**History I Midterm Review Sheet**

**Chapters 1 - 7**

The Midterm will be contain the following:

Matching

Fill in the Blank

Multiple Choice

**Chapter 1: Converging Cultures, Prehistory to 1520**

This chapter explores three cultures—Native American, African, and European—and the events that brought the cultures of Europe and Africa to the Americas.

**Section 1** introduces the early civilizations of Mesoamerica and North America. Using DNA, radiocarbon dating, and other evidence, researchers believe that the earliest Americans came from Asia 15,000 to 30,000 years ago. When early Americans learned how to raise crops, they abandoned their nomadic ways and began establishing communities. As time passed, villages grew, governments developed, social classes appeared, and America's first civilizations emerged. In Mesoamerica, the Olmec, Maya, Toltec, and Aztec developed sophisticated cities and trade networks. Early North American societies included the Hohokam and Anasazi of the Southwest, the Adena and Hopewell cultures of the Eastern Woodlands, and the Mississippians of the Mississippi River valley.

**Section 2** describes how various Native American cultures developed as communities adapted to their North American environments. Climate and surroundings influenced how Native American cultures established villages, built shelters, and obtained food. In the dry Southwest, corn was important to the survival of some groups, while the Pacific Coast cultures thrived off fish that flourished in the coastal waters and rivers. Farther inland, hunting and gathering was the way of life for groups such as the Nez Perce and Yakima. Some Native Americans were nomads who migrated with buffalo herds. The cold environment of the Far North forced the Inuit to depend on hunting, while Native Americans in the Eastern Woodlands combined hunting, fishing, and agriculture to provide their livelihood. The Native Americans of the Eastern Woodlands were divided into two major language groups—Algonquian and Iroquoian.

**Section 3** examines the early West, Central, and Southern African cultures. Trade routes along West Africa's vast savannah helped foster the development of large trading settlements. Three empires—Ghana, Mali, and Songhai—arose from the prosperity of West Africa's gold and salt trade. Along West Africa's southern coast, smaller states and kingdoms developed in the dense forests of Guinea. The rich farmlands and tropical climate allowed these people to produce food surpluses, which they traded for copper and salt. In Central and Southern Africa, many villagers lived along rivers in close-knit communities. While slavery existed in African society before Arabs or Europeans began purchasing enslaved Africans, the introduction of Islam, the gold trade, and European sugar plantations profoundly affected the African slave trade.

**Section 4** reviews several developments that helped Europe organize into centralized governments and embark on world exploration. After the fall of the Roman Empire, Europe suffered social and political fragmentation. Feudalism and the manorial system helped to erode the power and wealth of Europe's central governments. Around A.D. 1000 improvements in technology increased crop yields, reviving trade in Europe and promoting the growth of towns. When the Pope launched the Crusades, he unknowingly sparked a trade revolution. Contact with the civilizations of Eastern Europe and the Middle East increased western Europeans' demand for Eastern goods and motivated Europe to develop a money-based economy. As trade increased in Europe and towns grew, feudalism declined. With increased wealth and power, rulers began to create unified, strong central governments. By the mid-1400s, Portugal, Spain, England, and France were looking for a trade route to Asia that would bypass Muslim kingdoms. The Renaissance promoted advances in technology that made lengthy explorations possible.

**Section 5** describes early European encounters in America. Archaeological evidence suggests that the Vikings were the first Europeans to explore the Americas. In the late 1400s, Christopher Columbus landed his Spanish ships in the Bahamas and mistakenly thought he had reached the Indies. By the early 1500s, the Spanish had explored the major Caribbean islands, established colonies, and begun exploring the American mainland. A treaty with Portugal confirmed Spain's claim to the Americas. Amerigo Vespucci's explorations along the coast of South America proved that the land mass was not Asia. Other explorers, such as Ponce De Leon, Vasco de Balboa, and Ferdinand Magellan, headed to the newly named continent. European colonists in the Americas impacted the world's ecosystems and altered cultures worldwide. These interactions, called the Columbian Exchange, would prove to be both beneficial and catastrophic.

**Chapter 2: Colonizing America, 1519 -1733**

This chapter focuses on how the Spanish, French, and English founded colonies in North America that reflected their values and traditions.

**Section 1** explains how the Spanish and French built their American empires. During the early 1500s, Spanish explorers ventured into the area that is now Mexico and Peru. On their quest for gold and enslaved labor, they gained allies, spread disease, and conquered two Native American civilizations. Later Spanish expeditions explored North America's southern and southwestern areas. By the 1600s, the Spanish Catholic Church led the way in settling the Southwest. The people of Spain influenced the colonies' governing system, structured societies, and impact on Native Americans. The French took a different approach to colonization. French merchants, attracted by the lucrative fur market, established New France in what is today Nova Scotia. French fur traders and Jesuit missionaries commonly lived among the Native Americans and learned their culture. When France's king grew unhappy with the colony's slow growth, he took actions to expand its population and borders. As a result of one expedition, France gained a vast territory named Louisiana.

**Section 2** details how religious, economic, and political changes in England led the English to establish colonies in North America. By the late 1500s, new ideas swept through Europe that changed both religion and politics. These changes also affected what the English thought about colonization. Puritans looked for a place to practice their beliefs, England's poor and unemployed searched for new opportunities, and merchants needed to expand markets. As the rivalry with Spain intensified, English leaders pushed to establish outposts in America. The first colony, Roanoke, vanished mysteriously, and the second colony, Jamestown, was plagued with problems from its inception. Nearly abandoned, Jamestown found economic salvation in tobacco. Another English colony, Maryland, was founded to assure Catholics the freedom to practice their religion.

**Section 3** describes the founding of the New England colonies. Escaping religious persecution at home, Puritans sailed to America in 1620 and established the Plymouth colony in New England. More Puritans arrived in America when the Massachusetts Bay Company offered thousands of Puritans the opportunity for a new life. Since Puritan beliefs guided the government of Massachusetts, those who disagreed with Puritan ideas could be banished from the colony. Some who felt restricted in Massachusetts decided to establish more tolerant New England communities. Rhode Island's charter emphasized religious freedom with total separation of church and state. Connecticut offered a written constitution that granted all adult men the right to vote. To the north, settlers established the colonies of New Hampshire and Maine. After a war with Native Americans, English settlers gained complete control of New England.

**Section 4** discusses the Middle and Southern colonies that were founded along the Atlantic seaboard. After the English Civil War, England's monarchy and interest in colonization were restored. England's first move was to seize the successful Dutch colony of New Netherlands, now called New York. A portion of the territory became the New Jersey colony. The king granted Quaker William Penn a charter to found Pennsylvania. Penn's aim was to establish a colony where complete political and religious freedom could be practiced. Part of Penn's territory was land that later became the colony of Delaware. Friends and political allies of the king were granted land that became the Southern colonies of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. By 1770, England had built a large and prosperous society of settlers attracted by the opportunity to practice religious freedom and to prosper under new forms of government.

**Chapter 3: Colonial Ways of Life, 1607-1703**

This chapter focuses on how the different economies of the northern and southern colonies influenced their lifestyles and populations.

**Section 1** discusses how the Southern colonies developed agricultural economies that relied heavily upon enslaved labor. Favorable growing conditions helped Southern colonists to establish self-sufficient plantations. Their cash crops—tobacco, rice, and indigo—required intensive manual labor. At first, indentured servants were used for the backbreaking work, but slavery soon made its way into the colonies. The plantation system kept the colonies' wealth and political power in the hands of a wealthy elite, while a large, enslaved African population labored in the fields. This imbalance of power was tested when a rebellion in Virginia took up the cause of poor backcountry farmers who wanted to settle land claimed by Native Americans. In order to keep Virginia society stable, the wealthy elite responded to the rebellion by expanding settlement westward. At the same time they increased their use of enslaved Africans. The slave trade captured and forcibly transported millions of Africans to the Americas. By the early 1700s, slavery was commonplace in the colonies, and enslaved Africans found their status and rights restricted by slave codes.

**Section 2** explores the economies and societies of New England and the Middle Colonies. New England's geography helped the colonists develop thriving fishing, whaling, logging, and shipbuilding industries. Puritan beliefs guided colonists' behavior and encouraged them to develop towns—the heart of New England society. Town meetings formed the basis for the local town government and fostered New Englanders' strong belief in the right to self-government. New England's industries and fine ports encouraged some settlers to become merchants. The triangular trade systems helped colonists exchange their products for English goods. As trade expanded, cities formed, and social classes emerged in New England and the Middle Colonies. The fertile land of the Middle Colonies allowed colonists to cultivate an important cash crop—wheat. Wheat was in high demand, and the colonies' wide rivers helped farmers move their crops to the coast. Trade centers along the rivers grew into prosperous towns.

**Section 3** describes how England's mercantilist policies and the Glorious Revolution impacted the American colonies. The king tried to generate wealth in England by controlling manufacturing and trade in America. The Navigation Acts prevented the colonies from selling goods to other nations, taxed trade within the colonies, and instituted other restrictions. When customs officials found colonists smuggling, the king revoked the charters of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island and appointed an unpopular royal governor. Troubles in England led to the Glorious Revolution, and a new king and queen allowed Rhode Island and Connecticut to resume their previous governments. Massachusetts, however, became a royal, and more tolerant, colony. England's revolution and the writings of philosopher John Locke introduced Americans to the idea that there are times when revolution is justified.

**Section 4** follows the maturing of America into a productive, diverse society. During the 1700s, a high birthrate, a flood of immigrants, and the slave trade created a population explosion in the colonies. Immigrants from Europe sought religious or economic refuge and included German Mennonites, Scotch-Irish, and Jews. Enslaved Africans were forcibly brought to the colonies to work on the Southern plantations. They used various methods to resist planters' brutal treatment and developed a new culture that combined traditional African languages, religions, and music with English elements and the Christian faith. While the colonial population increased, the Enlightenment and the Great Awakening influenced colonial thought and caused many Americans to question traditional authority.

**Chapter 4: The American Revolution, 1754-1783**

This chapter focuses on the American Revolution—the factors that led the colonies to rebel, the battles of the war, and the impact the revolution had on American society.

**Section 1** discusses how Britain's tightening controls increased tensions in the American colonies. Victory in the French and Indian War left Britain deeply in debt. British leaders, who thought the colonies should help shoulder the war debt, levied new taxes and issued new regulations designed to maintain British authority in the colonies. Angry colonists united in their opposition to the controls and formed patriotic groups such as the Sons of Liberty and the Daughters of Liberty. Colonists protested with pamphlets, demonstrations, boycotts, and even violence. Objecting to the Stamp Act, representatives from nine colonies filed a declaration stating that only colonists' political representatives had the right to tax them. Their protests forced British lawmakers to repeal the Stamp Act, but Parliament retaliated by reasserting its right to make laws for the colonies. The Townshend Acts, another series of regulations and taxes, soon followed. Colonists' resistance and increasing violence in the colonies finally forced Britain to repeal nearly all the Townshend Acts.

**Section 2** details the events that led up to the colonists' declaration of independence from Britain. Even though the colonies enjoyed two years of peace, British policies continued to undermine colonial freedoms. Colonists formed the committees of correspondence to communicate with one another about British activities. Escalating colonial resistance provoked Britain to institute the Coercive Acts—a set of laws that severely restricted Massachusetts and violated several English rights. In response, colonists formed the First Continental Congress and organized a boycott of British goods. Continuing to defy Britain, Massachusetts created a provincial congress and militia. British control weakened as other colonies did the same. In April 1775, a battle in Lexington signaled the start of the war. A few weeks later the Second Continental Congress met and formed the Continental Army. Resigned that compromise was unlikely, the Continental Congress took actions to defend its government. Meanwhile, a persuasive pamphlet convinced many colonists that the time had come to declare independence. On July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress issued the Declaration of Independence, signaling the beginning of the Revolution.

**Section 3** explores the strategies and battles of the Revolutionary War. George Washington's inexperienced, poorly equipped band of soldiers seemed no match for the confident, well-trained British Army. The British plan to separate the New England states from the Southern states was hampered by their army's slow movement and their generals' failure to coordinate strategies. They successfully captured some important cities and kept Washington's troops on the move, but the British failed to surround American positions. Even though the bitter winter of 1777 devastated the Continental Army, an important victory in New York lifted Patriots' spirits and convinced France to send troops. Americans used surprise tactics and a stealthy militia to their advantage during the long struggle. The British economy suffered as Americans attacked British merchant ships. In 1781 Washington, supported by French troops and the French navy, surrounded the British at Yorktown, Virginia, and secured the British surrender.

**Section 4** describes how the war changed American society. When the colonists severed ties with Britain, they established a republic—a form of government where the power resides with a body of citizens entitled to vote. John Adams advocated that separate branches of government would prevent tyranny by the majority. He also argued that the legislature should be divided into two houses—the senate and the assembly. Many states wrote new constitutions based on his ideas. States also attached lists of individuals' rights to their constitutions. Changes in American society reflected a key component of a republic—the idea that all citizens are equal under law. It became easier for white men to gain the right to vote, governments separated themselves from churches, and women made some social gains. While thousands of enslaved African Americans gained their freedom during the Revolution, loyalists found they had lost their position in American society. The states began to build a national identity reinforced by patriotic symbols, folklore, and art.

**Chapter 5: Creating a Constitution, 1781 – 1789**

This chapter focuses on how the United States transformed from a young nation loosely structured under the Articles of Confederation to one with a strong federal government under the Constitution.

**Section 1** discusses why the government created by the Articles of Confederation failed to address many of the pressing needs of the new nation. The Articles of Confederation loosely united the states under the authority of the Confederation Congress. While Congress successfully addressed western settlement and commercial treaties, the problems of a weak central government soon became apparent. Difficulties with foreign powers arose from Congress’s inability to collect taxes, enforce treaties, and regulate trade. Conflicts at home involved interstate trade, a weak currency, and a growing national debt. Concerns over weakening property rights led to civil unrest in Massachusetts. Shays’s Rebellion left four farmers dead and the nation wondering if the Republic was at risk. As citizens deplored the act of lawlessness, many people began to call for a stronger central government.

**Section 2** describes the issues and debates of the Constitutional Convention. In 1787, 55 delegates from all states except Rhode Island attended the Constitutional Convention to address the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation. After reviewing new plans for the government, delegates voted to abandon the Articles of Confederation and begin anew. Debates about the new constitution often split delegates geographically and created disputes between small states and large states. A compromise divided state representation into two houses. In the House, representation was based on population, while in the Senate each state had equal representation. Other compromises settled conflicts over slavery. The convention then set to work on deciding how the government would operate. The delegates crafted a constitution that provided for a separation of federal power among the three branches of government—executive, legislative, and judicial—and created a system of checks and balances to prevent any one branch from becoming too powerful. They also included a system to allow amendments to the constitution. Their task complete, 39 delegates signed the new Constitution and waited to see if the states would ratify their document.

**Section 3** follows the campaign to secure approval of the new Constitution. The Federalists, who supported ratification, led a highly organized campaign that promoted the benefits of a strong central government. Antifederalists opposed ratification because they believed that the Constitution endangered the independence of the states. While several states quickly gave their approval to the new government, other states presented strong opposition. Massachusetts voted for ratification only after Federalists promised to attach a bill of rights to the Constitution. Another concession provided support for an amendment that enhanced states’ powers. By July 1788, 11 states had ratified the Constitution, and the United States launched its new government. The remaining two states ratified the Constitution after the new government was in place.

**Chapter 6: Federalists and Republicans, 1789-1816**

This chapter follows the events that established the young United States as a strong federal government capable of withstanding the challenges of foreign conflicts, political dissonance, and westward expansion.

**Section 1** looks at how leaders of the United States established a central government. In 1789 the United States elected its first president, and Congress introduced the Bill of Rights. That same year, Congressional leaders organized the judicial branch of government and created a bureaucracy of departments that would serve the executive branch. President George Washington appointed Alexander Hamilton to head the Treasury Department and Thomas Jefferson to act as secretary of state. Hamilton's controversial financial program—which included taxation, a system of public credit, and a national bank—sparked regional divisions and even caused a rebellion. Washington's support of Hamilton's programs enhanced the powers of the federal government, but the debate over these issues split Congress into factions. As a result, the nation's first political parties emerged. The Federalists supported Hamilton's idea of a nation of big business and powerful government. Democrat-Republicans agreed with Jefferson's idea that the rights of the states' governments were supreme over the federal government.

**Section 2** describes the foreign policy challenges of the Washington and Adams presidencies. British seizures of American ships and reports of British aggression in the western territories led Washington to seek a treaty with Britain. Jay's Treaty avoided war, but it created political divisions in Congress. In Pickney's Treaty, Spain granted the United States the right to navigate the Mississippi and deposit goods at the port of New Orleans. As Americans flocked to the West, Native Americans in the Northwest formed confederacies to defend their land. When federal troops crushed their resistance, the Treaty of Greenville granted most of present-day Ohio and Indiana to the United States. Washington said farewell to public service, and Americans elected Federalist John Adams to the presidency. Adams' term was marked by a Quasi-War with France and political discord. Federalists exercised their muscle with the Alien and Sedition Acts, and Republicans countered with resolutions that supported states' rights. An unexpected outcome in the presidential election of 1800 gave the Republicans control and proved that the United States could transfer executive power peacefully.

**Section 3** follows President Thomas Jefferson's two terms in office. After two Federalist presidents, Jefferson brought his democratic views to the presidency. Hoping to limit the scope of federal power, he reduced the federal debt, cut government spending, and eliminated the whiskey tax. He attempted to cancel Federalist control of the federal courts, but an important decision by Supreme Court Justice John Marshall established the Supreme Court as a powerful, independent branch of the federal government. Jefferson's enthusiastic support of western expansion led to the Louisiana Purchase and expeditions that fueled Americans' interest in the newly acquired territories. During his second term, Jefferson tried to keep the United States out of the war between Britain and France. An unpopular embargo halted all trade between the United States and Europe and ended up paralyzing American industry. Congress repealed the embargo shortly before Jefferson left office.

**Section 4** describes how the War of 1812 gave Americans a strong sense of national pride. When Republican James Madison assumed the presidency, war with Britain was already on the horizon. Americans were angry over trade restrictions and British seizures of American ships and sailors. Some Western settlers blamed the British for inciting Native American attacks along the frontier. In Congress, War Hawks called for action, while northeastern leaders asked for restraint. Hoping to avoid war, both Madison and Congress tried strategies to force Britain to repeal its trade restrictions. A non-importation act against Britain finally worked, but not soon enough. In June 1812, the United States declared war on Britain. American forces tried to invade British-held Canada, but British troops successfully defended their territory. The British burned the White House and Capitol, but they failed to capture Baltimore and New Orleans. A treaty ended the war, and the United States emerged from battle with a new spirit of national unity.

**Chapter 7: Growth and Division 1816-1832**

This chapter surveys the policies, technologies, and attitudes that fostered the development of the North’s industrial economy and the South’s agricultural economy, and how those economies impacted national unity.

**Section 1** discusses how United States nationalism increased significantly after the War of 1812. The War of 1812 taught Republicans the value of a strong federal government, and a new spirit of unity swept the nation. Republicans established a new national bank and passed a tariff that nurtured American industry. Three important Supreme Court decisions strengthened the power of the federal government over the states and shaped the future of American government. In a confident show of force against the Seminoles, the United States pressured Spain to sign a treaty ceding all of Florida. The treaty also finalized the western border of the Louisiana Purchase lands and the Texas territory. In foreign affairs, the United States issued the Monroe Doctrine to proclaim the Western Hemisphere closed to further European colonization.

**Section 2** describes how revolutions in transportation and industry brought great changes to the northern United States. By the early 1800s, a transportation network of roads, canals, and railroads began to crisscross the country. New machines, such as the steamboat and the locomotive engine, stimulated commerce and travel, while the telegraph revolutionized communications. Factories sprang up throughout the Northeast, and the nature of manufacturing changed. No longer would Americans work in home-based workshops producing their own goods. Large factories employed thousands of workers—mostly women, children, and immigrants— to perform specific, often unskilled, tasks on large, complex machines. Industrialization led to the rise of large cities as thousands of people left farms and villages to seek higher-paying factory jobs in Northeast cities.

**Section 3** explains how the agricultural economy deepened the South’s dependence on the institution of slavery. Eli Whitney’s invention of the cotton gin stimulated the Southern economy, and by the 1840s the South had crowned cotton its "king" crop. As the South’s economy grew more entrenched in agriculture, the demand for enslaved labor increased. A planter society developed in which a small group of wealthy planters was at the top of the class structure, and enslaved Africans at the bottom. Most enslaved African Americans spent their lives in bondage, laboring year after year in rice and cotton fields. While some free African Americans prospered in the cities of the upper South, their rights varied from state to state. Free African Americans in the North, where slavery had been outlawed, still suffered discrimination and had few opportunities. Enslaved African Americans developed their own culture and exercised resistance to cope with the horrors of enslavement.

**Section 4** details how growing sectionalism splintered American unity. With different economies and opposing views on slavery, Northern and Southern leaders found it difficult to agree on national issues. Missouri’s application for statehood sparked a heated debate that was only quieted by a compromise. Leaders designed the Missouri Compromise to not only preserve the balance of power between free and slave states in the Senate, but to also draw the borders of slavery. The presidential election of 1824 revealed regional differences within the Republican Party. Among the four Republican "favorite sons," Andrew Jackson won the popular vote, but no candidate won a majority of the electoral votes. When the vote went before the House of Representatives, John Quincy Adams was elected president. Jackson’s supporters angrily protested the outcome and decided to form a new political party. Adams’s ambitious federal programs received little support in Congress, and by the election of 1828, Jackson’s supporters were ready to show the world a new kind of democracy.