

CHAPTER TWELVE

HISTORY
SOCIAL SCIENCE
FRAMEWORK

FOR CALIFORNIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

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CHAPTER 12

United States History and Geography: Growth and Conflict

- What did freedom mean to the nation’s founders, and how did it change over time?
- How and why did the United States expand?
- Who is considered an American?

The eighth-grade course of study begins with an intensive review of the major ideas, issues, and events that shaped the founding of the nation. In their study of this era, students will view American history through the lens of people who were trying—and are still trying—to fulfill the promise of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. Throughout their eighth-grade United States history and geography course, students will confront the themes of freedom, equality, and liberty and their changing definitions over time. This course will explore the geography of place, movement, and region, starting with the Atlantic seaboard and then American westward expansion and economic development, the Civil War and Reconstruction, and finally, industrialization.

Covering parts of three centuries, the historical content outlined in this chapter is both substantial and substantive, which poses a significant challenge for teachers with limited time for in-depth study. This challenge is addressed through the organization of this chapter into five large sections, which incorporate guiding questions that can help students understand how individual events and people make up a larger narrative explanation of America’s past.

As students learn American history from the late 1700s through the end of the nineteenth century, they will develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that will enhance their understanding of the content. As in earlier grades, students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is continually reshaped based on primary-source research and on new perspectives that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary and secondary sources; to understand multiple perspectives; and to learn about how some things change over time and others tend not to. They should appreciate that each historical era has its own context, and it is up to the student of history to make sense of the past on these terms by asking questions about it.

The Development of American Constitutional Democracy

- Why was there an American Revolution?
- How did the American Revolution develop the concept of natural rights?
- What were the legacies of the American Revolution?

Roots of the American Revolution

The study of American history begins with a selective review of how the nation was constructed; informed by what students remember from their fifth-grade study of early American history, which included consideration of the colonial period; the American Revolution; and the Early Republic. Students may begin their eighth-grade studies with a brief review of the significant developments of the colonial era; the creation of a colonial economy based on agriculture, commerce, and small-scale manufacturing; and the persistence of regional differences in the British north Atlantic colonies.

Considering the question **Why was there an American Revolution?** guides students' review of the period. Students may begin with a survey of the major events and ideas leading to the American War for Independence that they studied in fifth grade. They could build an online timeline that includes basic descriptions of events as well as written analyses of each event's significance.

Students may consider, for example, the Great Awakening, which affected many Americans. In emotional sermons, ministers offered a more egalitarian relationship between believers and their God that appealed to many races and classes. Excerpts from primary-source documents such as sermons by George Whitefield and Jonathan Edwards demonstrate for students how the Great Awakening influenced the development of revolutionary fervor and morality.

Students also consider the impact of the Seven Years' War—known in the colonies as the French and Indian War—on the colonists' feelings toward the British crown. Prior to the war, American colonists lived in relative isolation from British soldiers and were generally content with British rule. After the war, the colonists became increasingly resentful of the continued presence of British troops (including soldiers who exhibited what some colonists considered to be coarse behavior)—a daily reminder of their mother colony in their homeland.

The colonists were even more angry with the British government's attempts to collect revenue from the colonies to help pay for the war and the Crown's prohibition against colonial expansion to the west. Students may want to investigate specifically why British actions were considered unreasonable by the colonists and how the imposition of British law came to be viewed as increasingly oppressive.

Both the continued presence of the British military and the imposition of new taxes fueled colonial resentment and helped establish the new American consciousness. This new American identity expanded with the growth of more densely populated and diverse cities, like Philadelphia and Boston, where colonists started to notice how their economic, political, and even social interests with one



another seemed more aligned than their interests with Great Britain. Men such as Thomas Paine wrote about these developments, and soon organizations such as the Committees of Correspondence communicated them throughout the colonies.

Principles of the American Revolution

On July 4, 1776, delegates at the second Constitutional Convention signed the Declaration of Independence, officially asserting the colonies' separation from Great Britain. Students may engage in an activity in which they compare the first and second (or final) drafts of the preambles of the Declaration of Independence. Doing a close reading and sentence deconstruction of this important preamble will highlight for students that the differences between the first and second drafts were intended to unify the colonies as one new nation in opposition to Great Britain.

Students may also fully explore the grievances against Great Britain, tracing the broad principle of natural rights threaded throughout it. They consider the question **How did the American Revolution develop the concept of natural rights?** Students can analyze what Thomas Jefferson meant when he wrote “all men are created equal” and “endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights.” To deepen student understanding of these foundational arguments, teachers employ classroom debates and town hall meeting activities where students define and defend the arguments of the framers.

Once students understand the principles of the American Revolution as outlined in the Declaration of Independence, they briefly survey the major turning points in the war, its key leaders, people that fought in it, and how the war touched the lives of nearly everyone in the colonies. They trace the roles of key leaders in the war and explore how they went on to lead the new nation: George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton. They may revisit fifth-grade studies of how the principles of the American Revolution (especially natural rights of freedom and the opportunity for democracy) motivated African Americans—both free and unfree—to try to secure those rights for all by their service in the war itself.

The American colonial struggle for independence occurred in a global context. The following questions can help students consider the perspectives of those who did not serve in either the Continental or British army: **How and why did Indians**

participate in the American Revolution? How did the alliances and treaties made by American Indians affect their relationships with both the patriots and the British? How did American calls for independence inspire other nations, such as France and the French colony of Haiti? Students learn about both the significance of the American Revolution to other nations and also the pivotal role of other nations in affecting the course of the war.

Legacies of the American Revolution

With the American victory over the British, the new nation struggled to define how the principles on which the Revolution was fought would become law and be applied to the new nation. The following question can frame students' understanding of the aftermath of the Revolution: **What were the legacies of the American Revolution?** Students learn that many historical documents and ideas influenced the framers of the Constitution in attempts to translate the American Revolution's principles to reality. For example, students may review the context by synthesizing the major ideas of the Enlightenment and the origins of constitutional and self-government in the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights of 1689, the Mayflower Compact, the Virginia House of Burgesses, and New England town hall meetings.

Students should also learn about the challenges and multiple attempts to form a stable government; the Articles of Confederation, for example, taught leaders in America the importance of a centralized government. The Articles of Confederation were the first attempt to create a federal government for the 13 autonomous states that had freed themselves from British rule.

The Articles provided a governing structure for the United States during the Revolutionary War, but they quickly proved to be inadequate for the needs of the new nation. The Articles, which were finally ratified by all 13 states in 1781, enabled the new country to fight the Revolutionary War, negotiate with foreign powers, and expand to the west.

However, the Articles established a weak central government, one that lacked an executive branch and a national judiciary. Under the Articles, Congress also could not regulate commerce or even force the individual states to contribute to the national treasury. Given the absence of a strong, central government and, as a

result, its inability to respond to domestic crises, such as Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts, and enforce a coherent and united foreign policy, national leaders began to call for a new governmental structure.

Because of their experience, the framers aimed to create a government that was neither too strong (because it might turn into despotism, or at the very least look too similar to the British monarchy) or too weak (as the Articles of Confederation proved to be).

To understand the process by which the Constitution was created (through speeches, discussions, debate, and drafts), students may read different documents



and engage in a variety of activities to bring these important conventions to life. For one, students may study the men who attended the Constitutional Conventions. They select one framer to study in depth. As part of the study, students may be assigned a biography and/or they may identify two or three primary sources produced by him; collect evidence from the sources; chart information about his background,

education, wealth, and values that he brought to the convention; and make claims about how his background influenced the positions he would take at the Constitutional Conventions. In addition to learning about the Constitutional Convention through the eyes of the framers, students can read, discuss, and analyze excerpts from the document written at the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia.

Students should consider topics that divided the Founding Fathers and examine the compromises adopted to produce a unifying document. Several compromises preserved the institution of slavery: namely, the three-fifths rule of representation, the slave importation clause, and the fugitive-slave clause. Students may explore quantitative information about where slaves lived and the work they did to determine why slave-holding provisions were so important to Southern delegates. Students can also wrestle with a question faced by some Founding Fathers: How could the nation's ideals of freedom, liberty, and democracy be adopted alongside

slavery? With careful guidance from the teacher, students can speculate on the question **What were the long-term costs of slavery, both to people of African descent and to the nation at large?** In addition, students discuss the status of women in this era, particularly relating to voting and the ownership of property. Although political rights for women were not advocated by the Founding Fathers, some women, such as Abigail Adams, wrote explicitly about how women’s interests, especially as mothers, needed to be considered by male leaders.

Beyond learning about the process by which the Constitution was created, students recognize the great achievements of the Constitution: (1) it created a republican form of government based on the consent of the governed—a bold, new experiment; (2) it established a government that has survived more than 200 years by a delicate balancing of power and interests through a system of checks and balances based on the separation of powers into three branches of government, and a Bill of Rights designed to protect individual liberties from federal government overreach; and (3) it provided an amendment process to adapt the Constitution to the needs of a changing society.

Students study how the Constitution provided for the participation of citizens in the political process. However, teachers should also place special emphasis on who was actually allowed to participate during this period in United States history. Explaining the role of property ownership in voter and office-holding requirements can familiarize students with the limits of republican government during this period. Understanding those limits will prepare students for their study of efforts to expand citizenship rights in the years to come. Web sites such as icivics.org, constitutioncenter.org, or congress.gov contain activities, games, and film clips that appropriately describe the enduring significance of the Constitution and the law-making process.

In addition to their examination of the Constitution itself, students consider the civil liberties outlined in the Bill of Rights by analyzing both the historical context for their inclusion as well as current implications of their adoption. As Thomas Jefferson noted in a letter to James Madison in 1787, “[A] bill of rights is what the people are entitled to against every government on earth, general or particular, and what no just government should refuse.” Students first consider why the Bill of Rights was added to the Constitution, studying the debate between the Federalists (who believed the protections were already included in the Constitution itself), and

the Anti-Federalists (who opposed ratification of the Constitution without inclusion of a specific list of guaranteed protections of individual rights).

Students then study the impact of the colonial experience on the drafting of the Bill of Rights in order to understand why these freedoms were so important to citizens of the new republic, from its broad emphasis on religious and political freedom to more specific protections, such as the prohibition against quartering of troops. Finally, students consider how these liberties have come to be defined in practice over time, starting with *Marbury v. Madison*'s establishment of the judiciary's role in protection of liberties and, in more current decisions on a variety of topics that reinforce student understanding of the individual rights, engage them in topics of real interest, and deepen their appreciation for the Bill of Rights' relevance in modern day.

Envisioning a New America

- How much power should the federal government have, and what should the government do?
- How did the government change during the Early Republic?
- Was the Louisiana Purchase constitutional?
- What was life like in the Early Republic?

In this unit, students consider the people, events, and ideas that shaped America in the period between ratification of the Constitution in 1788 and into the early 1800s. The new nation's leaders—like Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Hamilton—faced enormous challenges in trying to determine the political structure of the country. John Adams, for example, argued, “Our Constitution was made only for a moral and religious people,” a sentiment echoed in George Washington's “Farewell Address.”

The conflicts between two views of how the newly independent country should move forward, articulated most vocally and explicitly by the ideological adversaries Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson, resulted in the emergence of a two-party system (Federalists and Democratic-Republicans, respectively). These two parties had differing views on foreign policy, economic policy (the National Bank and infrastructure such as canals, roads, and land grants for education), and

the interpretation of the Constitution. Students can analyze these different perspectives by considering **How much power should the federal government have**, and **What should the government do?**

An in-depth comparison of both Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton can offer students insight into the administration of the first president, George Washington; demonstrate that success in this new republic was not at all assured; explain the development of a two-party system; and provide a better understanding of a fundamental tension that continues to influence American politics. Washington selected both Jefferson and Hamilton as members of his original cabinet—Jefferson as the first Secretary of State and Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury. Although both were dedicated to the success of his administration and the country itself, they often advised the first president to ignore the counsel of the other man and became personal adversaries. An instance of the animosity occurred in 1792, when Jefferson told Washington that Hamilton’s allies in Congress were a “corrupt squadron,” whose “ultimate object . . . is to prepare the way for a change, from the present republican form of government, to that of a monarchy, of which the English constitution is to be the model” (National Archives and Records Administration). Through a careful examination of selected sentences from a variety of primary sources, such as Jefferson’s letter to Washington, Alexander Hamilton’s Report on the Public Credit (the sentence that begins with “To justify and preserve their confidence . . .” is most helpful in communicating his central claim), or Thomas Jefferson’s Kentucky Resolutions that condemned the excess of the Alien and Sedition Acts (the sentence that begins with “Resolved, that the several states composing the United States of America, are not united on the principle of unlimited submission . . .” is most helpful in communicating his central claim), or Hamilton’s notes for a speech proposing a plan of government at the Federal Convention of June 1787 (the section that starts with “The general government must, in this case, not only have a strong soul, but *strong organs* by which that soul is to operate . . .” [National Archives and Records Administration] makes a strong argument), students can begin to make sense of this complicated debate about the role of government and at the same time gain insight into a very nasty and public feud between the two founders.

To support student comprehension of these difficult and dense primary-source texts, teachers will need to employ a variety of literacy-support strategies to define

unfamiliar vocabulary in context, identify the thesis of a written argument, and evaluate evidence in support of a claim. The inclusion of relevant secondary sources or text will likely support this effort. These debates provide early context for the meaning of *federalism* and help students address the question **How did the government change during the Early Republic?**

Using shadow outlines of Hamilton and Jefferson’s profiles, students can design a “historical head” to distinguish between the two founders’ perspectives on the role of the government—how Jefferson prioritized the needs of the agrarian economy, while Hamilton promoted commerce and manufacturing, for example. These “historical heads” can also illuminate differences of opinion on the strength of the federal government, as compared with state and local governments, the protection of individual rights, the establishment of a national bank and what to do about public debt, and later support for infrastructure development, such as canals, roads, and land for schools. (“Historical head” strategy is adapted from the California History–Social Science Project, University of California, Davis.)

In addition to these internal divisions within the government, the United States had to confront more fundamental challenges to its authority and legitimacy, such as Shays’ Rebellion and the Whiskey Rebellion. Many leaders in the new nation also felt they had to demonstrate the nation’s viability on the international stage, and in 1812 it fought an unpopular war with Great Britain and confirmed U.S. sovereignty.

Students can also learn about the ideals and aspirations of the people of the Early American Republic through a lens of demand for natural resources, a context for understanding the country’s physical landscapes, political divisions, and the resulting pressures that led to territorial expansion. This approach challenges them to consider the complications involved in westward expansion and begin to recognize many consequences of that growth (Principle II of the California Education and the Environment Initiative [EEI]; see appendix G).

They learn what happens as the country doubled in size while struggling with issues of debt and political control of what appeared to many as nearly limitless natural resources. (See the California EEI curriculum unit “Land, Politics, and Expansion in the Early Republic”; 8.4.1.) The United States paid \$15 million to France for the purchase of the Louisiana territory.

Students explore the constitutionality of this action, noting that even Jefferson himself argued, “The General Government has no powers but such as the Constitution gives it . . . it has not given it power of holding foreign territory, and still less of incorporating it into the Union. An amendment of the Constitution seems necessary for this.” Students can relate this issue back to a debate over strict versus loose construction interpretation of the Constitution as they consider the question **Was the Louisiana Purchase constitutional?**

Territorial expansion and its consequences proved to be an ongoing source of conflict and debate for the new nation. The passage of the Northwest Ordinance established a process for adding new states to the country and placed a limit on the spread of slavery, but this expansion also brought Americans into increased conflict with American Indian nations. The Ordinance stated, “The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians,” yet students learn that the reality was often very different.

Students may discuss the belief of the nation’s founders that the survival of a republican government depends on an educated people. They analyze the connection between education and republican ideals symbolized in the Northwest Ordinance and in Jefferson’s dictum: “If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be.” Students may survey the types of education received in church schools, dame schools, and at home. Preparing editorials for period newspapers, classroom debates, and classroom speeches encourages students to consider the variety of educational systems in a democratic republic.

Students also examine the economic and social lives of ordinary people in the new nation, including farmers, merchants, laborers, and traders; women; African Americans, both slave and free; and American Indians. Reading excerpts from works by James Fenimore Cooper, Washington Irving, Olaudah Equiano, and Abigail Adams may provide students with insights. In addition, studying the writing, music, and art of this era will help bring this period alive and establish the origins of American identity. Surveying the evolution of the educational system and the lives of ordinary people prepares students to answer this question: **What was life like in the Early Republic?**

The Divergent Paths of the American People: 1800–1850

- How did individual regions of the United States become both more similar and more different?
- What was family life like in each region?
- How did work change between 1800 and 1850?
- What was the impact of slavery on American politics, regional economies, family life, and culture?
- What did the frontier mean to the nation in the first half of the nineteenth century?

This unit explores the nation’s regional development in the Northeast, South, and West. Each region encompassed a distinct geography, economic focus, and demographic composition. Students can compare the regions in terms of commercial development, sources of wealth, natural resources, political agendas, religious and ethnic diversity, infrastructure, population density, and eventually slavery, including the debate over the Free Soil movement. However, the growth of the market economy and the faster movement of people, commerce, and information increasingly connected each region of the nation to the others. Thus, although the regions appeared to be developing separate characteristics, in fact the nation was becoming increasingly interdependent and connected in the first half of the nineteenth century.

The interconnectedness was made possible by the *market revolution*, which is a term developed by historians to describe the transition in economic systems from a pre-industrial subsistence economy to a market-oriented society that made capitalism a part of people’s daily lives. As an umbrella term, the market revolution describes not just the important economic changes, but the technological and transportation changes that affected politics and society. It made possible advances in transportation such as turnpikes, steamboats, canals, and railroads. Significant advances in communication through the telegraph allowed more widespread availability of newspapers.

Eventually, the market revolution led to debates over the role that the government should play in supporting these advances; through controversial land

subsidies and financing of projects, the government became more involved in creating a national infrastructure as the nineteenth century progressed. In the years to come, these debates would become more pointed, as some Americans argued for increasing government involvement and expenditure to support the common good, while others advocated a more limited role for the government and greater emphasis upon individual effort.

Throughout this regional study, students should be encouraged to view historical events empathetically as though they were there, working in places such as mines, cotton fields, and mills. Historical empathy will support students as they work to address broad questions of historical significance, including this one: **How did individual regions of the United States become both more similar and more different?**

The Northeast. The industrial revolution in the Northeast affected the structure of life inside the region, but it also had important consequences for the nation as a whole. As the family economy gave way to industrial production, the roles of women and men changed. Middle-class women devoted themselves to the home and family, while men went out to work. An ideology of separate spheres conceptualized women and men as fundamentally different. As a result, men and women formed close bonds with one another inside their separate spheres while also expected to marry and raise a family. Students should engage with the question **What was family life like in the Northeast?** This question encourages students to consider change over time, cause-and-effect, and historical context in developing a well-reasoned answer.

Inventions between 1790 and 1850 transformed manufacturing, transportation, mining, communications, agriculture, and the economy and profoundly affected how people lived and worked. *Industrialization*, an umbrella term that describes all of the changes listed above, touched nearly every component of American life. Mechanized production in shops, mills, and factories replaced skilled craftspersons, a process depicted by Charles Dickens in his *American Notes* and in the letters written by young women who left home to work in the mills of Lowell, Massachusetts. These women organized strikes and labor organizations to petition against wage cuts and appealed to the state legislature for shorter hours.

Teachers may use historical fiction, such as *Lyddie* by Katherine Paterson, to illustrate the working lives of mill women and to help address this question: **How did work change in the first half of the nineteenth century?** This was a period of dramatic urbanization, as immigrants flocked to the cities, drawn by the “pull” factor of economic opportunity. The Great Irish Famine may be studied as an example of a “push” factor that affected the flow of immigrants to the United States. At the same time, the small African American population in the Northeast moved toward freedom, as the American Revolution initiated a long process of emancipation and indenture in this region. African Americans continued to occupy circumscribed social, economic, and political positions but created institutions to advance their rights and develop their communities. One example is the African Methodist Episcopal Church founded by Richard Allen, Absalom Jones, and others in 1816.

Periods of boom-and-bust created both progress and poverty. In response to the strains brought about by rapid industrialization, an age of reform began in which attempts were made to make life more bearable for the less fortunate and to expand opportunities for many. Students explore the significance of Charles Finney as the most famous leader of the Second Great Awakening, inspiring religious zeal, social reforms, such as equal education for women and African Americans, and eventually, support for the abolitionist movement. As more Americans grew concerned about people who were considered to be “downtrodden,” they turned their reform impulses from churches and philanthropies to other sectors of society.

Students may explore campaigns to reform hospitals, mental institutions, and prisons by studying the reformers, those considered in need of reform, and the methods by which reform was initiated. To make this topic more personal, students can study the work of Dorothea Dix and consider the following question that addresses change over time and causality: **How did Americans help people in need?** Other impulses for reform may be found in transcendentalism and individualism, as represented by the writings of Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry David Thoreau, Herman Melville, Louisa May Alcott, Nathaniel Hawthorne, and Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

In addition to learning about reform through philosophy, health, and religion, students can learn about nineteenth-century reform through education. Students can study what life was like for young people in the 1830s in order to appreciate

Horace Mann’s crusade for free public education for all, as well as the argument for public investment in education, both in the nineteenth century and today.

Grade Eight Classroom Example: The Civic Purpose of Public Education

In Mr. Lopez’s eighth-grade history class, students read and analyze excerpts from primary-source documents explaining the social and civic purposes of public education. Mr. Lopez begins the class by explaining to students that they will consider the question **Why go to school?** As a brief opening activity, Mr. Lopez asks students to discuss their personal answers to this first question and then to attempt to address it for people in the nineteenth century. As students complete the activity, Mr. Lopez charts on the board many common answers, including but not limited to literacy, economic benefits, an informed electorate, and child care.

Next, Mr. Lopez introduces the idea of compulsory education in the nineteenth century by showing them examples of typical schoolbooks from the era. He highlights elocution exercises, moral lessons, and orations (for example, *The Columbian Orator*). He also provides students with an explanation of the question **Why go to school?** from two leading nineteenth-century intellectuals: Benjamin Rush and Catherine Beecher.

Using selected sentences from Rush’s “Of the Mode of Education Proper in a Republic,” and Beecher’s *A Treatise on Domestic Economy* (chapter 1), students consider two radically different answers to the question. Working in pairs for a few minutes in preparation for a whole-class discussion, students write on charts the similarities and differences between the justification for education of the nineteenth century and those of more recent educational systems. They also discuss the perspectives of both authors by considering their personal backgrounds, the purpose of the document itself, and its intended audience. Although short, these excerpts are dense and filled with archaic language.

To ensure student comprehension, Mr. Lopez works carefully with his students to help them understand how common terms may often have multiple meanings. For example, he has student groups look up the multiple meanings of the word *interest* and then displays the following excerpt from the Beecher reading on the elmo: “The proper education of a man decides the welfare of an

Example *(continued)*

individual; but educate a woman, and the **interests** of the whole family are secured.” Mr. Lopez then asks each student group the meaning they believe best fits the context of the sentence. After all the groups report and explain their reasoning, Mr. Lopez reveals or confirms the correct meaning for this context.

Next he distributes a reference-analysis chart that pinpoints the subtle references to religion and philosophy in the two documents. He uses a Think-Pair-Share strategy to work through the chart with students. Finally, he models for students a breakdown of the rhetorical structure that Rush uses to make his argument. He has student groups break down Beecher’s rhetorical structure with the help of a graphic organizer tailored to the chosen excerpt.

Mr. Lopez then asks students to discuss the following question in pairs, using evidence from the chart: Why did Benjamin Rush believe it was important to go to school? Why did Catherine Beecher believe it was important to go to school? How did their individual perspective affect their answers? As students discuss, Mr. Lopez circulates throughout the groups to make sure that students’ answers are supported by relevant evidence and encourages them to think about how this answer might be similar or different if it were answered today.

As a culminating activity, Mr. Lopez asks students to assume the perspective of one of the two nineteenth-century authors in order to write a short critique of the other. Students then use their discussion notes to explain (in a few paragraphs) how their selected author’s views align with and differ from the other author, all in response to the question **Why go to school?**

CA HSS Content Standard: 8.6.5

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 4, 6, WHST.6–8.1, 7, 9, SL.8.1, L.8.4a

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.8.1, 6a, 8, 11a

Out of these far-reaching reform movements of the nineteenth century, Americans became increasingly interested in discussing the status of women. Students may begin with a brief review of the legal and economic status of women and learn about the major impetus given to the women’s rights movement by

leaders such as Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton. They should read and discuss the Seneca Falls Declaration of Sentiments and compare it with the Declaration of Independence by revisiting the important questions **What did freedom mean, and how did it change over time?** Noting the intersections between previously studied reform movements, the women’s rights movement, and the abolitionist movement, students can study the efforts of educators such as Catharine Beecher, Emma Willard, and Mary Lyon to establish schools and colleges for women. Students may examine the relationship of these events to contemporary issues by considering the following question: **Why do periods of reform arise at certain historical moments?**

As a link to the next region of study, students may explore the interdependence between the slave South and the industrial North. During the American Revolution, Northern states had begun a slow process of emancipation while their Southern counterparts, with the invention of the cotton gin, became increasingly tied to a slave-based economy. Eli Whitney, a teacher and tinkerer from New England with an education from Yale, was working on a Georgia plantation when he invented his famous machine that increased the productivity of slave labor. Despite the fact that slavery was by and large a Southern institution, Northern and Western business leaders and national economic institutions continued to derive their own wealth from the nation’s use of slavery to extract raw materials.

Slave labor produced the cotton and raw materials that enabled Northern manufacturers, financiers, and other business interests to thrive. This, in turn, spurred a new consumer culture in individual families, connected to the slave-based economy. These topics can help students address the question **How did the country become more connected in the first half of the nineteenth century?**

The South. During these years, the South diverged dramatically from the Northeast and the West. Its plantation economy depended on a system of slave labor to harvest such cash crops as cotton, rice, sugarcane, and tobacco. The invention of the cotton gin allowed for a dramatic expansion of plantation agriculture across the region. African American slavery, the “peculiar institution” of the South, had marked effects on the region’s political, social, economic, and cultural development. Increasingly at odds with the rest of the nation, the South was unable to share in the popularity of democratic politics of the Jacksonian era or in the reform campaigns of the 1840s. Its system of public education lagged far behind the rest of the nation.

Students learn about the institution of slavery in the South in its historical context. They review their seventh-grade studies of West African civilizations before the coming of the Europeans and compare the American system of chattel slavery, which considered people as property, with slavery in other societies.

Students discuss the role that race and gender played in the constructing of the enslaved as in need of civilization and thereby rationalizing slavery; the daily lives of enslaved men and women on plantations and small farms, including the varied family structures they adopted; the economic and social realities of slave auctions that led to the separation of nuclear families and encouraged broad kinship bonds;



the centrality of sexual violence to the system of slavery; and the myriad laws: from the outlawing of literacy to restrictions on freedom gained through emancipation or purchase that marked the lives of American slaves.

Amidst the confining world of slavery, the enslaved asserted their humanity in developing a distinct African American culture through

retaining and adapting their traditional customs on American soil. This culture included less restrictive norms around gender and sexuality that supported the formation of alternative family structures within enslaved communities.

Students can connect this information about the slave society by considering the following questions: **What were slaves' lives like? How did slave families live in ways that were similar to and different from nonslave families?** Although organized revolt was rare, enslaved men and women resisted their bondage in informal and individual ways. Breaking tools, working slowly, feigning illness, and even learning to read and write represented skirmishes in an unacknowledged conflict between the enslaved and the enslaver. When armed revolts were uncovered (Gabriel Prosser in 1800 and Denmark Vesey in 1822) or manifested (the Stono Rebellion in 1739 and Nat Turner in 1831), white Southerners punished the individual perpetrators and often passed more severe laws. Students explore the effects of slave revolt and rebellion upon local and state legislation and relations between enslaved African Americans and free, white Southerners.

To provide a more comprehensive understanding of the antebellum South, students study the lives of plantation owners and other white Southerners; the more than 100,000 free African Americans in the South; as well as the laws, such as the fugitive slave laws of 1793 and 1850, that curbed their freedom and economic opportunity. Students also compare the situations of free African Americans in the South and in the North and note that freedom from slavery did not necessarily lead to acceptance and equality.

Students examine the national abolitionist movement that arose during the nineteenth century. Although the abolitionist movement is quite popular with students seeking to connect these early activists to rights movements of the next century, it is extremely important that students learn about abolitionists in their own contexts. Abolitionists were considered the most radical reformists by both Southerners and Northerners; their arguments about the immorality of slavery were never popular with the vast majority of Americans.

Only by studying remarkable abolitionists such as Theodore Weld, William Lloyd Garrison, Angelina and Sarah Grimke, Wendell Phillips, and John Brown can students begin to understand the historical context of slavery. Despite repeated threats, attacks, and bounties on their heads, abolitionists wrote news articles and editorials, spoke publicly, boycotted slave-made goods, housed fugitive slaves, and, in the case of John Brown, planned armed conflict.

African Americans, free and enslaved, also actively challenged the existence of slavery, both as individuals and through fraternal organizations, churches, and newspapers. African-American abolitionists, including Frederick Douglass, Sojourner Truth, Harriett Jacobs, Charles Remond, Harriet Tubman, and Robert Purvis risked their lives to speak at public gatherings, pen news articles, petition Congress, and assist in the underground movement to help rescue escaping slaves.

Excerpts from Frederick Douglass's *What the Black Man Wants*, David Walker's *Appeal*, Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and Fanny Kemble's *Journal of Residence on a Georgia Plantation*, as well as excerpts from slave narratives and abolitionist tracts of this period, will bring these people and events alive for students and enable them to address the following questions: **How did people work to end slavery**, and **What opposition did they face?**

Grade Eight Classroom Example: The Antislavery Movement (Integrated ELD in U.S. History–Social Science)

In history class, students are learning about the origins of slavery in the U.S., its consequences, and its abolition. They learn how Frederick Douglass, an African-American writer and political activist who was born a slave in 1818, escaped to freedom and began to promote the antislavery cause in the nineteenth century. Throughout the 1840s and 1850s, he traveled across the North delivering abolitionist lectures, writing anti-slavery articles, and publishing his autobiography about his time in slavery and in freedom.

In 1855, Douglass gave a speech to the Rochester Ladies' Anti-Slavery Society. Mrs. Wilson, the history teacher, has carefully selected significant excerpts from Douglass's speech as well as other relevant primary sources in order to help her students understand the abolitionist argument in the years leading up to the Civil War and to answer the following guiding question: **Why did Frederick Douglass believe the United States should abolish slavery?** Mr. Lopez, the school's ELD specialist, has consulted with Mrs. Wilson to help students understand Douglass's writing, which contains challenging vocabulary, complicated organization, and abstract ideas. The following quotation from Douglass's speech in Rochester is characteristic of the language students will encounter:

The slave is bound to mankind, by the powerful and inextricable network of human brotherhood. His voice is the voice of a man, and his cry is the cry of a man in distress, and a man must cease to be a man before he can become insensible to that cry. It is the righteousness of the cause—the humanity of the cause—which constitutes its potency.

Recognizing that their EL students, who are all at the Bridging level of English language proficiency, need support in understanding this complex language in order to develop sophisticated understandings of the content, for designated ELD time, Mrs. Wilson and Mr. Lopez collaboratively design lessons to meet these needs. They also recognize that the other students in the history class, many of whom are former ELs and standard English learners, would benefit from strategic attention to language analysis. The teachers decide

Example *(continued)*

to co-teach a series of integrated ELD lessons for the entire history class. They distribute copies of the quoted passage and read the excerpt aloud while students silently read along.

Next, Mr. Lopez asks the students to work in pairs to identify words or phrases in the short passage that are unfamiliar, abstract, or confusing. He already anticipated what some of these words will be (e.g., *inextricable*, *potency*) and has prepared student-friendly explanations in advance. After about a minute, he pulls the class together, displays on a chart the words identified by the class, and offers brief explanations, which the students note in the margins of their individual copies. Since some of the words are cognates in Spanish, and many of the students are bilingual in Spanish and English, he calls their attention to those words and provides the Spanish cognate. He also clarifies that the words *man* and *men* in the excerpt are meant to represent all of humanity, not just literally the males.

Mrs. Wilson and Mr. Lopez then guide the students through a detailed sentence-deconstruction activity, in which they model how to code words and phrases according to how they function to make meaning. In particular, the teachers encourage students to clearly identify words that serve as reference devices—substitutes and pronouns that refer to people, concepts, and events in other parts of the excerpt or in their previous discussions about the antebellum era. After modeling and explaining how to conduct this type of analysis on a different chunk of text, the teachers ask students to work in pairs to practice doing the same analysis on the excerpt from Douglass’s speech at Rochester. Below is an example of the whole-group debrief, following their pair work:

Text	Analysis (What do the bolded terms in the text refer to?)
The slave is bound to mankind , by the powerful and inextricable network of human brotherhood.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • men and women in slavery • all people, humanity

Example (continued)

His voice is the voice of a man ,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the slave’s voice • all people, humanity
and his cry is the cry of a man in distress ,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the slave’s cry or call for help • <i>man</i> and <i>mankind</i>—all people, humanity in distress
and a man must cease to be a man before he can become insensible to that cry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • slave owners or people who support or do not fight against slavery • the cry of the slave in distress, but also all people in distress
It is the righteousness of the cause—the humanity of the cause—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • linking the <i>righteousness</i> and <i>humanity</i> of the cause with how powerful it is (potency) • the cause is the abolition of slavery • the righteousness and humanity of the cause is what makes it or causes it to be powerful
which constitutes its potency .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the power or potency of the cause (abolition of slavery)

As Mr. Lopez leads the class to complete the chart together, drawing from similar charts they had completed in pairs, he asks them to suggest where he should draw arrows to connect the referring words to their antecedents. Throughout this discussion, there is considerable negotiating as students grapple with the meanings in the text and attempt to persuade their peers about their interpretations of those meanings. During discussion about the text, Mr. Lopez prompts students to provide evidence to support their claims. In addition to unpacking the literal meanings of words and phrases, Mr. Lopez asks students to discuss in triads the following question:

Example *(continued)*

“Why did Douglass repeatedly use the word ‘the man’ to describe slave men and women?”

After lively small-group discussions and then a whole-group debrief, students are encouraged to develop their own interpretations by using evidence from the text as well as their previous study of the antebellum era. Some students believe that Douglass wanted to remind the white ruling class that men and women in bondage were human, and he hoped to connect the suffering of slaves to humanity’s struggles.

Others suggest that Douglass was using the same rhetorical tool as the Founding Fathers, who often used the term *man* to encompass everyone. Some students argue that since women did not have the same rights as men in 1855, Douglass targeted male citizens—those who could vote and make laws.

During the whole-group discussion, Mrs. Wilson and Mr. Lopez pose questions to help students fully grasp Douglass’ use of imagery (e.g., a man in distress, his cry) as a tool for persuading his listeners. The class then deconstructs other sections of the text in order to develop even more nuanced understandings of Douglass’ writing and ideas. After examining a few other excerpts from the speech, the teachers ask the students to discuss and then write about the guiding question:

Why did Frederick Douglass believe the United States should abolish slavery?

Mr. Lopez and Mrs. Wilson find that having students grapple simultaneously with basic comprehension of short excerpts and larger questions about Douglass’s intent supports deeper understandings about the social significance of Douglass’s speech and provides students with strategies for approaching other complex informational and historical texts.

Sources and Resources

- Example adapted from The California History–Social Science Project, University of California, Davis.

Example *(continued)*

Primary Source: Frederick Douglass. “The Anti-Slavery Movement.” Rochester Ladies’ Anti-Slavery Society (Rochester, New York, 1855). *Source:* Library of Congress, Manuscript/Mixed Material Division (<http://www.loc.gov/item/mfd000384>).

CA HSS Content Standards: 8.7.2, 8.9, 8.9.1, 2, 4, 6

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 4, 6, 8-10

CA ELD Standards (Bridging): ELD.PI.8.1, 6a, 6b, 8, 11a; ELD.PII.8.2a

The West. The West, whose boundaries, margins, and center shifted rapidly and dramatically during this period, deeply influenced the politics, economy, mores, and culture of the nation. It opened domestic markets for seaboard merchants; it offered new frontiers for immigrants and discontented Easterners; it allowed significant alterations in gender norms; and it inspired a folklore of individualism and rugged frontier life that has dramatically influenced the national self-image and sense of the American past.

Students should continue to grapple with questions of regional identity: **What did the frontier mean to the nation? How did the nation’s regions develop similarly and differently in the first half of the twentieth century? How did family life develop in each region?** The West was a changing region over this period as the country expanded, from the territory opened by the Northwest Ordinance, to the vast lands of the Louisiana Purchase, to the southwestern territories taken from Mexico. The peoples of the West reflected the diversity of the region: American Indians, Mexicans, Asians, and American emigrants and immigrants of various racial and ethnic backgrounds. As Americans moved west, they interacted with established societies: both indigenous and those created by earlier colonizers. Students study how the term *the frontier* affected American settlement and development in the West.

The election of Andrew Jackson in 1828 reflected the steady expansion of white male suffrage, symbolized the shift of political power to the West, and opened a new era of political democracy in the United States. President Jackson was a symbol of his age. Jacksonian democracy should be analyzed in terms of its supporters—farmers with small holdings, artisans, laborers, and middle-class

businessmen. It should also be examined for its limitations. As an example, Andrew Jackson was a slaveholder who also pressed for the removal of Native Americans, even disregarding a Supreme Court decision on the matter (*Johnson v. M'Intosh*, 1823).

In studying Jackson's presidency, students consider his spoils system, veto of the National Bank, policy of Indian removal, and opposition to the Supreme Court. Students may consider the question **How did Andrew Jackson change the country?** Students may also consider Andrew Jackson's legacy in order to evaluate his reputation as a hero to common people. During this time, Alexis de Tocqueville, a French nobleman, visited the United States to identify the general principles of American democracy. Students may compare his description of national character in the 1830s as recorded in *Democracy in America* with American life during the Revolution or with today.

Students review the story of the acquisition, exploration, and settlement of the trans-Mississippi West, from the Louisiana Purchase in 1803 to the admission of California as a state in 1850. This period was marked by a strong spirit of nationalism, as Americans moved westward in search of economic opportunity, abundant natural resources, and, for some, religious freedom.

The success and speed with which the young nation expanded westward contributed to the perspective that Americans had a special purpose and divine right to populate the North American continent. This idea became known as Manifest Destiny and inspired an imperial ideology that infused American attitudes of racial and political superiority toward American Indians and the Republic of Mexico.

Students may consider the question **How did Manifest Destiny contribute to American expansion?** To deepen their understanding of the changing political and economic geography and settlement of this immense land, teachers may have students read from the journals of the Lewis and Clark expedition (to the Northwest). Students



can describe the lives of fur trappers and their impact on knowledge of the geography of the West; they can map the explorations of trailblazers such as Zebulon Pike, Jedediah Smith, Christopher “Kit” Carson, James Pierson Beckwourth, and John C. Fremont. Student may discuss the searing accounts of the removal of Indians and the Cherokees’ “Trail of Tears.” Students can interpret maps and documents related to the long sea voyages, including around Cape Horn of South America and overland treks that opened the West.

Teachers include discussions about the role of the great rivers, the struggles over water rights in the development of the West, and the effect of geography on shaping the different ways that people settled and developed western regions. Students learn that as settlers began their westward journey in the nineteenth century, water played a vital role in determining the location of settlements. They can participate in a role-playing activity to explore the influence of rivers on development and settlement patterns and discover that the management of this essential resource took on a different form from that of the eastern states, where supplies were adequate to meet demand. Students recognize that the limited availability of water in the West drove many political, legal, and economic decisions about water management. (For Environmental Principle V, see appendix G; EEI curriculum unit “Struggles with Water,” 8.8.4.)

Grade Eight Classroom Example: Western Expansion

Ms. Ramsberg encourages her students to examine multiple perspectives as they study change over time in the settlement of the American West. One class activity that deepens student understanding of the ways that Americans discussed westward expansion is through consideration of this question: **How did leading American thinkers (such as artists, intellectuals, and religious and government leaders) justify America’s westward expansion in the nineteenth century?** Ms. Ramsberg explains that this activity is more about how people thought about their country than it is about how the country itself looked. She tells students that they will examine several primary sources to obtain a variety of perspectives on this question: (1) a letter from John Quincy Adams to his father, John Adams, in 1811 (both Adamses served as U.S. presidents); (2) an excerpt from columnist John O’Sullivan’s essay “Annexation,” which advocated Texas’ admission into the Union; (3) a copy of

Example *(continued)*

American Progress, an 1872 painting by John Gast, who was hired by George Crofutt, a publisher of western travel guides, to create the painting; (4) an excerpt from “The Significance of the Frontier of American History” by historian Frederick Jackson Turner; (5) an excerpt from *Our Country: Its Possible Future and Its Present Crisis* by Josiah Strong, a Congregational minister.

As students read each document, they collect evidence and supporting details about how the source advocates western expansion. Ms. Ramsberg supports student reading comprehension through a variety of literacy-building strategies, including graphic organizers and sentence-deconstruction charts to help students understand O’Sullivan’s use of reference devices, abstract claims, and causal relationships. Students then compare *American Progress* to a selected excerpt from the Turner argument to practice historical corroboration. Finally, they give a short oral argument in response to the lesson’s question, using evidence collected from primary sources.

Source: Excerpted from *Western Expansion: Curriculum to Support California’s Implementation of the Common Core and English Language Development Standards*. California History–Social Science Project. Copyright © 2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus.

CA HSS Content Standard: 8.8.2

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 6, 8, 9, SL.8.4, L.8.6

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.8.1, 6a, 6b, 7, 9, 11; ELD.PII.8.1

In addition to learning about the political, economic, and ideological justifications for western expansion, students study the northward movement of settlers from Mexico into the Southwest, with emphasis on the location of Mexican settlements, their cultural traditions, attitudes toward slavery, the land-grant system, and the economy that was established. Students need this background before they can analyze the events that followed the arrival of westward-moving settlers from the East into Mexican territories.

Students explore the settlement of Americans in northern Mexico and the actions to establish the Republic of Texas. Teachers provide special attention to the causes and consequences of the United States’ war with Mexico by

considering the question **What were the consequences of the Mexican-American War?** To answer this question, students study early territorial settlements, the political ambitions of James K. Polk and other proslavery politicians, and the war's aftermath on the lives of the Mexican families who first lived in the region. Students also study the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo and the California Constitution of 1849 and the effects of both documents on the lives of Mexicans living within the new United States borders.

Frontier life had a mixed effect on the relations between men and women. White men far outnumbered white women, a situation creating some opportunities where the latter became more valued than previously; they were thus able to achieve some rights in the West before their counterparts elsewhere.

White women residing in many western states gained the franchise in the late-nineteenth century, earlier than women in other parts of the nation. The skewed gender ratio also led more white men to marry Mexican women, with greater frequency in some communities in the American Southwest. Primary-source documents will provide students with a more appropriate sense of the varied roles played by frontier women as students continue to address the question **How did family life change during the first half of the nineteenth century?**

Many women of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds felt trapped or limited by their gender in a place and time so dominated by men. Some women responded to this by working for social change. California's Annie Bidwell promoted women's rights—especially suffrage—temperance, and compulsory education. Other women handled the limitations of society by passing as or transforming themselves into men, thus benefiting from the greater opportunities men had in the West.

California's Charley Parkhurst, for example, who was born a female but who lived as a male, drove stagecoach routes in northern and central California for almost 30 years. Stagecoaches were the only way to travel long distances, and they served as a vital communication link between isolated communities. Parkhurst was one of the most famous California drivers, having survived multiple robberies while driving (and later killing a thief when he tried to rob Parkhurst a second time). Finally, gold rushes and western military life provide examples of frontier settings where men far outnumbered women and for this and many reasons, people lived less conventional lives.

The Causes, Course, and Consequences of the Civil War

- Why was there a Civil War?
- How was the United States transformed during the Civil War?
- How was the Civil War conducted militarily, politically, economically, and culturally?
- How was slavery abolished through the Civil War?

In this unit, students concentrate on the events leading up to and the conduct and consequences of the Civil War. By 1850, slavery had become too divisive for political leaders to ignore; a series of increasingly violent clashes over the decade shone a spotlight on how slavery as a political, economic, and social institution divided the country and would become the cause for an American civil war.

Students can begin their studies of the events leading up to the Civil War by exploring this question: **Why was there a Civil War?** Students can briefly review the constitutional compromises that forestalled the separation of the Union in the first half of the nineteenth century, especially the Missouri Compromise. But the compromises of the 1810s–1840s did not last. Ultimately, the nation fractured over the debate about the expansion of slavery into newly created western territories and states, especially after the Mexican–American War and the discovery of gold in California.

The Wilmot Proviso, the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas–Nebraska Act, the Ostend Manifesto, the Dred Scott case, the Lincoln–Douglas debates, and John Brown’s raid on Harper’s Ferry are all

The History Blueprint: Was the Civil War for Freedom?

The History Blueprint is a curriculum developed by the California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP) (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>), designed to increase student literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available for free download from the CHSSP Web site, including The Civil War, a comprehensive standards-aligned unit for eighth-grade teachers that combines carefully selected and excerpted primary sources, original content, and substantive support for student literacy development. For more information or to download the curriculum, visit: <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>.

important markers of how slavery had become the key problem dividing political leaders. Students can chart these developments in the years leading up to the Civil War, noting (on the one hand) how the issue of slavery was at the root of each event, but (on the other hand) how political leaders sought to avoid war at all costs.

Studying these events in this nuanced way is an exercise in understanding contingency and cause-and-effect; for example, political leaders who worked out the negotiations in the Compromise of 1850 did not want the country to divide and lapse into war, nor did they know that their series of compromises in 1850 would ultimately pave the way for this war. This is an important reminder for students to “think historically” to study the past on its own terms, but also understand how it would influence future events.

On December 20, 1860, South Carolina became the first state in the nation to secede from the Union. The state’s secession came in response to the presidential election of Abraham Lincoln the prior month, even though he was not to take office until March of 1861. South Carolina decided that Lincoln’s presidential win as a Republican—a party that supported the Free Soil platform, not the end of slavery in territories where it already existed—signaled that it could not continue as part of the United States.

South Carolina was joined by 12 other states in the coming months. They united together and formed the Confederate States of America in March 1861. Students learn about the fundamental challenge to the Constitution and the Union posed by the secession of the Southern states and the doctrine of nullification. When Lincoln took office in the same month that the Confederacy formed, he said his first task was to reunite the nation; he did not support freeing slaves in the South at this point. It became clear that war was likely a necessary step to attempt reunification when, between April 12 and April 14, 1861, Lincoln refused to withdraw American troops stationed at Fort Sumter, South Carolina.

As they consider the start of the Civil War, students should be encouraged to understand three key pieces of historical context: (1) at the beginning, the war was unpopular among Northerners, and the extremely high casualty rates continued to make it an unpopular war; (2) the South seceded because Southerners perceived Lincoln’s election to be a threat to the institution of slavery; and (3) at the beginning of the war, the purpose was not to end slavery, but to reunite the nation.

With this context in mind, students will learn through cause-and-effect and contingency how the civil war became a war to end slavery.

Students should continue to study the development and administration of the Civil War by employing the discipline-specific thinking skills of contingency and cause-and-effect. The following two questions can help frame this way of understanding the Civil War: **How was the United States transformed during the Civil War? How was the Civil War conducted militarily, politically, economically, and culturally?** Students should be reminded that actors in the war—whether political or military leaders, soldiers, slaves, or civilians—often did not know how the war would develop, what the results would be, or that slavery would come to a decisive end in four years.

At the outset of the war, the North and the South each had different advantages and strategies. The North, with its 3.8 million free men of military age, had a much larger pool of potential servicemen; it had 10 times the industrial capacity of the South; it had more than double the miles of railroad line to transport people and goods; it had many more ships and a navy; it also had West Point, the premier military academy in the country to train leaders in the midst of the war.

By comparison, the South had 1.1 million free men of military age, of which 80 percent were recruited for war. It did not have the industrial capacity that the North had because nearly all of its economic and technological resources were devoted to the cash crop of cotton. The South also had talented graduates of West Point leading its soldiers, who were more familiar with the landscape, and they fought most of the war on the defensive, which at least initially seemed to be a more winnable war to fight.

In addition, the Civil War demonstrated the advantages of a strong central government when facing the challenges of organizing for war. The coercive powers of the federal government to levy taxes, draft soldiers, suspend civil liberties, and impose martial law all enabled President Lincoln in prosecuting the war. Jefferson Davis and the Confederacy relied on a weak central government and the voluntary cooperation of state governments for the cause of Southern independence. These differences proved a decided advantage in favor of the North.

Students can be introduced to key battles, including Antietam, Vicksburg, and Gettysburg, that served as turning points in the war. Nevertheless, as they explore

up close the details of each battlefield, they should also be reminded to view the events with the broader historical significance in mind by revisiting a central question: **How did this battle affect the course of the war? How did this battle reflect broader patterns or struggles in the war?** In addition to studying the critical battlefield campaigns of the war, students learn how modern technologies of warfare combined with antiquated military tactics to produce massive casualties on both sides. The hundreds of thousands of sick and wounded required medical attention, which in turn resulted in a shortage of people to care for these soldiers. This acute need precipitated a crisis that led to the large-scale employment of women as nurses and administrators and, in the case of Mary Edwards Walker, a female doctor.



Students use a variety of primary sources to examine the human meaning of the war in the lives of soldiers, free African Americans, slaves, women, and others. Ultimately, enslaved men and women, by fleeing their plantations and seeking refuge among Union forces, contributed to redefining the war as a struggle over their freedom. Photographs, emerging technologies, and media reveal the horrors of the war and the new ways that civilians experienced warfare. Teachers may choose to assign James McPherson's *What They Fought For, 1861–1865* or teach the CHSSP's Civil War Blueprint curriculum to introduce students to what Northern and Southern soldiers believed the war was about and what they hoped to achieve by fighting.

In addition to learning about the administration and battlefield developments of the war, students should come away from their studies of the Civil War with an understanding that the purpose of the war changed as it was fought: from being a war to reunite the Union to being a war to end slavery. The following guiding question underscores this point for students: **How and why did the war become a war to end slavery?** Slaves freed themselves, fled to Union camps, and pressed military leaders and the president to consider the role of slaves in the war itself. Documents such as Lincoln's first and second inaugural addresses, the

Emancipation Proclamation, and the Gettysburg Address should be read and charted by students to trace the change in meaning to the war.

The Civil War and its immediate aftermath should be treated as a watershed event in American history. It resolved a challenge to the very existence of the nation, demolished the antebellum way of life in the South, and created the prototype of modern warfare. To understand Reconstruction, students consider the economic and social changes that came with the end of slavery and how African Americans attained political freedom and exercised that power within a few years after the war.

Students also explore the impact of Reconstruction on African American kinship structures and family life. Students study the postwar struggle for control of the South and of the impeachment of President Andrew Johnson. A federal civil rights bill granting full equality to African Americans was followed by adoption of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments.

Between 1865 and 1877, African American citizens, newly organized as Republicans, influenced the direction of Southern politics and elected 22 members of Congress. Republican-dominated legislatures established the first publicly financed education systems in the region, provided debt relief to the poor, and expanded women's rights. Students examine the effects of Reconstruction in the South by considering the question **How did Reconstruction redefine what it meant to be an American?** As important as the era was in expanding civil rights in the South, Reconstruction was temporary.

Students should employ cause-and-effect thinking skills to analyze the consequences of the 1872 Amnesty Act and the fateful election of 1876, followed by the prompt withdrawal of federal troops from the South. The nation experienced significant economic consequences from the Civil War and Reconstruction. Students learn about new laws, including the Morrill Tariff and Land Grant Act, the Transcontinental Railroad Acts, and the Homestead Act, to explore the expanding role that the government would play in developing the nation.

Students analyze how events during and after Reconstruction raised and then dashed hopes that African Americans would achieve full equality. They should understand how, over the next couple of decades, courts and political interests undermined the intent of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to

the Constitution. They learn how slavery was replaced by black peonage, segregation, Jim Crow laws, and other legal restrictions on the rights of African Americans, capped by the Supreme Court’s *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision in 1896 (“separate but equal”). Racism prevailed—enforced by lynch mobs, the Ku Klux Klan, popular sentiment, and federal acceptance—which spread outside of the South.

Students need to understand the connection between the Reconstruction-era amendments and the civil rights movement of the 1960s. Although undermined by the courts a century ago, these amendments became the legal basis for all civil rights progress in the twentieth century. Studies of this era may be concluded by returning to the question **How did the Civil War change the United States?**

The Rise of Industrial America: 1877–1914

- How did America’s economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?
- Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience like when they arrived?
- How did the federal government affect the country’s growth in the years following the Civil War?

The period from the end of Reconstruction to World War I transformed the nation into an industrial giant that made it as productive and industrialized as the major powers and producers in Europe. This complex period was marked by the settling of the trans–Mississippi West, the expansion and concentration of basic industries, the establishment of national transportation networks and new maritime routes, the invention of a variety of tools and industrial processes that increased economic productivity and efficiency, a human tidal wave of immigration from southern and eastern Europe, growth in the number and size of cities, accumulation of great fortunes by a small number of entrepreneurs, the rise of organized labor, growth of the women’s suffrage movement, and increased American involvement in foreign affairs (for example, through the construction of the Pacific Fleet, engagement in the Spanish–American War of 1898, and the completion of the Panama Canal).

Those years are often referred to as the *Gilded Age* (because of the mass accumulation of wealth by small numbers of extremely powerful individuals and companies) and the Progressive Era (because of the reform movement that started as a way to promote the interests of those who did not share in the prosperity of those years).

As a means of examining patterns of urbanization, immigration, and industrialization, students may refer to historic maps to identify physical features of American cities, building both chronological and spatial analysis skills. Viewing historical maps in chronological order allows students to trace growth patterns of cities and to recognize how a city's growth and industries demanded ever-increasing quantities of natural resources, gathered from increasingly greater distances. Students can unite their studies of these years by considering this question: **How did America's economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?**

Industrialization, the umbrella term that describes the major changes in technology, transportation, communication, the economy, and political system that fostered the growth, allowed for the ballooning prosperity at the turn of the century. New technology in farming, manufacturing, engineering, and production of consumer goods created material abundance. The flood of new items supported a larger population and made the producers of the goods very wealthy when prices were stable. Industrialization, combined with mass production, made possible the department store, suspension bridges, the telegraph, the discovery of and uses for electricity, high-rise buildings, tenements, and the streetcar. These and other features of modern life seemed to confirm the idea of unending progress.

Students may examine the impact of new inventions on the American economy, such as the refrigerator car, the telephone, or the electric light, through the construction of a virtual museum exhibit, which includes information about individual inventors, descriptions of the new invention or process, and the significance of the new discovery.



In addition to individual inventions, students examine the phenomenal growth in industrial efficiency and output during this period, due to increased mechanization and—with it—reduced production costs. Mechanization and factory production reduced labor costs and expanded production capacity. As a result, manufacturers could produce more goods for a lower price by using a strategically organized workforce.

As industry grew, many small businesses consolidated to form large monopolies that dominated a particular economic activity or commodity. These businesses, such as Standard Oil, often engaged in predatory pricing, where they undercut the cost of production in order to put their competitors out of business. Without competition, monopolies could then raise prices at will, effectively gouging consumers who had nowhere else to turn for their goods or services.

Economic progress was repeatedly disrupted, however, by prolonged periods of severe financial distress; the country suffered a number of economic recessions during the intense boom-and-bust cycles at the end of the nineteenth century. Students identify and explore patterns of agricultural, industrial, and commercial development in the United States in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and the effect of such development on the American environment (Environmental Principle II of the California EEI; see appendix G) and apply their knowledge to an exploration of how increased mechanization and production in the late nineteenth century influenced the growth of American communities (EEI curriculum unit “Agricultural and Industrial Development in the United States,” 8.12.1).

Leading industrialists of this period, such as Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller, became the wealthiest men in history and gave back some of that wealth to the nation through their philanthropic activities. Governments promoted the wealth consolidated by these men and supported business expansion and prosperity through favorable economic policies such as tariffs and land grants.

The rapid growth of the country in this period had important consequences for how people lived their lives. Beneath the surface of the Gilded Age, a dark side could be seen in the activities of corrupt political bosses; in the ruthless practices of businesses; in the depths of poverty, disease, and unemployment experienced in the teeming cities; in the grinding labor of women and children in sweatshops,

mills, and factories; in the prejudice and discrimination against African Americans, Hispanics, Catholics, Jews, Asians, and other newcomers; and in the violent repression of labor organizing, such as the Homestead Steel Strike in Pennsylvania and the Pullman Railway Strike.

Part of the reason the nation became as productive as it did in the last decades of the nineteenth century was because of a flood of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. Students can identify who migrated, why they came, how people found work, where they lived, and how they encountered this foreign country. Students can address these questions: **Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience like when they arrived?** They also learn about the long hours, poor wages, unhealthy work environments, and unregulated child labor that, according to author Upton Sinclair, amounted to *The Jungle* for the working class.

This system of labor and social organization was justified by leading social scientists who advocated social Darwinism or eugenics as scientific explanations and rationalizations for treating workers poorly. Students examine the importance of social Darwinism as a justification for child labor, unregulated working conditions, and *laissez-faire* policies toward big business.

The plight of labor and immigrants was not ignored by everyone at the turn of the century. Progressives, or American reformers who sought to provide a safety net for the most vulnerable of Americans, started to act as advocates for the poor by opening settlement houses like Hull House in Chicago, or working as muckraking journalists like Ida Tarbell, exposing poor work conditions.

Progressives eventually advocated broader reforms in urban areas by encouraging the government to establish minimum working-age requirements and pass the Pure Food and Drug Act, for example. Reformers also aligned themselves with workers themselves. Students can study the rise of the labor movement and understand the changing role of government in confronting social and economic challenges of the Gilded Age and Progressive Era. Students can review these shifts by considering the question **How did the federal government affect the country's growth in the years following the Civil War?**

Despite suffering from unsafe working and living conditions, immigrant and native-born men and women sometimes found themselves freer from family and

community control in urban centers. Socializing in public became the norm for working-class youths who had limited space where they lived, and the disparity between women's and men's wages gave rise to the practice of dating. The rise of commercialized entertainment such as movies, amusement parks, and dance halls fostered easier interaction among strangers.

Part of the reason this larger and more urban population could be sustained was because of major shifts in the country's geography and demographics. Students focus on the developing West and Southwest between the 1890s and 1910s.

Yet, in order for the West to be developed in this way, American Indians had to be once again relocated and, in many situations, removed. The American Indian wars, the creation of the reservation system, the development of federal Indian boarding schools, and the re-allotment of Native lands profoundly altered Native American social systems related to governance, family diversity, and gender diversity. Reading Chief Joseph's words of surrender to U.S. Army troops in 1877 helps students grasp the heroism and human tragedy that accompanied the conquest of this last frontier. Re-allotment entailed breaking up Native lands into privately held units (largely based on the Anglo-American model of the male-led nuclear family), displacing elements of female and two-spirit authority traditionally respected in many tribal societies. Boarding schools in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries took Native children away from their parents for years at a time, imposing Christianity, U.S. gender binaries and social roles, and English-only education in an attempt to make them into what school administrators viewed as proper U.S. citizens.

In addition to learning about Natives who were displaced for the development of the West, students study how the region was reconstructed to support the growing Native and immigrant population. The great mines and large-scale commercial farming of the nation's heartland provided essential resources for industrial development.

Advances in farming technology made land more productive than ever before. Nevertheless, they also led to falling crop prices, which squeezed small-time farmers who had been struggling to stay afloat. Students can learn through case studies of events—for example the Chicago World's Fair of 1893—and identify the “modern” agricultural, industrial, and commercial development of the time. They

can also describe the cause-and-effect relationships between climate, natural resources, population growth, and the scientific and technological advancements during this time period, and then apply their knowledge of these relationships to an analysis of the changing landscape in America around the turn of the century.

One way farmers reacted to these technological and economic pressures was through organizing. Students can consider the political programs and activities of the Grange Movement and Populists as examples of how farmers attempted to organize in the face of larger pressures.

California also came to play an increasingly significant role in the national economy. The Gold Rush in California, the building of the transcontinental railroad, and agricultural labor in Hawaii and the mainland spurred Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Filipino, Hindu, and Sikh immigration to the United States. Agricultural production and the growth of the oil industry accounted for much of California's early economic growth. Asian farmers and

Defining American Citizenship

To understand the sweeping changes that are covered in this period of American history, students consider the ways in which the quests for liberty and freedom have transformed the American populace. The course pays close attention to the opportunities and challenges that have confronted a diverse society. Teachers weave in the recurrent themes of citizenship and voting by emphasizing how these rights and privileges have been contested and reshaped over time. Starting with the freedoms outlined by the framers, students examine the many contributions of Americans seeking to expand civil rights across the country—to move forward in the continuing struggle to become a more perfect union.

Students learn what it means to be a good citizen (obeying laws), a participatory citizen (voting, jury duty, advocating causes), and a socially just citizen (community service, standing up for the rights of others). Students will also learn about the process by which people arriving in the United States can become citizens, the history of immigration in the United States, and the contributions of immigrants in this country. Analysis of the naturalization process will provide an understanding of the immigration process, enhance students' tolerance of and respect for others, help students develop an appreciation for the diversity of this country, and reinforce lessons of citizenship.

Finally, students can participate in service-learning projects that engage them in the democratic process by planning and participating in such activities as mock elections, associated student body elections and meetings, the naturalization process, voter registration, community service, and National History Day.

laborers contributed to the development of irrigation systems and farming throughout the state. Families from Mexico increasingly provided the labor force for the cultivation of this region.

Students study the social, economic, and political barriers encountered by both immigrants and American citizens of Mexican ancestry. Eventually the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) and the Immigration Act of 1917 greatly limited Asian entry into the United States. California built the immigration station at Angel Island to implement restrictions on Asian admissions. Despite the government's eventual tightening of restrictions on immigration in the second decade of the twentieth century, immigrants played an essential role in developing the country as both an agricultural and industrial giant.

Literature can deepen students' understanding of the life of this period, including the immigrant experience in the Great Plains portrayed in Willa Cather's *My Antonia* and O. E. Rolvaag's *Giants in the Earth*; life in the tenements of New York City as portrayed in Anzia Yezierska's *Bread Givers*; and life in the slums portrayed in Jacob Riis's books; the poems, journals, and journalism of Walt Whitman; and Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn*, unsurpassed as a sardonic commentary on the times.