



AP[®] United States History 2010 Scoring Guidelines Form B

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AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY

2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document-Based Question

The issue of territorial expansion sparked considerable debate in the period 1800–1855.

Analyze this debate and evaluate the influence of both supporters and opponents of territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy.

Use the documents and your knowledge of the years 1800–1855 in your answer.

The 8–9 Essay

- Articulates a clear, well-constructed thesis that analyzes the debate and evaluates the influence of both supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- Effectively employs a substantial number of documents to analyze the debate and evaluate the influence of supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- Provides substantial, relevant outside information taken from the period 1800 to 1855 to analyze the debate and evaluate the influence of supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy.
- Evaluates the ways in which supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion shaped federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- Is well organized and well written.
- May contain minor errors.

The 5–7 Essay

- Contains a thesis, which may be partially developed, analyzing the debate and evaluating the influence of both supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- Satisfactorily employs an ample number of documents to analyze the debate and evaluate the influence of supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- Provides ample, relevant outside information from the period 1800 to 1855 to analyze the debate and evaluate the influence of supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy.
- Addresses the ways in which supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion shaped federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- May present an imbalanced treatment of the supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion between 1800 and 1855, or looks only in passing at the ways in which federal government policy on expansion was shaped, or presents imbalanced treatment of the period involved.
- Has acceptable organization and writing.
- May contain errors that do not seriously detract from the essay.

The 2–4 Essay

- Presents a thesis that may be simplistic, confused or undeveloped in analyzing the debate and evaluating the influence of both supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy between 1800 and 1855, or simply restates the question.
- Uses few documents concerning the debate and influence of supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document-Based Question (continued)

- Includes little or no relevant outside information from the period 1800 to 1855 to analyze the debate and the influence of supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion in shaping federal government policy.
- Has little analysis or does not address the ways in which supporters and opponents of U.S. territorial expansion shaped federal government policy between 1800 and 1855.
- May treat only one part of the question.
- May be poorly organized or poorly written, or both.
- May contain major errors.

The 0–1 Essay

- Lacks a thesis or simply restates the question.
- Refers to few, if any, of the documents or uses them inappropriately.
- Includes no relevant outside information from the period 1800 to 1855.
- Contains no analysis.
- Is poorly organized or poorly written, or both.
- May contain numerous errors, both major and minor.

The — Essay

- Is completely off topic or blank.

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Potential Outside Information

People

Adams, John Quincy
Austin, Stephen
Black Hawk
Bonaparte, Napoleon
Bowie, Jim
Bridger, Jim
Buchanan, James
Burr, Aaron
Cass, Lewis
Clay, Henry
Crockett, Davy
Decatur, Stephen
Douglas, Stephen
du Pont de Nemours, Pierre
 Samuel
Emerson, Ralph Waldo
Fillmore, Millard
Frémont, John C.
Gaines, George
Harkins, Thomas
Harrison, William Henry

Houston, Sam
Hull, William
Jackson, Andrew
Jefferson, Thomas
Kearny, Stephen
Key, Francis Scott
Lafitte, Jean
Lincoln, Abraham
Liverpool, Lord
Livingston, Robert
L'Ouverture, Touissant
Lowell, Robert
Madison, Dolley
Madison, James
Marcy, William
Marshall, John
Mason, John Y.
Monroe, John
Osceola
O'Sullivan, John L.
Perry, Oliver

Pickering, Timothy
Pierce, Franklin
Polk, James K.
Ross, John
Santa Anna
Scott, Winfield
Sequoya
Smith, Jedediah
Soulé, Pierre
Talleyrand
Taylor, Zachary
Tecumseh
Tenskwatawa
Travis, William
Trist, Nicholas
Tyler, John
Van Buren, Martin
Walker, William
Whitman, Marcus

Groups

Anglo-Saxons
Cherokee
Chickasaw
Choctaw
Creek
Democratic Party

Democrat-Republicans
Five Civilized Tribes
Iroquois
John Jacob Astor Co.
nonresistants
Northern Confederacy

Republican Party
Sauk
War Hawks
Whig Party

Places

Alamo
Britain
California
Cuba
Everglades
Florida (East and West)
Fort McHenry
France
Georgia
Gulf of Mexico
Indian Country/Territory
Lake Champlain

Lake Ontario
Lone Star Republic
Louisiana Territory
Mexican Cession
Mexico
Michigan
Mississippi River
Mobile, Alabama
Nicaragua
Northwest Territory
Nueces River
Oklahoma

Oregon Country
Oregon Trail
Overland Trail
Red River Basin
Republic of Texas
Rio Grande
Rocky Mountains
Rupert's Land
Sabine Free State
Texas
Tristan da Cunha

Events

Adams-Onís Treaty
Anglo-American Convention
Battle of Buena Vista

Battle of Horseshoe Bend
Battle of Monterrey
Battle of New Orleans

Battle of Plattsburgh
Battle of Queenstown Heights
Battle of San Jacinto

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2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Potential Outside Information (continued)

Battle of the Thames	Lewis and Clark expedition	Transcontinental Treaty
Battle of Vera Cruz	Little Belt affair	Treaty of Cusseta
Bear Flag Revolt	Louisiana Purchase	Treaty of Dancing Rabbit
<i>Black Warrior</i> affair	Macon's Bill No. 2	Creek
burning of Washington	Mexican Cession	Treaty of 1818
<i>Chesapeake</i> affair	Mr. Madison's War	Treaty of Fort Jackson
<i>Cherokee Nation v. Georgia</i>	Mr. Polk's War	Treaty of Ghent
Compromise of 1850	Napoleonic Wars	Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo
Creek War of 1836	Non-Intercourse Act	Treaty of Indian Springs
<i>Democratic Review</i>	Old Ironsides	Treaty of New Echota
election of 1844	Oregon Treaty of 1846	Treaty of Paris
Embargo Act of 1807	Pinckney's Treaty	Treaty of San Ildefonso
filibustering	sacking of York	Treat of Velasco
Gadsden Purchase	Second War for American	USS <i>Constitution</i>
Georgia Gold Rush	Independence	War of 1812
Haitian Revolution	Seminole Wars	Webster–Ashburton Treaty
HMS <i>Guerriere</i>	Texas annexation	Wilmot Proviso
Indian Removal Act of 1830	Texas Revolution	<i>Worcester v. Georgia</i>
Kansas–Nebraska Act	Trail of Tears	

Concepts/Policies/Practices

Africanization	loose construction	spot resolutions
American Empire	Manifest Destiny	states' rights
American exceptionalism	Monroe Doctrine	strict construction
Article I, Section 8	New Orleans	slave power
Bleeding Kansas	Orders in Council	"The Star-Spangled Banner"
continentalism	pacifism	Transcendentalism
"Don't give up the ship"	privateering	White House
empire for liberty	providence	Young America Movement
"Fifty-four Forty or Fight!"	right of deposit	
impressments	Rule of 1756	

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2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences

Document A

Source: Congressional debate, October 1803.

James Elliot, Federalist, Vermont:

The Constitution is silent on the subject of the acquisition of territory. By the treaty we acquire territory; therefore the treaty is unconstitutional.

Samuel Thatcher, Federalist, Massachusetts:

This acquisition of distant territory will involve the necessity of a considerable standing army, so justly an object of terror. Do gentlemen flatter themselves that by purchasing Louisiana, we are invulnerable? No, sir; Spain will still border on our southern frontier, and so long as Spain occupies that country we are not secure from the attempts of another nation more warlike and ambitious.

William Plumer, Federalist, New Hampshire:

Admit this western world into the union, and you destroy with a single operation the whole weight and importance of the eastern states.

Document Information

- Three northeastern members of the Federalist Party had grave doubts about the Louisiana Purchase in 1803.
- These doubts stemmed from the observation that the federal Constitution does not authorize territorial acquisition, from a belief that the United States was no safer for having acquired this large territory, and from a fear that eastern states would become less important as the country expanded to the West.
- The United States had just purchased Louisiana in 1803.
- The U.S. Constitution does not mention ways in which the federal government may acquire territory.
- As an immediate neighbor, Spain presented a real threat to the United States.
- A standing army represented a threat.

Document Inferences

- The opponents of early American expansion were Federalists.
- Opposition to expansion rested on several premises, including constitutional considerations, national security and self-interest.
- Based on the revolutionary experience of the United States, there was good reason to oppose a standing army.

Potential Outside Information

Article I, Section 8	empire for liberty	Livingston, Robert
Bonaparte, Napoleon	France	loose construction
Burr, Aaron	Gulf of Mexico	L'Ouverture, Toussaint
Democrat-Republicans	Haitian Revolution	Mississippi River
du Pont de Nemours, Pierre	Jefferson, Thomas	Monroe, James
Samuel	Lewis and Clark expedition	New Orleans

**AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)**

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document A (continued)

Northern Confederacy
Pickering, Timothy
Pinckney's Treaty
Republican Party

right of deposit
Rocky Mountains
Rupert's Land
Sauk

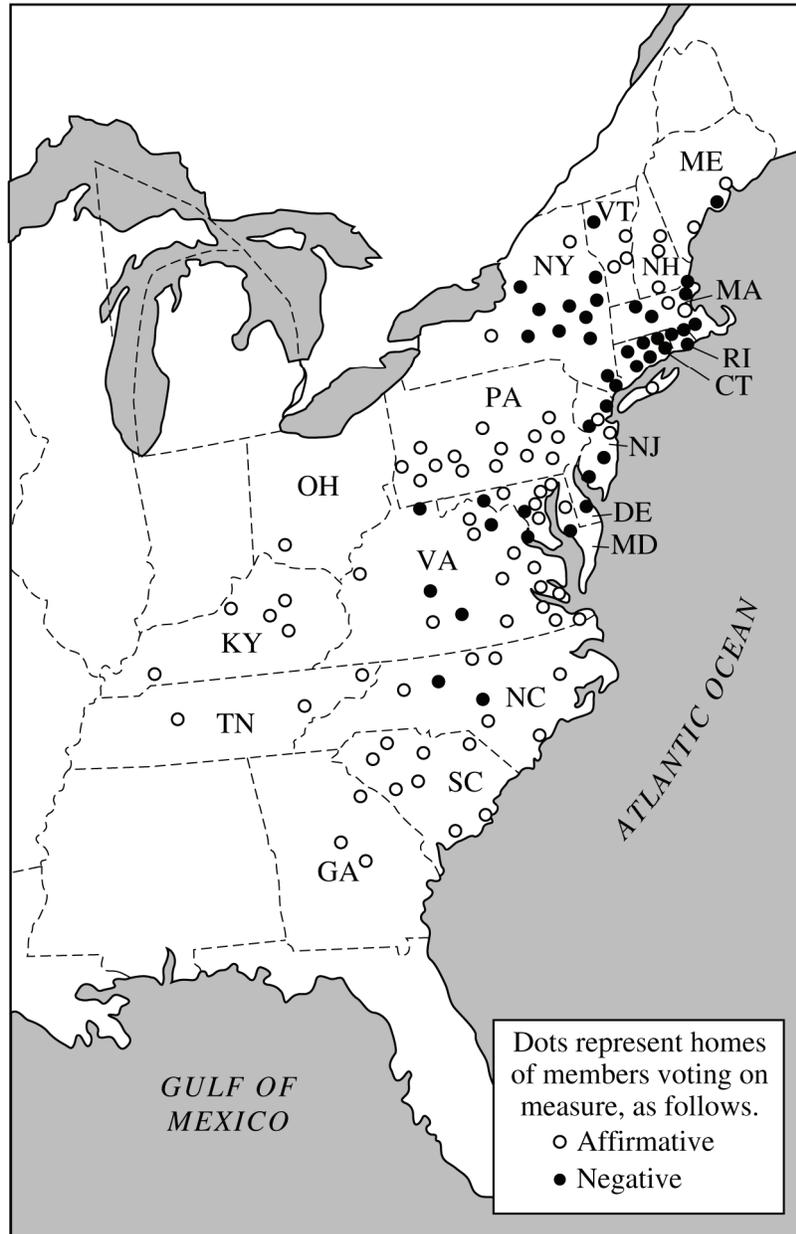
states' rights
strict construction
Talleyrand
Treaty of San Ildefonso

AP® UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document B

DISTRIBUTION OF VOTES IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES
ON THE DECLARATION OF WAR, JUNE 4, 1812



Document Information

- The U.S. House of Representatives voted overwhelmingly for war on June 4, 1812.
- More than two-thirds of the House of Representatives voted for war on June 4, 1812, with most of the supporters coming from the South and West and most opponents coming from the Northeast, along with some from Virginia and Maryland.

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2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document B (continued)

- All the congressmen from Pennsylvania, Georgia and South Carolina and from west of the Appalachian Mountains (Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee) voted for war.

Document Inferences

- In this “Second War for Independence,” the United States went to war with Britain in 1812, chiefly to force the British out of U.S. territory and thus clear the way for American expansion.
- The British had never respected American sovereignty over the area all the way to the Mississippi River, which was called for in the Treaty of Paris that ended the American Revolution.

Potential Outside Information

Battle of Horseshoe Bend	Hull, William	Old Ironsides
Battle of New Orleans	impressment	Orders in Council
Battle of Plattsburgh	Iroquois	Perry, Oliver
Battle of Queenstown Heights	Jackson, Andrew	Pinckney’s Treaty
Battle of the Thames	Key, Francis Scott	privateering
burning of Washington	Lafitte, Jean	Rule of 1756
Calhoun, John C.	Lake Champlain	sacking of York
<i>Chesapeake</i> affair	Lake Ontario	Sauk
Cherokee	Little Belt affair	Scott, Winfield
Choctaw	Liverpool, Lord	Second War for American Independence
Clay, Henry	Macon’s Bill No. 2	Tecumseh
Creek	Madison, Dolley	Tenskwatawa
Decatur, Stephen	Madison, James	“The Star-Spangled Banner”
“Don’t give up the ship”	Mobile, Alabama	Treaty of Ghent
Embargo Act of 1807	Monroe, James	USS <i>Constitution</i>
Era of Good Feelings	Mr. Madison’s War	War Hawks
Fort McHenry	Napoleonic Wars	White House
Harrison, William Henry	Non-Intercourse Act	
HMS <i>Guerriere</i>	Northwest Territory	

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document C

Source: Lewis Cass, in *Documents and Proceedings Relating to the Formation and Progress of a Board in the City of New York, for the Emigration, Preservation, and Improvement of the Aborigines of America*, 1829.

Existing for two centuries in contact with a civilized people, [the Cherokees] have resisted, and successfully too, every effort to meliorate [improve] their situation, or to introduce among them the most common arts of life. Their moral and their intellectual condition have been equally stationary. And in the whole circle of their existence, it would be difficult to point to a single advantage which they have derived from their acquaintance with the Europeans. All this is without a parallel in the history of the world. That it is not to be attributed to the indifference or neglect of the whites, we have already shown. There must then be an inherent difficulty, arising from the institutions, character, and condition of the Indians themselves.

Document Information

- In an 1829 report on American aborigines, Lewis Cass expressed a belief that the Cherokee Nation had made no progress in improving its society despite 200 years of “contact with a civilized people.”
- This lack of improvement, Cass maintained, was the direct result of the Cherokee refusal to change and was the first such instance in world history in which a group considered to be inferior did not benefit from associating with a civilization considered to be more advanced.
- Cass argued that this lack of improvement could not be laid at the feet of Europeans but must be attributed to an inherently inferior civilization. White Americans regarded native peoples, including the Cherokee, as inferior and blamed them for their inferior position because they had not benefited from close contact with Europeans.

Document Inferences

- The author of this document, Lewis Cass, was a brigadier general in the War of 1812, a longtime governor of the Michigan Territory and negotiator of the Treaty of Fort Mieses with Indian tribes.
- As Andrew Jackson’s secretary of war, Cass was a central figure in the formulation and implementation of Indian removal. Cass would also support Texas annexation.
- In addition, Americans had a long history of mistreating American Indians.

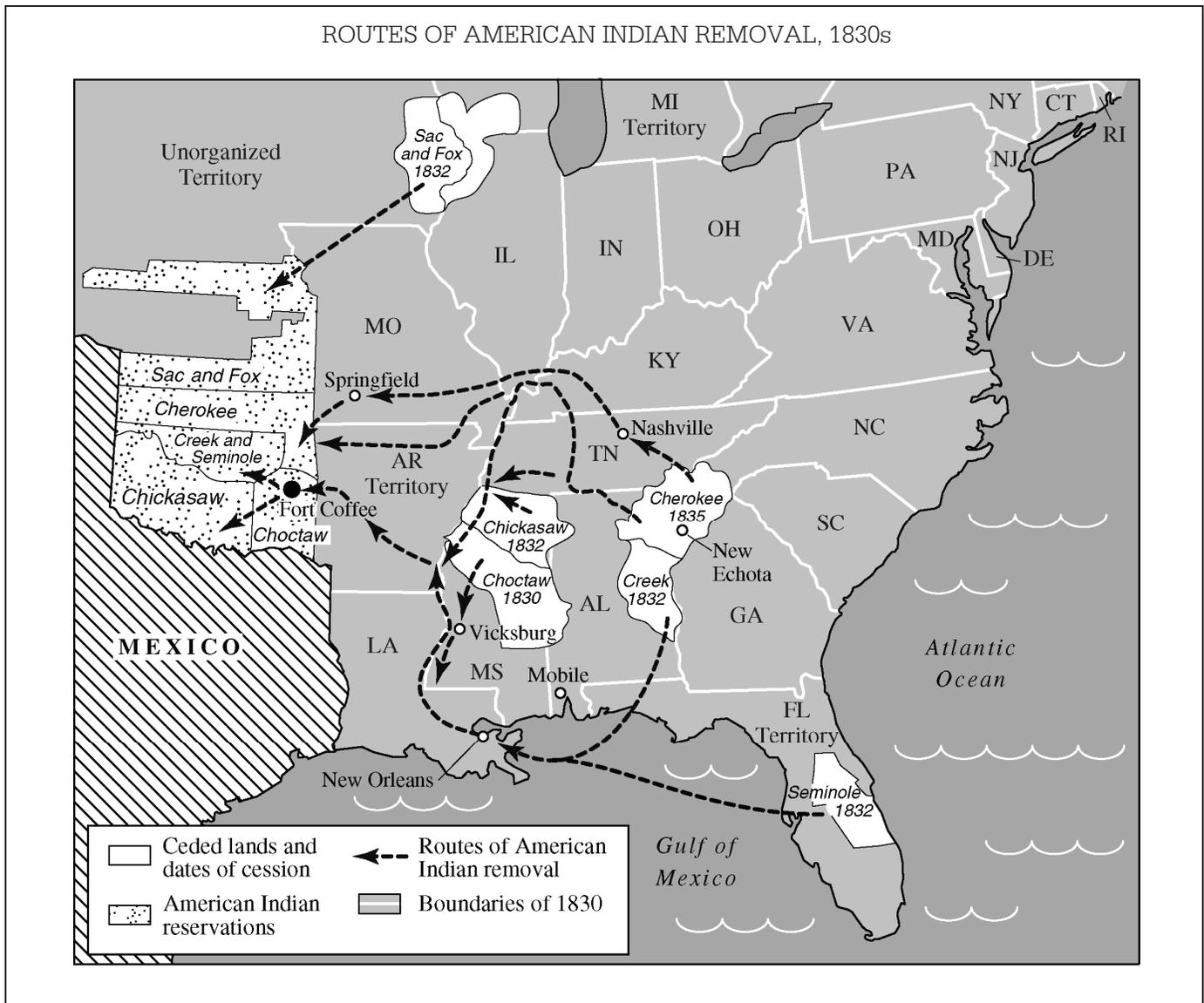
Potential Outside Information

American Indian leaders	Five Civilized Tribes	Oklahoma
<i>Cherokee Nation v. Georgia</i>	Georgia	Seminole Wars
Chickasaw	Jackson, Andrew	Trail of Tears
Choctaw	Manifest Destiny	<i>Worcester v. Georgia</i>
Democratic Party	Marshall, John	

**AP® UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)**

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document D



Document Information

- In the 1830s six American Indian nations — the Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, Creek, Sac and Fox, and Seminole — were removed by seven routes over land and sea from the area alongside or east of the Mississippi to a region west of the state of Missouri and the Arkansas Territory.

Document Inferences

- As part of its anti-Indian and expansionist policy, the U.S. government, under presidents Andrew Jackson and Martin Van Buren, forcibly relocated the Five Civilized Tribes from their ancestral homes in the American Southeast and the Sac and Fox from an area in and around Illinois to assigned reservations east of the Mississippi River, in what are present-day Kansas and Oklahoma.

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2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document D (continued)

- Jacksonian Democracy did not apply to these peoples.
- The removal began with the Choctaw in 1831, which became the model for the subsequent removals, including the Seminole in 1832, the Creek in 1834, the Chickasaw in 1837 and the Cherokee in 1838.
- Because of exposure, disease and starvation, this “Trail Where They Cried,” also called the “Trail of Tears,” resulted in the deaths of thousands of Cherokee out of the 15,000 who were moved. By 1837, 46,000 Native Americans had been removed from their homelands, which opened 25 million acres for white settlement.

Potential Outside Information

Black Hawk

Cass, Lewis (secretary of war)

Cherokee Nation v. Georgia (1831) (Marshall Court ruled that the Cherokee were not a sovereign, independent nation and therefore refused to hear the case)

Creek War of 1836

Everglades

Five Civilized Tribes

Gaines, George (managed the Choctaw removal)

Georgia Gold Rush

Harkins, Thomas (Nitikechi) (said removal was a “trail of tears and death”)

Indian Country/Territory

Indian Removal Act of 1830

Marshall, John

Osceola

Ross, John (Guwisguwi) (first and only elected chief of the Cherokee)

Scott, Winfield

Seminole Wars

Sequoya

Trail of Tears (Cherokee, 1838)

Treaty of Cusetta (divided Creek land into individual allotments, which led to fraud and violence, 1832)

Treaty of Dancing Rabbit Creek (Choctaw accepted removal if some could remain behind, 1831)

Treaty of Fort Jackson (Creek give up most of the remaining land in Georgia, 1814)

Treaty of Ghent (restored sovereignty to Indians and their nations, 1815)

Treaty of Indian Springs (Creek gave up remaining land in Georgia, 1825)

Treaty of New Echota (an agreement with a Creek faction that exchanged Creek land in the East for land past the Mississippi River, 1836)

Martin Van Buren

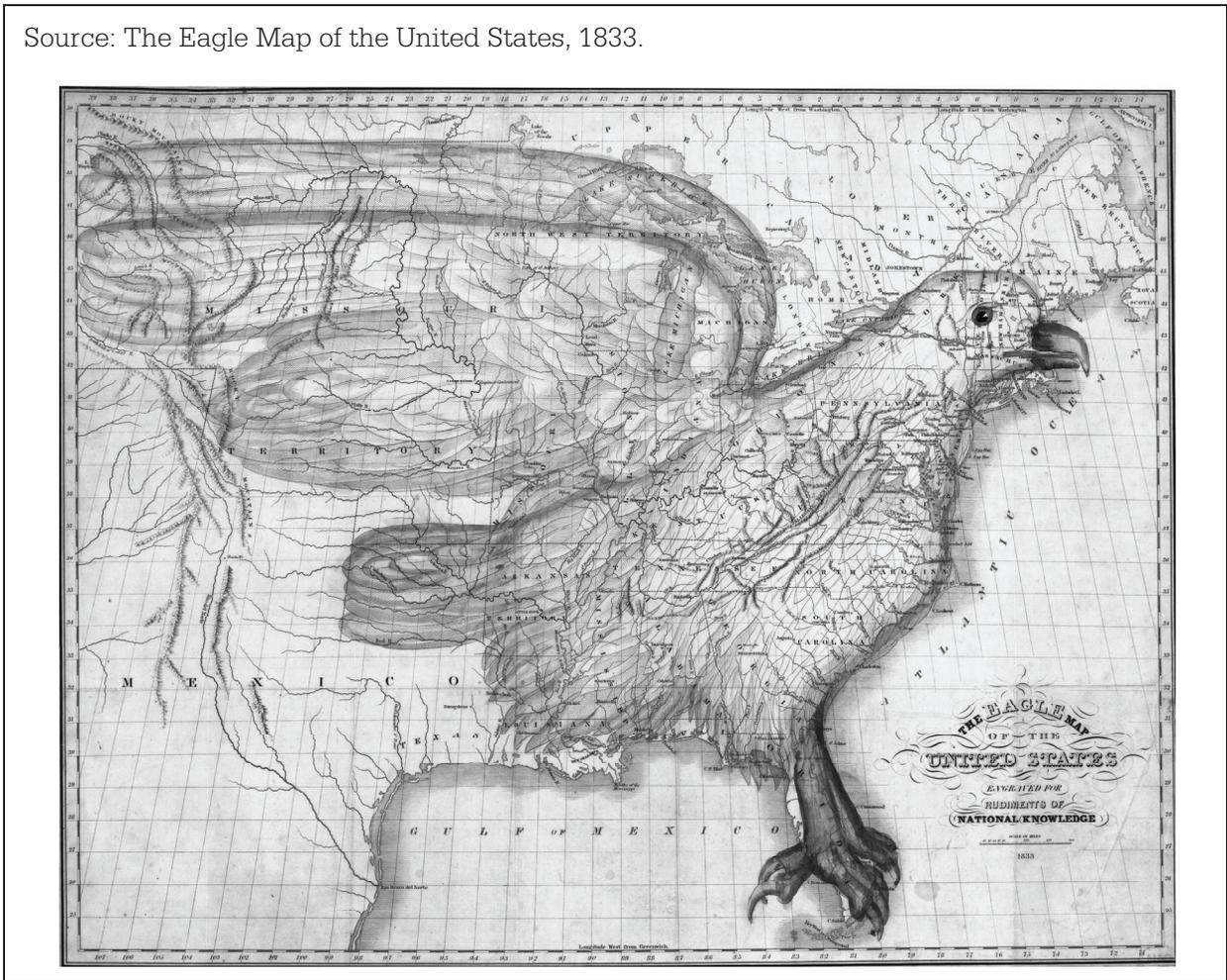
Worcester v. Georgia (1832) (Marshall Court ruled that Georgia could not impose laws in Cherokee territory because only the national government has the authority in American Indian affairs)

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2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document E

Source: The Eagle Map of the United States, 1833.



Document Information

- An eagle is superimposed on an 1833 map of the United States, extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Rocky Mountains and from the Great Lakes to Florida.

Document Inferences

- The United States rightly owns/controls the region from the Atlantic Ocean to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico.

Potential Outside Information

Adams, John Quincy
American Empire
American exceptionalism
Anglo-American Convention
Anglo-Saxons
Cass, Lewis
continentalism
Democratic Party

Democratic Review
"Fifty-four Forty or Fight!"
Louisiana Territory
Manifest Destiny
Monroe Doctrine
O'Sullivan, John L.
Oregon Treaty of 1846
Polk, James K.

providence
Republic of Texas
Texas annexation
Transcontinental Treaty
Treaty of 1818
Whig Party
Young America Movement

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document F

Source: Thomas Hart Benton, speech in the United States Senate, 1844.

[T]he settlers in Oregon will also recover and open for us the North American road to India! This road lies through the South Pass, and the mouth of the Oregon; and as soon as the settlements are made, our portion of the North American continent will immediately commence its Asiatic trade on this new and national route.

Document Information

- Thomas Hart Benton made a speech to the U.S. Senate in 1844 in which he predicted that American settlers in Oregon would open trade with Asia.

Document Inferences

- As senator from Missouri, Thomas Hart Benton was an architect and champion of westward expansion of the United States, a cause that became known as Manifest Destiny.
- Among his causes, Benton advocated the displacement of Native Americans in favor of European settlers, exploration of the West, especially by his son-in-law John C. Frémont, and government construction of the transcontinental railway and the telegraph.
- Benton favored Texas annexation (but not the Mexican War) and the abrogation of the Adams–Onís Treaty, which relinquished claims to Texas by the United States.

Potential Outside Information

Bridger, Jim
Democratic Party
election of 1844
John Jacob Astor Co.

Manifest Destiny
Oregon Trail
Overland Trail
Rocky Mountains

Smith, Jedediah
Whitman, Marcus

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document G

Source: Letter from Andrew Jackson to Moses Dawson, published in *Niles' National Register*, 1844.

If there be patriotism in the effort to increase the wealth and happiness of all classes in our society—to diffuse the blessings of equal laws, and a just government . . . if there be love in the spirit which finds in this free land of ours the means to spread the light of the Gospel, and to teach fallen man throughout the world how he may recover his right to civil and religious liberty—it seems to me that all this patriotism—all this philanthropy—all this religion—appeals to us in favor of the addition of Texas to our Union.

Document Information

- Andrew Jackson wrote a letter to Moses Dawson that appeared in *Niles' National Register* in 1844.

Document Inferences

- Just before matters concerning the status of Texas came to a head, former president Andrew Jackson wrote to Moses Dawson, a well-known Cincinnati editor, that Texas annexation would be a boon in a variety of ways.

Potential Outside Information

Alamo

Austin, Stephen

Battle of San Jacinto

Bowie, Jim

Crockett, Davy

Houston, Sam

Lone Star Republic

Polk, James K.

Republic of Texas

Santa Anna

Taylor, Zachary

Texas Revolution

Travis, William

Treaty of Velasco

Tyler, John

Whig Party

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document H

Source: John C. Calhoun, address to Congress on Mexico, 1848.

We are anxious to force free government on all; and I see that it has been urged in a very respectable quarter, that it is the mission of this country to spread civil and religious liberty over the entire world, and especially over this continent. It is a great mistake. None but people advanced to a very high state of moral and intellectual improvement are capable, in a civilized state, of maintaining free government; and amongst those who are so purified, very few, indeed, have had the good fortune of forming a constitution capable of endurance.

Document Information

- In an address to Congress in 1848, Senator John C. Calhoun criticized the contention of respectable people that every nation could sustain democratic government.
- Not every people, he maintained, possessed sufficient development in moral and intellectual terms to support political liberty.

Document Inferences

- Senator John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, a former War Hawk before the War of 1812 and later a secretary of state and vice president, questioned the wisdom of the Mexican War and abstained when the authorization vote for war came.
- After the United States thrashed Mexico and debated the prospect of extending its border all the way to Guatemala, Calhoun denounced the idea as fundamentally changing the character of American society.
- The acquisition of Mexico would compel the United States to adopt what Calhoun was convinced was a doomed experiment — a truly multiracial society of the kind that had allegedly dragged down the Spanish in Latin America.
- Calhoun believed that some peoples, especially Mexicans, were incapable of replicating the American experiment in liberty.
- Calhoun noted that the United States had either pushed Indian nations into the wilderness or allowed them separate spheres.
- Better, Calhoun thought, to be satisfied with acquiring a largely uninhabited block of land called the Mexican Cession, which is exactly what Congress agreed to in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Potential Outside Information

Adams, John Quincy
Battle of Buena Vista
Battle of Monterrey
Battle of Vera Cruz
Bear Flag Revolt
Compromise of 1850
Democratic Party
filibustering

Kearny, Stephen
Lincoln, Abraham
Lowell, Robert
Mexican Cession
Mr. Polk's War
Nicaragua
Nueces River
Rio Grande

Scott, Winfield
spot resolutions
Taylor, Zachary
Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo
Trist, Nicholas
Walker, William
Wilmot, David
Wilmot Proviso

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document I

Source: Henry David Thoreau, *Civil Disobedience*, 1849.

The government itself, which is only the mode which the people have chosen to execute their will, is equally liable to be abused and perverted before the people can act through it. Witness the present Mexican War, the work of comparatively a few individuals using the standing government as their tool; for, in the outset, the people would not have consented to this measure.

Document Information

- In *Civil Disobedience*, which was written in 1849, Henry David Thoreau warned of governmental abuse in the absence of a functioning democracy, mentioning as a prime example the unpopular Mexican War.

Document Inferences

- This classic essay against governmental power, which was originally entitled *Resistance to Civil Government*, reflected transcendentalist Henry David Thoreau's opposition to military force and to slavery, both of which were issues in the Mexican War that the United States had prosecuted in the late 1840s.
- When a tax collector demanded that Thoreau pay his poll tax, Thoreau refused because, he noted, taxes finance injustice, including what he regarded as America's unprovoked war with Mexico to enable slave expansion.
- He was briefly jailed for his antitax stance until his aunt bailed him out.

Potential Outside Information

Emerson, Ralph Waldo
Lincoln, Abraham
Mr. Polk's War

nonresistants
pacifists
spot resolutions

transcendentalists
Whig Party
Wilmot Proviso

AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)

Question 1 — Document Information and Inferences (continued)

Document J

Source: Ostend Manifesto, 1854.

[B]y every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting [Cuba] from Spain if we possess the power; and this upon the very same principle that would justify an individual in tearing down the burning house of his neighbor if there were no other means of preventing the flames from destroying his own home. Under such circumstances we ought neither to count the cost nor regard the odds which Spain might enlist against us.

Document Information

- According to the Ostend Manifesto, the United States had every right to take Cuba from Spain.

Document Inferences

- American expansionists, such as Secretary of State John Quincy Adams, had long coveted Cuba, particularly as a slave state, once California was made a free state under the Compromise of 1850.
- The only limitation worth considering was military might: Did the United States possess the raw power to force Spain out of Cuba?
- Although the Ostend Manifesto was never acted upon, the United States remained interested in Cuba, particularly after the American Civil War ended — an interest that ultimately led to Cuban independence.

Potential Outside Information

Adams, John Quincy
Africanization
Black Warrior affair
Bleeding Kansas
Britain
Buchanan, James
filibustering

Fillmore, Millard
France
Kansas–Nebraska Act
Marcy, William
Mason, John Y.
Monroe Doctrine
Pierce, Franklin

Polk, James K.
slave power
Soulé, Pierre
Taylor, Zachary
Young America Movement

**AP[®] UNITED STATES HISTORY
2010 SCORING GUIDELINES (Form B)**

Question 1 — Timeline

Year	Place	Event
1803	Louisiana	Louisiana Purchase
1803	Ohio	Ohio statehood
1810	West Florida	Annexed by United States
1810	Tristan da Cunha	Claimed by United States
1812	Southern Alabama	Annexed by United States
1812	British North America	War of 1812
1814	Georgia	Treaty of Fort Jackson
1815	United States	Treaty of Ghent
1817	Mississippi	Mississippi statehood
1817	Ohio	Treaty of Fort Miegs
1818	Dakotas and Minnesota	Ceded by Britain
1818	Northern Maine	Ceded by Britain
1818	Red River Basin	Treaty with Britain
1818	Oregon Country	Anglo-American Convention
1819	Alabama	Alabama statehood
1819	Florida	Adams–Onís Treaty
1819	Western Louisiana	Ceded by Spain
1821	Missouri	Missouri Compromise
1825	Georgia	Treaty of Indian Springs
1830	Southeastern United States	Indian Removal Act
1830s	Oklahoma	American Indian removal
1831	Choctaw land	Treaty of Dancing Rabbit Creek
1831	Georgia	<i>Cherokee Nation v. Georgia</i>
1832	Georgia	<i>Worcester v. Georgia</i>
1832	Alabama and Georgia	Treaty of Cusseta
1836	Georgia	Treaty of New Echota
1836	Texas	Texas Revolution
1837	Michigan	Michigan statehood
1838	Georgia	Trail of Tears
1842	United States–Canada border	Webster–Ashburton Treaty
1845	Texas	Texas annexation
1845	Florida	Florida statehood
1846	Iowa	Iowa statehood
1846	Great Lakes	Treaty with Britain
1846	Oregon	Annexed by United States
1846	San Juan Islands	Jointly claimed by United States and Britain
1846–1848	Mexico	Mexican War
1847	Mexican Cession	Treaty of Cahuenga
1848	Mexican Cession	Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo
1848	Wisconsin	Wisconsin statehood
1849	Mexican Cession	<i>On Civil Disobedience</i>
1850	California	Compromise of 1850
1853	Southern Arizona	Gadsden Purchase
1854	Cuba	Ostend Manifesto

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Question 2

Evaluate the influence of religion on the development of colonial society in TWO of the following regions.

The Spanish Southwest
New England
New France

The 8–9 Essay

- Articulates a clear, well-constructed thesis focusing on the ways that religion shaped the development of colonial society in two of the regions (Spanish Southwest, New England, New France).
- Supports the thesis with substantial, relevant historical information related to the influence of religion on development of colonial society in two of the areas.
- Provides effective analysis concerning the ways that religion influenced the development of colonial society in the two areas.
- Is well organized and well written.
- May contain minor errors.

The 5–7 Essay

- Contains a thesis, which may be partially developed, addressing the influence of religion on the development of colonial society in two of the regions.
- Provides ample, relevant information addressing the influence of religion on the development of colonial society in two of the areas.
- Analyzes the ways in which religion influenced the development of colonial society in the two areas.
- May present an imbalanced treatment of the ways that religion influenced the development of colonial society in the two areas.
- Is acceptably organized and written.
- May contain errors that do not seriously detract from the essay.

The 2–4 Essay

- Presents a thesis that may be simplistic, confused or undeveloped in addressing the influence of religion on the development of colonial society in two of the regions, or paraphrases the question.
- Provides little or no relevant information concerning the ways in which religion influenced the development of colonial society in two of the areas.
- Has little analysis of the ways in which religion influenced the development of colonial society in the two areas; may treat only one part of the question.
- May be poorly organized and/or poorly written.
- May contain major errors.

The 0–1 Essay

- Lacks a thesis or restates the question.
- Includes no relevant information.
- Contains no analysis.
- Is poorly organized and/or poorly written.
- May contain numerous errors, both major and minor.

The — Essay

- Is completely off topic or blank.

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Question 2 — Information List

The Spanish Southwest

Spain used religion as an effective instrument of colonial control. Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries established isolated Catholic missions where they imposed Christianity on the Native Americans. After 10 years missions were secularized, lands were divided among converted Indians, the mission chapel became the parish church, and the inhabitants were given full Spanish citizenship (had to pay taxes). Soldiers sent to protect the missions lived in presidios (forts); their families and accompanying merchants, in adjacent villages. Those who did not accept the *requerimiento* (freedom to all Native Americans who accepted Spanish authority) were threatened with war and enslavement. In reality Spanish colonial society, while extremely Catholic, was very stratified.

conquistadors
encomiendas/encomendero
Ginés de Sepúlveda, Juan
Juan de Onate colonizes New Mexico for Spain
(1598)
Las Casas, Bartolomé de
Laws of Burgos (1513)
mestizo

missions, missionaries, conversions, presidios
New Laws (1542)
Popé revolt (Pueblo) in New Mexico (1680)
reconquest of New Mexico (1699)
requerimiento (1513)
Santa Fe established (1610)
Spanish settlement established in Albuquerque
(1706)

New France

New France differed greatly from the Spanish and English settlements. Most settlements in New France were predominantly male and much smaller in number. The smaller numbers required the French to develop cooperative relationships with the Native Americans. The French, unlike the English, established trading outposts rather than farms, and on land not claimed by Native Americans. This resulted in no initial hostility. The French also served as mediators among Great Lakes tribes. This diplomatic role gave them much more local authority and influence than their English counterparts.

The outnumbered and disproportionately male French settlers sought to integrate themselves with Native American culture rather than eliminate it. This more fraternal bond proved a source of strength in the wars with the English. A source of wealth was the fur trade; however, the charter limited the population to French Catholics only. In 1663 New France became a royal colony under Louis XIV.

While the fur trade fueled the economy and peopling of New France, the activities of Catholic missionaries gave New France its dynamism. Like Spain, New France was aggressive in converting Native Americans, but in New France the Jesuits did the conversion work. Unlike the Spanish, the Jesuits were rarely accompanied by soldiers, and they did not require Native American converts to move to missions. The Jesuits lived among the Native Americans, and they borrowed from each other's ways. The Native Americans may have converted, but they never embraced Jesuit teaching and learning. This approach enabled New France to prosper and its settlers to spread deep into Canada and as far south as Louisiana.

Cartier, Jacques (three trips for French
exploration, 1534–1542)
Champlain, Samuel de (began exploration of
Quebec, 1608)

Franciscans, e.g., Louis Hennepin
French settlers arrive in New France (1614)
Jesuits, e.g., Jacques Marquette
New France becomes a royal colony (1663)

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Question 2 — Information List (continued)

New England

Religious fundamentalists who looked to the Bible for authority and inspiration, the Puritans came to New England to purify the church and to create a successful community within the parameters of their religious beliefs. With the exception of religion, moderation was the key. As a result of their experiences in Britain, they wanted a separation of church and state, but in New England only church members could vote and therefore the state supported the church. From this an assembly of true Christians could enter into a church covenant, a voluntary union for the common worship of God. Hence it was only a short step to the idea of a voluntary union for the purpose of government (e.g., the Mayflower Compact, the charter of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, and the informal Rhode Island arrangement prior to securing a charter in 1663).

To question state authority, however, was to question belief in the Bible and as such was not be tolerated (e.g., Anne Hutchinson, Roger Williams/Rhode Island, Thomas Hooker/Connecticut, John Mason/New Hampshire). Growth strains led to the Halfway Covenant in 1662. In 1691 Massachusetts became a royal colony, which required religious toleration of dissenters and made the right to vote based on property rather than on church membership.

The Salem Witch Trials of 1692 highlighted the transition from a Puritan-based society to a royal crown colony. The trials have also been seen as an attack on women who did not accept their place in society.

Edwards, Jonathan (“Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God,” 1741)
Eliot, John (the “Indian apostle”); American Indian praying towns
Good, Sarah
Great Awakening (1734)
Halfway Covenant (1662)
Hutchinson, Anne (exiled with followers, 1637)
Massachusetts Bay Colony (1629)
Massachusetts establishes system of public education (1647); “ye olde deluder Satan” act
Massachusetts and New Hampshire made royal colonies (1692)
Mather, Cotton
New Haven (1638)
Osborne, Sarah
Parris, Samuel
Pilgrims found Plymouth Colony (1620); first Thanksgiving
Plymouth Colony absorbed into Massachusetts (1691)
Rhode Island Charter (1644)
Salem Witch Trials (1692)
Tituba
Whitfield, George (first sermon in America — Philadelphia, 1739)
Williams, Roger (exiled from Massachusetts, 1636)
Winthrop, John (“city upon a hill”)

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Question 3

Compare and contrast the experience of slaves on tobacco plantations in the early seventeenth-century Chesapeake region with that of slaves on nineteenth-century cotton plantations in the Deep South. What forces transformed the institution of slavery from the early seventeenth century to the nineteenth century?

The 8–9 Essay

- Articulates a clear, well-constructed thesis that compares and contrasts the experience of slaves on tobacco plantations in the early seventeenth-century Chesapeake region with that of slaves on nineteenth-century cotton plantations in the Deep South.
- Supports the thesis with substantial, relevant historical information used to analyze the comparisons, contrasts and transforming forces.
- Provides effective analysis of the forces that transformed the institution of American slavery from the early seventeenth century to the nineteenth century.
- Addresses all aspects of the question.
- Is well organized and well written.
- May contain minor errors.

The 5–7 Essay

- Contains a thesis, which may be partially developed, that compares and contrasts the experience of slaves on tobacco plantations in the early seventeenth-century Chesapeake region with that of slaves on nineteenth-century cotton plantations in the Deep South.
- Provides ample, relevant historical information used to analyze the comparisons, contrasts and transforming forces.
- Analyzes the forces that transformed the institution of American slavery from the early seventeenth century to the nineteenth century.
- May present an imbalanced treatment of the question.
- Acceptable organization and writing.
- May contain errors that do not seriously detract from the essay.

The 2–4 Essay

- Presents a thesis that may be simplistic, confused or undeveloped in comparing and contrasting the experience of slaves on tobacco plantations in the early seventeenth-century Chesapeake region with that of slaves on nineteenth-century cotton plantations in the Deep South.
- Provides little or no relevant historical information used to analyze the comparisons, contrasts and transforming forces of the institution of slavery from the early seventeenth century to the nineteenth century.
- Has little or no analysis of the forces that transformed the institution of slavery from the early seventeenth century to the nineteenth century.
- May address only one aspect of the question.
- May be poorly organized and poorly written.
- May contain major errors.

The 0–1 Essay

- Lacks a thesis or restates the question.
- Includes no relevant information.
- Contains no analysis.
- Poorly organized and poorly written.
- May contain numerous errors, both major and minor.

The — Essay

- Is completely off topic or blank.

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Question 3 — Information List

Geography of the South

The “Old South” from approximately 1680 to 1780 comprised the “Upper South” and the “Lower South.” The Upper South included the Chesapeake area (Virginia, Maryland, Delaware), Arkansas, Kentucky, Missouri, North Carolina and Tennessee. The Lower South included South Carolina and Georgia.

Following the introduction of the cotton gin and the cotton explosion throughout the Cotton Belt or Black Belt, the nineteenth-century “Deep South” or “King Cotton South” expanded into the area from Alabama to Texas through Missouri and Arkansas. The states of the Deep South were Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina and Texas.

Tobacco Plantations — Chesapeake

Establishment of Slavery

- First slaves arrived in the English mainland colonies.
- They were treated as indentured servants.
- As late as 1690 they numbered only about 2,000 in Virginia (out of a total population of 35,000).
- The supply of European indentured servants to the Chesapeake dried up just as more Africans were becoming available.
- The four decades following 1700 saw the heaviest importation of slaves into the Chesapeake and Carolina regions.
- Between 1700 and 1750 Virginia planters imported about 45,000 slaves.
- The black population increased during these years from perhaps 10,000 to over 100,000. In 1680 only 7 percent of Virginia’s population was African in origin, but by 1700 the proportion had increased to 28 percent and half the labor force was enslaved.

Legal Foundations

- During the early period there was no clear legal definition of slavery in the mainland colonies.
- In the seventeenth century African slavery and white and African servitude existed side by side, and laws to enforce slavery appeared piecemeal.
- The first Virginia law recognizing slavery was passed in 1661.
- In 1705 Virginia passed a comprehensive slave code that became a model for other colonies.
- As long as the black population remained small, the color line was blurry.
- In the late seventeenth century laws were passed restricting the freedom of black people, and slavery became institutionalized and recognized by law.

Working Conditions

- On small plantations and farms, typical in the tobacco country of the Chesapeake, Africans sometimes worked side by side with their owners.
- Tobacco plantations were larger and closer to one another than were rice plantations. The size and proximity of tobacco plantations permitted slaves more frequent contact with friends and relatives.
- Many Chesapeake slaves, like those in the Lower South, were African born, but most lived on smaller plantations with fewer than 20 fellow slaves.
- Chesapeake slaves also had more contact with whites. Chesapeake masters actively managed their estates and subjected their slaves to closer scrutiny.
- Most Chesapeake slaves lived in units consisting of mother, father and small children.
- In some cases, fathers were married away from their own plantations and visited “broad wives” and children during their off hours.

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Question 3 — Information List (continued)

- Tobacco, the dominant crop in the Chesapeake region, required oversight, so planters organized slaves into gangs that worked together under the watchful eye of a white overseer or black slave driver.
- By 1720 the proportion of females in the Chesapeake slave population had begun to rise, making family life possible.
- By the 1730s the slave population of the Chesapeake had become the first in the Western Hemisphere to achieve self-sustained growth.

Changes in the Late Seventeenth Century

- Planters were increasingly fearful by rebellions of former indentured servants.
- By the mid-1680s, for the first time, black slaves outnumbered white servants among the plantation colonies' new arrivals.
- In 1698 Royal African Company lost its monopoly on slave trade and the supply of slaves increased sharply. More than 10,000 Africans came to America in the decade after 1700.
- Blacks were nearly half the population of Virginia by 1750.
- Earlier in the seventeenth century there was no clear legal difference between a slave and a servant. But in the late seventeenth century the law began to make sharp distinctions between the two, primarily on the basis of race. New statutes or "slave codes" made black people and their children the property (or "chattels") of white slaveholders for life.
- Beginning in the 1680s Virginia statutes referred to people of English descent as "white" rather than as "Christian."

End of the Old South

- In 1790 the future of slavery was uncertain in the Chesapeake. The tobacco market had been precarious since before the Revolution and continued to decline after 1790.
- With slave labor becoming less necessary, Chesapeake planters continued to switch to grain and livestock — which required less labor than tobacco — and tried to think up new uses for slaves. Some planters divided their land into small plots and rented both the plots and slaves to white tenant farmers. Others, particularly in Maryland, recruited tenants from the growing ranks of free blacks. Still others hired out their slaves as artisans and urban laborers.
- Many began to free their slaves. In Virginia free blacks increased from 4 percent in 1790 to 7 percent by 1810.
- Thousands of blacks from the soil-exhausted slave states of the Old South, especially tobacco-depleted Virginia, were sent as field-gang laborers to the cotton frontier of the lower Mississippi Valley.
- The interstate trade involved an estimated 600,000 to 700,000 slaves over the period 1815–1860.
- Virginia planters found their slaves newly valuable, which led to slave breeding.

Cotton Plantations — Deep South

- The first major cotton-producing regions were inland areas of Georgia and South Carolina, but the center of production shifted rapidly westward during the nineteenth century, first to Alabama and Mississippi and then to Arkansas, northwestern Louisiana and eastern Texas.
- By 1820 the cotton boom extended slavery into the territory south of Pennsylvania and the Ohio River Valley and east of the Mississippi River, as well as into Missouri and Louisiana.
- Slaves in the low country of South Carolina and Georgia lived on large plantations with as many as 50 other black workers and had infrequent contact with either their masters or the rest of the sparse white population.

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Question 3 — Information List (continued)

- Of the 1.5 million enslaved inhabitants of the South in 1820, probably three-quarters lived on plantations
- The typical (cotton) plantation had 20 to 50 slaves and 800 to 1,000 acres of land.
- Slavery remained a highly profitable investment. The average slaveholder spent perhaps \$30 to \$35 a year to support an adult slave. A planter could expect one of his slaves to produce more than \$78 worth of cotton.
- By 1860 most slaves were concentrated in the “Black Belt” of the Deep South that stretched from South Carolina and Georgia into the new southwest states of Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana.
- In South Carolina and Georgia, rice remained a major crop, but from 1780 to 1810 a switch was made from indigo as the second crop to cotton. During the period 1788 to 1808 some 250,000 slaves were brought from Africa, almost all into Charleston and Savannah.

Changes in the Eighteenth Century

- By 1775 one out of every five Americans was of African ancestry, and more than 90 percent of all black Americans lived in the South, most along the seaboard on tobacco and rice plantations.
- Legal importation of African slaves into the United States ended in 1808.
- Although slavery was a national institution in 1776, by 1820 it was confined to the states south of Pennsylvania and the Ohio River.
- In the aftermath of the American Revolution, most northern states gradually abolished slavery.

Slavery in the Nineteenth Century

- After the middle of the eighteenth century a number of changes led to the growth of black families and created vibrant slave communities. As slave importations began to taper off, the rate of natural reproduction among blacks started to climb, and the ratio of men to women became more equal.
- By 1860 there were nearly four million black slaves in the South. Their numbers had quadrupled since 1800. The majority of the increase came from natural reproduction.
- The United States was the only slave society in the Americas where the slave population increased naturally — at about the same rate as the white population.
- Planters invested nearly \$2 billion of their capital into slaves by 1860.
- Larger slaveholders usually owned several plantations, with an overseer to manage the slaves.
- The conditions slaves encountered varied widely, depending on the size of the farm or plantation, the crop being grown, the personality of the master and whether he was an absentee owner.
- On the large plantations, slave women worked as seamstresses, cooks, nurses or maids in the master’s house.
- Slave men worked as butlers, coachmen and valets. Besides working in the fields, they might serve as drivers, skilled mechanics or craftsmen.
- House servants and the drivers, who supervised the field hands, had the highest status, and skilled artisans such as carpenters and blacksmiths were also given special recognition. The hardest work was done by the field hands, both men and women, who sometimes were divided into plow hands and hoe gangs.
- Some plantations had the gang system, in which a white overseer or black driver supervised gangs of 20 to 25 adults. The gang system was widely used in the cotton districts.
- Other plantations had the task system, whereby each slave was given a specific daily assignment to complete, after which he or she was finished for the day. This was most common in rice fields. This system allowed slaves to work at their own pace, gave them an incentive to do careful work and freed the overseers from having to closely supervise the work.

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Question 3 — Information List (continued)

- Slaves were in the field 15–16 hours a day. Work was uncommon on Sundays and frequently involved only a half day on Saturday. Rough cheap cloth was distributed for clothing once a year, enough to make a couple of outfits, and one pair of shoes. Sickness was a persistent problem. On average planters spent less than a dollar a year on medical care for slaves.
- About 5 percent of slaves worked in industry in the South, including mills, ironworks and railroad building.
- Slaves in cities took on a wider range of jobs than did plantation slaves — as porters, waiters, cooks and skilled laborers in tradesmen’s shops — and in general enjoyed more autonomy.

Slave Resistance

- To resist, slaves abused machinery, mishandled animals, broke tools, lost items, worked carelessly, feigned illness or stole items.
- They also slowed the pace of work, fostering a myth of black “laziness.”
- Slave revolts included those by Gabriel Prosser (Richmond, 1800), Denmark Vesey (Charleston, 1822) and Nat Turner (Virginia, 1831).
- Denmark Vesey was a free black of Charleston who belonged to the African Methodist church. In 1822 he planned to take over the armory, but Gullah Jack, a conjurer, spread word of the plan and Vesey, Jack and 34 others were hung.

Slave Families

- Maintaining a sense of family was one of the most remarkable achievements of black people in bondage.
- Masters often found it advantageous to encourage strong marriage ties among their slaves as it reduced rivalries and made for a more efficient workforce.
- Southern laws did not recognize slave marriages as legally binding.
- The traditional nuclear family of father, mother and children was the rule, not the exception.
- Slaves developed strong kinship networks; aunts and uncles were expected to look after children in an extended network of mutual obligation.
- On large plantations with relatively stable slave populations, a substantial majority of slave children lived in two-parent households, and many marriages lasted for as long as 20–30 years.
- In areas where most slaves lived on farms or small plantations, especially in the Upper South, the trading and hiring out of slaves frequently took place. Slaves often had spouses who resided on other plantations or farms, even some distance away, and ties between husbands and wives were looser and more fragile. The result was that female-headed families in these areas were the norm, and responsibility for child rearing was vested in mothers, assisted in most cases by female relatives and friends.

Slave Religion

- Slaveholders encouraged religion as an effective means of social control. Most slaves sought Christianity on their own, beyond the control of the master.
- Slave preachers, conjurers and herb doctors held status that no white conferred.
- After 1830 most of the southern states outlawed black preachers, but the laws could not be enforced.
- Blacks were attracted to the enthusiastic Protestantism of Baptists and Methodists, though they never fully accepted the Protestant emphasis on guilt.

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Question 3 — Information List (continued)

Contrasts

- The tobacco and rice planters of the Atlantic Tidewater were part of a settled region and a culture that reached back 150 to 200 years. States such as Mississippi and Arkansas, in contrast, were at or just emerging from the frontier stage, since most of their residents had arrived after 1815. Consequently, the society of the Southwest was more volatile.
- In Chesapeake Bay the economy was built around tobacco. Virginia planters tended to buy more black women from Africa than did rice planters, in order to cheaply increase their supply of slaves through childbearing. This in turn allowed for healthier and more vigorous family life among Chesapeake Bay slaves, who in any event were freer of sickness because they did not work in disease-ridden swamps and in large gangs, where contagious diseases spread rapidly. The Virginia slaves therefore flourished through natural increase in a fashion strikingly different from that farther south.
- The movement of slaves out of the Chesapeake was immense. In the 1790s about 1 in 12 Virginia and Maryland slaves was taken south and west. The figure rose to 1 in 10 between 1800 and 1810, and 1 in 5 between 1810 and 1820. In 1790 planters in Virginia and Maryland had owned 56 percent of all American slaves; by 1860 they owned only 15 percent.
- Nineteenth-century slaves were not evenly distributed throughout the region. More than half lived in the Deep South, where blacks outnumbered whites in both South Carolina and Mississippi by the 1850s. Elsewhere in the Deep South, the black population exceeded 40 percent in all states except Texas. In the Upper South, on the other hand, whites greatly outnumbered blacks. Only in Virginia and North Carolina did the slave population top 30 percent.
- A majority of blacks in the Deep South lived on larger plantations that had communities of 20 or more slaves. There the family life of slaves tended to be relatively stable, and a distinctive African American slave culture developed. Forced separations of spouses and of parents and children were evidently more common on smaller plantations and in the Upper South.
- Slaves living on farms or small plantations no doubt had closer contact with the white owners and their families. They often ate at the same table with the master and sometimes even slept in the same cabin. But slaves who lived in such close quarters with their owners were constantly subject to white scrutiny, always made aware of their inferior social status and had less opportunity to meet other blacks. In addition, small farmers were more likely to run into financial problems and be forced to sell their slaves.
- Slaves under the task system (common on South Carolina and Georgia rice and cotton plantations) won the right to cultivate land as “private fields” — not the little garden plots common in the Chesapeake, but farms of up to five acres on which they grew produce and raised livestock for market. A lively trade developed in slave-produced goods, and by the late 1850s slaves in the low country not only produced and exchanged property but also passed it on to their children.

Transformational Forces

- Attitudes toward slavery rapidly changed in the South following the invention of the cotton gin in 1793. White Southerners forced slaves to work at the pace required in the cotton fields in order to turn high profits.
- Planters in the Upper South regularly sold their surplus slaves to cotton and sugar planters in the Deep South. The demand in the Deep South drove prices up so that by the later 1850s a prime field hand, who would have sold for \$600 in the early 1840s, commanded \$1,500.
- From the 1830s onward, after the Denmark Vesey conspiracy and Nat Turner’s Rebellion, the Southern states sharply reversed an earlier trend toward manumissions and the weakening of slavery in its legal definition. In these states, manumissions were almost impossible, and free blacks were either driven out or placed under strict controls.

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Question 3 — Information List (continued)

- Southern whites sought to make slavery more humane, hoping to prevent insurrections.
- In every decade after 1820 at least 150,000 slaves were uprooted either by slave trading or planter migration to new areas, and in the expansions of the 1830s and the 1850s the number reached a quarter of a million.
- Between 1820 and 1860 nearly 50 percent of the slave population of the Upper South was a part of the southern expansion.

Terms/Data

big house

Black Belt

black ivory

breakers (harsh owners/drivers)

Brear Rabbit

broad wives (wives on other plantations)

“Can see to can’t see” (work from sunup to sundown)

cotton gin

Cotton Belt

Equiano, Olaudah (former slave and author of *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano*, 1789)

gang system

Geechee (slave language of sea islands, corruption of Gizzis peoples of Africa)

“goober,” “gumbo,” “voodoo” come from Gullah

Gullah (slave language of sea islands, corruption of Angola)

hush harbors (slave religious practice centers)

Johnson, William (the “barber of Natchez,” mulatto slave owner in New Orleans)

paternalism (master attitude)

“patting juba” (slapping thighs in musical elements)

peculiar institution

Posser, Gabriel (1800)

responsorial style (religious services)

“Second Middle Passage” (internal migration of 19th century)

spirituals (“Steal Away to Jesus,” “Canaan, Sweet Canaan,” “Go Down Moses,” “Cross over Jordan”)

slave codes

slave pens (collection areas for slaves being sold internally)

“Sold down the river”

stinking weed

Stono Rebellion (Stono Bridge, South Carolina, 1739)

task system

Turner, Nat (1831)

Vesey, Denmark (1822)

“Until death or distance do you part” (slave wedding vow)

Whitney, Eli

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Question 4

Analyze the effectiveness of Progressive Era reformers in addressing problems of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In your answer, focus on reform efforts in TWO of the following areas.

- State and federal government
- The workplace
- Living conditions in cities

The 8–9 Essay

- Articulates a clear, well-constructed thesis that analyzes the effectiveness of Progressive Era reform efforts in addressing problems of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in two areas.
- Supports the thesis with substantial and relevant historical information related to the effectiveness of reform efforts in addressing problems during the time period.
- Provides effective analysis of the success of Progressive Era reformers in addressing problems in two areas.
- Is well organized and well written.
- May contain minor errors.

The 5–7 Essay

- Contains a thesis, which may be partially developed, that addresses the effectiveness of Progressive Era reform efforts in addressing the problems of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in two areas.
- Provides ample, relevant historical information related to reform efforts during the time period.
- Analyzes the effectiveness of Progressive Era reformers in the two areas; may present an unbalanced treatment of the two areas.
- Has acceptable organization and writing.
- May contain minor errors that do not seriously detract from the essay.

The 2–4 Essay

- Presents a thesis that may be simplistic, confused or undeveloped in addressing reform efforts of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in two areas, or addresses only one area.
- Provides little relevant information concerning reform efforts related to at least one area during the period.
- Has little analysis concerning reform efforts in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in at least one area.
- May contain major errors.
- May be poorly organized and/or written.

The 0–1 Essay

- Lacks a thesis or simply restates the question.
- Includes no relevant information.
- Contains no analysis.
- Is poorly organized and/or poorly written.
- May contain numerous errors, both major and minor.

The — Essay

- Is completely off topic or blank.

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Question 4 — General Comments

The question requires students to “analyze.” Analysis can be seen in a number of ways, including:

- placing the reform efforts within the two categories in historical context, such as the problems of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, any motivating causes of the reform efforts, and the results of the efforts;
- discussing the results of the reform efforts as being positive or negative; or
- comparing and contrasting reform efforts in different categories.

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Question 4 — Timeline

1887	Interstate Commerce Act passed, creating Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC).
1889	Jane Addams opens Hull House Social Settlement in Chicago.
1890	National Woman Suffrage Association and American Woman Suffrage Association merge.
1890	Wyoming enters United States; first state to grant women's suffrage.
1890	Yellowstone Park created.
1890	Sherman Anti-Trust Act passed, making contracts, combinations in the form of trusts, or conspiracy in restraint of trade or commerce among the several states or with foreign nations illegal.
1890	Jacob Riis publishes <i>How the Other Half Lives</i> .
1891	Populist Party formed.
1892	President Grover Cleveland wins second term.
1895	U.S. Supreme Court, in <i>United States v. E. C. Knight Co.</i> , holds the Sherman Anti-Trust Act applicable only to monopolies involved in interstate trade.
1895	Booker T. Washington gives accommodationist speech known as the Atlanta Compromise.
1896	William Jennings Bryan gives "Cross of Gold" speech.
1896	William McKinley elected president.
1896	John Dewey's laboratory school opens at the University of Chicago.
1898	U.S. Supreme Court, in <i>Holden v. Hardy</i> , upholds Utah's limiting of daily working hours of miners to eight.
1900	President William McKinley wins second term.
1901	McKinley shot and killed; Theodore Roosevelt becomes president.
1901	United Mine Workers strike; President Roosevelt summons both sides to White House and creates commission of arbitration to investigate miners' complaints and make recommendations.
1902	Ida Tarbell's <i>The History of the Standard Oil Company</i> published.
1902	Newland's Reclamation Act funds irrigation in 16 western states.
1903	Wisconsin adopts direct primary elections.
1903	Oregon passes 10-hour law for women.
1903	Elkins Act passed, declaring rebates on published freight rates illegal.
1903	National Women's Trade Union League formed to support efforts of women to organize labor unions and eliminate sweatshop conditions.
1904	U.S. Supreme Court, in <i>Northern Securities Co. v. United States</i> , holds that the company was violating the Sherman Anti-Trust Act.
1904	Theodore Roosevelt elected president and promises a Square Deal.
1904	New York City subway begins service.
1905	U.S. Supreme Court, in <i>Lochner v. New York</i> , strikes down a state law limiting the maximum working hours for bakers.
1905	Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) founded.
1905	Niagara Movement begins.
1906	Hepburn Act strengthens Interstate Commerce Act and permits regulation of rates charged by railroads.
1906	Meat Inspection Act and Pure Food and Drug Act passed.
1908	William Howard Taft elected president.
1908	U.S. Supreme Court, in <i>Muller v. Oregon</i> , upholds limiting the maximum number of hours a woman can work.
1908	<i>Loewe v. Lawlor</i> (Danbury Hatter's case) finds a labor boycott to be a conspiracy in restraint of trade.
1909	Payne–Aldrich Tariff passes; Progressives criticize Taft.

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Question 4 — Timeline (continued)

1909	National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) founded.
1909	Uprising of the 30,000 launches the union movement in the women's garment trades.
1910	Mann–Elkins Act passed, increasing the power of the ICC and extending ICC jurisdiction to telegraph and telephone companies.
1910	New York Bureau of Industries and Immigration established.
1910	Washington State adopts women's suffrage.
1910	Mann Act passed, prohibiting transportation of women across state lines for immoral purposes.
1911	Senator La Follette helps found the National Progressive Republican League, which advocates initiative, referendum, recall and direct primaries.
1911	Frederick Winslow Taylor's <i>The Principles of Scientific Management</i> published.
1911	Illinois law provides aid for mothers with dependent children.
1911	New York State Factory Commission established.
1911	Children's Bureau established in U.S. Labor Department.
1912	Massachusetts passes minimum-wage law for women and children.
1912	Bull Moose Party/Progressive Party formed.
1912	Woodrow Wilson elected president.
1913	Sixteenth Amendment, establishing graduated income tax, ratified.
1913	Seventeenth Amendment, establishing direct election of senators, ratified.
1913	Underwood Tariff Act passed, lowering tariffs.
1913	Owens–Glass Federal Reserve Act passed, creating 12 Federal Reserve regional banks and the Federal Reserve Board.
1913	Henry Ford institutes the \$5 day for his workers.
1913	Public Land Commission established to ascertain the location of large amounts of public land whose precise boundaries were unclear, making disposition of the land impossible.
1914	Federal Trade Commission Act passed.
1914	Clayton Anti-Trust Act passed, exempting unions from antitrust laws and making strikes, picketing and boycotting legal.
1916	Keating–Owen Act passed, limiting child labor.
1916	Woodrow Wilson reelected president.
1916	Margaret Sanger forms the New York Birth Control League.
1918	U.S. Supreme Court strikes down the Keating–Owen Act.
1919	Eighteenth Amendment, banning manufacture, sale and distribution of alcohol, ratified.
1919	Volstead Act (National Prohibition Act) passed, enabling the U.S. government to enforce the Eighteenth Amendment.
1920	Nineteenth Amendment, providing for women's suffrage, ratified.

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Question 4 — Information List

Problems of Late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries

- bad trusts/ruthless monopolistic business practices
- corrupt city governments/machines
- exploitation of child labor
- health hazards/poor sanitation/impure food and water
- industrialization
- low wages
- prostitution
- overindulgence in alcohol
- unsafe working conditions

Efforts to Reform State and Federal Government

- Ballinger–Pinchot controversy
- Bryan, William Jennings — “Cross of Gold” speech
- Bull Moose Campaign
- Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization (1906)
- Catt, Carrie Chapman, and National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA)
- Clayton Anti-Trust Act (1914)
- Commons, John, and the Wisconsin Industrial Commission
- disfranchisement of immigrants and of African Americans via literacy tests and poll taxes
- Du Bois, W. E. B., and the Niagara Movement
- electoral reform: direct primary, initiative, referendum, Australian ballot, personal registration laws
- Elkins Act (1903) — rebates on published freight rates illegal
- Federal Industrial Relations Commission (1913)
- Federal Reserve Act (1913)
- *Guinn v. United States* (1915)
- Hepburn Act (1906) — strengthening of Interstate Commerce Act
- Hughes, Charles Evans — New York governor
- Interstate Commerce Act (1887)
- Jim Crow laws
- Keating–Owen Act — limits on child labor; later struck down by U.S. Supreme Court
- La Follette, Robert, and Wisconsin Progressivism
 - controls on railroads and public utilities
 - higher taxes on railroads and corporations
 - state employment merit system
 - La Follette a founder of the National Progressive Republican League
- Lippmann, Walter — *Drift and Mastery* (1914)
- Mann–Elkins Act — increased power of ICC to regulate telephone and telegraph
- Muckrakers — Jacob Riis, Upton Sinclair, Lincoln Steffens, Ida M. Tarbell
- National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)
- National Forest Service
- National Urban League
- New Freedom
- New Nationalism
- Nineteenth Amendment (1920)

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Question 4 — Information List (continued)

- *Northern Securities Co. v. United States* — Northern Securities violated Sherman Anti-Trust Act
- Paul, Alice, and the National Women's Party
- Populist Party
- Progressive Party
- Public Lands Commission (1903)
- Roosevelt, Theodore
- Seventeenth Amendment (1913)
- Sherman Anti-Trust Act (1890)
- Sixteenth Amendment (1913)
- Smith, Alfred E.
- Square Deal
- Underwood Tariff Act (1913) and the progressive income tax
- *United States v. E. C. Knight Co.* — Sherman Anti-Trust Act applies only to monopolies involved in interstate trade
- Wagner, Robert F.
- Wilson, Woodrow
- Wyoming grants women the right to vote (1890); Colorado, Idaho and Utah follow

Efforts to Reform the Workplace

- Adamson Act (1916) guaranteeing railroad workers an eight-hour day
- American Federation of Labor
- assembly line
- Bureau of Labor's Children's Bureau
- Ford, Henry
- *Holden v. Hardy* — upholds limiting daily working hours of miners to eight hours
- Industrial Workers of the World
- Keating–Owen Act — outlaws child labor; later struck down by U.S. Supreme Court
- Kern–McGillicuddy Act — workmen's compensation for federal workers
- Knights of Labor
- *Lochner v. New York* — strikes down state law limiting maximum working hours for bakers
- National Education Association (1905)
- Oregon 10-hour law for women; later upheld in *Muller v. Oregon*
- National Women's Trade Union League
- Schneidermann, Rose
- Taylor, Frederick Winslow — *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911)
- Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire
- United Mine Workers strike

Efforts to Reform Living Conditions in Cities

- Anti-Saloon League
- Ashcan School
- Eighteenth Amendment
- Food and Drug Administration
- Griffith, D. W. — *Birth of a Nation*
- Meat Inspection Act (1906)

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Question 4 — Information List (continued)

- movie theaters
- Pure Food and Drug Act (1906)
- Riis, Jacob — *How the Other Half Lives*
- Sanger, Margaret
- Settlement Houses; Jane Addams and Hull House
- Sierra Club
- Sinclair, Upton — *The Jungle*
- social justice movement
- Women's Christian Temperance Union

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Question 5

Analyze the effects of the Vietnam War on TWO of the following in the United States in the period from 1961 to 1975.

- The presidency
- The population between 18 and 35 years old
- Cold War diplomacy

The 8–9 Essay

- Articulates a clear, well-constructed thesis that explains how the Vietnam War affected two of the three elements (the presidency, the population between 18 and 35 years old, Cold War diplomacy) between 1961 and 1975.
- Supports the thesis with substantial, relevant information that illustrates how the war in Vietnam affected the two features selected.
- Effectively analyzes how the Vietnam War affected those items between 1961 and 1975.
- Provides a balanced treatment of the two subjects.
- Is well organized and well written.
- May contain minor errors.

The 5–7 Essay

- Contains a clear thesis, which may be partially developed, that explains how the Vietnam War impacted two of the three elements between 1961 and 1975.
- Provides ample, relevant information that illustrates how the war in Vietnam affected the two features selected.
- Analyzes the Vietnam War's effects on the items selected.
- May be unbalanced in its coverage.
- Is acceptably organized and written.
- May contain errors that do not seriously detract from the essay.

The 2–4 Essay

- Presents a thesis that may be simplistic, confused or undeveloped in terms of explaining how the Vietnam War affected the element(s) selected.
- Provides little or no relevant information to support the thesis.
- Has little analysis or is largely generalized or descriptive.
- May treat only one aspect of the question.
- May be poorly organized and poorly written.
- May contain major errors.

The 0–1 Essay

- Lacks a thesis or merely restates the question.
- Includes no relevant information.
- Contains no analysis.
- Is poorly organized and/or poorly written.
- May contain numerous errors, both major and minor.

The — Essay

- Is completely off topic or blank.

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Question 5 — Information List

The Presidency

- Although U.S. participation in Vietnam dates from 1950, the years between 1961 and 1975 occupy center stage in the Vietnam narrative. During these years four presidents — two Democrats and two Republicans — are responsible for U.S. conduct in Vietnam, and each hands off to his successor a situation that is worse than the one he inherited.
- The Vietnam War diminishes Americans' faith in their government. It shatters the liberal consensus and ends the Age of Roosevelt, making possible the Age of Reagan and the conservative resurgence of the 1980s and 1990s.
- The war raises social tensions by contributing to the culture wars that have characterized U.S. politics for nearly four decades, making it difficult for Americans to make common cause to address challenges.
- Dwight Eisenhower articulates the “domino theory” regarding Vietnam.
- Congress approves the Tonkin Gulf Resolution, giving Lyndon Johnson carte blanche to pursue war against North Vietnam without a formal declaration of war.
- Johnson begins considering a policy of détente toward the Soviet Union and China with the hopes of affecting the Vietnam War.
- Richard Nixon embraces the notions of limits, realpolitik and détente regarding the Vietnam War. He issues the Nixon Doctrine, indicating that nations must be willing to shoulder responsibility for defending their own areas.
- The Pentagon Papers are published, revealing a legacy of deception on the part of the executive branch and the U.S. military. The Nixon administration sues to halt publication, but that effort is denied by the Supreme Court.
- Congress passes the War Powers Act, curtailing the president's ability to commit U.S. forces, in hopes of scaling back the imperial presidency.
- White House staffers H. R. Haldeman and John Ehrlichman resign due to Watergate revelations. The existence of a White House taping system is revealed. John Dean reports that Nixon was intimately involved in the Watergate affair. Nixon refuses to turn over White House tapes to investigators. Nixon fires the special prosecutor in the “Saturday Night Massacre.” A gap of 18½ minutes is discovered in the revealed White House tapes.
- The Senate committee investigating Nixon, headed by Sam Irvin, demands complete disclosure from the president.

The Population between 18 and 35 Years Old

- More than 58,000 Americans are killed, another 300,000 wounded and countless others irrevocably changed by the war.
- The war in Southeast Asia produces a crisis of the spirit that will gnaw at Americans for over 25 years. Vietnam leads Americans to question their history in ways that cast doubt on many of the country's core beliefs. Vietnam challenges notions of American exceptionalism and the morality of its behaviors.
- Some 40,000 Americans protest the escalation of the Vietnam War in a “March on Washington.”
- The first “teach-in,” featuring seminars, rallies and speeches, is held at the University of Michigan.
- The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) reports that conscription falls most heavily on the poor and minorities. The group calls for a withdrawal of all U.S. military forces from Vietnam.
- At the University of Wisconsin students demand that recruiters from Dow Chemical, the producer of napalm, no longer be allowed on campus.
- At Kent State University members of the National Guard open fire on, and kill, four students during demonstrations protesting the war.

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Question 5 — Information List (continued)

Cold War Diplomacy

- Vietnam suddenly is seen as vital to U.S. security and international credibility.
- Vietnam alienates the United States from much of the world, unravels Cold War solidarity, and, for a time, discredits the U.S. military.
- Lyndon Johnson considers a policy of détente toward the Soviet Union and China with the hopes of affecting the Vietnam War.
- Nixon embraces the notions of limits, realpolitik and détente regarding the war. He issues the Nixon Doctrine, indicating that nations must be willing to shoulder responsibility for defending their own areas.
- To force North Vietnam's hand in the peace negotiations, Nixon orders expanded bombing of targets in and around Hanoi and Haiphong and lets it be known that no part of North Vietnam will escape attacks by B-52s.
- Nixon travels to Russia and China. He attempts to use both to end the Vietnam War.

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Question 5 —Timeline

1945

- Ho Chi Minh creates provisional government, declares independence.
- British forces land in Saigon and return authority to the French.
- First American killed by Viet Minh (case of mistaken identity).

1946

- France recognizes Vietnam as a “free state” within the French Union.
- Negotiations between French and Viet Minh break down; war begins.

1949

- France commits to Bao Dai, emperor of Vietnam, and works to build anticommunist army.

1950

- China offers Viet Minh support.
- United States pledges \$15 million and sends military advisors to assist the French in Vietnam.

1954

- French forces defeated at Dien Bien Phu.
- Eisenhower articulates the domino theory regarding Vietnam.
- Geneva Accords: Hostilities cease, Vietnam is divided at seventeenth parallel, and nationwide elections are scheduled for 1956.
- Bao Dai and the United States do not accept the accords.

1955

- Ngo Dinh Diem becomes leader of South Vietnam; defeats Bao Dai in a rigged election.
- Diem rejects Geneva Accords and refuses to participate in nationwide elections.
- Diem refuses to negotiate with the North despite urgings from the United States, Britain and France.

1956

- French leave Vietnam; U.S. Military Assistance Advisory Group (MAAG) takes over the training of South Vietnamese forces.

1957

- Communist insurgency in South Vietnam begins. Thirty-seven armed companies are organized along the Mekong Delta and begin guerrilla activities.
- Terrorist bombings in Saigon; 13 Americans are injured.

1959

- North Vietnam forms Group 559; begins infiltrating men and weapons into South Vietnam on the Ho Chi Minh Trail.
- U.S. servicemen killed in guerrilla attack at Bien Hoa.
- Diem begins crackdown on communists and dissidents.

1960

- John Kennedy elected president of the United States.
- Diem survives coup attempt.

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Question 5 —Timeline (continued)

- North Vietnam begins universal military conscription.
- National Liberation Front for South Vietnam (NLF) organized in Hanoi. Diem dubs them “Viet Cong” (Vietnamese communists).

1961

- Vice President Lyndon Johnson tours Vietnam; assures Diem that Vietnam is vital to U.S. interests in Asia and refers to Diem as the “Churchill of Asia.”

1962

- U.S. military begins use of Agent Orange.
- Diem’s palace is bombed in coup attempt.
- Senate Majority Leader Mike Mansfield reports to Kennedy that Diem is wasting U.S. money; raises doubts about Vietnam policy.
- Pacifists protest the Vietnam War in New York and Philadelphia.

1963

- Viet Cong defeat South Vietnamese Army at Ap Bac.
- Buddhists begin protests against Diem after he removes Buddhists from key posts and replaces them with Catholics; protests include self-immolation by fire.
- Diem is overthrown and murdered by members of the South Vietnamese military; United States tacitly approves the coup.
- Kennedy is murdered in Dallas; responsibility for Vietnam passes to Johnson.

1964

- Junta leader General Van Minh is overthrown by General Khanh; Van Minh is placed under house arrest and becomes a political figurehead.
- On August 2 the U.S.S. *Maddox* is attacked in what comes to be known as the Tonkin Gulf Incident.
- A second “incident” occurs on August 4.
- On August 7 Congress approves the Tonkin Gulf Resolution, giving Johnson carte blanche to pursue war against North Vietnam without a formal declaration of war.
- Viet Cong attack Bien Hoa air base.
- Lyndon Johnson elected president in a landslide; his victory is based in part on the appearance that he is leaning toward de-escalation in Vietnam.

1965

- Operation Rolling Thunder begins in February, marking the beginning of continuous air raids over North Vietnam that go on for three years.
- The first U.S. combat troops, the 9th Marine Expeditionary Brigade, arrive in South Vietnam; they are assigned to defend the airfield at Da Nang.
- The first conventional battle of the Vietnam War takes place in the Ia Drang Valley. The U.S. First Air Cavalry defeats the North Vietnamese Army (NVA), with heavy casualties on both sides.
- U.S. troop levels exceed 200,000.
- Some 40,000 Americans protest the escalation of the Vietnam War in a “March on Washington.”
- The first “teach-in,” featuring seminars, rallies and speeches, is held at the University of Michigan.
- In May a nationally broadcast teach-in reaches faculty and students at over 100 college campuses.

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Question 5 —Timeline (continued)

1966

- U.S. B-52s are used for the first time to bomb North Vietnam and disrupt movement along the Mugia Pass, a main route used by the NVA to send men and supplies into South Vietnam via Laos.
- Johnson meets with South Vietnamese Premier Nguyen Cao Ky in Hawaii; Johnson promises continued aid contingent on government progress toward political democracy and economic opportunity.
- Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) reports that conscription falls most heavily on the poor and minorities; calls for a withdrawal of all U.S. military forces from Vietnam.
- Veterans of previous wars stage a protest rally in New York City. Veterans symbolically burn discharge and separation papers to protest U.S. involvement in Vietnam.

1967

- Operation Cedar Falls, a joint effort by U.S. and South Vietnamese troops, attempts to destroy Viet Cong forces and operational sites around Saigon.
- In an area referred to as the Iron Triangle, a massive tunnel complex is discovered that is thought to be the headquarters of the Viet Cong.
- Ellsworth Bunker replaces Henry Cabot Lodge as U.S. ambassador to South Vietnam.
- Secretary of Defense McNamara commissions the Pentagon Papers.
- Martin Luther King Jr. speaks out against the Vietnam War, calling the United States “the greatest purveyor of violence in the world.” He urges resistance to the draft and a merging of civil rights and antiwar groups
- At the University of Wisconsin students demand that recruiters from Dow Chemical, the producer of napalm, no longer be allowed on campus.
- Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara testifies before a Senate subcommittee that U.S. bombing of North Vietnam has failed to achieve its objectives.
- McNamara adds that supply movements have not been stopped, and that neither the economy nor the morale of the North Vietnamese has been broken.
- Johnson begins considering a policy of détente toward the Soviet Union and China, with the hopes of affecting the Vietnam War.

1968

- January — Prince Sihanouk allows the United States to pursue Viet Cong into Cambodia. North Vietnam launches the Tet Offensive. Tet is a military victory for the United States but a political defeat as Americans question the military’s assessment that the “end of the tunnel” is near.
- February — Battle of Hue takes place; General William Westmoreland requests 206,000 more troops.
- March — My Lai Massacre occurs. Following a strong showing by Eugene McCarthy in the New Hampshire primary, Lyndon Johnson announces he will not seek re-election.
- April — Martin Luther King Jr. is murdered in Memphis; rioting ensues.
- May — Paris Peace Talks begin on May 10. Averell Harriman represents the United States; Xuan Thuy speaks for North Vietnam.
- June — Robert Kennedy is assassinated in Los Angeles.
- August — Upheaval occurs at the Democratic National Convention in Chicago; the nation watches as the area around the convention erupts in violence.
- November — With the inclusion of third-party candidate George Wallace in the presidential race, Richard Nixon barely defeats Hubert Humphrey.

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Question 5 —Timeline (continued)

1969

- Nixon begins Operation Breakfast, the secret bombing of Cambodia, to destroy communist supply routes and base camps. The campaign lasts 14 months.
- Secretary of Defense Melvin Laird announces that the U.S. military's role in Vietnam will be down scaled in a policy of "Vietnamization" of the conflict.
- The United States inaugurates a lottery system for the Selective Service draft.
- Ho Chi Minh dies at age 79.
- Nixon embraces the notions of limits, realpolitik and détente regarding the Vietnam War. He issues the Nixon Doctrine, indicating that nations must be willing to shoulder responsibility for defending their own areas.
- The journalist Seymour Hersh breaks the story of the My Lai massacre. Lieutenant William Calley is charged with murder.
- A massive antiwar demonstration is held in Washington, D.C.

1970

- Nixon rekindles the antiwar movement by announcing that U.S. forces have invaded Cambodia.
- The president expands domestic intelligence agencies to gather information on his political opponents.
- Prince Sihanouk's attempts to maintain Cambodia's neutrality through opportunistic alliances ends when he is ousted in a coup by Defense Minister Lon Nol.
- At Kent State University members of the National Guard open fire on, and kill, four students during demonstrations protesting the Vietnam War.
- Henry Kissinger and Le Duc Tho begin secret talks to try to end the war.
- U.S. troop strength in Vietnam falls below 280,000.

1971

- William Calley is convicted of murder for his role in the My Lai massacre.
- The Pentagon Papers are published, revealing a legacy of deception on the part of the executive branch and the U.S. military. The Nixon administration sues to halt publication, but the Supreme Court denies that effort.
- The office of Daniel Ellsberg's psychiatrist is burglarized by the "Plumbers," a group organized by members of the Nixon White House.

1972

- Nixon orders U.S. troop strength reduced by 70,000 in reaction to Democratic charges that he is not moving fast enough to end U.S. involvement in Vietnam.
- The existence of the secret negotiations between the United States and North Vietnam is revealed.
- The Christmas bombing takes place; to force North Vietnam's hand in the peace negotiations, Nixon orders expanded bombing of targets in and around Hanoi and Haiphong and lets it be known that no part of North Vietnam will escape attacks by B-52s.
- Nixon travels to Russia and China and attempts to use both to end the Vietnam War.
- The Watergate break-in occurs.
- *Washington Post* reporters Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein reveal complexities of the campaign of political sabotage undertaken by the Committee to Re-elect the President (CREEP) to ensure Nixon's re-election.

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Question 5 —Timeline (continued)

- Kissinger and Le Duc Tho reach an agreement on principle in several areas leading to a cease-fire in Vietnam; Kissinger announces that “peace is at hand.”
- South Vietnamese President Thieu comes out publically against the agreement penned by Kissinger and Le Duc Tho.
- Nixon wins reelection in a landslide.

1973

- Cease-fire is signed in Paris. Nixon announces that the agreement arrived at between Kissinger and Tho “brings peace with honor in Vietnam and Southeast Asia.”
- The United States ends conscription and begins the era of the all-volunteer military.
- The last U.S. troops leave Vietnam.
- The Senate Armed Services Committee opens hearings on the U.S. bombing of Cambodia. Revelations about the episode result in a congressional order to end all further attacks.
- Kissinger and Le Duc Tho are awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. Tho declines the prize, insisting that true peace does not yet exist; Kissinger accepts the award.
- Congress passes the War Powers Act, curtailing the president’s ability to commit American forces, in hopes of scaling back the imperial presidency.
- White House staffers H. R. Haldeman and John Ehrlichman resign due to Watergate revelations. The existence of a White House taping system is revealed. John Dean reports that President Nixon was intimately involved in the Watergate affair. Nixon refuses to turn over White House tapes to investigators. Nixon fires the special prosecutor in the “Saturday Night Massacre.” A gap of 18½ minutes is discovered in revealed White House tapes.
- The Senate committee investigating Nixon, headed by Sam Irvin, demands complete disclosure from the president.
- Trials related to the Watergate scandal are overseen by Judge John Sirica.

1974

- President Thieu announces a renewal of the war against the NLF.
- The National Academy of Sciences reports on the long-term environmental damage that has been done to Vietnam as a result of the use of Agent Orange and other chemicals.
- Inquiries begin to focus on the connection between Agent Orange and reports of cancer and other diseases among U.S. military personnel who were exposed to it.
- Communist forces take control of the Mekong Delta.
- Nixon is forced to resign as a result of the inquiry into the Watergate scandal; Gerald Ford becomes president.
- NLF forces begin organizing for a major offensive in the South.

1975

- Communist forces capture Phuoc Long Province, a key area north of Saigon. The lack of a U.S. response is seen as an indication that the communists can progress more aggressively in the South.
- The city of Hue falls to the communists.
- The NVA begins the Ho Chi Minh Campaign to “liberate” Saigon, under the leadership of General Dung.
- Anticipating the fall of Saigon, President Ford announces that the Vietnam War is “finished.”

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Question 5 —Timeline (continued)

- South Vietnamese President Duong Van Minh delivers a document of unconditional surrender to the communists in April. As the remaining Americans evacuate, the final two U.S. military personnel to die in Vietnam are killed in a helicopter crash.

1976–1980

- Pham Van Dong is chosen as the first prime minister of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam. The nation's capital is Hanoi.
- Jimmy Carter is elected president of the United States. He pardons draft evaders from the Vietnam conflict.
- Vietnam is admitted to the United Nations.
- Relations between China and Vietnam sour. China invades, then withdraws from, Vietnam.
- Swarms of Vietnamese “boat people” flee Vietnam.
- The U.S. General Accounting Office, following years of Defense Department denials, releases a report detailing the impact of Agent Orange on American forces.
- Ronald Reagan is elected president.

1981–1985

- Vietnam Memorial in Washington, D.C., is dedicated.
- Reagan promises to make Americans missing in action (MIA) in Vietnam the nation's “highest national priority.”
- Dow Chemical knowledge of the dangers of Agent Orange is acknowledged.
- “Unknown Soldier” of the Vietnam War is laid to rest.
- Vietnamese political prisoners are offered asylum in the United States.