ITMO UNIVERSITY

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The USA: from Roots to Establishment of the State

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2015

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИТМО

Маркушевская Л.П., Процуто М.В.

США: от истоков к становлению государства.

Учебное пособие по страноведению

Санкт-Петербург
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Учебное пособие «The USA: from the Roots to the Establishment of the State» представляет собой лекционно-практический курс об основных исторических, политических и культурных событиях страны с момента открытия континента и до наших дней, способствующий приобретению обучающимися социально-культурной компетенции.

Данное пособие может использоваться как на аудиторных занятиях так и для самостоятельной работы бакалавров.

Степень освоения теоретического материала проверяется контрольными вопросами, тестовыми заданиями и темами для дискуссионного обсуждения.

В каждой главе представлен лексический вокабуляр, позволяющий легче освоить прорабатываемый материал.

Для углубления знаний по изучаемому материалу также предлагается подборка тематических фильмов с последующими тестовыми заданиями.

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УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИТМО

Университет ИТМО – ведущий вуз России в области информационных и фотонных технологий, один из немногих российских вузов, получивших в 2009 году статус национального исследовательского университета. С 2013 года Университет ИТМО – участник программы повышения конкурентоспособности российских университетов среди ведущих мировых научно-образовательных центров, известной как проект «5 в 100». Цель Университета ИТМО – становление исследовательского университета мирового уровня, предпринимательского по типу, ориентированного на интернационализацию всех направлений деятельности.

УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИТМО

Миссия университета – генерация передовых знаний, внедрение инновационных разработок и подготовка элитных кадров, способных действовать в условиях быстро меняющегося мира и обеспечивать опережающее развитие науки, технологий и других областей для содействия решению актуальных задач.

КАФЕДРА ИНОСТРАННЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ

THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The department of foreign languages was established on 20 September 1931. At that time the first new structural subdivision was singled out and the first head of the department, the associate –professor Falk K.I. (1931-1941) was assigned.

13 teachers worked at the department, namely, 7 teachers of English and 6 teachers of German.

The department of foreign languages was headed by:

1941-1951 senior teacher Mitskevich Z.P.

1953-1973 senior teacher Lisikhina B.L.

1973-1993 senior teacher Dygina M.S.

1993-2012 professor Markushevskaya L.P.

Assistant professor Protsuto M.V. has headed the department since 2012.

At present the department consists of four sections: English, French, Russian and German, 30 teachers working in the staff.

More than 75 manuals were published at the department. The electronic versions of English Grammar, Computer in Use, Studying Optics have been produced. It helps students to improve their knowledge working on computers.

Much attention is given to working out different tests for distance education and special courses.

ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

A NEW WORLD

The First Americans

At daybreak on the morning of Friday, August 3 1492, an Italian adventurer named Christopher Columbus set sail from Spain to find a new way from Europe to Asia. His aim was to open up a shorter trade route between the two continents. In Asia, he intended to load his three small ships with silks, spices and gold, and sail back to Europe a rich man.

Columbus believed that he had landed in the Indies, a group of islands close to the mainland of India. For this reason he called the friendly, brown-skinned people who greeted him “los Indios”-Indians.

In fact, Columbus was not near India. It was not the edge of Asia that he had reached, but islands off the shores of a new continent. Europeans would soon name the new continent America, but for many years they went on calling its inhabitants Indians. Only recently have these first Americans been described more accurately as “native Americans" or Amerindians,

There were many different groups of Amerindians. Those norths of Mexico, in what is now the United States and Canada, were scattered across the grasslands and forests in separate groups called “tribes.” These tribes followed very different ways of life. Some were hunters, some were farmers.

Some were peaceful, others warlike. They spoke over three hundred separate languages, some of which were as different from one another.

Europeans called America “the New World.” But it was not new to the Amerindians. Their ancestors had already been living there for maybe 50,000 years when Columbus stepped on to the beach in San Salvador.

Scientists believe that the distant ancestors of the Amerindians came to America from Asia. This happened, they say, during the earth's last ice age, long before people began to make written records.

At that time a bridge of ice joined Asia to America across what is now the Bering Strait. Hunters from Siberia crossed this bridge into Alaska, From Alaska the hunters moved south and east across America, following herds of caribou and buffalo as the animals went from one feeding ground to the next.

For many centuries early Amerindians lived as wandering hunters and gatherers of food. Then a more settled way of life began. People living in highland areas of what is now Mexico found a wild grass with tiny seeds that were good to eat. These people became America’s first farmers. They cultivated the wild grass with great care to make its seeds larger. Eventually it became Indian corn, or maize. Other cultivated plant foods were developed. By 5000 bc. Amerindians in Mexico were growing and eating beans, squash and peppers.

The Pueblo people of present day Arizona and New Mexico were the best organized of the Amerindian farming peoples. They lived in groups of villages, or in towns which were built for safety on the sides and tops of cliffs. They shared terraced buildings made of adobe (mud and straw) bricks, dried in the sun. For food they grew crops of maize and beans. Irrigation made them successful as farmers. Long before Europeans came to America the Pueblo were building networks of canals across the deserts to bring water to their fields.

A people called the Apache were the neighbors of the Pueblo. The Apache never became settled farmers. They wandered the deserts and mountains in small bands, hunting deer and gathering wild plants, nuts and roots. They also obtained food by raiding their Pueblo neighbors and stealing it. The Apache were fierce and warlike, and they were much feared by the Pueblo. The Iroquois were a group of tribes—a "nation" — who lived far away from the Pueblo and the Apache in the thick woods of northeastern North America. Like the Pueblo, the Iroquois were skilled farmers. They were also hunters and fishermen. They used birch bark canoes to carry them swiftly along the rivers and lakes of their forest homeland. The Iroquois lived in permanent villages, in long wooden huts. These huts were made from a framework of saplings covered by sheets of elm bark. Each was home to as many as twenty families. Each family had its own apartment on either side of a central hall.

The Iroquois were fierce warriors. They were as feared by their neighbors as the Apache of the western deserts were feared by theirs. Around their huts they built strong wooden stockades to protect their villages from enemies. From childhood on, male Iroquois were taught to fear neither pain nor death. Bravery in battle was the way for a warrior to win respect and a high position in his tribe.

Many miles to the west, on the vast plains of grass that stretched from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, there was another warrior nation. This group called themselves Dakota, which means "allies." But they were better known by the name which other Amerindians gave to them —Sioux, which means "enemies."

The Sioux grew no crops and built no houses. For food, for shelter and for clothing they depended upon the buffalo. Millions of these large, slow-moving animals wandered across the western grasslands in vast herds. When the buffalo moved, the Sioux moved. The buffalo never remained on one pasture for long, so everything the Sioux owned was designed to be carried easily. Within hours they could take down the tepees, the conical buffalo-skin tents that were their homes, pack their belongings in lightweight leather bags and move off after the buffalo. They even carried fire from one camp to the next.

To many people the tepee is a symbol of the Amerindian way of life. This large cone-shaped tent was invented by the buffalo hunters of the western grasslands. It was built round a framework of about twelve slim, wooden poles approximately twenty feet long. A doorway covered with a flap of skin was left in the side and an opening at the top acted as a chimney. The outside of the tepee was decorated with painted designs that had religious or historical meanings.

The lifestyle of the people of North America's northwest coast was different again. They gathered nuts and berries from the forests, but their main food was fish, especially the salmon of the rivers and the ocean.

The Amerindian peoples of North America developed widely varied ways of life. All suited the natural environments in which the tribes lived, and they lasted for many centuries. But the arrival of Europeans with their guns, their diseases and their hunger for land would eventually destroy them all.

EXPLORERS FROM EUROPE

In the centuries after 1492 stories and legends grew up about other adventurous seamen having reached the New World long before Columbus. One legend tells how a Buddhist monk named Hoei-Shin sailed from China to Mexico in ad 459. Another claims that an Irish monk named Brendan the Bold landed in America in ad 551. Yet another says that the first European to reach the New World was Leif Ericson, "Lucky Leif," a Viking sailor from Iceland. And as recently as 1953 a plaque was set up at Mobile Bay in the modern American state of Alabama which reads "In memory of Prince Madoc, a Welsh explorer who landed on the shores of Mobile Bay in 1170 and left behind, with the Indians, the Welsh language."

All these stories have their supporters. But only in the case of the Vikings have modern scholars found firm evidence to support the old legends. In the 1960s archaeologists uncovered traces of Viking settlements in both Newfoundland and New England.

The Vikings were a sea-going people from Scandinavia in northern Europe. They were proud of their warriors and explorers and told stories called "sagas" about them. The saga of Leif Ericson tells how he sailed from Greenland to the eastern coast of North America in about the year AD 1000. When he found vines with grapes on them growing there, he named the place where he landed "Vinland the Good."

Other Vikings followed Leif to Vinland. But the settlements they made there did not last. The hostility of the local Amerindians and the dangers of the northern seas combined to make them give up their attempt to colonize Vinland. The Vikings sailed away and their discovery of Vinland was forgotten except by their storytellers.

It was the Spanish who began the lasting European occupation of America. When Columbus returned to Spain he took back with him some jewelry that he had obtained in America. This jewelry was important because it was made of gold. In the next fifty years thousands of treasure-hungry Spanish adventurers crossed the Atlantic Ocean to search for more of the precious metal. It was a lust for gold that led Hernan Cortes to conquer the Aztecs in the 1520s. The Aztecs were a wealthy, city-building Amerindian people who lived in what is today Mexico. In the 1530s the same lust for gold caused Francisco Pizarro to attack the equally wealthy empire of the Incas of Peru. A stream of looted treasure began to flow across the Atlantic to Spain from a new empire built up by such conquerors — "conquistadores"-in Central and South America.

In the years that followed, other Spanish conquistadores took the search for gold to North America. Between 1539 and 1543 Hernando de Soto and Francisco Coronado, working separately, explored much of the southern part of what is now the United States. De Soto landed in Florida from Cuba. He led his expedition westward, discovering the Mississippi River and traveling beyond it into Texas and Oklahoma. Coronado traveled north from Mexico, searching for the "Seven Cities of Gold" that Amerindian legends said lay hidden somewhere in the desert. He never found them. But he and his men became the first Europeans to see the

Grand Canyon of the Colorado River and they journeyed as far east as Kansas before returning to Mexico.

The journeys of men such as de Soto and Coronado gave Spain a claim to a large amount of land in North America. They also led to the founding of some of the earliest permanent European settlements there. In 1565 Spanish settlers founded St. Augustine on the coast of present-day Florida. In 1609 other settlers founded Santa Fe in New Mexico.

The growing wealth of Spain made other European nations envious. They became eager to share the riches of the New World. In 1497 King Henry VII of England hired an Italian seaman named John Cabot to explore the new lands and to look again for a passage to Asia. Cabot sailed far to the north of the route Columbus had followed. Eventually he reached the rocky coast of Newfoundland. At first Cabot thought that this was China. A year later he made a second westward crossing of the Atlantic.

Cabot found no gold and no passage to the East. But his voyages were valuable for the English. In later years English governments used them to support their claims to own most of the east coast of North America.

The French also sent explorers to North America. In 1524 the French king, Francis 1, sent an Italian sailor named Giovanni Verrazano for the same purpose as Columbus and Cabot—to find lands rich in gold and a new sea route to Asia. Verrazano sailed the full length of the east coast of America, but found neither. However, he anchored his ship in what is now the harbor of New York. Today a bridge which carries his name, the Verrazano Narrows Bridge, is one of the city's most impressive sights.

Ten years later another French explorer, a fisherman from Normandy named Jacques Cartier, discovered the St. Lawrence River. He returned to France and reported that the forests lining the river's shores were full of fur-bearing animals and that its waters were full of fish. The next year he sailed further up the river, reaching the site of the present-day city of Montreal. Cartier failed to find the way to Asia that he was looking for, but he gave France a claim to what would later become Canada.

By the seventeenth century plenty of people in Europe were ready to settle in America. Some hoped to become rich by doing so. Others hoped to find safety from religious or political persecution. In the hundred years after 1600, Europeans set up many colonies in North America for reasons like these.

Virginian Beginnings

It was the morning of May 26 in the year 1607 that the sailors tied their ships to trees on the banks of a broad and deep river. They named the river the James, in honor of James I, king of England, the country from which they had set sail five long months before. Just over a hundred men went ashore. On the swampy banks they began cutting down bushes and trees and building rough shelters for themselves. By the end of the year two out of every three of them were dead. But their little group of huts became the first lasting English settlement in America. They named it Jamestown.

The early years of the Jamestown settlement were hard ones. This was partly the fault of the settlers themselves. The site they had chosen was low-lying and malarial. And although their English homeland was many miles away across a dangerous ocean, they failed to grow enough food to feed themselves. They were too busy dreaming of gold.

The settlers had been sent to Jamestown by a group of rich London investors. These investors had formed the Virginia Company. The Company's purpose was to set up colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America. It was a joint stock company—that is, the investors paid the costs of its expeditions and in return were given the right to divide up any profits it made. The Jamestown settlers were employees of the Virginia Company. The Company's directors hoped that the settlers would find pearls, silver, or some other valuable product in Virginia and so bring them a quick profit on their investment. Most of all, they hoped that the colonists would find gold, as the Spanish conquistadores had done in Mexico.

The colonists eagerly obeyed the Company's orders to search for gold. By doing so they hoped to become rich themselves.

And then the colonists began to die—in ones, in twos, finally in dozens. Some died in Amerindian attacks, some of diseases, some of starvation. By April 1608, out of a total of 197 Englishmen who had landed in Virginia only fifty-three were still alive.

Jamestown reached its lowest point in the winter of 1609-1610. Of the 500 colonists living in the settlement in October 1609, only sixty were still alive in March 1610. This was "the starving time." Yet new settlers continued to arrive. The Virginia Company gathered homeless children from the streets of London and sent them out to the colony. Then it sent a hundred convicts from London's prisons. Such emigrants were often unwilling to go. The Spanish ambassador in London told of three condemned criminals who were given the choice of being hanged or sent to Virginia. Two agreed to go, but the third chose to hang.

Some Virginia emigrants sailed willingly, however. For many English people these early years of the seventeenth century were a time of hunger and suffering. Incomes were low, but the prices of food and clothing climbed higher every year. Many people were without work. And if the crops failed, they starved. Some English people decided that it was worth risking the possibility of hardships in Virginia to escape from the certainty of them at home. For Virginia had one great attraction that England lacked: plentiful land. This seemed more important than the reports of disease, starvation and cannibalism there. In England, as in Europe generally, the land was owned by the rich. In Virginia a poor man could hope for a farm of his own to feed his family.

For a number of years after 1611, military governors ran Virginia like a prison camp. They enforced strict rules to make sure that work was done. But it was not discipline that saved Virginia. It was a plant that grew like a weed there: tobacco. Earlier visitors to America, like Sir Walter Raleigh, had brought the first dried leaves of tobacco to England. Its popularity had been growing ever since, for smoking, for taking as snuff, even for brewing into a drink. In 1613 Rolfe shipped the first load of Virginia tobacco to England. London merchants paid high prices because of its high quality.

Soon most of the Virginia settlers were busy growing tobacco. They cleared new land along the rivers and ploughed up the streets of Jamestown itself to plant more. They even used it as money. The price of a good horse in Virginia, for example, was sixteen pounds of top quality tobacco. The possibility of becoming rich by growing tobacco brought wealthy men to Virginia. They obtained large stretches of land and brought workers from England to clear trees and plant tobacco. Soon their estates, or "plantations," could be seen through the trees along the banks of the James river.

Most of the workers on these early plantations were "indentured servants" from England. They promised to work for an employer for an agreed number of years—about seven was average - in exchange for food and clothes. At the end they became free to work for themselves. Luckier ones were given a small piece of land to start a farm of their own — if they were still alive.

The same was true for many in Virginia. Nor was hunger the only problem. Diseases like malaria and wars against the Amerindians continued to kill hundreds of settlers. Between 1619 and 1621 about 3,560 people left England to settle in Virginia. Before those years were over, 3,000 of them were dead.

But the survivors stayed. In 1619 there was an important change in the way they were governed.

Virginia's affairs had been controlled so far by governors sent over by the Virginia Company. Now the Company allowed a body called the House of Burgesses to be set up.

The House of Burgesses met for the first time in August 1619. In that same month Virginia saw another important beginning. A small Dutch warship anchored at Jamestown. On board were twenty captured black Africans. The ship's captain sold them to the settlers as indentured servants.

The blacks were set to work in the tobacco fields with white indentured servants from England. But there was a very serious difference between their position and that of the whites working beside them. White servants were indentured for a fixed number of years. Their masters might treat them badly, but they knew that one day they would be free. Black servants had no such hope. Their indenture was for life. In fact they were slaves—although it was years before their masters openly admitted the fact.

The Virginia Company never made a profit. By 1624 it had run out of money. The English government put an end to the Company and made itself responsible for the Virginia colonists. Out of nearly 10,000 settlers sent out since 1607, a 1624 census showed only 1,275 survivors.

But their hardships had toughened the survivors. Building a new homeland in the steamy river valleys of Virginia had proved harder and taken longer than anyone had expected. But this first society of English people overseas had put down living roots into the American soil.

Puritans New England

"Pilgrims" are people who make a journey for religious reasons. But for Americans the word has a special meaning. To them it means a small group of English men and women who sailed across the Atlantic Ocean in the year 1620.

The group's members came to be called the Pilgrims because they went to America to find religious freedom. Sometimes Americans call them the Pilgrim Fathers. The Europe that the Pilgrims left behind them was torn by religious quarrels. For more than a thousand years Roman Catholic Christianity had been the religion of most of its people. By the sixteenth century, however, some Europeans had begun to doubt the teachings of the Catholic Church. They were also growing angry at the wealth and worldly pride of its leaders.

Early in the century a German monk named Martin Luther quarreled with these leaders. He claimed that individual human beings did not need the Pope or the priests of the Catholic Church to enable them to speak to God. A few years later a French lawyer named John Calvin put forward similar ideas. Calvin claimed that each individual was directly and personally responsible to God. Because they protested against the teachings and customs of the Catholic Church, religious reformers like Luther and Calvin were called "Protestants." Their ideas spread quickly through northern Europe.

Few people believed in religious toleration at this time. In most countries people were expected to have the same religion as their ruler. This was the case in England. In the 1530s the English king Henry VIII, formed a national church with himself as its head. In the later years of the sixteenth century many English people believed that this Church of England was still too much like the Catholic Church. They disliked the power of its bishops. They disliked its elaborate ceremonies and the rich decorations of its churches. They also questioned many of its teachings. Such people wanted the Church of England to become more plain and simple, or "pure ". Because of this they were called Puritans.

When James I became King of England in 1603 he warned the Puritans that he would drive them from the land if they did not accept his ideas on religion.

His bishops began fining the Puritans and putting them in prison. To escape this persecution, a small group of them left England and went to Holland, Holland was the only country in Europe whose government allowed religious freedom at this time.

The people of Holland welcomed the little group of exiles. But the Puritans never felt at home there.

After much thought and much prayer they decided to move again. Some of them —the Pilgrims —decided to go to America.

First they returned briefly to England. Here they persuaded the Virginia Company to allow them to settle in the northern part of its American lands. On September 16, 1620, the Pilgrims left the English port of Plymouth and headed for America. They were accompanied by a number of other emigrants they called "Strangers."

The Pilgrims' ship was an old trading vessel, the *May flower*. For years the *May flower* had carried wine across the narrow seas between France and England. Now it faced a much more dangerous voyage. For sixty-five days the *May flower* battled through the rolling waves of the north Atlantic Ocean. At last, on November 9, 1620, it reached Cape Cod, what is now the state of Massachusetts.

Cape Cod is far to the north of the land granted to the Pilgrims by the Virginia Company. But the Pilgrims did not have enough food and water, and many were sick. They decided to land at the best place they could find. On

December 21, 1620, they rowed ashore and set up camp at a place they named Plymouth.

The Pilgrims' chances of surviving were not high. The frozen ground and the deep snow made it difficult for them to build houses. They had very little food. Before spring came, half of the little group of a hundred settlers were dead.

But the Pilgrims were *determined to succeed. The fifty* survivors built better *houses. They learned how to* fish and hunt. *Friendly* Amerindians gave *them seed* corn and showed them how to *plant it. It was not* the end of their *hardships,* but when a *ship* arrived in Plymouth *in 1622 and offered* to *take* passengers back to *England, not one of the Pilgrims* accepted.

Other English Puritans *followed the Pilgrims to* America. Ten years later a much larger group of almost a thousand colonists settled nearby in what became the Boston area. *These people left England to* escape the rule of a new king, Charles *1. Charles was* even less *tolerant than his father James had been of* people who disagreed with his policies in *religion and* government.

The Boston settlement prospered from *the start. Its* population grew quickly as more and more *Puritans* left England to escape persecution. Many years later, in 1691, it combined with *the Plymouth colony* under the *name of* Massachusetts.

The ideas of the Massachusetts *Puritans had a lasting* influence on American society.

The Puritans of Massachusetts believed that governments had a duty to make people obey God's will. They passed laws to force people to attend church and laws to punish drunks and adulterers. Even men who let their hair grow long could be in trouble.

Roger Williams, a Puritan minister in a settlement called Salem, believed that it was wrong to run the affairs of Massachusetts in this way. He objected particularly to the fact that the same men controlled both the church and the government.

In 1535the Massachusetts leaders sent men to arrest him. But Williams escaped and with his followers set up a new colony called Rhode Island. Rhode Island promised its citizens complete religious freedom and separation of church and state.

By the end of the seventeenth century English colonies stretched along the east coast of North America. More or less in the middle was Pennsylvania. This was founded in 1681 by William Penn. Under a charter from the English king, Charles II, Penn was the proprietor, or owner, of Pennsylvania.

Penn belonged to a religious group, the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers. Quakers refused to swear oaths or to take part in wars.

Penn's promise of religious freedom, together with his reputation for dealing fairly with people, brought settlers from other European countries to Pennsylvania. From Ireland came settlers who made new farms in the western forests of the colony. Many Germans came also. Most were members of small religious groups who had left Germany to escape persecution. They were known as the Pennsylvania Dutch. This was because English people at this time called most north Europeans "Dutch."

New York had previously been called New Amsterdam. It had first been settled in 1626. In 1664 the English captured it from the Dutch and re-named it New York. A few years later, in 1670, the English founded the new colonies of North and South Carolina. The last English colony to be founded in North America was Georgia, settled in 1733.

Colonial Life in America

By the year 1733 the English owned thirteen separate colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America.

Most people divided them into three main groups. Each group had its own way of life and character.

In the far north was the New England group, centered on Massachusetts. Since the time of the Pilgrims the people of New England had spread inland and along the coast. Most were small farmers or craftsmen, working the stony soil and governing themselves in small towns and villages.

Other New Englanders depended on the sea for a living. They felled the trees of the region's forests to build ships. In these they sailed to catch cod or to trade with England and the West Indies. Boston and other coastal towns grew into busy ports. Their prosperity depended on trade.

The nearest colonies to the south of New England were called the Middle Colonies. The biggest were New York and Pennsylvania. As in New England, most of their people lived by farming. But in the cities of New York and Philadelphia there were growing numbers of craftsmen and merchants. Philadelphia was the capital of Pennsylvania. By 1770 it was the largest city in America, with 28,000 inhabitants.

The people of the Middle Colonies were usually more tolerant of religious and other differences than the New Englanders. Many of them also had German, Dutch or Swedish ancestors rather than English ones.

The Southern Colonies of Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia formed the third group. In their hot and fertile river valleys wealthy landowners farmed large plantations. They lived in fine houses, with wide, cool verandahs from which they could look out over their fields of tobacco or cotton. Most of the work in the fields was done by black slaves. Slavery was rare in the other American colonics. But the prosperity of the plantation-owning southerners was already beginning to depend upon it.

The houses of the southern plantation owners had expensive furniture, much of it imported from Europe. Close by stood groups of smaller, more simple buildings—stables, washhouses, blacksmiths' shops and the little huts in which the black slaves lived. And almost always a river flowed nearby, with a wharf where sea-going ships could be loaded to carry the plantation's crops to England.

In all three groups of colonies most people still lived less than fifty miles from the coast. This was called "the tidewater" period of settlement. Those people furthest inland had traveled up tidal rivers like the James and the Hudson, clearing the trees and setting up farms along their banks.

During the fifty years after 1733 settlers moved deeper into the continent. They traveled west into central Pennsylvania, cutting down forests of oak trees to

make hilly farms. They spread westward along the river valleys in Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia. They moved north along the fertile valley of the Mohawk River of New York.

Making a new settlement always began in the same way. The settlers cleared the land of trees, then cut the trees into logs and planks. They used these to build a house and a barn. They then ploughed between the tree stumps, sowed their seeds, and four months later harvested the crops of corn and wheat.

If their soil was fertile the settlers lived well. Settlers with poor soil often left their farms and moved westward. As they traveled inland they passed fewer and fewer farms and villages. At last there were none at all. This area, where European settlement came to an end and the forest homelands of the Amerindians began, was called the frontier.

Fresh waves of settlers pushed the frontier steadily westwards in their search for fertile soil. Because of this, frontier farms and villages were often separated by miles of unsettled land. A family might be a day's journey from its nearest neighbors. For such reasons the people of frontier communities had to rely upon themselves for almost everything they needed.

A special spirit, or attitude, grew out of this frontier way of life. People needed to be tough, independent and self-reliant. Yet they also needed to work together, helping each other with such tasks as clearing land and building houses and barns. The combination of these two ideas—a strong belief that individuals had to help themselves and a need for them to cooperate with one another—strengthened the feeling that people were equal and that nobody should have special rights and privileges.

The Roots of Revolution

In the eighteenth century Britain and France fought several major wars. The struggle between them went on in Europe, Asia and North America.

In North America, France claimed to own Canada and Louisiana.

In the middle of the eighteenth century most of the forests and plains of both of these vast areas were still unexplored by Europeans. The French claim to own them was based upon journeys made in the previous century by two famous explorers.

The first of these explorers was Samuel de Champlain. From 1603 onwards, Champlain explored the lands on both sides of the St. Lawrence River and set up trading posts there. The two most important of these posts later grew into the cities of Quebec and Montreal.

The other French explorer was Rene La Salle. La Salle was a fur trader, explorer and empire builder all in one. In the 1670s he explored the valley of the Mississippi paddling for thousands of miles down the river.

The French claim that Louisiana belonged to them worried both the British government and the American colonists. A glance at a map explains why. Suppose France sent soldiers to occupy the Mississippi valley. They would be able to keep the colonists to the east of the Appalachian Mountains and stop them from moving westwards.

After several wars earlier in the eighteenth century, in 1756 Britain and France began fighting the Seven Years War. This is known to Americans as the French and Indian War.

Led by their forceful Prime Minister, William Pitt the Elder, the British sent money and soldiers to North America. In 1758 British and colonial forces captured the French strongholds o f Louisburg on the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Fort Duquesne on the Ohio River. In 1759 they took Quebec. In 1760 Montreal fell to them. The war was ended by the Peace of Paris, which was signed in 1763. France gave up its claim to Canada and to all of North America east of the Mississippi River.

Britain had won an Empire. But its victory led directly to conflict with its American colonics. Even before the final defeat of the French, colonists in search of better land began to move over the Appalachian Mountains into the Ohio valley. To prevent war with the Amerindian tribes who lived in the area, the English king, George III, issued a proclamation in 1763. It forbade colonists to settle west of the Appalachians until proper treaties had been made with the Amerindians.

The king's proclamation angered the colonists. They became angrier still when the British government told them that they must pay new taxes on imports of sugar, coffee, textiles, and other goods. The government also told them that they must feed and find shelter for British soldiers it planned to keep in the colonics. These orders seemed perfectly fair to British politicians. It had cost British taxpayers a lot of money to defend the colonies during the French and Indian War. Surely, they reasoned, the colonists could not object to repaying some of this money.

But the colonists did object. Merchants believed that the new import taxes would make it more difficult for them to trade at a profit. Other colonists believed that the taxes would raise their costs of living. They also feared that if British troops stayed in America they might be used to force them to obey the British government.

In 1765 the British Parliament passed another new law called the Stamp Act. This too was intended to raise money to pay for the defense of the colonies. It said that the colonists had to buy special tax stamps and attach them to newspapers, licenses, and legal papers such as wills and mortgages.

Ever since the early years of the Virginia settlement Americans had claimed the right to elect representatives to decide the taxes they paid. Now they insisted that as "freeborn Englishmen" they could be taxed only by their own colonial assemblies. We have no representatives in the British Parliament, they said, so what right does it have to tax us? "No taxation without representation" became their demand.

All this opposition forced the British government to withdraw the Stamp Act. But it was determined to show the colonists that it had the right to tax them. Parliament passed another law called the Declaratory Act. This stated that the British government had "full power and authority (over) the colonies and people of America in all cases whatsoever."

In 1767 the British placed new taxes on tea, paper, paint, and various other goods that the colonies imported from abroad. A special customs office was set up

in Boston to collect the new duties. Again the colonists refused to pay. Riots broke out in Boston and the British sent soldiers to keep order. It was not until 1770, when the British removed all the duties except for the one on tea, that there was less trouble.

But some colonists in Massachusetts were determined to keep the quarrel going. In December 1773, a group of them disguised themselves as Mohawk Amerindians. They boarded British merchant ships in Boston harbor and threw 342 cases of tea into the sea. “I hope that King George likes salt in his tea, ” said one of them.

The British reply to this “Boston Tea Party” was to pass a set of laws to punish Massachusetts.

On June 1, 1774, British warships took up position at the mouth of Boston harbor to make sure that no ships sailed in or out. A few months later, in September 1774, a group of colonial leaders came together in Philadelphia. They formed the First Continental Congress to oppose what they saw as British oppression.

The Continental Congress claimed to be loyal to the British king. But it called upon all Americans to support the people of Massachusetts by refusing to buy British goods. Many colonists went further than this. They began to organize themselves into groups of part-time soldiers, or “militias,” and to gather together weapons and ammunition.

Fighting for Independence

On the night of April 18, 1775, 700 British soldiers marched silently out of Boston. Their orders were to seize weapons and ammunition that rebellious colonists had stored in Concord, a nearby town.

But the colonists were warned that the soldiers were coming.

In the village of Lexington the British found seventy American militiamen, farmers and tradesmen, barring their way. These part-time soldiers were known as “Minutemen.’’-This was because they had promised to take up arms immediately—in a minute—whenever they were needed.

The British commander ordered the Minutemen to return to their homes. They refused. Then someone, nobody knows who, fired a shot. Other shots came from the lines of British soldiers. Eight Minutemen fell dead. The first shots had been fired in what was to become the American War of Independence.

The British soldiers reached Concord a few hours later and destroyed some of the weapons and gunpowder there. But by the time they set off to return to Boston hundreds more Minutemen had gathered. `

The next month May 1775, a second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia and began to act as an American national government. It set up an army of men under the command of George Washington. Washington was a Virginia landowner and surveyor with experience of fighting in the French and Indian War. The Continental Congress also sent representatives to seek aid from friendly European nations—especially from France, Britain’s old enemy.

By the following year the fighting had spread beyond Massachusetts. It had grown into a full-scale war.

On July 2, 1776, the Continental Congress finally took the step that many Americans believed was inevitable. It cut all political ties with Britain and declared that "these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states." Two days later, on July 4, it issued the *Declaration of Independence.*

The *Declaration of Independence* is the most important document in American history. It was written by Thomas Jefferson, a landowner and lawyer from Virginia. After repeating that the colonies were now "free and independent states" it officially named them the United States of America.

One of the first members of the Continental Congress to sign the *Declaration of Independence* was John Hancock of Massachusetts. Hancock picked up the pen and wrote his name in large, clear letters — "large enough," he said, "for King George to read without his spectacles."

The *Declaration of Independence* was more than a statement that the colonies were a new nation. It also set out the ideas behind the change that was being made. It claimed that all men had a natural right to "Life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." It also said that governments can only justly claim the right to rule if they have the agreement of those they govern —"the consent of the governed."

After some early successes, the Americans did badly in the war against the British. Washington's army was more of an armed mob than an effective fighting force. Few of the men had any military training and many obeyed only those orders that suited them. Officers quarreled constantly over their rank and authority. Washington set to work to train his men and turn them into disciplined soldiers. But this took time, and meanwhile the Americans suffered defeat after defeat. In September 1776, only two months after the *Declaration of Independence,* the British captured New York City. Washington wrote to his brother that he feared that the Americans were very close to losing the war.

Success began to come to the Americans in October 1777. They trapped a British army of almost 6,000 men at Saratoga in northern New York. The British commander was cut off from his supplies and his men were facing starvation. He was forced to surrender. The Americans marched their prisoners to Boston. Here, after swearing never again to fight against the Americans, the prisoners were put on board ships and sent back to England.

Benjamin Franklin, the American ambassador to France, was delighted when he received the news of the victory at Saratoga. He used it to persuade the French government to join in the struggle against Britain. In February 1778, the French king, Louis XVI, signed an alliance with the Americans. French ships, soldiers and money were soon playing an important part in the war.

From 1778 onwards most of the fighting took place in the southern colonies. It was here that the war came to an end. In September 1781, George Washington, leading a combined American and French army, surrounded 8,000 British troops under General Cornwallis at Yorktown, on the coast of Virginia. Cornwallis was worried, but he expected British ships to arrive and rescue or

reinforce his army. When ships arrived off Yorktown, however, they were French ones. Cornwallis was trapped.

On October 17, 1781, he surrendered his army to Washington. The British started to withdraw their forces from America and British and American representatives began to discuss peace terms. In the Treaty of Paris, which was signed in September 1783, Britain officially recognized her former colonies as an independent nation. The treaty granted the new United States all of North America from Canada in the north to Florida in the south, and from the Atlantic coast to the Mississippi River.

Exercise I. Answer the following questions.

1. Who did Christopher Columbus call “los Indios”?
2. What do you know about the Vikings?
3. Why did plenty of people in Europe wish to settle in America in the 17 century?
4. Who are Pilgrims?
5. How many colonies did the English own by 1733?
6. What was the proclamation of king George the III?
7. What do you know about Stamp Act and Boston Tea?

Exercise II. Find equivalents.

1. Persecution	a) доход
2. indentured servants	в) вигвам
3. mortgage	c) страстно желать
4. income	d) священник
5. oath	e) преследование
6. persuite	f) каторжник
7. convict	g) заклад, ипотека
8. tepee	h) работающие по контракту
9. buffalo	i) клятва
10. priest	j) буйвол.
	k) стремление
	l) ограбление

Exercise III. Choose the correct word to complete the sentences.

1. In the years that followed, other Spanish … took the search for gold to North America.

a) conquistadores
b) traders
c) investigators

2. The … hoped that the settlers would find pearls, silver, or some other valuable product in Virginia.

a) government
b) Company directors
c) investors

3. Because they protested against the teachings and customs of the Catholic Church, religious reformers like Luther and Calvin were called ….

a) “Protestants”
b) “Pilgrims”
c) “Quakers”

4. The Pilgrims’ ship was an old trading vessel, the ….

a) Moon shine
b) Lilly of the valley
c) May flower

5. The people of the Middle Colonies were usually more … of religious and other differences than the New Englanders.

a) intolerant
b) tolerant
c) indignant

6. Britain had won an Empire. But its victory led directly … with its American colonies.

a) to conflict
b) friendship
c) cooperation

7. On June 1, 1774, British … took up position at the mouth of Boston harbor to make sure that no ships sailed in or out.

a) militia
b) warships
c) troops

Exercise IV. True or false? Find phrases in the text to support the following information.

1. Christopher Columbus was the first to discover America.
2. There were many different groups of Amerindians.
3. It is believed that Amerindians came to America from Europe.
4. The arrival of Europeans in fact destroyed the way of life of Amerindians.
5. It was not easy for settlers of Jamestown to survive in winter of 1609-1610.
6. The Puritans were welcomed in Holland but some of them decided to move to America.
7. American colonists agreed to pay the British government new taxes on many goods of luxury.

Vocabulary

1.Ancestor-предок
2.Admit-признавать
3.Barn-амбар, конюшня
4.Brook-ручей
5.Buffalo-буйвол
6.Condemn-осуждать, выносить приговор
7.Convict-каторжник, осужденный

8.Elaborated ceremony-сложный обряд
9.Exile-ссылка, изгнание
10.Fine-штрафовать
11.Fell-валить лес, рубить
12.Inavitable-неизбежный
13.Income-доход
14.Indentured servants-работающий по контракту
15.Lust-страстно желать
16.Monk-монах
17.Mortgage-заклад, ипотека
18.Oath-клятва
19.Persecution-гонение, преследование
20.Persuade-убеждать
21.Priest-священник
22.Profit-прибыль
23.Reinforce-усиливать, укреплять
24.Rescue-спасать
25.Self-reliant-уверенный в себе
25.Tepee-вигвам
26.Toleration-терпимость
27.Toughen-ужесточать, упрочнять

A NEW NATION

Forming the New Nation

The Treaty of Paris had recognized the United States as an independent nation. But it was not one nation as it is today. In 1783 most Americans felt more loyalty to their own state than to the new United States. They saw themselves first as Virginians or New Yorkers rather than as Americans.

Each individual American state had its own government and behaved very much like an independent country. It made its own laws and its own decisions about how to run its affairs. The first big problem that faced the new United States was how to join together these sometimes quarrelsome little countries into one united nation.

During the War of Independence the states had agreed to work together in a national Congress to which each state sent representatives. The agreement that set up this plan for the states to cooperate with one another was called the Articles of Confederation. It had begun to operate in 1781.

Under the Articles of Confederation the central government of the United States was very weak. It was given certain rights, but it had no power to make those rights effective. Congress could vote to set up a United States army and navy, but it could only obtain soldiers and sailors by asking the states for them. It could vote to spend money, but it had no power to collect taxes to raise the money. This caused serious problems.

When the War of Independence was over, individual states began to behave more and more like independent nations. Some set up tax barriers against others. In some places states even began fighting one another to decide the ownership of particular pieces of frontier land.

The weakness of its government made it difficult for the new United States to win the respect or the help of foreign nations. The British felt that the American government was so weak that it was not worth dealing with. George III was sure that the Americans would soon be begging to rejoin the British Empire.

Even France, the ally of the Americans during the War of Independence, refused to recognize Congress as a real government. Thomas Jefferson, now the American representative in France, wrote home sadly that the United States was the least important and least respected of all the nations with embassies in Paris.

Many Americans became worried about the future.

It was clear that for the United States to survive there would have to be changes in the Articles of Confederation. In February 1787, Congress asked each state to send delegates to a meeting or “convention,” in Philadelphia to talk about such changes. The smallest state, Rhode Island, refused, but the other twelve agreed. The meeting became known as the Constitutional Convention. It began in May 1787, and fifty-five men attended. They chose George Washington to lead their discussions.

The delegates to the Constitutional Convention disagreed about the changes that were needed. Some were anxious to protect the rights of the individual states.

At the same time most wanted a stronger central government. All of them were rich men.

They believed that a stronger central government would protect their property and business interests.

The original purpose of the Constitutional Convention was simply to revise the Articles of Confederation. But the delegates did more than this. They started afresh and worked out a completely new system of government for the United States. They set out the plan for this government in a document called the *Constitution of the United States.*

The Constitution gave the United States a "federal" system of government. A federal system is one in which the power to rule is shared. A central, or federal, authority has some of it and the rest is in the hands of local authorities in the separate regions that make up the country.

The new Constitution still left the individual state governments with a wide range of powers. But it made the federal government much stronger than before. It gave it the power to collect taxes, to organize armed forces, to make treaties with foreign countries and to control trade of all kinds.

The Constitution made arrangements for the election of a national leader called the President to take charge of the federal government. He would head the "executive" side of the nation's government. It would be his job to run the country's everyday affairs and to see that people obeyed the laws.

The law-making, or "legislative," powers of the federal government were given to a Congress. This was made up of representatives elected by the people. Congress was to consist of two parts, the Senate and the House of Representatives. In the Senate each state would be equally represented, with two members, whatever the size of its population. The number of representatives a state had in the House of Representatives, however, would depend upon its population.

Finally, the Constitution set up a Supreme Court to control the "judicial" part of the nation's government. The job of the Supreme Court was to make decisions in any disagreements about the meaning of the laws and the Constitution.

The Constitution made sure that there was a "balance of power" between these three main parts, or "branches," of the federal government. The American people had rebelled against being ruled in an undemocratic fashion by Britain. They did not want to replace the unrepresentative rule of the king and parliament in London with the rule of a tyrannical central government in the United States itself.

Many Americans had another fear. This was that the federal government might try to weaken the power of the states to run their own individual affairs. To remove this danger the Constitution said exactly what powers the federal government should have and what powers should be reserved for the states.

Before the new system of government set out in the Constitution could begin, it had to be approved by a majority of the citizens in at least nine of the thirteen states. People made speeches and wrote newspaper articles both for and against the Constitution.

The Constitution went into effect in March 1789.

But it was still not really complete. In 1791 ten amendments, or additions, were made to it.

Together these ten amendments are called the Bill of Rights.

The reason for the Bill of Rights was that the original Constitution had said nothing about the rights and freedoms of individual citizens. The Bill of Rights altered this. It promised all Americans freedom of religion, a free press, free speech, the right to carry arms, the right to a fair trial by jury, and protection against "cruel and unusual punishments."

This is, that the Supreme Court is the final authority in deciding the meaning of the Constitution. If its justices decide that any law is "unconstitutional," that law can no longer be enforced.

Years of Growth

Land was becoming scarcer and more expensive in the American colonies by the time they quarreled with Britain. After 1783 more and more people set off for the new territories between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River that the Treaty of Paris had granted to the United States. Armed only with axes, guns, and plenty of self-confidence, they journeyed across the mountains to make new farms and settlements out of the wilderness.

Many of the new settlers moved to lands north of the Ohio River. Amerindians who already lived on these lands saw the settlers as thieves who had come to steal their hunting grounds. They made fierce attacks on the newcomers' farms and settlements. The settlers struck back, sometimes destroying entire Amerindian villages.

The new government of the United States tried at first to keep the peace by making treaties with the Amerindians.

But the American government soon changed its ideas about not taking away the Amerindians' "lands and property." By 1817 President James Monroe was writing that their hunting way of life "requires a greater extent of territory than is compatible with the progress of civilized life and must yield to it. If the Indian tribes do not abandon that state and become civilized they will decline and become extinct."

In 1830 the United States government passed a law called the Indian Removal Act to put this policy into practice. The law said that all Indians living east of the Mississippi River would be moved west to a place called Indian Territory. This was an area beyond the Mississippi that was thought to be unsuitable for white farmers. Some people claimed that the Indian Removal Act was a way of saving the Amerindians. But most saw it simply as a way to get rid of them and seize their land.

The Cherokees were an Amerindian people who suffered greatly from the Indian Removal policy. Their lands lay between the state of Georgia and the Mississippi River. By the early nineteenth century the Cherokees had changed themselves from a stone age tribe into a civilized community.

Many owned large farms and lived in European-style houses built of brick. They had become Christians and attended church and sent their children to school. Their towns had stores, sawmills and blacksmiths' shops. They had a

written language and published their own newspaper in both Cherokee and English. They even wrote for themselves a Constitution modeled on that of the United States.

None of this saved the Cherokees. In the 1830s Congress declared that their lands belonged to the state of Georgia and they were divided up for sale to white settlers. The Cherokees were driven from their homes and forced to march hundreds of miles overland to what is now the state of Oklahoma.

Long before the Indian Removal Act the federal government had begun to organize the new western lands for settlement. It ordered that the lands should be surveyed and divided into square units called “townships.” Each township was to be six miles by six miles in size and each was to be further divided into smaller square units, one mile by one mile, called “sections.”

As each township was surveyed and marked out in sections the land was sold by auction. Land dealers sometimes bought whole townships. They usually sold the land later, at a higher price, to settlers arriving from the East.

Every year more settlers moved in. Many floated on rafts down the westward-flowing Ohio River. They used the river as a road to carry themselves, their goods and their animals into the new lands. Others moved west along routes like the Wilderness Road that Daniel Boone’s axmen had cut through the Cumberland Gap in the Appalachians.

For purposes of government the federal authorities divided the lands between the Appalachians and the Mississippi into two. The Ohio River marked the boundary between them. The area south of the Ohio was called the Southwest Territory and that to the north the Northwest Territory.

As the number of people living in them increased, each of these two big territories was divided again into smaller ones. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin were eventually made out of the Northwest 'Territory. As each was formed it was placed under the rule of a governor appointed by Congress. When the number of white males living in a territory reached 5,000 it could elect its own lawmaking body. It could also send a representative to give its point of view in Congress. When the population of a territory reached 60,000 it became a new state, with the same rights and powers as the original thirteen states.

The War of 1812

Between 1803 and 1815 Britain and France were at war. Both countries’ warships interfered with American trade. They stopped American merchant ships and sometimes seized their cargoes. Americans became angry. They were especially angry at the British because the British took seamen off American ships and forced them to serve in the British navy.

In June 1812, Congress declared war on Britain. In the early months of this War of 1812 American ships won a number of fights at sea. But the much stronger British navy soon gained complete control of the coastal waters of the United States and blockaded American ports. American attempts to invade British-ruled Canada ended in disaster. Even more humiliating for the Americans, British forces captured and burned Washington, their new capital city.

In December 1814, the United States and Britain signed a treaty of peace in Europe. Two weeks later, before the news reached America, British forces attacked the city of New Orleans. They were defeated by American soldiers led by General Andrew Jackson.

In many ways the whole of the War of 1812 was as pointless as this last battle. But it taught Americans an important lesson. The British navy's wartime blockade of United States ports had cut off the imported European manufactured goods upon which the country relied. This forced Americans to begin making goods of their own and so gave a **start** to American manufacturing industry.

West to the Pacific

In 1800 the western boundary of the United States was the Mississippi River. Beyond its wide and muddy waters there were great areas of land through which few white people had traveled. The land stretched west for more than 600 miles to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. It was known at the time as Louisiana.

In 1800 Louisiana belonged to France. The ruler of France at this time was Napoleon, who would soon become the country's emperor. Americans feared that Napoleon might send French soldiers and settlers to Louisiana and so block the further westward growth of the United States.

Then the Americans were very lucky. In 1803 Napoleon was about to go to war with Britain and needed money. For fifteen million dollars he sold Louisiana to the United States.

Louisiana stretched north from the Gulf of Mexico to the Canadian border and west from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains. Its purchase almost doubled the land area of the United States. In time, all or parts of thirteen new states would be formed there.

The lands beyond Louisiana were known as Oregon. They stretched from Alaska in the north to California in the south and inland through the Rocky Mountains to the undefined borders of Louisiana. In 1805 four countries claimed to own Oregon - Russia, Spain, Britain and the United States.

Russia owned Alaska, and Spain ruled California.

But in Oregon the British and the Americans were in the strongest position. Both already had trading posts scattered along Oregon's coasts and rivers.

By the 1830s the British had more settlements and trading posts in Oregon than the Americans. American political leaders began to fear that Britain would soon gain complete control of the area. To prevent this they made great efforts to persuade more Americans to start farms in Oregon.

At first Americans traveling to Oregon went by ship. They sailed from the east coast ports of the United States, around South America and up the long Pacific coast. The journey was expensive and it lasted for months. Settlers began traveling to Oregon by land in 1832. They usually set out from Independence, Missouri, a town on the Mississippi River. From Independence they followed a twisting trail of about 2,000 miles across plains and mountains to the mouth of the Columbia River.

Settlers faced many dangers on the way to Oregon. Floods and blizzards, prairie fires and accidents, disease and starvation—all these took many lives.

But, in spite of the dangers, settlers continued to make the long journey. In 1843 "Oregon fever" came to many parts of the United States. People left their worn-out farms in the East, packed their possessions on wagons and set off for the West.

American settlers soon outnumbered the British in Oregon. American newspapers and political leaders began to express an idea called "manifest destiny." This was a claim that it was the clear ("manifest") intention of fate ("destiny") that the territory of the United States should stretch across North America from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Supporters of manifest destiny demanded that the United States should take the whole of Oregon, all the way north to the boundary with Alaska at latitude 54 degrees 40 minutes. They began using the slogan "Fifty four forty or fight" and threatened the British with war.

But by the summer of 1846 the United States was already at war with Mexico. The 1846 war with Mexico had grown out of events that had been taking place in Texas. Thousands of Americans had settled in Texas, but up to the 1830s it was ruled by Mexico. The Texas Americans, or Texans, came to dislike Mexican rule. In October 1835, they rebelled. Led by General Sam Houston, they defeated a much larger Mexican army in 1836 at the Battle of San Jacinto and made Texas an independent republic.

But most Texans did not want their independence to be permanent. They wanted their country to join the United States. Eventually the two countries reached an agreement about this and in 1845 Texas became part of the United States.

In April 1846, there was fighting between American and Mexican soldiers along the border between Texas and Mexico. President Polk saw an opportunity to take land from Mexico and he declared war. American soldiers invaded Mexico and defeated the Mexican army. By September 1847, they had occupied Mexico City, the country's capital.

The Mexican-American War was ended by a peace treaty signed in February 1848. The treaty forced Mexico to hand over enormous stretches of its territory to the United States. Today these lands form the American states of California, Arizona, Nevada, Utah, New Mexico and Colorado.

North and South

In the year 1810 there were 7.2 million people in the United States. For 1.2 million of these people the words of the *Declaration of Independence* "that all men are created equal" were far from true. They were black and they were slaves.

Thomas Jefferson, who wrote the *Declaration of Independence*, owned slaves himself. So did George Washington and other leaders of the movement for American independence and freedom. Both Jefferson and Washington had uneasy consciences about this. But other big landowners in southern states such as Virginia defended slavery. They asked what they thought was an unanswerable question. How could they cultivate their fields of tobacco, rice and cotton without slave workers?

In the north of the United States farms were smaller and the climate was cooler. Farmers there did not need slaves to work the land for them. Some northerners opposed slavery for moral and religious reasons also. Many were abolitionists —that is, people who wanted to end or abolish slavery by law. By the early nineteenth century many northern states had passed law's abolishing slavery inside their own boundaries. In 1808 they also persuaded Congress to make it illegal for ships to bring any new slaves from Africa into the United States.

By the 1820s southern and northern politicians were arguing fiercely about whether slavery should be permitted in the new territories that were then being settled in the West. The argument centered on the Missouri territory, which was part of the Louisiana Purchase. Southerners argued that slave labor should be allowed in Missouri and all the other lands that formed part of the Louisiana Purchase. Both abolitionists and other northerners objected strongly to this. Northern farmers moving west did not want to find themselves competing for land against southerners who had slaves to do their work for them. Eventually the two sides agreed on a compromise. Slavery would be permitted in the Missouri and Arkansas territories but banned in lands to the west and north of Missouri.

The Missouri Compromise, as it was called, did not end the disputes between North and South. By the early 1830s another angry argument was going on. This time the argument began over import duties. Northern states favored such duties because they protected their young industries against the competition of foreign manufactured goods. Southern states opposed them because southerners relied upon foreign manufacturers for both necessities and luxuries of many kinds. Import duties would raise the prices of such goods.

In the next twenty years the United States grew much bigger. In 1846 it divided the Oregon Territory with Britain. In 1848 it took vast areas of the Southwest from Mexico. Obtaining these new lands raised again the question that the Missouri Compromise of 1820 had tried to settle—should slavery be allowed on new American territory? Once again southerners answered "yes." And once again northerners said "no. "

In 1850 Congress voted in favor of another compromise. California was admitted to the United States as a free state, while people who lived in Utah and New Mexico were given the right to decide for themselves whether or not to allow slavery.

To persuade southerners to agree to these arrangements. Congress passed a new Fugitive Slave Act. This was a law to make it easier for southerners to recapture slaves who escaped from their masters and fled for safety to free states. The law called for "severe penalties on anyone assisting Negroes to escape from bondage."

Slave owners had long offered rewards, or "bounties," for the return of runaway slaves. This had created a group of men called "bounty hunters." These men made their living by hunting down fugitive slaves in order to collect the rewards on them. With the support of the new law, bounty hunters now began searching free states for escaped slaves.

The Fugitive Slave Act angered many northerners who had not so far given much thought to the rights and wrongs of slavery. Some northern judges refused to enforce it. Other people provided food, money, and hiding places for fugitives.

They mapped out escape routes and moved runaway slaves by night from one secret hiding place to another. The final stop on these escape routes was Canada, where fugitives could be followed by neither American laws nor bounty hunters.

Many conductors on the Underground Railroad were former slaves themselves. Often they traveled deep into slave states to make contact with runaways. This was a dangerous thing to do. If conductors were captured they could end up as slaves again-or dead. As the number of fugitive slaves increased, gunfights between bounty hunters and conductors became more and more common.

A few years earlier opponents of slavery had formed a new political group called the Republican Party.

When Senator Stephen Douglas asked the voters of Illinois to re-elect him to Congress in 1858, he was challenged by a Republican named Abraham Lincoln. In a series of public debates with Douglas, Lincoln said that the spread of slavery must be stopped. He was willing to accept slavery in the states where it existed already, but that was all. Lincoln lost the 1858 election to Douglas. But his stand against slavery impressed many people. In I860 the Republicans chose him as their candidate in that year's presidential election.

Southerners believed that it was a sign that the North was preparing to use force to end slavery in the South. In the presidential election of 1860 the southerners put forward a candidate of their own to oppose Lincoln. They threatened that the South would break away, or "secede." from the United States if Lincoln became President.

In every southern state a majority of the citizens voted against Lincoln. But voters in the North supported him and he won the election. A few weeks later, in December I860, the state of South Carolina voted to secede from the United States. It was soon joined by ten more southern states. In February 1861, these eleven states announced that they were now an independent nation, the Confederate States of America, often known as the Confederacy.

The nineteenth century's bloodiest war, the American Civil War, was about to begin.

The Civil War

Oh March 4, 1861, Abraham Lincoln took the oath of office as President of the United States. Less than a month had passed since the formation of the Confederacy. In his inaugural address as President, Lincoln appealed to the southern states to stay in the Union. He promised that he would not interfere with slavery in any of them. But he warned that he would not allow them to break up the United States by seceding.

The southern states took no notice of Lincoln's appeal. On April 12 Confederate guns opened fire on Fort Sumter, a fortress in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, that was occupied by United States troops. These shots marked the beginning of the American Civil War.

Lincoln called for 75,000 men to fight to save the Union. Jefferson Davis, the newly elected President of the Confederate States, made a similar appeal for

men to fight for the Confederacy. Volunteers rushed forward in thousands on both sides.

Some people found it difficult and painful to decide which side to support. The decision sometimes split families. The son of the commander of the Confederate navy was killed fighting in a Union ship. Two brothers became generals —but on opposite sides. And three of President Lincoln's own brothers-in-law died fighting for the Confederacy.

From the first months of the war Union warships blockaded the ports of the South. They did this to prevent the Confederacy from selling its cotton abroad and from obtaining foreign supplies.

In both men and material resources the North was much stronger than the South. It had a population of twenty-two million people. The South had only nine million people and 3.5 million of them were slaves. The North grew more food crops than the South.

It also had more than five times the manufacturing capacity, including most of the country's weapon factories. So the North not only had more fighting men than the South, it could also keep them better supplied with weapons, clothing, food and everything else they needed.

However, the North faced one great difficulty. The only way it could win the war was to invade the South and occupy its land. The South had no such problem. It did not need to conquer the North to win independence. The fact that almost all the war's fighting took place in the South meant that Confederate soldiers were defending their own homes. This often made them fight with more spirit than the Union soldiers.

Southerners denied that they were fighting mainly to preserve slavery. Most were poor farmers who owned no slaves anyway. The South was fighting for its independence from the North, they said, just as their grandfathers had fought for independence from Britain almost a century earlier.

The war was fought in two main areas - in Virginia and the other east coast states of the Confederacy, and in the Mississippi valley.

The North's early defeats in Virginia discouraged its supporters. The flood of volunteers for the army began to dry up.

Fortunately for the North, Union forces in the Mississippi valley had more success.

By spring 1863, the Union armies were closing in on an important Confederate stronghold on the Mississippi called Vicksburg. On July 4, after much bloody fighting and a siege lasting six weeks, Vicksburg surrendered to a Union army led by General Ulysses S. Grant. Its fall was a heavy blow to the South. Union forces now controlled the whole length of the Mississippi. They had split the Confederacy in two. It became impossible for western Confederate states like Texas to send anymore men and supplies to the east.

But by 1863 many northerners were tired of the war. They were sickened by its heavy cost in lives and money. General Lee, the Confederate commander, believed that if his army could win a decisive victory on northern soil, popular opinion there might force the Union government to make peace.

By 1864 the Confederacy was running out of almost everything—men, equipment, food, money. As fall colored the trees of the eastern woods, the Union

armies moved in to end the war. In November 1864, a Union army led by General William T. Sherman began to march through the Confederate state of Georgia. Its soldiers destroyed everything in their path. The Confederacy was split again, this time from east to west.

The Confederate capital was already in danger from another Union army led by General Grant. By March 1865, Grant had almost encircled the city and on April 2 Lee was forced to abandon it to save his army from being trapped.

Grant treated the defeated Confederate soldiers generously. After they had given up their weapons and promised never again to fight against the United States, he allowed them to go home.

The Civil War gave final answers to two questions that had divided the United States ever since it became an independent nation. It put an end to slavery. In 1865 this was abolished everywhere in the United States by the 13th Amendment to the Constitution. And it decided finally that the United States was one nation, whose parts could not be separated.

Reconstruction

On the night of April 13. 1865, crowds of people moved through the brightly lit streets of Washington to celebrate Lee's surrender at Appomattox.

The next day was Good Friday. In the evening President Lincoln and his wife went to Ford's Theater in Washington to see a play called "Our American Cousin." The theater was full and the audience cheered the President as he took his seat in a box beside the stage. Once Lincoln was safely in his seat, his bodyguards moved away to watch the play themselves from seats in the gallery.

At exactly 10:13, when the play was part way through, a pistol shot rang through the darkened theater. As the President slumped forward in his scat, a man in a black felt hat and high boots jumped from the box on to the stage. He waved a gun in the air and shouted "Sic semper tyrannis" [Thus always to tyrants] and then ran out of the theater. It was discovered later that the gunman was an actor named John Wilkes Booth.

Lincoln was carried across the street to the house of a tailor. He died there in a downstairs bedroom the next morning. Men and women wept in the streets when they heard the news. Lincoln was succeeded as President by his Vice President, Andrew Johnson. The biggest problem the new President faced was how to deal with the defeated South. Lincoln had made no secret of his own ideas about this. Only a few weeks before his death he had begun his second term of office as President. In his inaugural address he had asked the American people to help him to "bind up the nation's wounds" and rebuild their war-battered homeland.

Lincoln blamed individual southern leaders for the war rather than the people of the seceding states as a whole. He intended to punish only those guilty individuals and to let the rest of the South's people play a full part in the nation's life again.

Johnson had similar ideas. He began to introduce plans to reunite the South with the rest of the nation.

He said that as soon as the citizens of the seceded states promised to be loyal to the government of the United States they could elect new state assemblies to run their affairs. When a state voted to accept the 13th Amendment to the Constitution (the one that completely abolished slavery) Johnson intended that it should be accepted back into the Union as a full and equal member.

But white southerners were determined to resist any changes that threatened their power to control the life of the South. They were especially horrified at the idea of giving equal rights to their former black slaves.

The other former Confederate states shared this attitude. All their assemblies passed laws to keep blacks in an inferior position. Such laws were called “Black Codes.”

Black Codes refused blacks the vote, said that they could not serve on juries, forbade them to give evidence in court against a white man. In Mississippi blacks were not allowed to buy or to rent farm land. In Louisiana they had to agree to work for one employer for a whole year and could be imprisoned and made to do forced labor if they refused. With no land, no money and no protection from the law, it was almost as if blacks were still slaves.

In 1865 the *Chicago Tribune* newspaper warned southerners of the growing anger in the North about the Black Codes:

“We tell the white men of Mississippi that the men of the North will convert the State of Mississippi into a frog pond before they will allow such laws to disgrace one foot of soil in which the bones of our soldiers sleep and over which the flag of freedom waves.”

The feelings of the *Chicago Tribune* were shared by many members of the United States Congress. A group there called Radical Republicans believed that the most important reason for fighting the Civil War had been to free the blacks. Having won the war, they were determined that neither they nor the blacks were now going to be cheated. They said that President Johnson was treating the defeated white southerners too kindly and that the southerners were taking advantage of this.

In July 1866, despite opposition from the President, Congress passed a Civil Rights Act. Congress then introduced the 14th Amendment to the Constitution. The 14th Amendment gave blacks full rights of citizenship, including the right to vote.

All the former Confederate states except Tennessee refused to accept the 14th Amendment. In March 1867, Congress replied by passing the Reconstruction Act. This dismissed the white governments of the southern states and placed them under military rule. They were told that they could again have elected governments when they accepted the 14th Amendment and gave all black men the vote.

By 1870 all the southern states had new “Reconstruction" governments. Most were made up of blacks, a few white southerners who were willing to work with them and white men from the North.

Most white southerners supported the Democratic political party. These southern Democrats claimed that the Reconstruction governments were incompetent and dishonest. There was some truth in this claim. Many of the new black members of the state assemblies were inexperienced and poorly educated.

Some carpetbaggers were thieves. In Louisiana, for example, one carpetbagger official was accused of stealing 100,000 dollars from state funds in his first year of office.

But Reconstruction governments also contained honest men who tried to improve the South. They passed laws to provide care for orphans and the blind, to encourage new industries and the building of railroads, and to build schools for both white and black children.

None of these improvements stopped southern whites from hating Reconstruction. This was not because of the incompetence or dishonesty of its governments. It was because Reconstruction aimed to give blacks the same rights that whites had. Southern whites were determined to prevent this. They organized terrorist groups to make white men the masters once more. The main aim of these groups was to threaten and frighten black people and prevent them from claiming their rights.

The largest and most feared terrorist group was a secret society called the Ku Klux Klan. Its members dressed themselves in white sheets and wore hoods to hide their faces. They rode by night through the southern countryside, beating and killing any blacks who tried to improve their position. Their sign was a burning wooden cross, which they placed outside the homes of their intended victims.

From this time onwards southern blacks were treated more and more as “second class citizens”—that is, they were not given equal treatment under the law. Most serious of all they were robbed of their right to vote.

Once blacks lost the vote, taking away their other rights became easy. All the southern states passed laws to enforce strict racial separation, or “segregation." Segregation was enforced on trains, in parks, in schools, in restaurants, in theaters and swimming pools—even in cemeteries! Any black who dared to break these segregation laws was likely to end up either in prison or dead. In the 1890s an average of 150 blacks a year were killed illegally —“lynched” —by white mobs. It seemed that the improvements the Civil War and Reconstruction had brought black people were lost for ever.

But Reconstruction had not been for nothing. The 14th Amendment was especially important. It was the foundation of the Civil Rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s and made it possible for Martin Luther King to cry out eventually on behalf of all black Americans:

“Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!”

Exercise I. Choose the correct answer to the following questions according the information in the text.

1. What was the first big problem that faced the new United States?

a) It was how to join little countries into one united nation.

b) It was how to tax all the colonies.

c) It was how to make laws that everyone would obey.

2. Why did more and more people set off for new territories after 1783?

a) They were eager to find gold.

b) They didn’t like the climate of the territories they lived.

c) Land was becoming scarcer and more expensive in the American colonies.

3. What forced Americans to begin making goods of their own?
a) High prices on imported goods.
b) Poor quality of imported goods.
c) The British navy's wartime blockade of United Stated ports.
4. Why did Napoleon sell Louisiana to the United States?
a) Napoleon needed money to go to war with Britain.
b) Napoleon didn't like the geographical position of Louisiana.
c) Napoleon quarreled with people living on the territory of Louisiana.
5. Why did notherners oppose slavery?
a) It was too expensive for landowners to support their slaves.
b) They opposed slavery for moral and religious reasons.
c) They did not wish slaves to rebel.
6. Was the North stronger than the South?
a) Yes, it was.
b) No, it was not.
c) They were equal in military forces.
7. What were plans of President Johnson about southern states?
a) To punish leaders of southern states for the war.
b) To divide the US into two parts.
c) To reunite the South with the rest of the nation.

Exercise II. Match the synonyms.

1. To persuade	a) rebellion
2. ally	b) self-confident
3. to succeed in	c) agreement
4. penalty	d) trail
5. ancestor	e) bondage
6. tax	f) fine
7. self-reliant	g) to convince
8. convention	h) associate
9. slavery	j) to prosper
10. riot	k) forefather
	l) duty

Exercise III. Match the two halves of the expression.

1. Newspaper…	a) starvation
2. legislative…	b) rivers
3. to run…	c) articles
4. to face…	d) affairs
5. tidal…	e) part
6. fertile…	f) land
7. oak…	g) ties
8. to trade…	h) aid
9. to seek…	j) at a profit
10 political…	k) power

l) slavery
m) tree

Exercise IV. Explain the following in your own words.

1.Abolisionist,
2.convention,
3.indentured servant
4.Puritan,
5. pilgrim
6.tepee

Vocabulary

1. Afresh-снова, сызнова
2. Ally-друг, соратник
3. Amendment-поправка (к резолюции, закону)
4. Bondage-рабство
5. Bounty-поощрительная премия
6. Carpetbagger-мародер
7. Convention-собрание, съезд
8. Extinct-вымерший, угасший
9. Fugitive-беглец
10. Multitude-множество
11. Permanent-постоянный
12. Raft-плот
13. Recapture-брать обратно
14. Repugnant-несовместимый, несоответствующий
15. Scalawag-белый южанин, сотрудничающий с республиканцами
16. Secede-отделяться, откалываться
17. Surrender-капитулировать
18. Township-местечко, поселок

YEARS OF GROWTH

Miners, Railroads and Cattlemen

In March 1848, a group of workmen was building a sawmill beside a stream in California for a landowner named John Sutter. One day the foreman in charge of the workers saw golden specks glittering in the water. Picking up a handful of black gravel from the bed of the stream, he looked more closely. It was gold!

Before long the news of his discovery was sweeping through California. By the middle of the summer a gold rush had begun. The governor of California reported to Washington that "mills are lying idle, fields of wheat are open to cattle and horses, houses vacant and farms going to waste" as men and women from all over the territory hurried to the gold fields to make themselves rich.

By the spring of 1849, people from all over the world were rushing to California to look for gold. In 1848 its population was 15,000 people. By 1852 the population was more than 250000. Some of the new arrivals traveled by sea to the port of San Francisco. Others traveled overland, enduring the same kind of hardships that faced settlers on the way to Oregon.

In the next twenty years gold discoveries attracted fortune-seekers to other parts of the far West. By the late 1850s they were mining in the mountains of Nevada and Colorado, by the 1860s they had moved into Montana and Wyoming and by the 1870s they were digging in the Black hills of the Dakota country.

The first mining settlements were just untidy collections of tents and huts, scattered along rough tracks that were muddy in winter and dusty in summer. But some grew later into permanent communities. The present city of Denver, the capital of Colorado, began life in this way.

Thousands of miles separated these western mining settlements from the rest of the United States. Look at a map of the country at the end of the Civil War in 1865. You will see that white settlement in the East stops a little to the west of the Mississippi and Missouri rivers. Beyond these last farms, thousands of miles of flat or gently rolling land covered with tall grass stretched west to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. Early travelers who passed through this region described it as a "sea of grass," for hardly any trees or bushes grew there. Geographers call these grasslands the Great Plains, or the Prairies, of North America.

The Great Plains are generally much drier than the lands to the east of the Mississippi. Rainfall ranges from about forty inches a year on the wetter, eastern edge, to less than eighteen inches a year in the western parts. Summer rain often pours down in fierce thunderstorms and can bring sudden and destructive floods. Droughts happen even more often than floods. These long, dry periods bring the danger of prairie fires, which race across the grasslands and burn everything in their path. In winter the Great Plains become very cold.

In the middle of the nineteenth century the Great Plains were the home of wandering Amerindian hunters such as the Sioux. The lives of these people depended upon the vast herds of buffalo that grazed on the sea of grass. The buffalo provided the Amerindians with everything they needed.

In the 1840s and 1850s thousands of white people crossed the Great Plains to reach the farms of Oregon and the gold fields of California. To them the region was not somewhere to settle and make new homes but a place to pass through as quickly as possible. They saw it as unwelcoming and dangerous, and were happy to leave it to the Amerindians. They agreed with the mapmakers of the time, who wrote the name "Great American Desert" across the whole area.

Yet within twenty-five years of the end of the Civil War, practically all of the Great Plains had been divided into states and territories. Ranchers were feeding large herds of cattle on the "sea of grass," farmers were ploughing the "Great American Desert" to grow wheat; sheepherders were grazing their flocks on the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. By 1890 the separate areas of settlement on the Pacific Coast and along the Mississippi River had moved together. The frontier, that moving boundary of white settlement that had been one of the most important factors in American life ever since the time of the Pilgrims, had disappeared.

Railroads played an important part in this "closing" of the frontier. During the Civil War, Congress had become anxious to join the gold-rich settlements along the Pacific Coast more closely to the rest of the United States. In 1862 it granted land and money to the Union Pacific Railroad Company to build a railroad west from the Mississippi towards the Pacific. At the same time it gave a similar grant to the Central Pacific Railroad Company to build eastwards from California.

Throughout the 1860s gangs of workmen labored with picks, shovels and gunpowder to build the two lines. Most of the workers on the Union Pacific were Irishmen or other recent immigrants from Europe. The Central Pacific workers were mainly Chinese, who had been brought to America under contract especially to do the job.

The railroad workers' progress depended mainly on the land over which they had to build. On the flat Great Plains they could move forward quickly, building up to six miles of railroad in a day. Among the rocks and cliffs of the Sierra Nevada mountains their progress was slower. Sometimes it would take days of difficult and dangerous tunneling to move forward a few yards.

The whole country watched with growing excitement as the two lines gradually approached one another. Both moved forward as fast as they could, for the grants of land and money that each company received from the government depended upon how many miles of railroad track it built. Finally, on May 10, 1869, the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific lines met at Promontory Point in Utah. A golden spike fixed the last rail into position. The first railroad across the North American continent was completed.

The new railroad was quickly joined by others. By 1884 four more major lines had crossed the continent to link the Mississippi valley with the Pacific Coast. These transcontinental railroads reduced the time that it took to travel across the United States from weeks to days.

As the railroads pushed west, cattle ranchers in Texas saw a way to make money. They could feed cattle cheaply on the grasslands between the Mississippi and the Rockies. Why not use the new railroads to transport the cattle to eastern cities where buyers were hungry for meat?

In the years after the Civil War, Texas cattle owners hired men called "drovers" or "cowboys" to drive their half-wild longhorn cattle north to the railroads. The cowboy's life was one of exhausting work, poor food and low pay. Many cowboys were former Confederate soldiers who had moved west after the Civil War. Some were black ex-slaves from southern plantations. Others were boys from farms in the east who wanted a life with more adventure than farming could offer them.

New towns grew up where cattle trails met the railroads. Very soon meat from the Great Plains was feeding people in Europe as well as the eastern United States. By 1881 more than 110 million pounds of American beef was being shipped across the Atlantic Ocean every year. The grass of the Great Plains was earning the United States as much money as the gold mines of its western mountains.

Farming the Great Plains

In 1862 Union and Confederate armies were fighting some of the bloodiest battles of the Civil War. But that same year Congress found time to pass a law that had nothing to do with the war. The law was called the Homestead Act.

The Homestead Act offered free farms ("homesteads") in the West to families of settlers. Each homestead consisted of 160 acres of land and any head of a family who was at least twenty-one years of age and an American citizen could claim one.

So could immigrants who intended to become citizens. All that homesteaders had to do was to move onto a piece of public land—that is, land owned by the government—live on it for five years and the land became theirs. If a family wanted to own its homestead more quickly than this it could buy the land after only six months for a very low price of $1.25 an acre.

Transcontinental railroad companies like the Union Pacific also provided settlers with cheap land. These companies had been given land beside their tracks by the government. To increase their profits they were keen for people to begin farming this land so they advertised for settlers. They did this not only in the eastern United States, but as far away as Europe. They shipped immigrants across the Atlantic, gave them free railroad transport to the West and often helped them to start their farms and communities.

East of the Mississippi, small family farms were the usual way of cultivating the land. From the 1870s onwards farms of this sort began to spread over the Great Plains.

Building a house was the first task the homesteaders faced. They had to do this themselves, for there was no one else to do it for them. But they had a problem. What could they use as building material? No trees grew on the plains, only mile after mile of long, waving grass.

The settlers built their houses from the matted roots of this grass. They cut thick pieces of earth and grass roots — "sods" —from the dry ground and used them as building bricks. This custom earned homesteaders a nickname by which they were often known-"sod busters."

These same tangled grass roots also gave homesteaders a lot of trouble. The Great Plains had never before been ploughed. The roots of its grasses formed a tangled mat at least four inches thick. When farmers tried to cut through this mat to sow their seeds it often broke or twisted the iron blades of their ploughs.

Lack of water was another problem. Fire was another danger of the long, dry summers. A lightning flash, or even a small spark, could start a fire that would race across the prairie very fast.

In some years plagues of insects caused even more destruction than fire. Between 1874 and 1877 grasshoppers swarmed across the plains in millions, eating everything they found-crops, leather boots, clothing, wooden door frames. In one place they stopped a railroad engine by covering the track until the rails became too slippery for the engine to move.

Some homesteaders were discouraged by such problems. They gave up their land and moved back east. But most stayed. Gradually they began to overcome their early difficulties. Ploughs with steel blades enabled them to cut through the prairie sod and cultivate the soil beneath. Mechanical reapers made it possible to harvest wheat crops ten times faster than before. Barbed wire fences stopped straying cattle from trampling crops into the ground.

None of these aids were made by the farmers themselves. They were manufactured in big new factories in cities like Chicago. From Chicago the railroads carried them out to the Plains. The railroads also carried away the farmers' crops. This made it possible for the farmers to sell their produce in far-away places. Before the end of the nineteenth century wheat grown on the Great Plains of North America was feeding millions of people, not only in the United States but thousands of miles away in Europe.

But prairie farmers still had problems. The Homestead Act gave them land, but it failed to give them a sure living. On the well-watered lands east of the Mississippi a farmer could easily support a family on a homestead of 160 acres. On the rain-starved Great Plains no farmer could make a living from a farm of that size. His crops of wheat were too small; his animals were too hungry.

Prairie farmers worked hard to survive. They ploughed up and planted more land. But if the rains failed, the sun burned up their crops and the prairie winds blew away their dusty top soil, leaving the land poorer and less productive. Even when enough rain fell for the crops to grow well, farmers could still be in trouble. In such years the land produced so much wheat that the prices for which individual farmers were able to sell it were too low to give them a decent living.

In the last thirty years of the nineteenth century such "over-production" became a big problem for American farmers. Its cause was not only that farmers were cultivating more land. Improved agricultural machines were also making their farms more productive every year. "Gang" ploughs with several blades made it possible to prepare more land for sowing more quickly. Giant machines called "combine harvesters" cut and threshed wheat in one operation.

Farmers formed political action groups to try to improve their position. The groups were particularly keen to force railroad companies to reduce the high prices that they charged to transport farmers' crops. They included the Patrons of Husbandry, which was formed in the 1870s, and the Populist Party of the 1890s. Members of the Patrons of Husbandry were also known as "Grangers." The

voting power of the Grangers caused many western states to pass “Granger laws.” These laws set up government bodies to control railroad freight charges and to look after farmers’ interests in other matters.

The Amerindians’ Last Stand

When the cowboys and homesteaders arrived on the Great Plains, Amerindian peoples like the Sioux had been roaming across them for hundreds of years. The Sioux lived by hunting the buffalo. In the early part of the nineteenth century an estimated twelve million of these gentle, heavy animals wandered the Great Plains. They moved about in herds. Sometimes these herds were so big that they stretched as far as the eye could see. The buffalo provided the Sioux with everything that they needed —food, clothing, tools, homes.

In the 1840s wagon trains heading for Oregon and California began to cross the Great Plains. The Amerindians usually let them pass without trouble. Then railroads began to push across the grasslands. The railroads carried white people who stayed on the prairies and began to plough them.

At first the Amerindians tried to drive the newcomers away from their hunting grounds. But soon they saw that this was impossible. So they made treaties with the government in Washington, giving up large pieces of their land for white farmers to settle upon. In 1851 the Pawnee people signed away an area that today forms most of the state of Nebraska. In 1858 the Sioux gave up an area almost as big in South Dakota. In the 1860s the Comanche and the Kiowa gave up lands in Kansas, Colorado and Texas. In return for such agreements the government promised to leave the Amerindians in peace on the lands that remained theirs.

Six years later, however, American soldiers found gold in the Black Hills of South Dakota. The Black Hills were sacred to the Sioux and when the government tried to buy them, the Sioux refused to sell. "One does not sell the Earth upon which the people walk,” said a chief named Crazy Horse. But the American government ignored the Sioux’s refusal. It broke the Fort Laramie treaty and allowed prospectors and miners to enter the Black Hills. In the winter of 1875 thousands of white men poured into the area.

By this time the Amerindian peoples of the Great Plains were facing another serious problem. The buffalo was beginning to disappear. More and more of the land that the big animals needed to graze upon was being taken by ranchers and farmers. White hunters were shooting down the buffalo in thousands. They killed them for their hides or for sport and left their flesh to rot. In just two years between 1872 and 1874 the hunters almost completely destroyed the great herds.

The Amerindians could not understand this behavior.

As more settlers claimed homesteads in the West the American government needed more land for them. To obtain this it decided to force the Amerindians to give up their wandering way of life. It sent soldiers to drive the Amerindians onto “reservations.” These reservations were areas of land that were usually so dry or rocky that the government thought white settlers were never likely to want them.

The Amerindians fought back.

The Amerindians were outnumbered and outgunned. But they inflicted some surprising defeats on the American soldiers. They won their best known victory at the Battle of the Little Big Horn in June 1876. On a hill beside the Little Big Horn River 3,000 Sioux and Cheyenne warriors led by Crazy Horse surrounded and killed all 225 men of a company of United States cavalry. The dead included the cavalrymen's commander. General George Armstrong Custer. For this reason the battle is sometimes called "Custer's Last Stand."

The Battle of the Little Big Horn was also the last stand for the Amerindians. The American government and people were angry at the defeat of their soldiers. The Sioux were too weak to fight back. With the buffalo gone, more of their people were dying every day of starvation and disease. The Sioux surrendered and the soldiers marched them away to the reservations.

Other Amerindians were no more fortunate than the Sioux. By 1890 most of the American West, from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean, was occupied by cattle ranchers, farmers, or miners. The Amerindians had nothing left except the reservations.

The United States government said that it would help and protect the reservation Amerindians. It promised them food, materials to build homes, tools to cultivate the land. But the promises were often broken. There was great suffering on the reservations. Epidemic diseases swept through them, killing their people.

In 1890 a religious prophet told the Sioux to dance a special dance called the Ghost Dance. He told them that if they did so a great miracle would take place. Their dead warriors would come back to life, the buffalo would return and all the white men would be swept away by a great flood.

The Ghost Dance movement was peaceful. But the Dancers' beliefs worried the government. So did the fact that some of them waved rifles above their heads as they danced. It ordered the army to arrest the movement's leaders.

Next morning the soldiers ordered the Sioux to give up their guns. One young warrior refused. A shot rang out, followed by many more. The soldiers began shooting down the Sioux women and children as well as the men. Within minutes most of the Sioux were dead or badly wounded. Many of the wounded who crawled away died later in a blizzard that swept over the camp.

At the time Americans called what happened at Wounded Knee a battle. Other people since have called it a massacre. But whatever the events at Wounded Knee are called, one thing is certain. For the Sioux they marked the end of all hope of a return to their old way of life.

But the Sioux, like other Amerindians, survived. In 1924 Congress passed the Indian Citizenship Act.

This recognized Amerindians as full citizens of the United States and gave them the right to vote. In 1934 the Indian Reorganization Act encouraged them to set up their own councils to run the affairs of their reservations.

In spite of such improvements, Amerindians remained far behind most other Americans in health, wealth, and education. Look at some facts from the 1980s. The unemployment rate among Amerindians was 39 percent, more than five times the figure for the population as a whole. Almost 25 percent of Amerindian families were living on incomes too low to buy the food, clothing,

and housing they needed to keep in good health. Diseases like diabetes, pneumonia, influenza, and alcohol addiction were killing twice as many Amerindians as other Americans.

In the 1970s Amerindians from all over the United States joined together to try to improve their position. They formed the American Indian Movement and in 1972 thousands of them traveled to Washington to take part in a protest march that they called the “Trail of Broken Treaties. The next year a group armed with rifles occupied the small South Dakota village that now stands on the site of the Battle of Wounded Knee. They stayed there for seventy-one days. Their aim was to draw attention to their demand for the return of lands unjustly taken away from their ancestors.

Other Amerindians sued the United States government in court for breaking the old treaties.

The Sioux, for example, demanded the return of the Black Hills. The courts decided in their favor and awarded them S122.5 million in compensation for the loss of their land. Many Sioux did not want to accept the money, however. They continued to demand the return of the sacred land itself.

When he was a very old man, a survivor of the Battle of Wounded Knee named Black Elk said goodbye to the old way of life of his people with these words:

Amerindians today have different dreams. But they have not forgotten the old ones. Let the college- educated great-grandson of a famous Apache warrior have the last word:

“My generation spent all their time learning the white man’s ways. We mastered them but we lost a lot of our Indian heritage. Now we are trying to regain what we lost.”

Inventors and Industries

In 1876 President Ulysses S. Grant traveled to Philadelphia to open a special exhibition. The exhibition was called the Centennial Exposition. It had been organized to celebrate the United States’ hundredth birthday as an independent nation by showing some of its achievements.

The main attraction of the Centennial Exposition was the Machinery Hall. This was a big wooden building that covered more than twelve acres. Inside it visitors could see such recent American inventions as the typewriter and the telephone as well as machines for countless other uses —for sewing, grinding, screwing, printing, drilling, pumping, hammering.

In the six months that the Exposition was open almost ten million people wandered through the hall. They gazed in wonder at its hundreds of machines. Even the normally patronizing British newspaper *The Times* was impressed. “The American invents as the Greek sculpted and as the Italian painted,” it reported. ‘"It is genius.”

At the time of the Centennial Exposition, the United States was still mainly a farming country. But in the years that followed, American industries grew quickly. The production of coal and iron grew especially fast. These were the most important industrial raw materials in the nineteenth century.

Americans discovered vast new deposits of both in the 1880s and 1890s. In a range of low hills at the western end of Lake Superior, for example, some brothers named Merritt found the great Mesabi iron deposits. The Merritts made their discovery in 1887 and the Mesabi soon became one of the largest producers of iron ore in the world. The ore lay close to the surface of the ground in horizontal bands up to 500 feet thick. It was cheap, easy to mine, and remarkably free of chemical impurities. Before long Mesabi ore was being processed into high quality steel at only one tenth of the previous cost.

By 1900 ten times more coal was being produced in the United States than in 1860. The output of iron was twenty times higher. These increases were both a cause and a result of a rapid growth of American manufacturing industries in these years.

Railroads were very important in this growth of manufacturing. Vast amounts of coal and iron were used to make steel for their rails, locomotives, freight wagons and passenger cars. But this was not all. The railroads linked together buyers and sellers all over the country. Without them big new centers of industry like Pittsburgh and Chicago could not have developed. It was the railroads that carried cattle to Chicago from the Great Plains to keep its huge slaughter houses and meat processing plants busy. It was the railroads, too, that took reapers, windmills and barbed wire from Chicago's farm equipment factories to homesteaders on the prairies.

By 1890 the industries of the United States were earning the country more than its farmlands. In the twenty years that followed, industrial output went on growing, faster and faster. By 1913 more than one third of the whole world's industrial production was pouring from the mines and factories of the United States.

The growth of American industry was organized and controlled by businessmen who found the money to pay for it. Many of these men began their lives in poverty. By a mixture of hard work and ability, and by ignoring the rights of others, they made themselves wealthy and powerful. Their admirers called such men "captains of industry." Their critics called them "robber barons"-or worse!

Andrew Carnegie was one of the best known of these men. Carnegie was born in Scotland in 1835, but immigrated to America at the age of thirteen. He began his life there working for one dollar twenty cents a week in a Pittsburgh cotton mill. From there he moved to a job in a telegraph office, then to one on the Pennsylvania Railroad. By the time he was thirty he already had an income of over forty thousand dollars a year from far-sighted investments.

Carnegie concentrated his investments in the iron and steel business. By the 1860s he controlled companies making bridges, rails, and locomotives for the railroads. In the 1870s he built the biggest steel mill in America on the Monongahela River in Pennsylvania. He also bought coal and iron ore mines, a fleet of steamships to carry ore across the Great Lakes from Mesabi to a port he owned on Lake Eric, and a railroad to connect the port to his steel works in Pennsylvania.

Nothing like Carnegie's wealth and industrial power had ever before been seen in America. By 1900, as owner of half the shares in the giant Carnegie Steel

Corporation, his annual income was estimated to be over twenty-three million dollars-this was about twenty thousand times more than the income of the average American of the day.

The great wealth of men like Carnegie came partly from their success in swallowing up rival firms or driving them out of business. Businessmen like Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller, the "king" of the growing oil industry, realized that they could greatly increase their profits by doing this. They could reduce the costs of running their companies, and with no competitors to challenge their position they could raise the prices of their products to whatever level they wished.

The giant industrial organizations that such men created were known as ""corporations." As they grew bigger and more powerful still, they often became "trusts." By the early twentieth century trusts controlled large parts of American industry. One trust controlled the steel industry, another the oil industry, another the meat-packing industry, and there were many more. The biggest trusts were richer than most nations. By their wealth and power— and especially their power to decide wages and prices —they controlled the lives of millions of people.

Many Americans were alarmed by the power of the trusts. The United States was a land that was supposed to offer equal opportunities to everyone. Yet now it seemed that the country was coming under the control of a handful of rich and powerful men who were able to do more or less anything they wished. Some bribed politicians to pass laws which favored them. Others hired private armies to crush any attempt by their workers to obtain better conditions.

The contemptuous way in which leaders of industry made people angry. It strengthened the feeling that something ought to be done to limit such men's growing power over the nation's life. Many people came to see this matter as the most important problem facing the United States in the early years of the twentieth century.

The Golden Door

On a small island in New York harbor stands a giant statue of a robed woman. She looks out to see, her right arm holding a torch high in the air. She is the Statue of Liberty, one ofthe best-known landmarks in the world. The Statue ofLiberty was presented to the United States in 1886. It was given by the people of France to mark the hundredth anniversary of the War of Iudependence.

For millions of immigrants the Statue ofLiberty has been their first sight of America.

The story of the American people is a story of immigrants. More than 75 percent of all the people in history who have ever left their homelands to live in another country have moved to the United States. In the course of its history it has taken in more people from other lands than any other country in the world. Since the founding of Jamestown in 1607 more than fifty million people from other lands have made new homes there.

Between 1840 and 1860 more immigrants than ever before arrived. Most came from Europe. Poor crops, hunger and political unrest caused an estimated five million Europeans a year to leave the lands of their birth at this time. More of them went to the United States than to any other country.

Among these immigrants were many Irish people. The Irish depended for food upon their crops of potatoes. For five years after 1845 these became diseased and rotted in the fields. About 750,000 Irish people starved to death. Many of the survivors left Ireland and went to the United States. In 1847 alone more than 118,000 of them immigrated there. By 1860 one in every four of the people living in the city of New York had been born in Ireland. Today more than thirteen million Americans have Irish ancestors.

During the Civil War in the 1860s the federal government encouraged more emigration from Europe. It did this by offering land to immigrants who would serve as soldiers in the Union armies. By 1865 about one in five of the soldiers in the armies of the North was a wartime immigrant. Many had come from Germany. Today about one in three of all Americans have German ancestors.

Ireland is in the west of Europe. Germany is in the north Until about 1880 most immigrants to the United States came from these regions. Then a big change took place. More emigrants from lands in the south and east of Europe began to arrive- Italians, Poles, Greeks, Russians, Hungarians, Czechs. By 1896 more than half of all the immigrants entering the United States were from eastern or southern Europe.

Many Jewish people came to the United States at this time. In the 1880s Jews were being killed all over Eastern Europe in bloody massacres called "pogroms." Many thousands escaped by leaving for the United States.

Between 1880 and 1925 about two million Jews entered the United States. Today there are about 5.7 million Jewish Americans and they make up about 2.2 percent of the total population of the United States. In certain states along the Atlantic coast the percentage of Jews is higher. In the state of New York, for example, one person in ten is Jewish.

So many immigrants wanted to enter the United States in the late 1800s that the government found it difficult to keep check on them. To control the situation it opened a special place of entry in New York harbor. This place was called Ellis Island. All intending immigrants were examined there before they were allowed to enter the United States.

Ellis Island was opened in 1892. During its busiest times it dealt with almost 2,000 immigrants a day. Between its opening and 1954, when it closed its doors, more than twenty million people waited anxiously in its halls and corridors. Immigration officers asked these people questions to find out if they were criminals or mentally abnormal. Doctors examined them for disease. A letter chalked on their clothing — H for heart disease or E to eye disease — could end their hopes of a new life in America.

But most passed the examinations. Almost half of all present-day Americans have ancestors who entered the United States by way of Ellis Island.

The immigrants found work in busy cities like New York, Chicago and Pittsburgh-stitching garments, feeding furnaces, laboring on factory assembly

lines, hacking out coal. They worked hard because they wanted to make a success of their new life. Yet for most immigrants this new life was a hard one. They were outsiders in a strange land. Often they could not even speak its language. Only the hardest and lowest paid jobs were open to them. They had to work for long hours in dangerous conditions and to live in overcrowded slums that were breeding places of disease and misery.

Yet bad as conditions were, they often seemed preferable to those the immigrants had left behind in Europe. In the United States they were free from religious and political persecution. They were often better dressed and better fed than they had ever been before. They marveled at such wonders as free schools for their children, at the lamps glowing along the city streets at nights, and at the fact that soap was cheap enough to be used by everyone! So the immigrants continued to pour in.

This flood of immigrants worried many Americans. They accused immigrants of taking jobs away from American-born workers, of lowering standards of health and education, and of threatening the country's traditions and way of life by bringing in "un-American" political ideas.

Such accusations were not new. In the 1860s, Chinese workers had been brought to California to build the railroads. The fact that Chinese laborers were willing to work for less pay caused American workers to dislike them. They felt threatened by these people with a different language and a different racial appearance. Chinese communities in the West were attacked and their buildings were burned down.

In 1882 the strength of anti-Chinese feeling caused Congress to ban most Chinese immigration. Japanese and other Asian immigrants were refused entry as well and by 1924 no Asian immigrants were permitted into the United States. The ban lasted until after the Second World War.

In the 1920s Congress passed laws to limit all kinds of immigration. The one which had most effect was the Reed-Johnson Immigration Act of 1924. This law was an answer to the fears and the prejudices of Americans who were descendants of earlier north European immigrants. It said that in the future no more than 150,000 immigrants a year would be let into the United States. Each country which sent immigrants was given a "quota" which was based on the number of its people already living in the United States. The more it had there already, the more new immigrants it would be allowed to send.

The 1924 system was designed mainly to reduce immigration from southern and eastern Europe. Once it began, 87 percent of the immigration permits went to immigrants from Britain, Ireland, Germany and Scandinavia — the countries from which the ancestors of most 1920s Americans had come.

The 1924 Immigration Act marked the end of one of the most important population movements in the history of the world.

Reformers and Progressives

By 1900 the United States was the richest and most productive industrial country in the world. It produced 31.9 percent of the world's coal, 34.1 percent of

its iron and 30.7 percent of its steel. About twenty million of its seventy-four million people earned a living from jobs in industry.

Men, women and children labored for long hours in factories, mines and workshops. Many lived in cities, for growing industrial centers like Pittsburgh and Chicago needed more and more workers. The workers' homes were dirty and overcrowded slums.

Workers tried to form trade, or labor, unions to improve the conditions of their lives. These attempts often failed. One reason for this was the competition for jobs between American-born and immigrant workers. Another was the violent opposition unions faced from employers. Employers would dismiss union members and put their names on a "blacklist." If a worker's name appeared on one of these lists, other employers would refuse to give him a job.

Employers were determined to allow neither their workers nor anyone else to interfere in the way they ran their businesses. Sometimes they persuaded politicians to send soldiers to break up strikes. At other times they hired their own private armies to control their workers.

Fmployers and the government were not the only enemies labor unions faced. The general public was usually against them. Americans had always seen their country as a land where individuals should be free to improve their lives by their own efforts. Many owned farms, shops or small manufacturing firms. Millions more dreamed of the day when they too would own a farm or a business of their own. Perhaps they might even become rich, as Carnegie had done! People such as these were unlikely to favor organizations which aimed to limit businessmen's freedom of action and opportunities.

But Americans were not complacent about conditions in their country. In the early years of the twentieth century a stream of books and magazine articles drew people's attention to a large number of national problems. Some dealt with conditions of life in the slums of the great cities, some with bribery and corruption in government, others with the dishonesty of wealthy businessmen. The books and articles often brought out startling and shocking facts. This caused some people to describe their authors with contempt as "muckrakers."

One of the best-known muckrakers was Upton Sinclair. In 1906 he attacked the meat-packing industry in his novel *The Jungle.* This gave a horrifying description of life among immigrant workers in the slaughter houses of Chicago. *The Jungle* revealed to many middle-class Americans a side of their nation's life that they hardly knew existed. They were shocked to learn what went into their breakfast sausages. They were even more shocked when government investigators said that what Sinclair had written was correct.

Reports like this shocked and frightened the American people.

People began to demand that the nation's leaders should deal with other scandals exposed by the muckrakers. This pressure brought about an important change in American economic and political life. Before 1900 most Americans had believed that governments should interfere with business, and with people's lives in general, as little as possible. After 1900 many Americans became "Progressives." A Progressive was someone who believed that, where necessary, the government should take action to deal with the problems of society.

The Progressive movement found a leader in the Republican Theodore

Roosevelt. Roosevelt became President in 1901. One of his main beliefs was that it was the duty of the President to use the power of the federal government to improve conditions of life for the people.

Roosevelt was particularly concerned about the power of the trusts. His idea was to give the United States the best of both worlds. He wanted to allow businessmen enough freedom of action to make their firms efficient and prosperous, but at the same time to prevent them from taking unfair advantage of other people.

A good example of the "square deal" in action came in 1902. Anthracite coal miners went on strike to obtain better wages and working conditions. Their employers refused even to discuss the workers' demands. Then the President stepped in. He told the mine owners that they were being unreasonable. He said that unless they agreed to negotiate with their workers, the federal government would take control of the coal mines. The threat was enough. The owners changed their attitude and the strike was settled.

Theodore Roosevelt retired as President in 1909. In 1912 he tried to regain the position, but he was defeated in the presidential election by Woodrow Wilson, the candidate of the Democratic Party.

Although Roosevelt and Wilson belonged to different political parties, some of their ideas were very similar. Wilson, too, supported the Progressive movement. He had promised that when he became President he would fight "not for the man who has made good [achieved success] but for the man who is going to make good — the man who is knocking and fighting at the closed door of opportunity." As Governor of the state of New Jersey he had fought successfully to make sure that the state was run for the benefit of its people. He had reduced bribery and corruption there, and he had introduced reforms such as laws to give workers compensation for injuries at work.

In March 1913. Wilson stood before the Capitol building in Washington, the home of the United States Congress. There he took the oath as President.

Wilson believed, it had been the near destruction for many ordinary Americans of a fair chance to get on in life. Workers, farmers, owners of small businesses—people such as these had seen their opportunities steadily shrinking in recent years owing to the continuing growth of the power of "big business" over the nation's economic life. Despite Theodore Roosevelt's attempts to bring the trusts under control, they were even more powerful in 1913 than they had been in 1900. Real equality of opportunity seemed in danger of disappearing in the United States. Wilson believed that only action by the federal government could halt this process. As President, he was determined to see that such action was taken.

One of Wilson's first steps was to reduce customs duties in order to encourage trade between the United States and other countries. Then he reformed the banking system and introduced a system of federal taxes on high incomes. Other laws reduced the powers of the trusts, gave more rights to labor unions and made it easier for farmers to borrow money from the federal government to develop their land. Many individual states also passed Progressive laws. They forbade factories to employ children, introduced secret voting, improved safety at work, and protected their natural resources.

But not all Wilson's plans of reform were accepted. For example, the Senate refused to pass a law giving the federal authorities more control over the buying and selling of business shares. Another law, stopping child labor in factories everywhere, was declared to be unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

The Progressive movement changed and improved American life in many ways. But many people still distrusted too much government "interference" in the nation's life.

An American Empire

On January 25, 1898, one of the most modern ships in the United States' navy steamed into the harbor of Havana, Cuba. The ship was a cruiser called the *Maine.* A war was being fought in Cuba at this time and the *Maine* had been sent to Havana as a demonstration of American power. Three weeks later, on the night of February 15, a huge explosion shook the city. The *Maine* was blown to pieces and 260 of its crew were killed.

To this day, the cause of the explosion that destroyed the *Maine* remains a mystery. Some believe that it was set off by an accidental spark in the ship's magazine, or ammunition store. At the time, however, many Americans believed that the explosion had been caused by an enemy mine.

The man who made this claim most loudly was a newspaper owner named William Randolph Hearst. "THE WARSHIP *MAINE* WAS SPLIT IN TWO BY AN ENEMY'S INFERNAL [hellish| MACHINE," read the headline in one of his newspapers on February 17. The story which followed made it clear that to Hearst the "enemy" in the headline was Spain. Most Americans agreed with him. This was not because they had any proof. It was because they wanted to believe it.

Politicians, businessmen, newspapers and missionaries joined together to claim that "the Anglo-Saxon race"-by which they meant Americans as well as North Europeans-had a right and a duty to bring western civilization to the peoples of Asia. Africa and Latin America. How? By making them accept "Anglo- Saxon" rule or guidance.

From 1895 onwards feelings of this kind were focused more and more upon Cuba, which lay only ninety miles from the American coast. Many Americans had invested money in sugar and tobacco plantations there. But at this time Cuba was a Spanish colony.

In 1895 the people of Cuba rose in rebellion against their Spanish rulers. The rebels raided and burned villages, sugar plantations and railroad depots. To cut off the rebels' supplies, Spanish soldiers moved thousands of Cuban civilians into prison camps. The camps bccame badly overcrowded. As many as 200,000 people died in them of disease and hunger.

By 1898 many Americans felt that the United States should do something to help the Cubans. It was to show its sympathy for the rebels that the American government sent the *Maine* to Havana.

When the *Maine* blew up, people began calling for war with Spain. "Remember the *Maine"* became a battle cry. In April President McKmley demanded that Spain should withdraw from Cuba, and a few days later Spain and the United States went to war.

The Spanish - American War was fought in two parts of the world. One was Cuba: the other was the Philippines.

The Philippines was another big Spanish colony near the coast of Southeast Asia. It was said that President McKinley had to search a globe to find out exactly where it was. But he saw that the islands would be useful for the United States to control. Erom bases in the Philippines American soldiers and sailors would be able to protect the growing number of American traders in China.

The first battle of the Spanish— American War was fought in the Philippines. American warships sank a Spanish fleet that was anchored there. A few weeks later American soldiers occupied Manila, the chief city in the Philippines, and Spanish resistance came to an end.

American soldiers also landed in Cuba. In less than two weeks of fighting, the Spanish were again defeated. Other American soldiers occupied Puerto Rico, another Spanish-owned island close to Cuba. In July the Spanish government saw it was beaten. It asked the Americans for peace.

When peace was signed, Spain gave most of its overseas empire to the United States —Cuba, the Philippines, Puerto Rico and a small Pacific island called Guam. At the same time the United States also annexed Hawaii. Hawaii was a group of islands in the middle of the Pacific Ocean. Before this it had been independent, but Americans owned profitable sugar and pineapple plantations there.

In less than a year the United States had become a colonial power, with millions of non-Americans under its rule. Some Americans were worried by this. After all, they, too, had once been a colonial people. In rebelling against British rule they had claimed that colonial peoples should be free to rule themselves. So what about the Cubans? And what about the Filipines? Filipines who had fought for independence from Spain were soon fighting against American occupation troops. How could Americans fight against such people without being unfaithful to the most important traditions and values of their own country?

Most Americans answered this question by claiming that they were preparing underdeveloped nations for civilization and democracy.

There was some truth in the clergyman's claim. The Americans built schools and hospitals, constructed roads, provided pure water supplies and put an end to killer diseases like malaria and yellow fever in the lands they now ruled. They continued to rule most of them until the middle years of the century. The Philippines became an independent country in 1946. In 1953 Puerto Rico became self-governing, but continued to be closely tied to the United States. In 1959 Hawaii was admitted as the fiftieth state of the Union.

Cuba was treated differently. When Congress declared war on Spain in 1898 it said that it was only doing so to help the Cuban people to win independence. When the war ended, Cuba was soon declared an independent country.

But for years Cuba's independence was just a pretense. Before the Americans took away their soldiers in 1902 they made the Cuban government give them land at Guantanamo Bay on the Cuban coast. A big American naval base was built there. The Cubans also had to accept a condition called the Piatt Amendment, This said that the United States could send troops to take control of

Cuba any time it believed that American interests were in danger—in other words, whenever it wanted.

It did so many times. In 1906, for example, President Theodore Roosevelt set tip an American military government in Cuba to stop a revolution. In 1912, 1917 and 1921 American marines were again sent to stop revolutions in Cuba. For many years the country continued to be little more than a protectorate of the United States.

Exercise I. Complete the sentences according to the information given in the text.

1. One day the foreman in charge of the workers saw …
   a) golden specks glittering in the water.
   b) tribes of Amerindians coming to the setllement.
   c) men and women from all over the country hurried to occupy this territory.
2. One day Homestead Act offered…
a) a limited number of farms in the West to the families of settlers.
b) very expensive"homesteads".
c) free farms(homesteads) in the West .
3.Railroad companies shipped imigrants across the Atlantic and …
a) gave them money for living.
b) helped them to start their farms and communities.
c) then didn't give them free railroad transport to the West.
4.Some homesteads…
a) became bankrupts.
b) were discouraged by such problems.
c) faced these problems bravely.
5.At first the Amerindians tried…
a) to drive the newcomers away.
b) to be friendly with newcomers.
c) to teach newcomers how to grow new crops.
6. When the government tried to buy the Black Hills Sioux…
a) agree to sell them.
b) refused to sell them.
c) were hesitating how to solve this problem.
7.In the 1970's Amerindians from all over the US joined together to try…
a) to discuss their position in the society.
b) to organize a strike being dissatisfied with US policy.
c) to improve their position.

Exercise II. Match the antonyms.

1. Excitement	a) cleanliness
2. profit	b) supress
3. survive	c) deteriorate
4. tangled	d) input
5. improve	e) rapid
6. encourage	f) monotony

7. destructive	g) perish
8 impurity	h) simplified
9. output	i) creative
10. adventure	j) indifference
	k) loss

Exercise III. Join the suitable parts of the sentences according the information in the text.

1. Before long the news of this discovery …	a) grew later into permanent community.
2. Some mining settlemnts …	b) for breaking the old treaties.
3. The first railroad across…	c) and almost 10 million people wandered through the hall.
4. Transcontinental railroad companies…	d) was sweeping through California.
5. In return for such agreements the government…	e) the Northern American continent was Completed.
6. Amerindians sued the US government …	f) provided settlers with cheap land.
7. In the six month that Exposition was opened…	g) promised to live the Amerindians in peace on the lands that remained theirs.
	h) and destructive floods.

Exercise IV. Match the words and expressions with their defenitions.

1. Gold rush	a) The name of the shepherd in the Midwest.
2. Frontier	b) A set of tools, devices etc. assembled for a single purpose.
3. Sod busters	c) The bounday of white settlers.
4. Homesteaders	d) The act or process of making amends for something.
5. Equipment	e) People who build their houses from the matted roots of grass.
6. Combine-harvester	f) A person who acquired or possessed land under a homestead law.
7. Compensation	g) A machine that simultaneously cuts, threshes and cleans a standing crop of grain.
	h) A large-scale migration of people to a territory where gold was found.

Vocabulary

1. Barbed-колючий
2. blizzard-снежная буря
3. bribery-взяточничество
4. centennial-вековой, столетний
5. complacent-самодовольный
6. contemptuous- высокомерный, пренебрежительный
7. distruction-разрушение, уничтожение
8. extermination-искоренение,уничтожение
9. garment-одежда
10. grasshopper-кузнечик
11. granger-фермер,член ассоциации фермеров
12. hide-тайник, убежище
13. homesteader-владелец участка, поселенец
14. inflict-наносить удар
15. massacre-резня, бойня
16. muckraker-разоблачитель, охотник за сенсациями
17. prophen-предсказатель, пророк
18. rifle-винтовка
19. slaughter-бойня, резня
20. sod-дерн
21. square deal-честная сделка
22. tangled-сложный, затрудненный
23. torrent-ливень, поток

AMERICA WITH PROSPERTY AND PROBLEMS

A War and a Peace

In August 1914, a war started on the continent of Europe. It was the beginning of a struggle that lasted for more than four years, brought death to millions of people and changed the history of the world. At the time people called the conflict the Great War. Later it was called the First World War.

The main countries fighting the war were, on one side, France, Great Britain and Russia. They were known as the Allies. On the other side the main countries were Germany and Austria, who were called the Central Powers.

Most Americans wanted to keep out of the war. They saw it as a purely European affair that was not their concern. When President Wilson said that they should be "impartial in thought as well as in action," most people were ready to agree with him.

But Americans found it difficult to stay impartial for long. In the first days of the war the German government sent its armies marching into neutral Belgium. This shocked many Americans. They were even more shocked when newspapers printed reports - often false or exaggerated —of German cruelty towards Belgian civilians.

From the very beginning of the war the strong British navy prevented German ships from trading with the United States. But trade between the United States and the Allies grew quickly. By 1915 American factories were making vast quantities of weapons and munitions and selling them to Britain and France.

German leaders were determined to stop this flow of armaments to their enemies. They announced in February 1915, that they would sink all Allied merchant ships in the seas around the British Isles. On a hazy afternoon in May, a big British passenger ship called the *Lusitania* was nearing the end of its voyage from the United States to Britain. Suddenly, without any warning, it was hit by a torpedo from a German submarine. Within minutes the *Lusitania* was sinking.

The sinking of the *Lusitania* made Americans very angry. Some began to think that Germany would do anything to win the war. But most still wanted peace. President Wilson made strong protests to the German government. For a time the Germans stopped the submarine attacks.

In the autumn of 1916 American voters re-elected Wilson as President, mainly because he had kept them out of the war. In January 1917, Wilson made a speech to Congress. In it he appealed to the warring nations of Europe to settle their differences and make "a peace without victory." This, he said, was the only kind of peace that could last.

But by now American bankers had lent a lot of money to the Allies. And American military supplies were still pouring across the Atlantic. Germany's war leaders feared that, unless the flow of supplies was stopped, their country would be defeated. Only nine days after Wilson's speech they again ordered their submarines to begin sinking ships sailing towards Allied ports. This time the order included neutral vessels.

In the next few weeks German submarines sank five American ships. Wilson felt that he had no choice. On April 2, 1917, he asked Congress to declare war on Germany. Wilson's aim was not simply to defeat Germany-.He saw the war as a great crusade to ensure the future peace of the world. For him the war would become a war "to make the world safe for democracy, the war to end all wars."

When the United States declared war on Germany the American army was a small force of only 200,000 soldiers. Millions more men had to be recruited, trained, equipped and shipped across the Atlantic to Europe, All this took time. A full year passed before many American soldiers were available to help the European Allies.

In the spring of 1918 the German armies began a last desperate offensive against the French and the British. Their aim was to win the war before the new American army was ready to fight. By July they were within a few miles of Paris.

T'he Allies were in great danger. They placed all their armies under one commander, the French general Foch. Luckily for Foch, American soldiers began to arrive at the battlefront to strengthen his forces. Soon over a million of them had joined in the battles against the Germans.

In August 1918, the Allied armies counter-attacked. The German armies were driven back towards their own frontiers. In October the German government asked for peace. On November 11, 1918, German and Allied leaders signed an armistice, an agreement to stop fighting. The bloodiest and most destructive war the world had ever known was over.

By January 1919, President Wilson was in Europe. He was there to help to work out a peace treaty.

But when Wilson met other Allied leaders to work out the details of the treaty, the welcome became less friendly. The French leader. Georges Clemenceau, thought that Wilson lacked experience in international affairs. Worse still, the American President did not seem to realize this. "How can I talk to a fellow who thinks himself the first man in two thousand years to know anything about peace on earth?" asked Clemenceau.

Both Wilson and Clemenceau wanted to make sure that a war like the First World War never happened again. Wilson wanted to do this by writing a treaty

that did not leave the Germans with lots of grievances. He believed that if the Germans thought they had not been treated fairly, they might one day start a war of revenge. Clemenceau thought differently. He believed there was only one way to make a peace that would last. The Germans had to be made so weak that they would never have the strength to fight again.

Tthe Allied leaders agreed on a peace treaty. They called it the Versailles Treaty, after the palace near Paris where it was signed in May 1919.

The Versailles Treaty was harder in its treatment of the Germans than Wilson had wanted! Among other things it made them take all the blame for the war. It also made them agree to pay for all the damage that the war had caused. These "reparation" payments were fixed at many millions of dollars.

Wilson was disappointed with much of the Versailles Treaty. But he returned to the United States with high hopes for part of it. This was a scheme that he believed could still make his dream of a world without war come true. It was a plan to set up a League of Nations.

The League of Nations was to be an organization where representatives of the world's nations would meet and settle their differences by discussion instead of war. It had taken Wilson months of hard bargaining to persuade the other Allied leaders to accept this plan. Now he faced a battle to persuade Congress and the American people to accept it, too.

Wilson knew that this would not be easy. Many Americans were against their country becoming permanently involved in the problems of Europe. And they were suspicious of the League of Nations. Wilson tried to remove such fears. But as the months passed it began to seem that he was failing to do so. After another trip to Europe he returned to America, tired and ill. But he boarded a special train and set off on a speaking tour of the western United States to plead for the League.

The tour was never completed. On September 25, 1919, the exhausted Wilson suffered a severe stroke.

He was taken back to Washington, his health broken for ever. In March 1920, the Senate voted against the United States joining the League of Nations, and the idea was dropped.

From his invalid's armchair in the White House a sick and disappointed Wilson spoke the last words on the subject. "We had a chance to gain the leadership of the world. We have lost it and soon we shall be witnessing the tragedy of it all."

The Roaring Twenties

The United States was very rich in these years. Because of the First World

War, other countries owed it a lot of money. It had plenty of raw materials and plenty of factories. Its national income-the total earnings of all its citizens—was much higher, than that of Britain, France, Germany and Japan put together.

American factories produced more goods every year. The busiest were those making automobiles. Between 1922 and 1927, the number of cars on the roads rose from under eleven million to over twenty million. The electrical industry also prospered, it made hundreds of thousands of refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, stoves and radios.

The United States became the first nation in history to build its way of life on selling vast quantities of goods that gave ordinary people easier and more enjoyable lives. These "consumer goods" poured off the assembly lines of big new factories. Between 1919 and 1929 such mass-production factories doubled their output.

The growth of industry made many Americans well-off. Millions earned good wages. Thousands invested money in succcssful firms so that they could share in their profits. Many bought cars, radios and other new products with their money. Often they obtained these goods by paying a small deposit and agreeing to pay the rest of the cost through an "instalment plan." Their motto was "Live now, pay tomorrow".

Businessmen became popular heroes in the 1920s. The government was controlled by the Republican Party. Republicans believed that if the government looked after the interests of the businessman, everybody would become richer. Businessmen whose firms were doing well, they claimed, would take on more workers and pay more wages. In this way their growing wealth would benefit everybody.

To help businessmen Congress placed high import taxes on goods from abroad. The aim was to make imported goods more expensive, so that American manufacturers would have less competition from foreign rivals. At the same time Congress reduced taxes on high incomes and company profits. This gave rich men more money to invest.

Yet there were lots of poor Americans. A survey in 1929 showed that half the American people had hardly enough money to buy sufficient food and clothing. In the industrial cities of the North, such as Chicago and Pittsburgh, immigrant workers still labored long hours for low wages in steel mills, factories and slaughter houses. In the South thousands of poor farmers, both black and white, worked from sunrise to sunset to earn barely enough to live on. The wealth that Republicans said would benefit everybody never reached people like these.

The main reason for poverty among industrial workers was low wages.

Farmers and farm workers had a hard time for different reasons. In the South many farmers did not own the land they farmed. They were sharecroppers. For rent, a sharecropper gave the landowner part of what he grew — often so much that he was left with hardly enough to feed his family.

In the West most farmers owned their land. But they, too, faced hard times. During the First World War they had been able to sell their wheat to Europe for high prices. By 1921, however, the countries of Europe no longer needed so much American food.

And farmers were finding it more difficult to sell their produce at home. Immigration had fallen, so the number of people needing food was growing more slowly. All the new cars didn't help either. Cars ran on gasoline, not on corn and hay like horses.

American farmers found themselves growing products they could not sell. By 1924 around 600,000 of them were bankrupt.

But to Americans who owned shares or "stock," in industrial companies the future looked bright. Sales of consumer goods went on rising. This meant bigger profits for the firms that made them. This in turn sent up the value of shares in such firms.

In 1928 the American people elected a new President, Flerbert Hoover. Hoover was sure that American prosperity would go on growing and that the poverty in which some Americans still lived would be remembered as something in the past. He said that there would soon be "a chicken in every pot and two cars in every garage."

Looking at the way their standard of living had risen during the 1920s, many other Americans thought the same.

Crash and Depression

In the heart of New York City lies a narrow street enclosed by the walls of high office buildings. Its name is Wall Street.

Wall Street is the home of the New York Stock Exchange. Here dealers called stockbrokers buy and sell valuable pieces of paper. The pieces of paper are share certificates. Each certificate represents a certain amount of money invested in a company.

Every year in the 1920s the sales of cars, radios and other consumer goods rose. This meant bigger profits for the firms which made them. This in turn sent up the value of shares in such firms.

Owning shares in a business gives you the right to a share of its profits. But you can make money from shares in another way. You can buy them at one price, then, if the company does well, sell them later at a higher one.

More and more people were eager to get some of this easy money. By 1929 buying and selling shares-"playing the market"—had become almost a national hobby.

Like most other things in the United States in the 1920s, you could buy shares on credit, A hundred dollars cash would "buy" a thousand dollars' worth of shares from any stockbroker. Many people borrowed large amounts of money from the banks to buy shares in this way- "on the margin", as it was called.

Most of these "on the margin" share buyers were really gamblers. Their idea was to spot shares that would quickly rise in value, buy them at one price and then resell at a higher one a few weeks later. They could then pay back the bank, having made a quick profit.

By the fall of 1929 the urge to buy shares had become a sort of fever. Prices went up and up. One visitor to Wall Street was reminded of a street fight, as stockbrokers pushed and scrambled to buy shares for their customers.

Yet some people began to have doubts. The true value of shares in a business firm depends upon its profits. By the fall of l929 the profits being made by many American firms had been decreasing for some time. If profits were falling, thought more cautious investors, then share prices, too, would soon fall. Slowly, such people began to sell their shares. Day by day their numbers grew. Soon so many people were selling shares that prices did start to fall.

At first many investors held on to their shares, hoping that prices would rise again. But the fall became faster. A panic began. On Thursday, October 24, 1929-Black Thursday-13 million shares were sold. On the following Tuesday, October 29—Terrifying Tuesday — 16.5 million were sold.

By the end of the year the value of all shares had dropped by $40,000 million. Thousands of people, especially those who had borrowed to buy on the margin, found themselves facing debt and ruin. Some committed suicide.

This collapse of American share prices was known as the Wall Street Crash. It marked the end of the prosperity of the 1920s.

The Crash made people uncertain about the future. Many decided to save any money they had instead of spending it on such things as new cars and radios. American factories were already making more goods than they could sell. Now they had even fewer customers.

The Crash affected their sales to foreign countries, too. In the 1920s American goods had sold well overseas, especially in Europe. But countries such

as Britain and Germany had not prospered after the war as the United States had. They had often paid for their purchases with money borrowed from American banks. After the Wall Street Crash the banks wanted their money back. European buyers became short of cash and American overseas sales dried up almost completely. Goods piled up unsold in factory warehouses. Employers stopped employing workers and reduced production.

By the end of 1931 nearly eight million Americans were out of work. Unlike unemployed workers in countries such as Germany and Britain, they received no government unemployment pay. Many were soon without homes or food and had to live on charity. Millions spent hours shuffling slowly forward in "breadlines." Here they received free pieces of bread or bowls of soup, paid for by money collected from those who could afford it.

By 1932 the position was worse still. Thousands of banks and over 100,000 businesses had closed down. Industrial production had fallen by half and wage payments by 60 percent. New investment in industry was down by 90 percent. Twelve million people, one out of every four of the country's workers, were unemployed. The city of Chicago alone had almost three-quarters of a million workers without jobs. This was four out often of its normal working population. The position was just as bad in other places.

The Depression was easiest to see in the towns, with their silent factories, closed shops and slowly moving breadlines. But it brought ruin and despair to the farmlands also. Farmers simply could not sell their produce. With the number of people out of work rising day by day, their customers in the cities could no longer afford to buy. If anyone did buy, it was at the lowest possible prices. The same was true of the farmers' overseas customers.

By 1932 people of every kind—factory workers, fanners, office workers, store keepers-were demanding that President Hoover take stronger action to deal with the Depression.

Hoover believed that he could do two things to end the Depression. The first was to "balance the budget"-that is, to make sure that the government's spending did not exceed its income. The second was to restore businessmen's confidence in the future, so that they would begin to take on workers again.

Then, Franklin D. Roosevelt came on the scene. Roosevelt was the Governor of the state of New York. But in 1932 the Democratic Party chose him to run against President Hoover in that year's election for a new president.

Roosevelt gave an impression of energy and determination, and of caring deeply for the welfare of ordinary people. All over the United States anxious men and women felt that here at last was a man who understood their troubles, who sympathized with them —and most important of all, who sounded as if he would

do something to help them.

Roosevelt's main idea was that the federal government should take the lead in the fight against the Depression. He told the American people: "The country needs and demands bold, persistent experimentation. Above all try something." He promised them a "New Deal."

Hoover condemned Roosevelt's policies of greater government action.

The majority of the American people ignored Hoover's gloomy warnings. On November 9, 1932, they elected Franklin Roosevelt as the next President of the United States by the largest majority in American history.

Roosevelt`s New Deal

On a cold, grey Saturday in March 1933, Franklin D. Roosevelt took the oath as President of the United States. For a hundred days, from March 8 to June 16 he sent Congress a flood of proposals for new laws. The American people had asked for action. In the "Hundred Days" Roosevelt gave it to them.

Many of the new laws set up government organizations called "agencies'" to help the nation to recover from the Depression. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) found work for many thousands of young men. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) gave individual states government money to help their unemployed and homeless. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA) set out to raise crop prices by paying farmers to produce less. The Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) built a network of dams to make electricity and stop floods in a poor southeastern region ofthe United States. And the National Recovery Administration (NRA) worked to make sure that businesses paid fair wages and charged fair prices.

Roosevelt believed that his most urgent task was to find people work. He was especially anxious about the young. Roosevelt set up the CCC to help them. By August 1933, the CCC had already placed 250,000 young men in camps all over the country. They were hard at work cutting fire-lanes through forests, strengthening river hanks against flooding, planting trees in places where the soil was being blown away. The government gave the CCC workers food and shelter and a wage of a dollar a day. Many sent this wage home to help their less fortunate relatives.

A later alphabet agency was the Works Progress Administration (WPA). Roosevelt set up the WI'A in 1935. Like the CCC, it aimed to set people to work on jobs that were useful to the community. By 1937 its workers had built thousands of miles of new roads and thousands of schools and hospitals. The WPA even found work for unemployed writers and artists. The writers produced guidebooks to states and cities. The artists painted pictures on the walls of post

offices and other public buildings.

Alphabet agencies like the CCC and the WPA put millions of people to work. Between 1935 and 1942 the WPA alone provided eight million jobs. This meant that people were able to support themselves once more. They regained their independence and self respect. This was not all. The money they were paid helped to bring trade back to life. Shops had customers again. Factories became busy once more. Farmers had someone to buy their produce.

This was what Roosevelt had hoped for. He believed that putting money into people's pockets was like pouring fuel into an engine that had stopped to make it start again. The engine could then once more drive the economic machinery that earned the country its living.

Roosevelt helped industrial workers in other ways. In 1935 he persuaded Congress to pass a law to protect their right to join labor unions. He hoped this would give workers a better chance to bargain with employers.

But some big employers— Henry Ford was one- hated labor unions. They dismissed any worker who joined one. Strikes and fighting broke out in industrial areas of the country as unions struggled to win recognition. To stop the trouble another union law was passed. This was called the Wagner Act, after the man who guided it through Congress. The Wagner Act gave every worker the right to join a union, and it set up a body called the National Labor Board to protect this right.

In 1935 Roosevelt brought in a law called the Social Security Act. One part gave government pensions to people unable to provide for themselves —old people, widows and the blind, for example. Another part gave the United States its first system of unemployment insurance. The money to pay for these benefits came from special taxes paid by both workers and employers. The unemployment scheme did not cover all workers at first. But in later years more and more were protected by it.

Not all Americans supported Roosevelt's New Deal policies. Some said that the country could not afford the money that he was spending. Others said that much of the money was being wasted anyway.

But such criticisms made little difference to Roosevelt's popularity with the voters. To millions of Americans he was the man who had given them jobs and saved their homes and farms. In 1936 they re-elected him President by the largest majority of votes in the country's history.

By 1939, despite the New Deal, ten million American workers again had no jobs. Then, in September 1939, Hitler's armies marched into Poland. The Second World War began. The United States quickly became the main supplier of weapons to the countries fighting Hitler—what Roosevelt described as "the arsenal of democracy." American factories began working all day and all night.

The number of people without jobs fell. In 1941 the United States joined the war itself and unemployment disappeared. President Roosevelt was now too busy to give attention to further reforms at home. By 1945 he was a sick man. A few weeks before the end of the war, on the morning of April 12, he suffered a stroke. Within hours he was dead. His Vice President, Harry Truman, took over as President of the United States.

By this time nearly all Americans were better off than they had been in the dark days of the Depression. Some argued that this was due mainly to the coming of war. But many thought the main cause was the New Deal. People still argue about this. But there is no argument about the importance of the New Deal in other ways.

The New Deal altered Americans ideas about the rightful work of their national government.

The Arsenal of Democracy

In the 1930s every year seemed to bring a new war, or threat of war, somewhere in the world. Leaders like the German dictator Hitler threatened and bullied. Nations built more tanks, warships and military aircraft. President Roosevelt spoke to the American people in 1937 about wars being fought in Spain and China. "innocent peoples, innocent nations are being cruelly sacrificed to a greed for power and supremacy," he warned. "If these things come to pass [happen **j** in other parts of the world, let no one imagine that America will escape."

But Spain and China seemed far away. Most Americans ignored Roosevelt's warning. They believed that the best thing to do was to let foreigners solve their problems themselves. Isolationists felt this particularly strongly. These were people who believed that Americans should try to cut off, or "isolate," the United States from the problems of the outside world.

Then, in 1939, war broke out in Europe. By the summer of 1940 Hitler's armies had overrun all of western Europe. Only Britain —exhausted and short of weapons-still defied them. With Hitler the master of Europe, and his ally, Japan, becoming ever stronger in Asia, Americans saw at last the dangerous position of the United States, sandwiched between the two.

Roosevelt had already persuaded Congress to approve the first peacetime military conscription in American history and to suspend the Neutrality Acts. Now he sent Britain all the military equipment that the United States could spare —rifles, guns, ships. Early in 1941 the British ran out of money. In March Roosevelt persuaded Congress to accept his Lend Lease Plan.

Lend Lease gave Roosevelt the right to supply military equipment and

other goods to Britain without payment. He could do the same for any country whose defense he considered necessary to the safety of the United States. American guns, food and aircraft crossed the Atlantic Ocean in large quantities. They played a vital part in helping Britain to continue to fight against Hitlcr. When Hitler attacked the Soviet Union in June 1941, Roosevelt used the Lend Lease scheme to send aid to the Russians, too.

Fighting was also taking place in Asia at this time. Japanese forces had invaded Manchuria in 1931 and China in 1937. In July 1941 they also occupied the French colony of Indochina. This alarmed the American government. It saw the growing power of Japan as a threat both to peace in Asia and to American trading interests. Ever since the 1937 attack on China the United States had been reducing its exports to Japan of goods that were useful in war-aircraft and chemicals, for example. Now, in July 1941, it stopped all shipments of oil.

Japan faced disaster. It imported 80 percent of its oil from the United States. Without this American oil its industries would be paralyzed.

In October, General Hideki Tojo became Japan's Prime Minister. Tojo was well known for his belief that a sharp use of force was often the best way to solve disagreements. This had earned him a nickname—the Razor. There was plenty of oil in Southeast Asia. Tojo decided that Japan must seize it—and must make it impossible for the Americans to use their Pacific battle fleet to stop them.

On December 7, 1941, Japanese warplanes roared in over Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, the American navy's main base in the Pacific Ocean. Their bombs and torpedoes sank or badly damaged eight American battleships, blew up hundreds of aircraft and killed over 2,000 men.

When the Pearl Harbor attack took place, the United States and Japan were still at peace. The United States declared war on December 8 1941. Since Germany was Japan's ally, Hitler then declared war on the United States. The war in Europe and the war in Asia became one war. Britain, the Soviet Union and the United States (the Allies) were the main countries on one side. Germany and Japan (the Axis) were the main countries on the other.

The United States government organized the whole American economy towards winning the war. It placed controls on wages and prices, and introduced high income taxes. Gasoline and some foods were rationed. Factories stopped producing consumer goods such as automobiles and washing machines, and started making tanks, bombers and other war supplies.

Allied war planners agreed to concentrate on defeating Germany first. In 1942 the Soviet Union was under heavy attack by the Cermans. To help the Russians, American generals recommended an early invasion of German-occupied France. But Winston Churchill, the British Prime Minister,

persuaded Roosevelt to attack the Germans first in the Mediterranean region. Combined American and British forces landed in North Africa in November 1942, and joined other British forces already fighting there. Together, the Allied armies defeated the German general Rommel's Afrika Korps. In 1943 they invaded Sicily and the mainland of Italy. After months of bitter fighting, on June 4, 1944 they freed Rome from German control.

Two days later, on June 6, Allied troops invaded Normandy in German-occupied France. Their Supreme Commander was the American general Eisenhower. German soldiers fought hard to push the invaders into the sea. But they failed. By the end of July Allied soldiers were racing across France. Paris was liberated on August 24 and by September Allied forces had crossed Germany's western border.

But the Germans were not yet beaten. In December 1944 they launched a last fierce attack in the Ardennes region of Belgium. They punched back the Allied front line in a bulge many miles deep.

The Battle of the Bulge proved to be the last German offensive of the Second World War. On April 25, 1944

British and American soldiers met advancing Soviet troops on the banks of the River Elbe in the middle of Germany. On May 5, 1945 Germany surrendered.

In the Pacific Japanese armed forces won some- striking early victories. In only a few months they overran Southeast Asia and the islands of the western Pacific. By the summer of 1942 they had conquered over 1.5 million square miles of land, rich in raw materials and inhabited by more than 100 million people. The conquered lands included the Philippines, where thousands of American troops were trapped and forced to surrender.

Japan's first setback came in May 1942. In the Battle of the Coral Sea, aircraft from American carriers drove back a big Japanese invasion fleet that was threatening Australia.

By the beginning of 1943 the Americans and their Australian and British allies had agreed upon a long- term plan to defeat the Japanese.

By June 1943, the Pacific offensives had begun. American forces advanced towards Japan by "island hopping" — that is, they captured islands that were strategically important, but bypassed others. In the remainder of 1943 and throughout 1944, Allied forces fought their way closer to Japan itself. In June 1944, an enormous American task force won control of the important Mariana Islands. In October American troops returned to the Philippines and cut off Japan from its conquests in Southeast Asia.

By 1945 Japan was within range of air attacks. American bombers made

devastating raids on its cities. In June the island of Okinawa, less than 375 miles from the Japanese coast, fell to the Americans. American troops prepared to invade Japan itself.

But the invasion never came. On July 16, 1945, Allied scientists at work on the Manhattan Project tested the world's first atomic bomb. Even they were shocked by the result. They had invented the most destructive weapon the world had ever seen. On August 6 an American bomber dropped an atomic bomb over the Japanese city of Hiroshima. A few days later, on August 9, a second atomic bomb was dropped on the city of Nagasaki. Both cities were devastated and nearly 200,000 civilians were killed. On August 14 the Japanese government surrendered. The Second World War was over.

Prosperity and Problem

In the years that followed the war Americans became better off still. Between 1947 and 1971 the value of their wages in buying power—their "real incomes" as this is called — more than doubled. Americans bought more houses, cars, television sets, consumer goods of every kind. They became the most prosperous people the world had ever seen. As early as I960, 55 percent of all families owned washing machines, 75 percent owned cars, 90 percent had television sets and nearly all had refrigerators.

During these years of prosperity the United States was led first by President Truman (1945-53), then by President Eisenhower (1953-61). In 1961 a new President called John F. Kennedy (1961 -3) was elected.

Kennedy told the American people that they were facing a "new frontier," one with both opportunities and problems. One big problem in their own country was poverty. Although most Americans were well-off, millions of others were too poor to lead decent lives. Some were crowded together in city slums. Others lived in places like old coal- producing districts where the mines had closed.

Kennedy was a Democrat, as Roosevelt had been. He tried to help the poor with government money and food. He also wanted to help other groups who were not getting a fair deal, like black Americans. But before Kennedy could do all these things he was shot and killed. This happened while he was driving through the streets of Dallas in November 1963.

Lyndon B.Johnson (1963—9) took over from Kennedy as President- Johnson had been Kennedy's Vice President. He had spent years as a member of Congress, making political friends and winning influence there. He used this influence to speed up Kennedy's plans for reform. One of his first actions was to persuade Congress to pass Kennedy's plan to improve the position of American blacks. In 1964 this became law as the Civil Rights Act.

Johnson also promised the American people a "war on poverty." He said that he wanted to turn the United States into "the great society" — a country where everyone received fair and decent treatment.

But Johnson himself caused his plans to fail. In the later 1960s he involved the United States more and more deeply in war in Vietnam. The huge cost of the war forced Johnson to give up many of his plans for improvements. Riots and protests flared up all over the country—against the war, against poverty, against continuing racial injustice.

By 1968 the American people were bitterly divided. Many blamed Johnson for the country's problems. He became so unpopular that he decided not even to try to get re-elected. In 1969 he gave up the Presidency and retired.

Richard Nixon (1969—74) was elected to take Johnson's place as President. Nixon was a Republican. He was much less interested than Kennedy and Johnson in helping the poor. The government was paying out more than enough money on welfare schemes already, he said. He believed that people should overcome hardship by their own efforts.

In November 1972, the American people re-elected Nixon. The main reason for this was that by then he was close to getting the United States out of the hated war in Vietnam. A cease-fire was finally signed in January 1973. Arrangements were made for all American fighting men to come home. The American people felt a huge sense of relief.

It was Nixon's moment of greatest triumph. But soon he was in trouble. He was accused of being involved in an illegal plan to discredit his political opponents, called the "Watergate Affair." Congress threatened to put him on trial—"impeach" him —for misusing his powers. To avoid this, Nixon resigned as President.

Nixon was followed as President first by Gerald Ford (1974-77) and then by Jimmy Carter (1977-81). Neither Ford nor Carter won much success or popularity as President. One reason for this was that both found it difficult to control inflation. The United States now imported lots of oil. After an Arab-Israeli war in 1973 international oil prices rose steeply. These oil-price increases caused general inflation. By 1980 prices in the United States were rising by 13.5 percent a year and this was making life difficult for many people.

In 1980 Americans elected a President they hoped would make a better job of running the country. He was a former film actor named Ronald Reagan. Like Nixon, Reagan was a Republican. At home, he showed little sympathy for the poor. He said that he aimed to make Americans depend less on government help and more on self-help. He spent many millions of dollars on developing powerful new missiles and on research into weapons to knock out enemy

missiles from space.

Many people at home and abroad criticized Reagan. Some said that he was unfeeling. Others believed that he was incompetent. Still others called him a dangerous warmonger. But Reagan's policies - including the spending on weapons - helped more Americans to find jobs. Businessmen made bigger profits. Most Americans-all except the poorest of them - became better off. This helped to make Reagan popular. So did his relaxed and friendly manner, which came over well on television.

In 1984 Americans re-elected him as President by one of the biggest majorities in American history.

Black Americans

In 1940 ten million of the country's total black population of thirteen million still lived in the southern United States, most of them in great poverty. By 1970 the situation had changed. The country's total black population was now about twenty-four million and twelve million lived outside the South, most of them in big northern industrial cities. A mass migration had taken place. More than 4.5 million southern blacks had caught buses and trains to the North and to California.

The big attraction for the migrants was well-paid jobs in the factories of cities like Chicago, Pittsburgh and Detroit. But there was another. Taking the road north or west promised an escape not just from poverty, but from the miseries and humiliations of segregation which were a part of every southern black's daily life.

During the Second World War, segregation started to break down, at least outside the South. Black workers earned more money than ever before working alongside whites in the busy wartime factories.

The black struggle for equal treatment became known as the Civil Rights movement. An important legal turning point came in 1954.The Supreme Court declared that segregated schools were illegal and ordered that black children should be allowed to attend any school as pupils. In September 1957, black children tried to enrol at the previously all white high school in Little Rock, Arkansas. An angry mob gathered to prevent them. President Eisenhower sent troops to enforce the Supreme Court decision of 1954 and the children were admitted. So began a long struggle for equal rights in education. It was still going on more than thirty years later.

Then there was a campaign to end segregation on buses. Led by a young clergyman named Martin Luther King, they began to stop using, or “boycott” the city's bus services. The boycott went on for a year. Finally, in November 1956, the Supreme Court declared that segregation on public buses was

unconstitutional. Montgomery's public transport system was desegregated.

The success of the Montgomery bus boycott encouraged blacks in other places to act together against segregation. They boycotted stores where black workers were refused jobs, refused to pay rent until landlords improved housing conditions, and held "sit-ins" in restaurants that would not serve black customers. They achieved many successes.

A climax of the Civil Rights movement came in 1963. On a hot August day 200,000 people, black and white, took part in a mass demonstration in Washington to demand full racial equality.

By this time John Kennedy was President. He sympathized with the blacks and worked out a plan to ensure that all Americans, of any race, would receive equal treatment. Kennedy sent his scheme to Congress to be made into a Law. He was murdered before this could happen, but his successor, Lyndon Johnson, made getting the law passed one of his first aims.

In 1964 the Civil Rights Act became the law of the land. Many Americans hoped that its passing would mark the beginning of a new age of racial harmony and friendship in the United States. They were disappointed. The racial difficulties of the United States were too deep-rooted to be solved by simple alterations in the law, or by demonstrations and marches. Changes were needed in human attitudes and in underlying economic conditions.

In the 1960s most American blacks were still worse housed, worse educated, and worse paid than other Americans.

In August 1965, the streets of Watts, a black ghetto in Los Angeles, became a battlefield. For six days police and rioters fought among burning cars and buildings. A large area was burned out. Thirty-four people were killed and over a thousand were injured.

The Watts riot was followed by others—in Chicago, Detroit, New York, Washington. A government inquiry blamed lack of jobs for the riots. But many believed the causes went deeper.

In April 1968, Martin Luther King was murdered.

He was shot dead on the balcony of a motel in Memphis, Tennessee, by a white sniper. Many- blacks now turned to the Black Power movement. Black Power taught that the only way for blacks to get justice was to fight for it.

But in the 1970s and 1980s most blacks decided that voting was a more effective way to improve their position. Their idea was to elect blacks to positions of power—as city councilors, as mayors of cities, as members of Congress, Jesse Jackson, a former assistant of Martin Luther King's, became the chief spokesman for this idea.

By 1985 more than 5,000 of the 50,000 elected officials in the United States

were black. This number included the mayors of such large cities as Los Angeles, Chicago, Philadelphia and Washington. In 1988 Jackson himself came close to being chosen as the Democratic Party's candidate in the Presidential election of that year. And whites, as well as blacks, voted for him.

But most black Americans continued to be less well placed in life than white Americans. In the late 1980s black unemployment was still higher than white unemployment. The average incomes of black Americans were still lower than those of whites. So were their standards of health and education. Even so, their position had improved greatly since the 1960s. Large parts of Martin Luther King's 1963 "dream" had come true. Blacks and whites studied side by side in schools and colleges. They worked side by side in all kinds of occupations. Increasing numbers lived side by side in the same districts. As King had dreamed, people seemed to be learning to judge each other more by the content of their characters than by the color of their skins.

Exercise I. Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions.

1. In August 1914, a war started …the Continent of Europe.
2. Many Americans wanted to keep … of the war.
3. But Americans found it difficult to stay imperial… long.
4. In 1917 president Wilson made a speech … Congress.
5. Consumer goods poured ….. assembly lines of big new factories.
6. To help businessmen Congress placed high taxes… goods from abroad.
7. Sales of consumer goods went… rising.

Exercise II. Find in the text and write down expressions that mean:

1. The members of Anti-German bloc during the First World War.
2. To be not prejudiced towards or against any particular side or party.
3. A vessel, esp. one designed for warfare capable of operating below the surface of the sea.
4. A vigorous and dedicated action or movement in favour of a case.
5. An agreement between opposing armies to suspend hostilities in order to discuss peace terms.
6. Compensation exacted as an indemnity from a defeated nation by the victors.
7. To buy something with the fixed periodical payments.

Exercise III.Choose the true sentence from two similar ones.

1. a) Most Americans saw the First World War as a purely European

affair that was not their concern.

b) Most Americans saw the First World War as their own concern.

2. a) President Wilson didn't address German Government with strong protests.

b) President Wilson made strong protests to the German government.

3. a) President Wilson tried to remove fears of American people.

b) President Wilson couldn't remove fears of American people.

4. a) The main reason for poverty among industrial workers was low wages.

b) The main reason for poverty among industrial workers was unemployment.

5. a) American farmers found themselves growing products they could not sell.

b) American farmers found themselves growing products they could sell to European countries.

6. a) A true value of shares in a business firm depends upon its profit.

b) A true value of shares in a business firm depends not upon its profit but upon the investments.

7. a) The Depression was easiest to see in small empty villages with their closed shops and slowly moving breadlines.

b) The Depression was easiest to see in the towns with their silent factories, closed shops and slowly moving breadlines.

Exercise IV. Topics for discussion.

1. The attitude of Americans to the First World War.

2. Why was the time at the beginning of the XX century called "The Roaring Twenties"?

3. The Crash and its consequences for the fates of Americans.

4. The role of Martin Luther King in the Movement of Liberation.

Vocabulary

1.Armistice-прекращение военных действий

2. breadline-хлебная очередь

3.bully-запугивать

4.cease-fire-прекращение огня

5.crusade-крестовый поход

6.compultion-принуждение, насилие

7.desperate-отчаянный, бесперспективный

8.determination-решительность, пристрастие

9.impartial-беспристрастный, объективный

10.relication-перемещение, перебазирование
11.reparation-возмещение, компенсация
12.revenge-месть
13.roaring twenties-бурные двадцатые
14.setback-неудача
15. suspend-временно отстранять, исключать
16. warmonger-разжигатель войны
17. welfare-социальное пособие

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AMERICA AND AMERICANS IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Cold War and Korea

The United States was one of the strongest countries on earth in 1945. Its factories produced half the world's manufactured goods. It had the world's biggest air force and navy. And it was the only nation armed with atomic bombs.

After the United States came the Soviet Union. Soviet soldiers were the masters of all Europe from the middle of Germany eastwards. After driving out Hitler's armies they had helped communists to take over the governments in country after country there

The Americans and the Russians had fought Hitler's Germany together as allies. But friendship between them barely lasted the war out. The United States and the Soviet Union became deeply suspicious of one another. People began to speak of a "Cold War" between them. Although the two countries were not actually fighting, they were always quarreling.

Truman decided to use American power and money to "contain" Soviet influence— that is to stop it from spreading. In 1947 he sent money and supplies to help the government of Greece to beat communist forces in a civil war. From this time on, containing communism became the main aim of the United States in dealing with the rest of the world. Because Truman started the policy, containment is sometimes called the Truman Doctrine.

Europe's recovery from the Second World War was painfully slow. By the summer of 1947 two years had passed since the last shots were fired. Yet millions of people were still without work, without decent homes, without sufficient food.

In France and Italy communist parties won lots of support by promising reforms to make things better. This worried President Truman. In the summer of 1947 his government put forward a scheme that he hoped would help Europe's people and also make communism less appealing to them. The scheme was called the Marshall Plan, after General George Marshall, the Secretary of State who announced it.

The United States had plenty of all the things that Europe needed in 1947—food, fuel, raw materials, machines. The trouble was that Europe was too poor to buy them. To solve this problem Marshall offered to give European countries the goods they needed.

Millions of dollars' worth of American food, raw materials and machinery started to pour into Western Europe. By the time the Marshall Plan ended in 1952, Western Europe was back on its feet and beginning to prosper.

By then containment was being tested in Asia aiso. The test was taking place in Korea. Before the Second World War, Korea had been ruled by Japan. When Japan surrendered in 1945, the north of Korea was occupied by Soviet forces and the south by Americans. The boundary between the two areas was the earth's 38th parallel of latitude.

In 1948 the occupation of Korea ended. The Soviet army left behind a communist government in the north and the Americans set up a government friendly to themselves in the south. Both these governments claimed the right to rule all of the country. In June 1950, the North Koreans decided to settle the matter. Their soldiers crossed the 38th parallel in a full-scale invasion of South Korea.

President Truman sent American soldiers and warplanes from Japan to fight for the South Koreans. Then he persuaded the United Nations Organization, which had taken the place of the pre-war League of Nations, to support his action. Sixteen nations eventually sent troops to fight in the United Nations' forces in Korea. But the war was really an American affair. Nine out of every ten U.N. soldiers in Korea were Americans. So, too, was their commander General Douglas MacArthur.

Korea has a long border with China. Only a year earlier communists led by Mao Zedong had won a long struggle to rule China by driving out Chiang Kaishek. The Americans had backed Chiang in the struggle and in 1950 they still recognized him as China's rightful ruler. Mao feared that if all Korea came" under American control they might let Chiang use it as a base from which to attack China.

Mao warned the Americans to stay back from China's borders. When his warning was ignored he sent thousands of Chinese soldiers to help the North Koreans. The Chinese drove back the advancing Americans. A new and fiercer war began in Korea. It was really between the United States and China, although neither country officially admitted this.

The Korean War dragged on for another two and a half years. It ended at last in July 1953.

The cease-fire left Korea still divided more or less along the line of the 38th parallel. One Korean in every ten had been killed and millions made homeless. Yet both sides claimed that they had won a kind of victory. The Chinese said that they had proved that nobody need be afraid of opposing the Americans. The Americans said that they had shown communists everywhere that it did not pay to try to spread their rule by force. More than 33,000 Americans had died in Korea and over 100,000 more had been wounded. Containment in Asia had been expensive.

A Balance of Terror

A huge, colored mushroom of poisonous cloud boiled high into the sky. It was November 1952. American scientists testing a new weapon had blasted a whole uninhabited island out of the Pacific Ocean. They had exploded the first hydrogen, or H-bomb.

The H-bomb was many times more destructive than the atomic, or A-bomb, that destroyed Hiroshima. Just one H-bomb had five times the destructive power of all the bombs dropped in five years of the Second World War. By 1953 the Russians, too, had made an H-bomb. By 1957 so had the British. But only the Americans and the Russians could afford to go on making them. The fact that both the United States and the Soviet Union had H-bombs determined how they behaved towards one another for years to come.

That same November of 1952 Dwight D. Eisenhower became President. American Presidents appoint a Secretary of State to take charge of the United States' dealings with foreign countries. Eisenhower gave this job to John Foster Dulles.

Dulles was a man of strong moral convictions. He genuinely believed that communism was evil. Truman, Dulles claimed, had not been tough enough with the Soviet Union. In a broadcast in 1953 he told the peoples of Eastern Europe that they could trust the United States to help them.

In 1956 the people of Hungary put Dulles's promise to the test. They had been under Soviet control since 1946. Now they rose in rebellion against their communist rulers. When Russian tanks rolled in they sent out desperate appeals for help. The help never came. Dulles failed to help the Hungarians because he knew that doing so would mean war with the Soviet Union .The devastation of nuclear war was, he decided, too high a price to pay for "rolling back" the Iron Curtain.

The way Dulles dealt with the Soviet Union in the later 1950s became known as "brinkmanship." This was because he seemed ready to take the United States to the brink-the edge-of war to contain communism. Dulles backed up his brinkmanship with threats of "massive retaliation." If the United States or any of its allies were attacked anywhere, he warned, the Americans would strike back. If necessary they would drop nuclear bombs on the Soviet Union and China. By the mid-1950s the United States had a powerful force of nuclear bombers ready to do this. On airfields all round the world giant American planes were constantly on the alert, ready to take off at a moment's notice.

Most Americans supported Dulles's massive retaliation policy at first. Then, on October 4, 1957, the Soviet Union sent into space the world's first earth satellite, the Sputnik. Sputnik did not worry the Americans. But the rocket that

carried it into space did. A rocket powerfid enough to do that could also carry an H-bomb to its target.

The American government began to speed up work on rockets of its own. Soon it had a whole range of bomb-carrying rockets called "nuclear missiles." The biggest were the Inter-Continental Ballistic Missiles. The Polaris, another missile, was carried by nuclear-powered submarines cruising deep beneath the oceans.

By the end of the 1950s the United States and the Soviet Union had enough nuclear missiles to kill everybody on earth. It is not surprising that people spoke of a "balance of terror."

Both Russian and American leaders came to see that in a full-scale war between their two countries there could be no winner. They would simply destroy one another.

Nikita Khrushchev, the man who took Stalin's place as leader of the Soviet Union, realized this.In a world of H-bombs he believed that they had to try to live peacefully, side by side; in place of Cold War threats he suggested "peaceful coexistence."

President Eisenhower welcomed Khrushchev's talk of peaceful coexistence. He invited the Soviet leader to visit the United States. Afterwards the two men agreed to hold a summit meeting in Paris to work out solutions to some of their differences.

The Paris summit never even started. As the leaders were on their way there in May 1960, a Russian missile shot down an American aircraft over the Soviet Union. The aircraft was a U-2 spy plane, specially designed to take photographs of military targets from the edge of space. Krushchev angrily accused Eisenhower of planning for war while talking peace. He went angrily back to the Soviet Union. The Paris summit meeting was over before it even started.

The Vietnam Years

One of the landmarks of Washington. D.C., is a massive building of white marble. It is a memorial to Abraham Lincoln. Close by, almost hidden in a hollow in the ground, stands another memorial. This memorial is not to one man but to many. It is a long wall of polished black marble and on it are carved many thousands of names. The names are those of young Americans who died in the Vietnam War.

Like Korea, Vietnam was then divided in two. Communists ruled the North and non-communists the South.

The next step was supposed to be the election of one government for the whole country. But the election never took place—mainly because the government of South Vietnam feared that Ho Chi Minh and his communists

would win. As part of their worldwide plan to contain communism, the Americans had already helped the French against Ho. Now they sent weapons and advisers to the government of South Vietnam.

Containment was especially important to the Americans in Vietnam. This was because of an idea that President Eisenhower called the "domino theory.'" The domino theory went like this: Asia has a lot of unsettled countries. If one of them - Vietnam, say — fell under communist rule, others would follow. They would be knocked over one by one, like a line of falling dominoes.

Americans were especially afraid that communist China might try to take control in Southeast Asia as the Soviet Union had done in eastern Europe. So, in the 1950s and early 1960s, first President Eisenhower and then President Kennedy poured American money and weapons into South Vietnam. Kennedy sent soldiers, too-not to fight, themselves, but to advise and train the South Vietnamese forces.

By the early 1960s, however, it was clear that the government of South Vietnam was losing the war. Ho Chi Minh had a guerilla army of 100,000 men fighting in South Vietnam by then. These guerillas were called the Vietcong. Many were communists from the North who had marched into the South along secret jungle trails. By 1965 the Vietcong controlled large areas of South Vietnam. The country's American-backed government was close to collapse.

By now the United States had a new leader, President Lyndon B. Johnson. Johnson faced a difficult choice. He could leave Vietnam and let the communists take over, or he could send in American soldiers to try to stop them. Johnson was too worried about the domino theory and too proud — to make the first choice. He had already ordered American aircraft to bomb railways and bridges in North Vietnam. Now he sent in American soldiers. By 1968 over 500,000 were fighting in South Vietnam. The Russians and the Chinese sent more weapons and supplies to Ho Chi Minh. Thousands more of his communist troops marched south to do battle with the Americans.

American fighting men grew angry and frustrated. They sprayed vast areas of countryside with deadly- chemicals to destroy the Vietcong's supply trails. They burned down villages which were suspected of sheltering Vietcong soldiers. But the fighting went on. It continued even when Johnson stepped up or "escalated" the war by bombing cities in North Vietnam to try to force the communists to make peace.

Film reports of the suffering in Vietnam were shown all over the world on television. For the first time in history people far away from any fighting were able to see in their own homes the horror and cruelty of modern war. Millions began to believe that the Americans were cruel and bullying monsters.

The war caused bitter disagreements in the United States. Countless families lost sons, brothers, and husbands in Vietnam. By the end of the 1960s many Americans were sick and ashamed of the killing and the destruction.

President Johnson saw that by sending American soldiers to fight in Vietnam he had led the United States into a trap. The war was destroying his country's good name in the world and setting its people against one another. In 1968 he stopped the bombing of North Vietnam and started to look for ways of making peace.

In 1969 Richard Nixon was elected to replace Johnson as President. Like Johnson, he wanted to end the Vietnam War. But he, too, wanted to do so without the Americans looking as if they had been beaten.

Nixon worked out a plan to achieve this. He called it the "Vietnamization" of the war. He set out to strengthen the South Vietnamese army to make it seem strong enough to defend South Vietnam without help. This gave him an excuse to start withdrawing American fighting men from Vietnam.

Nixon then sent Henry Kissinger, his adviser on foreign affairs, to secret talks with North Vietnamese and Russian leaders in Moscow. In return for a cease-fire he offered to withdraw all American troops from Vietnam within six months. When the North Vietnamese were slow to agree he started bombing their cities again in order to "persuade" them. A sort of agreement was finally put together in January 1973. By March 1973, the last American soldiers had left Vietnam.

But the real end of the Vietnam War came in May 1975.

In Korea, twenty years earlier, the Americans had claimed that they had made containment work. In Vietnam they knew; and so did everyone else, that they had failed.

America's Back Yard

A barricade blocked the road. The car rocked wildly as the chanting mob tried to overturn it. Rocks and iron bars thudded against its roof and shattered its windows. Inside the car Richard Nixon, Vice President of the United States, was in great danger.

It was May 13, 1958, in Caracas, the capital of Venezuela. Nixon was visiting the city as part of a goodwill tour of Latin America. But he found only hatred on the streets of Caracas. Nixon's life was saved when a truck forced a way through the barricade and his car was able to accelerate away. When news of the attack reached the United States the American people were shocked and angry. But it made them realize how much some Latin Americans hated and resented their country.

Latin America is the name given to the mainly Spanish-speaking countries which lie to the south of the United States, Ever since the early nineteenth century the United States has taken a special interest in what happens in these countries. They are its closest neighbors and so it is important to the safety of the United States to make sure that no foreign enemies gain influence in them.

In the past this has often meant that the rulers of these Latin American countries have been little more than American puppets. Their agriculture and industry have frequently been American-controlled, too. A classic example was Cuba. Up to the 1950s its railroads, banks, electricity industry and many of its biggest farms were all American-owned.

In 1933 President Franklin Roosevelt promised that the United States would respect the right of Latin American countries to control their own affairs.

But many Latin Americans were not convinced by Roosevelt's talk about being a good neighbor. True, the American troops had gone home. But the rulers who took over when the soldiers left the Somoza family, who held power in Nicaragua from 1937 to 1979, for example—usually did what the Americans expected of them.

The Second World War brought better times for Latin America. All the raw materials that it could produce-copper, tin, oil and countless others-were used by the wartime factories of the United States. The result was more money and more jobs-but also even more American control.

As soon as the war ended fresh calls of "Yankee, go home" were heard. To try to reduce anti-American feeling, in 1945 the United States took the lead in setting up the Organization of American States (OAS). The idea of the OAS was to encourage the countries of Latin America to cooperate with one another, and with the United States, as partners. One of its aims was to improve living standards.

But hardship and hunger continued to be widespread in Latin America. In most countries there, extremes of poverty for the many and wealth for the few existed side by side. Oppressive governments controlled by the rich and backed by soldiers did little to improve the lives of the people.

Reformers accused the United States of helping to keep these groups of wealthy tyrants in power. The American government often seemed more concerned with suppressing communism in Latin America than with improving conditions of life there.

In later years American governments went on interfering in Latin American affairs. Sometimes they interfered openly, sometimes in more secret ways. In 1965 President Johnson sent 22,000 American marines to the Dominican Republic to stop a leader he distrusted from regaining power. In 1973 CIA agents

helped generals in Chile to overthrow President Allende. Allende was sympathetic towards communist ideas and had nationalized some American-owned mining companies.

Actions like these help to explain why many Latin Americans continued to dislike their North American neighbor. All over Latin America, it seemed, the United States was propping up oppressive and unpopular governments.

American dealings with Latin America had also positive and humanitarian side. During their earlier occupations of countries such as Cuba and Nicaragua the Americans had built hospitals, supplied towns with pure water and wiped out killer diseases like malaria and yellow fever. In the early 1960s President Kennedy continued this tradition.

In 1961 Kennedy set up an organization called the Alliance for Progress. The United States gave millions of dollars to improve the lives of Latin America's poor. The money was used to build roads, homes and schools, and to improve water-supply and sanitation systems. The Alliance also advanced money to peasant farmers, so that they could buy more land. Kennedy hoped that aiding Latin America like this would enable governments there to make enough improvements to stop people from turning to communism.

An End to Cold War?

In August 1963, the United States and the Soviet Union signed a treaty agreeing to stop testing new nuclear weapons in the atmosphere or under water. They also set up a special telephone link between Washington and Moscow. On this "hotline" American and Soviet leaders could talk directly to one another. In future any dangerous crisis would be dealt with more quickly and with less risk of misunderstanding.

The hotline proved its value in 1967. War broke out between Israel and Egypt. The United States was friendly with Israel, and the Soviet Union with Egypt. But both took great care not to let these friendships drag them into fighting one another.

By then Kennedy was dead and Khrushchev had been removed from power. But new American and Russian leaders went on trying to reduce tension. Even the long and bloody war in Vietnam was not allowed to interfere with "detente," as these moves were called.

In May 1972, President Nixon flew to Moscow to sign the Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT) with the Russians. The idea of SALT was to slow down the arms race. It was intended to save both countries money as well as to make war between them less likely. Each agreed how many missiles of various

types the other should have, how many submarines to fire them from, and so on.

The first sign that China, too, was interested in detente with the United States came in 1970. For years the Chinese government had made it very difficult for anyone from western countries to visit China. But in 1970 it invited an American table-tennis team to play there. The American government, correctly, took this as a hint that the Chinese wanted to settle some of their differences with the United States.

President Nixon's adviser, Henry Kissinger, flew to China for secret meetings with Zhou. Late in 1971 the United States agreed to communist China joining the United Nations, something it had vetoed for years. In February 1972, Nixon flew to China to meet Mao.

Mao was still suspicious of the Americans. But in the years that followed China and the United States made important agreements on trade and other matters, especially after Mao's death m 1976.

As China and the United States became more friendly, tension grew again between Russians and Americans. Russians still feared that the United States wanted to wipe out communism. Americans still feared that the Soviet Union wanted to conquer the world.

Both the Soviet Union and the United States had continued to develop new and more deadly nuclear missiles during the years of detente. Attempts were made to slow down this arms race. But neither side would stop while it felt that the other was ahead. In the early 1980s, detente looked dead.

By the middle of the 1980s President Reagan had increased American military strength so much that he was ready to start talking seriously about slowing down the arms race. The Soviet Union was ready, too. In 1985 a new leader, Mikhail Gorbachev, had come to power there. Gorbachev believed that the huge cost of the arms race was crippling the Soviet Union's economy and he was eager to reduce it. In December 1987, Gorbachev traveled with his wife to the United States. There, in Washington, he and President Reagan signed the Intermediate RangeNuclear Force (INF) treaty.

In the INF treaty both countries agreed that within three years they would destroy all their land-based medium and shorter range nuclear missiles.

In May 1988, Gorbachev began co withdraw Soviet troops from Afghanistan. The following year brought even bigger changes. All over central and eastern Europe the communist political systems imposed by Stalin in the years after the Second World War crumbled away. While Gorbachev's Soviet Union looked on without interfering, countries such as Hungary, Poland. East Germany and Czechoslovakia set up multi-party systems and held free elections.

Such developments raised hopes that a new time of peaceful cooperation

might now be possible between the Soviet Union and the United States.

By 1990 most people believed that she was right.

The American Century

You have read earlier about the part that American movies played in this proccss. After the Second World War the spreading of American influence was continued by a powerful new force—television. As early as 1947, around 170.000 American families had television sets flickering in their living rooms. Thousands more were waiting for sets to be delivered. Soon millions of people were organizing their activities around the programs on television that evening.

Most early American television programs were concerned with entertainment. Comedy and game shows, stories about policemen and detectives, the adventures of fictional western heroes like the Lone Ranger-all these were very popular. The main purpose of such programs was to attract large audiences of "viewers." Manufacturing firms then paid television companies like NBC and CBS lots of money to show advertisements for their products while the programs were being broadcast, or "televised."

By the 1960s filmed television programs had become an important American export. Other countries found it cheaper to buy American programs than to make their own. Soon such exported programs we're being watched by viewers all over the world. One of the most popular was "I Love Lucy," a 1950s comedy series featuring a red-haired comedienne named Lucille Ball. When Lucille Ball died in April 1989, "I Love Lucy" was still being televised. It had been seen by then in seventy-nine different countries and had become the most watched television show ever.

In music, the process of Americanization could be seen most clearly in the huge international popularity of rock. Rock began as "rock-and-roll", a music that was first played in the 1950s. It came from the American South, and combined black blues with the country music of working class whites to produce a heavily rhythmic-"rocking"-sound that appealed especially to young people.

Many of rock and roll's first stars were black performers such as Chuck Berry and Little Richard. But the unchallenged "King" of rock-and-roll was a young southern white named Elvis Presley. In 1956 Presley's recordings were at the top of the American popularity list-the "hit parade"-every week from August to December. By the end of the decade he had become an international superstar.

To rock-and-roll enthusiasts. Presley came to symbolize a new culture of youth. Among other things, this culture developed its own vocabulary, ways of dressing, even hair styles. More significantly for the future, it began to reject socially approved ideas and ways of behaving.

By the 1970s rock-and-roll had blended with the protest songs of the 1960s to become rock, a music that was harder and less escapist. Rock became an international as well as an American phenomenon, one that millions of younger people worldwide saw as their natural cultural language. A large part of its appeal was that it symbolized opposition to officially approved ideas and standards even more strongly than its ancestor, rock-and-roll, had done in the 1950s.

The Americanization of popular taste and habits was not restricted to entertainment. The growing popularity of hamburgers, fried chicken and other easily prepared "fast food" spread American eating habits all over the world. Blue jeans and T-shirts Americanized the dress of people on every continent. And supermarkets Americanized the everyday experience of shopping for millions.

The first supermarkets appeared in the United States in the 1950s. With their huge variety of foods and other consumer goods, supermarkets gave shoppers a much wider range of choices. In the 1950s many Americans saw their loaded shelves and full freezers as visible proof of the superiority of the American way of organizing, a nation's economic life.

When supermarkets proved a commercial success in the United States they quickly spread to other prosperous countries, first in Europe and then in other parts of he world. So did another feature of American cities in these years — groups of tall, shining buildings with outer walls of glass and metal. By the 1980s such buildings were dominating city centers all over the world. To many people they were images of late-twentieth-century modernity. Yet their origins can be traced back more than a hundred years to the American Midwest.

During the 1880s a number of high, narrow buildings began to rise in the center of Chicago. Similar buildings - so tall that people called them "skyscrapers" —were soon rising over other American cities. In the first half of the twentieth ccntury they became one of the principal visual symbols of the modern United States.

Skyscrapers were the result of a need for more working and living space in places where the cost of land was very high. Instead of using a lot of expensive space on the ground their builders used the free space of the sky. New industrial techniques and the availability of plenty of cheap steel made it possible for them to do this.

Each skyscraper was built around a framework of steel beams, or girders, which carried the weight of the building. This inner steel skeleton was constructed before the outer walls, which were added later. The walls of the early skyscrapers were often made of stone — not for practical reasons, but to make the buildings look solid and strong.

In the 1950s architects working in the United States began to design

skyscrapers whose steel skeletons were covered by outer walls — or "curtains" — of glass and metal. One of the earliest examples was Mies van der Robe and Philip Johnsdngs Seagram Building in New York. It was American buildings like this that inspired similar "glass box" office and apartment buildings in cities all over the world.

Such buildings gave visual expression to the impact of the United States on the twentieth-century world.

Exercise I. Match the question and the answer based on the information of the text.

1. Why Europe could not buy the goods it needed after the Second World War?
2. What was said about containment in Asia?
3. Why there was no elections of one government for the whole Vietnam?
4. What did President Roosevelt promise to Latin American countries?
5. What was signed by the United States and the Soviet Union in 1963?
6. Why was President Nixon visiting Venizuela?
7. What did supermarkets give to their shoppers?

a) The government of the South Vietnam feared that Ho Shi Min and his companions-in-arms would win.

b) President Wilson was visiting the city as part of goodwill.

c) The Europe was too poor after the Second World War to pay for the goods it needed.

d) A treaty agreeing to stop testing new nuclear weapon in the atmosphere or under the water.

e) President Roosevelt promised that the United States would respect the rights of Latin American control their own affairs.

f) With the huge variety of goods supermarkets gave shoppers a much wide range of choices to buy goods that they need.

g) Containment in Asia had been expensive.

Exercise II. Choose the correct preposition.

1. One Korean…every ten had been killed and millions became homeless.
a) in, b) out from, c) of
2. Dulles was a man…strong moral convictions.
a) without, b) out of, c) of
3. The American government began to speed…work on rockets of its own.

a) on, b) up , c) over

4. The leaders of two countries decided to meet in Paris to work…solutions to some of their differences.

a) out, b) on, c) at

5. Now Lyndon B. Johnson sent … American soldiers.

a) out, b) for, c) in

6. President Johnson saw that … sending American soldiers to fight in Vietnam he had led the United States into a trap.

a) with, b) by, c) for

7. He started to look… ways making peace.

a) at, b) for, c) out.

Exercise III. Find, write down and remember 2-3 synonyms to the following words from the text.

1. Tension,
2. distrust,
3. decent,
4. claim,
5. destructive,
6. conviction,
7. disagreement,
8. hardship.

Exercise IV. Use the best suitable linking word for each gap.

1. It had the world biggest Air force and Navy….it was the only nation armed with atomic bomb.

a) And,

b) Though,

c) Ever

2. The Americans and the Russians had fought Hitler's Germany together…friendship between them barely lasted the war out.

a) just,

b) ever,

c) but

3.…the two countries were not actually fighting, they were always quarreling.

a) Although,

b) How,

c) But

4….Trumen started the policy, containment is sometimes called the Trumen Doctrine.

a) However,

b) Because,

c) Due

5. It was really the war between the US and Chine… neither country officially admitted this.

a) unlike,

b) although

c) through

6….Russian and American leaders came to see that in full-scale war between their two countries there could be no winner.

a) Both,

b) Either,

c) Ever

7. President Eisenhover invited the Soviet leader to visit the US…. The two men agreed to hold a summer meeting in Paris.

a) However,

b) Afterwards,

c) But

Vocabulary

1. Ambush-засада
2. brinkmanship-балансирование на грани войны.
3. detente-разрядка
4. devastation-опустошение, разорение
5. enmity-вражда, антогонизм
6. missile-ракета
7. retaliation-отплата, мера возмездия

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