



高等学校双语课程教材
“国家级双语教学示范课程培育点”教材建设成果



[英文版]

高芳英 主编

美国史 学习指导书

(Since 1865)

United States History Study Guide
A Brief Survey



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合肥工业大学出版社

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前言

双语教材《美国史学习指导书》是2009年苏州大学第二批本科教学质量与教学改革工程项目——国家级双语教学示范课程培育点——“美国史课程”的教材建设成果。本教材为历史学专业的美国史双语课程编写,适合高等院校历史专业和其他文科专业的学生作为双语课程教材和双语教学参考资料使用。同样也适合英语专业的学生和其他爱好美国史的广大读者阅读参考。

苏州大学社会学院历史学专业的“美国史双语教学课程”,长期选用《美国史》的原版教材(James A. Henretta, David Brody, Susan Ware, Marilyn S. Johnson. *America's History*. Boston & New York: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2000)。虽然原版教材信息含量大、史料翔实,但由于书价昂贵和课时有限,学生既不能人手一册,也难以掌握重点,双语教学的效果往往事倍功半。为此,编者以课程选用的原版教材为基础,根据长期的美国史教学和多年的美国史双语教学经验,编撰了该学习指导书,希望指导学生通过有限的双语教学课时,从广阔的美国史知识海洋中汲取精华,拓展自己多维的知识空间,提高未来在专业领域中参与国际交流的能力。

本书形式上是一本学习指导书,实际上也是一本“美国简史”或者“美国史概要”。本书虽然简明扼要但内容十分丰富,涵盖了上至美国工业化和城市化之始,下到克林顿总统新经济时代的美国政治、经济、外交、文化、教育、科技、社会、观念、环境保护等主题;本书从纷繁复杂的历史长河中,整理归纳出重要的历史线索和内容,用定义解释的方法,运用英语的神韵,借助汉语的魅力阐释美国历史;本书格式统一,线索清晰,有定义有分析,有详有略,有助于学生全面了解美国历史并掌握重点;本书对重要的专用名词和学生不熟悉的人名都有中文标注,对字典上难以查到的专业术语和专业缩写词都有中文标注;本书每章附有与内容紧密相关的练习题,学生通过习题练习,更易掌握和巩固所学内容;本书最后还附有学期总复习思考题,通过复习思考,可以训练并提高学生的综合分析能力。因此,本书既是一本历史教科书,又是一本英语教科书;既体现了学术上的

前瞻性和知识性,又体现了教学上的指导性和实用性。这在国内高校的历史学双语教学中并不多见,它缓解了目前历史学专业美国史双语教学中存在的得失矛盾,为学生轻松承接中西文化的碰撞和融合、真正实现专业知识结构国际化指明了方向。

本书的出版得到了苏州大学社会学院领导的大力支持和帮助,在此表示真挚的感谢!感谢合肥工业大学出版社为此书出版所作出的工作!

虽然编者在美国留学期间专攻美国史并取得硕士学位,且又有多年美国史双语教学的经验,但限于水平,本书中的不妥之处敬请读者批评指正。

编者

2010 年秋于苏州大学独墅湖校区

To the Student

This book has been written to simplify and present the essentials of American history in unified topics to help college students understand and remember subject-matter. The author has specialized for many years in teaching American history and understands the explanations students need. A controlling aim has been to avoid personal, original interpretations that are unavoidably controversial and confusing to students. Such originality of treatment reflecting individual interpretations and choices of subject-matter and emphasis limits the usefulness of the usual study aid. The author has avoided the enlargement of her favorite subjects and has sought to explain American history rather than “reinterpret” it. A student aid should not attempt to be encyclopedic; accordingly, the selective approach used here has avoided the fault of citing unimportant persons and a multitude of official names of agencies and of less significant legislation.

How to use this book? Special features have been provided to make this book especially helpful. The topical treatment of subject-matter arranges significant facts and the explanation of each topic in a unified discussion that is easy to follow. This avoids the choppiness and fragmentation of “outlines” and makes it unnecessary to artificially force bits of information under headings where they may not belong. The relative importance of subjects, as determined by the consensus of leading history textbooks, is indicated by the boldface letter. This more significant information will be emphasized in well-balanced college examinations; some examination questions, however, will probe, quite properly, the thoroughness of the student’s preparation by questions over less significant materials.

Students should underline for themselves important names, dates, and

facts as indicated by the instructor in the classroom; this underscoring is an important learning exercise in itself. A large number of review questions have been provided after each chapter, and essay questions for midterm as well as final examination review are given in the back of the book.

How to use the review questions? Review questions of several types follow each chapter. The student should know that these questions have been carefully prepared at the level of difficulty that the student is likely to encounter in college objective examinations. They have been prepared for use as study exercises and by themselves, will give the student a substantial review of important subject matter. For good reasons, college teachers much prefer to use the multiple-choice items. Therefore, more space has been given to this type of question. The name “best-answer” is actually a better description of this type of question. If these questions are ideally framed, the student will often find that there are two or more alternate responses that seem to be correct. Therefore, the student needs to consider each response carefully and select the response that seems to be the “best answer”—rather than throwing down the first answer that appears to be satisfactory. In using these exercises for review, remember that it is just as helpful to understand why a statement is untrue as to know that it is true.

This book is a guide especially for Chinese students in universities who are studying American history in English and Chinese. I can compile this book due to my Master Degree experience in the United States. I am deeply grateful to my supervisor Dr. Donald Ramos in History Department of Cleveland State University. This book also is dedicated to the School of Social Science, Soochow University.

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Chapter 1:

Industrialization and Urbanization

Economic Growth after the Civil War

The presidential victory of the Republican Party in 1860 and the secession of the powerful agrarian states of the South placed the federal government in the hands of the business interests of the North and East. In the years that followed the fundamental change from an agricultural nation to an industrial one occurred. The political changes of the Civil War and Reconstruction were the violent manifestations of this profound change. Statistics of the nation's economy provide ample evidence of the rapid growth of business and urban life in America.

Causes of Industrial Growth

Numerous political and economic factors combined to favor the rapid advance of the nation's industry.

Political Factors Promoting the Postwar Industrial Growth——The Republican Party, the political instrument by which the machinery of the federal government was managed by business interests, enacted a number of laws highly favorable to business.

(1) The Morrill Tariff (莫里尔关税法 1861) reestablished high protective rates. These higher rates assured manufacturing industries higher profits, freedom from foreign competition, and at the same time provided an indirect subsidy at the expense of other groups. Industry expanded with confidence as high tariffs were maintained as a permanent national policy.

(2) The National Banking Act (1863) provided a satisfactory banking system and uniform national bank notes which swept away the inefficiency and confusion of state bank notes. Subsequent financial measures assuring a “sound money” and adoption of the gold standard provided a boon to banking and creditor interests.

(3) The various enactments chartering railroad companies and providing subsidies in the form of land grants and loans to the 42 transcontinental railroads created a great new industry, which was essential to the industrial complex of the nation.

(4) Special protection of business corporations against action by the state governments was deliberately written into the Fourteenth Amendment. This provision provides that no state may enforce any law that would “deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law”. Afterwards the Supreme Court defined corporations as “persons” and extended to them the special protection that individuals received by the Fifth Amendment against the federal government.

(5) The momentum given by the enormous profits of business during and after the Civil War greatly accelerated industrial growth.

(6) The friendly attitude of government after 1861 provided a climate of freedom, the executive and judicial decisions encouraged business in innumerable ways. Although business interests claimed adherence to laissez-faire theory, they sought government interference in economic affairs when it was favorable to them.

Economic Factors Promoting Industrial Growth——In the mid-nineteenth century, many economic factors operated to make industrial growth

possible. (1) Nature endowed America with abundant resources. Fertile soil yielded abundant crops; forests provided a surplus of lumber for export coal, iron, and oil deposits yielded great wealth; gold, silver, copper, and lead deposits were abundant.

(2) Investment capital came from war profits and other incomes. European capital flowed into the favorable business climate created by protective government. American mines in the west produced great fortunes in gold and silver and put money in circulation. Much investment capital flowed from shipping into industry.

(3) The large supply of cheap labor necessary for industrial growth was provided by the millions of veterans released at the end of the war and by the farm population moved to the cities. In addition to this were the increasing numbers of immigrants coming in year after year. Many new immigrant nationalities, such as the Chinese and the southern and eastern Europeans, provided sufficient labor for building the railroads, operating mines, mills, and factories.

(4) New technologies, such as mass production, made possible by the application of the principle of interchangeable parts, and almost innumerable inventions, not only created new industries or increased production, but also made it more efficient.

(5) Improved transportation and rapid communications made possible the growth of nationwide business firms. Raw materials could be brought together by the railroads from all parts of the country and the finished products could be marketed over vast domestic and foreign markets. Telegraphy provided managers with better control over widespread business operations.

(6) The new postwar industries may be considered as still another special factor in the growth of industry.

The Transcontinental Railroads

Since railroads could provide efficient transportation, they were fundamental to the growth of other industries. The extension of rails across the continent to the Pacific coast tied the resources of the West to the industry of the East. At the same time, branch lines over the territories opened the new frontiers of the range cattle industry

and of agriculture on the Pacific coast, in the intermountain region, and over the Great Plains. The railroads made an economic unit of the nation, and they made possible the rapid settlement of half the nation's territory within a single generation. The railroads themselves produced a great market for the new steel industry. The construction of transcontinental lines marked the greatest period of railroad expansion.

The Union Pacific and Central Pacific Railroads(联合太平洋—中央太平洋铁路)——In 1862, the absence of Southern opposition permitted Congress to proceed with the long-discussed transcontinental railroads by chartering two lines which together would connect Chicago and San Francisco. The two lines met near Ogden, Utah, and the first transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869. The Union Pacific built westwards from Omaha and the Central Pacific built eastwards from San Francisco. In 1862 the initial subsidies provided proved insufficient to attract the necessary capital. In 1864 more liberal terms provided federal land grants of 20 square miles of land along the right-of-way for each mile of track laid, loans were provided liberally; they took the form of second mortgage railroad bonds purchased by the federal government. The amount of the loans was \$16,000 per mile for track laid through level lands, \$32,000 per mile through rolling country, and \$48,000 through mountainous terrain.

The construction was done by companies created by the larger and controlling stockholders. The generous terms of these contracts enabled these insiders, really grafters, to accumulate immense fortunes at the expense of the smaller stockholders and the government. The Credit Mobilize was the construction company for the Union Pacific, while the Crocker Corporation built the Central Pacific. The Crocker Corporation created the great fortunes of California's Big Four: Leland Stanford, Charles Crocker, Collis P. Huntington, and Mark Hopkins. Problems of securing labor and materials had to be overcome, as large numbers of Chinese were imported to construct the Central Pacific; the two railroads used many Irish immigrants and war veterans. Boisterous terminal towns cared for the needs and catered to the vices of the laborers as the lines were pushed forward. The tracks were hastily laid to collect the government subsidies, and their rebuilding had to begin as soon as the roads were "completed".

The Southern Pacific (南方太平洋铁路)——The next railroad company to complete a transcontinental line was the Southern Pacific, a corporation begun in California and controlled by the owners of the Central Pacific. The Southern Pacific followed the thirty-second parallel or the southernmost route along the Gila River just north of the Mexican border. At first, it was built in California to the Arizona boundary and later took over the bankrupt Texas Pacific. In January 1882, connections were completed with St. Louis, and in 1883 connections were completed with New Orleans.

The Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe (圣菲·堪萨斯太平洋铁路)——The next railroad completed was the Santa Fe, across the Southwest. This corporation, by absorbing other lines and through the aid of federal land grants, completed connections in 1883 between California and St. Louis, connections that generally followed the old Santa Fe Trail and the thirty-fifth parallel route.

The Northern Pacific Railroad (北太平洋铁路)——The Northern Pacific was built along a northern route from Lake Superior to Portland, Oregon. The construction of this road was halted, like other Western railroads, by the Panic of 1873. But in 1881 it was reorganized by Henry Villard and completed in 1883. It, too, received liberal land grants from the federal public domain.

The Great Northern and Other Transcontinental Railroads (大北铁路)——After the construction of the first four transcontinental railroads, still other roads were completed. Among these, the Great Northern has received by far the greatest praise of historians. James J. Hill, the hero among the railroad builders, got control in 1889 of a northern route owned by a company that had gone into bankruptcy. This reorganized railroad, the Great Northern, was built to the Pacific at Tacoma, Washington, in 1893. Hill is praised for having built this road without federal subsidies and for having promoted settlement and agricultural prosperity along the railroad.

Numerous other railroads were built into the Far West, and some completed lines to the Pacific. In the East, railroad financiers consolidated

railroads into great systems. Commodore Vanderbilt extended the New York central to Chicago. Other large systems consolidated were the Erie, the Pennsylvania, the Chesapeake and Ohio.

Post-war Industries

The leading new industries after the Civil War were steel, petroleum, meat packing, and flour milling.

The Steel Industry——The phenomenal growth of steel production in the central states after the Civil War resulted from the adoption of the Bessemer process (贝塞麦转炉炼钢法). Bessemer, an English inventor, developed this method and applied it successfully during the ten years preceding 1866. At the same time, an American named Kelly also developed the new process. In 1868 the “open-hearth” process was introduced from Europe. The Bessemer process produced lower-cost steel and predominated until around 1900; it reduced the price so that steel replaced iron for many uses. Abundant deposits of coal in Pennsylvania and the East and iron ore from Michigan and the Mesabi Range in Minnesota (明尼苏达州) provided most of the raw material. Andrew Carnegie (安德鲁·卡内基), a Scottish immigrant of much intelligence and personal charm, after success in steel and other business ventures, concentrated upon the manufacture of steel, beginning in 1873. By achieving the efficiencies of large-scale production and through clever salesmanship, Carnegie became by far the nation's greatest Steelmaker. He amassed an immense fortune by his activities centered at Pittsburgh. In 1901 he sold his steel works to a financial group guided by the genius of J. P. Morgan (摩根). This merger became the United States Steel Corporation, the first billion-dollar corporation in America. Carnegie devoted the rest of his life to philanthropy by building libraries, creating benevolent trusts, promoting international cooperation, and organizing research institutions.

The Petroleum Industry——The beginnings of the oil industry occurred in the five years immediately before the Civil War. George H. Bissell (乔治·H. 比斯尔), a responsible businessman, sent a sample of oil from western

Pennsylvania to the noted Yale chemistry professor Benjamin Silliman, who reported that it could be refined into various products such as paraffin, and most important, a fuel for illumination. Bissell hired Edwin Drake(埃德温·德雷克) to drill a well with the same equipment that had been developed to drill deep wells for producing salt. In 1859 “Drake’s Folly” started gushing oil and set off the first oil boom in western Pennsylvania, America.

A new industry grew rapidly, since there was a large national market as kerosene as lamp fuel. Kerosene, which replaced whale oil and other illuminants, became the chief refined product from petroleum until the combustion engine created a larger market for gasoline. Enterprising businessmen started other oil well drilling ventures in other parts of the nation. By 1870, oil production and refining had become a leading industry.

John D. Rockefeller(洛克菲勒) was the business genius who came to dominate the oil industry; he created the monopoly of the Standard Oil Company and by 1882 had gained control of over 90 percent of the nation’s oil refineries.

Meat Packing——In 1860 Cincinnati yielded to Chicago its leadership as the nation’s meat-packing center. Philip Armour, the first prominent tycoon in the livestock slaughtering and meat industry, in 1865 concentrated his plants in Chicago where the Union Stockyards had been incorporated. Another leader, Nelson Morris, in Chicago experimented with shipping dressed beef to the Atlantic cities. Gustavus F. Swift perfected the refrigerator car, there by opening a vast market for fresh meat as contrasted with earlier “packing” of pickled, salted, and smoked meat products.

Flour Milling——Flour milling was revolutionized into a large-scale industry by the introduction from France and Hungary of the “New Process” for milling. Millers in Minneapolis, in particular Washburn and Pillsbury, applied the New Process and made numerous improvements; they made large fortunes and established the leadership of Minneapolis in this industry. This new method of milling consisted of a succession of chilled-iron rollers, which crushed the hard wheat, and of screens that separated the parts of the grain. The process opened the northern Great Plains to agriculture by creating a market for the hard-kernelled varieties of wheat that would grow in the harsh