and certain “enumerated commodities,” such as sugar, indigo, and tobacco, could be shipped only to England and her dependencies. The Molasses Act in 1733 was one of the most detested of these early acts. These various measures were in keeping with the mercantile theory, current among all European nations of the day, and holding that colonies were meant to supply the raw materials and serve as markets. Its application to the American colonies is often referred to as the Old Colonial system. For two important reasons, the acts were not strictly enforced during most of the second colonial period: (1) Robert Walpole, English prime minister from 1721-1742, was trying hard to keep the new Hanover dynasty from collapsing, so followed

the motto, “let sleeping dogs lie,” and made few efforts to enforce colonial commercial laws; (2) the great European Wars (referred to above) so preoccupied the English that they had little time to enforce the laws. Open violation and considerable smuggling thus developed.

American Colonial Institutions

In many respects, American colonial institutions reflected the social and cultural life of England. Art, literature, thought, social customs, and economic life all revealed much that was English. Yet, from the very beginning, certain factors influenced a distinctively American development. The influence of the frontier was one of these. The frontier existed from the time the first colonist stepped ashore. Local economic problems, the immigration of other European peoples, slavery, the presence of abundant land, the settling of many diverse religious groups in the country all had much to do with the evolution of an American culture.

The Virginia House of Burgesses (1619) was the forerunner of all our subsequent legislatures. In 1620, the Pilgrims before landing at Plymouth adopted the famous Mayflower Compact, an agreement to abide by a constitution in their new colony. Massachusetts Bay set up a General Court of freemen to meet four times a year and make laws not contrary to those of England. When Governor Winthrop and a few others tried to establish autocratic rule, the famous Watertown Protest (1631) against taxation without representation was presented, the governor finally capitulated and permitted a truly representative assembly to be established with the power to levy taxes. Other colonies established similar government. The colonies of Rhode Island and Connecticut were large self-governing colonies. Gradually the Stuarts, however, extended royal control until the Glorious Revolution of 1689 exiled them. As a result, Governor Andros and his followers were clapped into prison. In the latter colonial period, under the Hanoverian rulers of England, a more and more complex system of bureaucracies developed but the colonial legislatures now were largely in control of the purse strings and English control was more apparent than real.

Religious toleration increased steadily in the English colonies. The fleeing of numerous religious sects to the New World made toleration necessary. In 1636 Roger Williams refused to accept any longer the Puritan religious dictatorship of Massachusetts Bay and fled to Providence, Rhode Island, where he established freedom of worship. The first official recognition of toleration, though, was in Maryland in 1649 when the Proprietor, Lord Calvert was instrumental in the passing of the Toleration Act, granting religious liberty in what had been set up as a Catholic colony. In Pennsylvania, William Penn as Proprietor set up a colony as a holy experiment, in which religious liberty was guaranteed. Yet, in both Maryland and Pennsylvania, complete religious freedom did not exist, for only Christians could vote. Attempts at various times to establish Anglican episcopacy (rule by bishops of the established English church) all failed, although this church came to be dominant in Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and the four southern counties

Chapter 1

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

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ORIGINS AND CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION

There are many viewpoints as to the causes of the American Revolution. The following “causes” are most frequently cited: (1) the Traditional American Nation that the unjust, arbitrary, cruel, and unconstitutional acts of George III drove his loyal but liberty-loving subjects to revolt in order to free themselves from his tyranny; (2) the Tory Viewpoint, that the Revolution was brought on by the scheming of demagogues, law evaders, and smugglers in America who wanted to escape a just control imposed upon them by the home government which was acting entirely within its constitutional rights; (3) the Historical Whig Idea that the struggle in America was but one phase of a struggle long waged in England between the middle class capitalistic group against the domination of a landed aristocracy headed by the king himself; (4) World War I Propaganda Idea that the Revolution had really been unnecessary, the result of an unfortunate understanding between the home government and the colonies; (5) that an expanding English imperialism, fed by the first fires of the Industrial Revolution, came into conflict with the long-developing idea of home rule in the colonies and that the colonies (themselves caught by the attractions of the new industry) refused to submit to British imperialistic and mercantilistic control; and (6) that the colonies, systematically stocked for 150 years by British dissenters and non-conformists, had actually become a new nation of Americans having little in common with Englishmen.

All of these views have some basis in fact. Actually, however, numbers (5) and (6) represent the more historically accurate causes.

In 1760, the young George III came to the throne of England. George I (1714–1727) and George II (1727–1760) had been more German (House of Hanover) than English. But the young George III was quite English and quite determined to reassert the waning power of English royalty. In the main, he failed, but for a few years, just before the American Revolution, the king and the “King’s Friends,” including various ministers such as George Grenville and Lord North, rather well controlled British policy.

George III came to the throne in 1760. Three years later the Seven Years’ War came to an end, concluding what has often been called the Second Hundred Years’ War between Britain and France. For the first time in a century, the British were free to turn their attention wholly to the long-neglected colonies. They were now free to turn their attention wholly to the long-neglected colonies. They were now free to enforce the policy of Mercantilism in which the colonies served merely as producers of raw materials and consumers of finished products, to the profit of the British. By 1763 this policy was becoming more important than ever to England, for the Industrial and Agrarian Revolutions were just beginning to hit their stride. Thus, the great William Pitt, who had enabled