13,000 BC–1990: The Orange County Great Park

Walkable Historical Timeline Handbook
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by Dr. Keith L. Nelson and Dr. Spencer C. Olin
Professors Emeriti of History
University of California, Irvine
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By Dr. Keith L. Nelson and Dr. Spencer C. Olin

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The Walkable Historical Timeline is a major component of a larger public history program at the Great Park that includes substantial archival and architectural preservation, an extensive oral history collection, and comprehensive photographic documentation of the former Marine Corps Air Station at El Toro. It serves as a strong intellectual “spine” for the entire Great Park and introduces visitors to one hundred and sixty two significant events in global, national, state, and regional history.

The Walkable Historical Timeline is presented in three sections: (1) “The Origins of Our Time,” which covers a vast span of human history from the arrival of our species in the Americas during roughly 13,000–11,000 BC to the troubled 1930s; (2) “An Age of Global War, 1939–1949,” which focuses on the decade during which the former Marine Corps Air Station at El Toro was established and fulfilled important wartime missions in World War II and the early Cold War; and (3) “The Cold War, 1950 to 1990,” which deals with the years of the increasingly intense conflict that developed after the Korean War between nations of the democratic world (led by the United States) and those of the Communist world (of which the Soviet Union and People’s Republic of China were the most powerful). Interestingly, when the Cold War ended peacefully in 1990 (thus making the closure of Marine Corps Air Station El Toro possible), it marked one of the few times in world history that major powers terminated their struggles without waging armed conflict directly against each other.

In selecting Timeline entries we have been guided by several considerations. The first is geographical, since we have chosen, especially in the third (more recent) section, to focus disproportionately upon events relating to our immediate Orange County region, California, and the United States. A second consideration relates to time. While the Timeline incorporates many significant developments from earlier times, it is structured to emphasize modern, and especially twentieth century, history. A third consideration is topical. We thought it important to select events that highlight social and cultural changes as well as economic, political, and military innovations.

Our list of notable events is intended to be suggestive rather than exhaustive. We fully realize that anyone visiting the Timeline might make somewhat different selections, even if their criteria for choice were similar to our own. This is one reason we provide a Handbook Guide to accompany you as you explore the Timeline. It includes brief descriptions which we hope will clarify each entry’s significance while provoking further inquiry among its readers regarding the deeper meanings of these and alternative turning points in human history. Milestone headlines pertaining to Orange County are highlighted with this orange “OC” icon:

In future years the Walkable Historical Timeline will be expanded to include visual exhibits, artifacts, and interactive experiences such as music and film. It will thereby serve as yet another physical place within the Great Park that is accessible and attractive to everyone. We hope you enjoy and learn from the Timeline and invite you to watch it grow in coming years.

Keith L. Nelson and Spencer C. Olin
Professors Emeriti of History
University of California, Irvine
THE ORIGINS OF OUR TIME
Pre-History and the Ancient World

13,000–11,000 BC
Humans Reach the Americas

Anthropologists and geneticists tell us that, originating in Africa roughly 200,000 years ago, our species (homo sapiens) began migrations into the Eurasian continents about 70,000 years ago, reaching China and Australia 45,000 years ago and southern Europe 40,000 years ago. Our arrival in the Americas occurred after the last ice age, about 15,000 years ago. Researchers believe that Native American ancestors came from Asia in three waves of migration after the melting of the glaciers that blocked passage from Siberia to Alaska and before rising waters submerged a land bridge. Most native languages spoken in North and South America were derived from the mother tongue of the first migrants. Two later waves brought speakers of Eskimo-Aleut and Na-Dene, languages spoken by Chipewyans, Apaches, and Navajos.

SEE FIGURE 1

9000–5000 BC
Agricultural Revolution

Following the last ice age, domestication of plants and animals evolved independently in various parts of the world and transformed migratory groups of hunter-gatherers into societies of agriculture and settlement. These in turn provided the organizational basis for storage of surplus food, population growth, trade, art, architecture, and centralized political structures. Cereals were common staples of early agriculture. By 9000 BC wheat and barley were domesticated in the Tigris-Euphrates valley and spread as crops into North Africa, Europe, and central and south Asia. In succeeding millennia broomcorn, millet, and rice were raised in China. Areas of Africa were known for millets and rice. In the Americas corn, beans, and squash were grown beginning about 7500 BC, but sedentary life based on farming did not develop until the second millennium BC.

2500 BC
Pyramids Constructed in Egypt

By 3000 BC, as the world's first urban culture appeared in southern Mesopotamia, an equally complex civilization was forming along the Nile River. The world's first pictographic writing had appeared in Sumer after 3300 BC and within 400 years evolved into a script called cuneiform. In Egypt, the early years of the third millennium BC were characterized by hieroglyphic writing, a sophisticated religion, and mummification of the dead. Egyptian society became strongly hierarchical, with kings believed to have been chosen by the gods as mediators between two worlds. Symbolic of this special status were 138 pyramids constructed as royal tombs in the middle centuries of the third millennium BC. The first of these, the step pyramid at Saqqara, dates
from 2650 BC. The three famous pyramids of Giza date from the 2500’s. The largest of the Giza pyramids is 481 feet high and contains 2.3 million stone blocks. Egyptian farmers rather than slaves probably provided the labor.

SEE FIGURE 2

1400 BC

Moses

The Jews, like other ethnic Semites including Arabs, trace their ancestry to Abram (Abraham), who lived during the second millennia BC. According to Hebrew scripture, Abram was summoned by God to take his family from Mesopotamia to the land of the Canaanites (modern day Israel and Palestine). Generations later, having been drawn into the Nile delta by drought and famine, the Jews found themselves enslaved by the Egyptians. It was here that Moses, a Jew raised by Egyptian royalty, heeded a call from God to lead his people on an exodus through the Sinai — where God conveyed Ten Commandments and established a Covenant with Israel. Moses died after years of wandering the desert, having brought the Jews within sight of the Promised Land. After 1400 BC, Joshua would lead the successful re-entry into Canaan and establish the Jews in the hill country, where under tribal leaders and kings, and balanced among competing powers, they maintained their independence for more than 600 years.

SEE FIGURE 3

563–483 BC

The Buddha in India

551–479 BC

Confucius in China

Philosophy burst upon India and China simultaneously in the sixth century before the Christian era. In India a polytheistic worship based on sacred literature (Vedas) had become embedded in rituals conducted by and for a priestly class. This early Hindu orthodoxy was now challenged by ethical alternatives, especially Buddhism. Its founder, Siddhartha Gautama, was born a prince but in early life became pre-occupied with human suffering. Achieving enlightenment, i.e. becoming the Buddha, through meditation, he recognized a close connection between suffering and desire and sought to minimize the latter through self-discipline and restraint. This perspective was the root of a belief system that in succeeding centuries spread in various forms throughout India, Southeast Asia, China, Korea, and Japan. In the Chinese empire it encountered, temporarily replaced, and was ultimately supplanted by Confucian thought. Confucius, a contemporary of the Buddha, was the first and most widely known Chinese philosopher. As a teacher, he stressed two worldly virtues: proper conduct and benevolent love.

509 BC – 476 AD

Roman Republic and Empire

The empires of the Middle East after 3000 BC — in Mesopotamia, Egypt, Asia Minor, Persia, India — arose in river valleys and areas of regional trade. By contrast, the first and greatest empire in the west — the Roman, developed after 750 BC around the Mediterranean Sea. It took Rome 500 years to conquer Italy but only half that time to absorb Spain, Gaul, Britain, Germany, the Balkans, North Africa, and areas of western Asia. Organized as a republic in 509 BC, Rome featured consuls elected by patricians, a senate of elders, tribunes representing the people, and a legal code. Nevertheless, the republic was undermined by Rome’s huge expansion, concentration of wealth, constant wars, and a crisis in military manpower. Political violence flared after 91 BC, followed by civil wars among military leaders that culminated in the establishment of centralized authority under Augustus in 27 BC. For the next five centuries, until the western empire was overrun by barbarian invaders, Rome was ruled by emperors, some extraordinarily able, many brutal and ineffective.

SEE FIGURE 3

490–404 BC

Classic Greece at its Peak

By the 8th century BC Greece had developed trading centers and an extended network of colonies in the Black Sea and western Mediterranean. This unusual expansion produced a unique culture, secular and individualistic, featuring speculation about nature and careful methods of observation and inference. In the 5th century BC, after the Persian Empire had expanded into Asia Minor, the cities of mainland Greece fought off Persian attack and emerged with astonishing victories. Afterwards Athens took the lead in organizing a defensive league, generating proceeds sufficient to support the world’s first democratic government, construction of the Parthenon, and military expansion in the Aegean. Sparta responded by leading an alliance of city-states against Athens in a 50 year war that ended in mutual exhaustion. Greek art, culture, and philosophy, reflected in the achievements of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, remained highly regarded. When Alexander the Great of Macedonia invaded and conquered Persia after 336 BC, he carried many Greek ideas with him to the Middle East.
206 BC – 220 AD
Han Dynasty in China

A ruthless ruler of the Ch’in state achieved unification of China after 221 BC, but upon his death a new more moderate type of imperial rule emerged. Founded by the rebel leader Liu Bang (known as Emperor Gao) and spanning four centuries, the Han dynasty is considered a golden age in Chinese history. The first generations of Han China were mainly concerned with recovery from earlier civil wars. This changed with the ascendance of Emperor Wu (140–87 BC), who created an enduring bureaucracy and gave Confucians control of education and court politics. Wu also initiated an aggressive foreign policy, placing outposts in Central Asia and establishing a trade route (the Silk Road) that extended to the Roman Empire. After an interruption of 16 years, the Han dynasty returned to power after 25 AD, its rule now characterized by growing individual and regional independence. It was during the second Han period that Buddhism first gained widespread acceptance in China, achieving a popularity that would last several centuries.

ca 4 BC – 26 AD
Jesus of Nazareth

Scholars estimate that Jesus of Nazareth was born several years before the beginning of the Christian era (the calendar was erroneously calculated much later) and entered upon his ministry at about age 30. He grew up in Galilee in northern Palestine, where he preached, taught, and healed. Jesus’ beliefs had much in common with the ethical teachings of earlier Jews. He asserted that he had not come to set aside the Law and Prophets, but to fulfill their promise. Insisting that the Kingdom of God was at hand, he called for repentance and new emphasis on love of God and neighbor. He ran afoul of the religious leaders of his day, and when he dared to challenge them in Jerusalem, they put him to death. Within days, however, his followers became convinced Jesus had risen from the dead. In succeeding years, belief in his divinity spread widely. Ardent missionaries such as the apostle Paul conveyed his gospel throughout the Roman Empire.

SEE FIGURE 4

300–900 AD
Mayan Civilization in Central America

Following the collapse of early Guatemalan and Mexican kingdoms in the third century, the region witnessed the emergence of an impressive Mayan civilization. A number of cities appeared that shared three architectural features — stone shafts commemorating important dates, pyramids and platforms grouped around large courts, and monumental sculpture. The cities were not urban in our sense of the word but rather ceremonial centers occupied by a priesthood and ruling class. Religion was the most important factor in Mayan life, founded on an appreciation of orderliness and moderation. The Mayans were far ahead of other new world cultures in hieroglyphic writing. They led both old world and new in astronomy. Then, astonishingly, between 800 and 900 AD, the great cities of Yucatan and Guatemala were gradually abandoned. Among the explanations scholars have offered are soil exhaustion and disease, but the most probable explanation is that the common people revolted and drove out or massacred the priest-rulers. Lacking leadership, the peasant population reverted to a simpler life.

312 AD
Constantine Converts to Christianity

For almost 300 years, as Christians struggled to define their beliefs, they were confronted with persecution on the part of the Roman public and state. Twice in the third century successive emperors strove vigorously to stamp out the Christian faith. Early in the fourth century Diocletian initiated an extraordinarily sweeping persecution. All of this changed in 312 when the emperor Constantine, on the eve of a battle in which he established his political supremacy, had the vision to which he attributed his conversion to Christianity. In a development that proved to be a major turning point in European history, Constantine granted freedom of religion throughout the empire and encouraged the growth of the Christian church. In 325 he convened the Council of Nicea to formulate Christian doctrine and personally directed much of its work. In 337 he chose to be baptized on his deathbed in his new capital, Constantinople. Christianity’s status had been transformed.

Figure 4. The Last Supper by Leonardo da Vinci. Image courtesy of Wikimedia Commons.
Mohammed’s Flight (Hegira) from Mecca

Mohammed was born in 570 in Mecca, where he lived and worked and, in his fortieth year, began to receive divine revelations that were later collected in the Quran, the primary Muslim religious text. At age 43 he disclosed his revelations publicly, proclaiming that God was one and that submission (Islam) to God was necessary. Mohammed viewed himself as a prophet who had recovered the monotheism that Moses, Jesus, and others had preached but that their followers had lost. He was largely rejected by the Meccans, and in 622 (in what became the first year of the Muslim calendar) he and supporters fled to Medina, where he soon united the local tribes. In 630 his followers conquered Mecca, moving on from there to subdue most of the Arabian Peninsula. Shortly after Mohammed’s death in 632, Muslim armies penetrated Syria and defeated Byzantine forces, capturing Jerusalem in 638 and subsequently occupying Persia. In the following century the armies of the ruling caliphs extended Islamic rule as far as Spain and central Africa.

Normans Conquer England

Roman withdrawal from Britain from 410 to 442 was followed by a 150 year influx of Jutes, Angles, and Saxons that pushed the Celts back to Scotland, Wales, and Cornwall. By the early seventh century several relatively large Anglo-Saxon kingdoms developed, though these in turn were threatened after 850 by the arrival of Viking invaders from the Baltic. By the 11th century a relatively united kingdom emerged, first under Danish kings, then under monarchs of the Wessex line. The history of England took a massive turn in 1066, when William, Duke of Normandy, himself of Viking descent, crossed the Channel and defeated a defending army at the Battle of Hastings. The Normans introduced many changes, establishing a more systematic form of English feudalism, constructing garrison castles, imposing royal supervision of sheriffs, creating new governmental councils, and disciplining monastic orders.

Christian Crusades Seize the Holy Land

The 1100s found Western Europe and the Arab world on different trajectories. Christian Western Europe was staging a remarkable economic, demographic, and intellectual comeback from the dark ages that followed the collapse of the Roman Empire. The second Muslim caliphate (the Abbasid) was suffering sectarian division and had clearly declined since the 9th, 10th and 11th centuries, when it led the world in philosophy, theology, astronomy, mathematics, and law. The Seljuk Turks were displacing the Arabs as the dominant Islamic culture, moving from the north into Persia, Armenia, and Asia Minor. In 1055 the Seljuks captured Baghdad and 16 years later won a military victory over the Christian Byzantines that prompted the Emperor in Constantinople to appeal to the West for assistance. In 1095 Pope Urban II responded by summoning the princes of his region to recapture the Holy Land. The first crusade reached and took Jerusalem in 1099, and for almost a century a Christian kingdom survived in that city. Smaller Christian fiefdoms, reinforced by subsequent crusades, survived Islamic counter-attack until 1291.

SEE FIGURE 5

Figure 5. A 15th century print depicting the siege of Jerusalem by Crusaders is a vivid portrayal of an assault on the holy city by highly organized legions of believers. Image courtesy of Library of Congress.
1162–1227
Genghis Khan & Mongols
Overrun Asia

By the 13th century it was the Seljuk Turks’ turn to be overwhelmed, this time by a wave of horse-riding invaders, the Mongol armies of Genghis Khan. Spreading out from the Asian heartland, Mongols penetrated as far as Baghdad in 1258 and Palestine in 1260, but their stay in the Middle East was brief. It was noteworthy primarily because it enabled local leaders to come to power in Syria and Egypt and thus kept the Ottoman Anatolian Turks out of these areas even after the Ottomans captured Constantinople in 1453. In 1517 the Ottomans finally united the region under one ruler for the first time since the Abbasid caliphate of the 10th century. They kept control for 400 years. Farther north and east the Mongols remained a dominating force much longer than in the Middle East. It was not until 1480 that the principality of Moscow finally freed itself of their control. The Mongols ruled China from the 1200s until 1368.

SEE FIGURE 6

1200–1500
Aztec Empire in Mexico

The Aztec tribe was a late arrival in Mexico, migrating from the north in the 12th century. However, it built on the religious and intellectual foundations of nearby cultures centered in Teotihuacan before 700 and Tula after 800. The Aztecs made enemies of neighboring tribes and quickly lost their independence, regaining it only about 1325, when they escaped into the swamps where Mexico City stands today. At this point they became more militaristic and expansionist, and with new allies they subdued much of the coastal region east and south of the city in the century subsequent to 1420. The Aztecs were an industrious people, their culture featuring jewelry, pottery, feather-work, and embroidery. Their wealth was greatly increased by trade and by heavy tribute imposed on conquered peoples. Religion was a central element of Aztec life and involved sacrificial ceremonies considered necessary to “re-clothe” the sun each day. Aztec sculpture and architecture were inspired by religion and reflected the grimness of sacrificial ceremonies.

SEE FIGURE 7

1452–1519
Leonardo da Vinci
Epitomizes Italian Renaissance

Enriched by reviving commerce with the Middle East, Florence and Venice began to generate social groups in the late 1400s with surprising and, by medieval standards, almost heretical respect for human talent. This new confidence, reinforced by exposure to newly discovered Greek manuscripts, revealed itself in many forms but especially in art and architecture, where it was widely interpreted as a rebirth of classical culture. The ideas and style of this Italian “Renaissance” (a 19th century term) spread to neighboring regions of Europe during the next 200 years. It produced many notable thinkers and artists, among them the political theorist Niccolo Machiavelli (1469–1527), sculptor and architect Michelangelo (1475–1564), and the humanist Erasmus (1466–1536). However, no individual reflected the achievement of the Renaissance to a greater extent than Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519), arguably the most diversely talented individual in human history. Raised and trained in Florence and renowned as the painter of the Mona Lisa, he was also a musician, mathematician and inventor who made important discoveries in anatomy, engineering, and optics.

SEE FIGURE 8

1453
Constantinople Falls to the Turks

The capture of Constantinople by Sultan Mehmed II and the Ottoman Turks in 1453 marked the end of what remained of the Roman empire and signified the end of the Middle Ages as well. Loss of the city was a serious blow to Christendom, freeing the Ottomans to advance into Europe, which they did in ensuing centuries, taking Budapest in 1541 and reaching the gates of Vienna in 1683. In the eleven centuries since its founding by the Emperor Constantine, the eastern imperial capital had been captured only once, ironically by the Latin armies of the Fourth Crusade in 1204. The city was re-captured by Byzantine forces in 1261 but never regained its earlier strength. By 1453 its holdings consisted of a few square miles around the city and the Peloponnesus in Greece. Yet it remained an important symbol of Christian power. The Emperor Constantine XI appealed to Pope Nicholas V for help against the Muslims and even promised in return to end the Orthodox schism with the Western Church. The Pope called for a crusade on behalf of the city, but no western leader responded.

SEE FIGURE 9
10

1492
Christopher Columbus Crosses
the Atlantic; Jews and Muslims
Expelled from Spain

The late 15th century was transformative for
Spain. In 1492, after King Ferdinand and Queen
Isabella authorized Christopher Columbus to
see Asia by sailing west, he ushered in the first
last European contact with the Americas,
a lengthy period of European exploration,
conquest, and colonization, and a relationship
that brought Spain untold wealth. That same
year, Spain’s sovereigns, whose marriage in the
1470s had united the thrones of Aragon and
Castile, completed their conquest of Moorish
Granada and embarked on an unprecedented
effort at national unification. Spanish Jews and
Muslims were ordered to convert to Christianity,
and in July 1492 the entire Jewish community,
200,000 people, was expelled. Most fled to
Turkey, North Africa, and other parts of Europe,
where they became known as Sephardim
—Sefarad being the Hebrew name for Spain.
Somewhat later Isabella gave Spanish Muslims
a similar ultimatum — expulsion or baptism.
Thousands considered baptism the only practical
option. Thus Spain became nominally united
and entirely Christian, yet culturally poorer.

1519
Hernan Cortés Conquers Mexico

Hernan Cortés was foremost in the generation
of conquistadors that began the Spanish
colonization of the Americas. He arrived in
Hispaniola in 1504 and in 1511 participated in
an expedition that conquered Cuba. In 1518 the
governor of Cuba gave him command of the
third Spanish expedition to the mainland, and he
set out in February 1519 with 11 ships, 500 men,
15 horses, and several cannon. Landing south of
present-day Veracruz, he scuttled his fleet, made
alliances with indigenous tribes, and marched
on Tenochtitlan, where, after some hesitation,
the Aztec ruler Moctezuma peacefully received
him. In a daring action Cortés took Moctezuma
hostage, attempting to govern the city through
him. Forced to retreat after a subordinate
massacred Aztec protesters, he recaptured
Tenochtitlan in 1521, claiming the entire Aztec
empire for Spain. In ensuing years he amassed
considerable wealth and conducted numerous
forays in the region, including one to Honduras.
Disputes with royal officials compelled him
to return to Spain more than once to defend
his reputation.

1549
Juan Cabrillo Claims California
for Spain

A Portuguese sailing for Spain, Juan Cabrillo
was the first European to navigate the coast of
present-day California. In 1539, Cabrillo was
commissioned by the Viceroy of New Spain
(Mexico) to lead an expedition along the Pacific
coast in search of trading opportunities. In June
1542 he set out from Jalisco with three ships,
passing the tip of Baja (lower) California within
a month, landing in San Diego Bay in September,
and reaching Santa Catalina Island in October.
The explorers sailed as far north as Point Reyes
and the Russian River before returning to
Catalina for the winter. On Christmas Eve
Cabrillo splintered his shin in a fall and
contracted gangrene. He died in January 1543.
Because it was difficult for the small ships of the
16th and 17th centuries to sail north against
the prevailing winds and currents of the Pacific
Ocean, it would be another two centuries before
a permanent Spanish settlement was established
in Alta (Upper) California at San Diego in 1769.

1517
Martin Luther Initiates
Protestant Reformation

When Martin Luther posted his
95 Theses regarding the sale of
indulgences on a church door in
Wittenberg in 1517, he sparked
a wave of protest, especially
in northern Europe, against the
doctrines, ritual, and structure
of the Roman church. The efforts
of reformers to return the church to
its original simplicity grew into the
Protestant Reformation and created
a permanent schism within Western Christianity.
Luther, John Calvin, and other Protestant leaders
taught that salvation is not earned by good
deeds (works) but achieved only as a gift of God.
They challenged the authority of the pope and
priesthood by teaching that the Bible is the
primary source of divinely revealed knowledge.
Much of the passion on the part of Protestants
originated in the hostility of simpler cultures
to an Italian clergy competing with a worldly
Renaissance, but the Reformation was also
driven by the desire of northern princes to
enrich their treasuries by seizing monastic land.
One result was the formation of national
Protestant churches in England, Scotland,
Scandinavia, Switzerland, and Holland.

See Figure 10
England Defeats Spanish Armada

Philip II, king of Spain, Naples, and the Low Countries, was co-monarch of England until the death of his wife Mary in 1558. A devout Catholic, Philip considered Mary’s successor and half-sister Elizabeth a heretic and illegitimate, and he was deeply aggravated by Elizabeth’s support of Dutch Protestants in their revolt against Spain. After Elizabeth executed Philip’s ally Mary Queen of Scots in 1587, he became determined to overthrow her regime, organizing an armada of 151 ships, 8,000 sailors, and 18,000 soldiers which left Spain in May 1588, bound for the Spanish Netherlands, where it was to be reinforced. The armada ultimately anchored off Dunkirk but was attacked and dispersed. Retreating northward, it was continually harassed by smaller, more maneuverable English ships. Armada commanders decided to withdraw by sailing around Scotland and Ireland, but storms drove more than 24 Spanish vessels onto Irish coasts. Of the original fleet, almost 50 vessels did not return.

William Shakespeare Redefines Dramatic Literature

An extraordinary playwright of the late Renaissance, William Shakespeare profoundly influenced both English theater and the English language. Born in Warwickshire in 1564 and appearing in London as an actor, poet and dramatist in 1592, he remained central to the literary scene until his death in 1616. During these years he not only created some of the most admired plays in Western literature (histories, comedies, tragedies), but he transformed English theater by expanding expectations about what could be accomplished through characterization, plot, language, and genre. Through soliloquies Shakespeare showed how a writer could explore a character’s motivations, fears, and disappointments. By mixing tragedy and comedy, he created an entirely new dramatic genre. Prior to Shakespeare’s time, the texture and rules of the English language were in constant flux. As his plays became popular, they contributed to the standardization of the language, enlargement of its vocabulary, and development of new grammatical structures.

SEE FIGURE 11

The Early Modern Period

1588
England Defeats Spanish Armada

1592–1616
William Shakespeare Redefines Dramatic Literature

Figure 11. William Shakespeare’s Old Globe Theatre was a London landmark where rich and poor alike gathered to enjoy comedies, tragedies and historical dramas. Image courtesy of Wenceslaus Hollar.

1607
Jamestown Founded in Virginia

Defeat of the Spanish Armada emboldened the English to establish colonies in North America. As early as 1585—87 Sir Walter Raleigh, one of Queen Elizabeth’s favorites, had unsuccessfully attempted to found a settlement at Roanoke in what he called “Virginia” (actually North Carolina). Twenty years later, in April 1607, the first permanent English colony in the New World was established by the Virginia Company of London at Jamestown, Virginia. The small peninsula that the colonists chose to occupy was uninhabited and defensible, but it was also plagued by mosquitoes. The settlers arrived too late in the year to plant crops, and many...
were gentlemen unused to hard labor. By the “starving time” of 1609–1610, when Jamestown experienced a serious drought, only 61 of the 500 original colonists survived. But settlers continued to arrive, and the following year things began to improve as colonists expanded their planting areas. In 1614 John Rolfe successfully harvested tobacco and married Pocahontas, daughter of Chief Powhatan, establishing a personal tie that fostered better relations with the Indians.

SEE FIGURE 12

1610
Galileo Galilei Invents Telescope

A physicist, astronomer and inventor, the Florentine Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) played a major role in the scientific revolution of the early modern era. In 1609, learning of Dutch advances in optics, he constructed the first telescope and turned it toward the heavens. His astonishing astronomical discoveries — that the moon’s surface is mountainous, that the planet Jupiter has at least four moons, that Venus has crescent phases — made him famous. Galileo showed, in effect, that the human senses could be enhanced in studying nature, that Aristotle was wrong in asserting that heavenly bodies are ethereal, and that planets did not revolve around earth. However, when in succeeding years he explicitly defended the heliocentric theories of Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543), he incurred the suspicion of the papacy and was called before the Inquisition, which in 1633 found him “suspect of heresy” for contradicting Scripture. Galileo was forced to recant and spent the rest of his life under house arrest. It was during these years that he wrote perhaps his finest work, summarizing his research on acceleration and strength of materials.

SEE FIGURE 13

1643–1715
Louis XIV Creates Centralized Absolutist Monarchy

In the 17th and 18th centuries European nations became increasingly centralized, territorialized, and bureaucratized. England was a partial exception to this rule, having overthrown its king, replaced him with a republic, and finally reinstalled a weakened monarch. But the rest of Europe saw steady growth in the power of kings, a development fueled by a desire to escape the chaos of post-Reformation religious violence, increasingly expensive warfare among competing dynastic states, and changes associated with the rise of capitalism and international commerce. Absolute monarchs created national bureaucracies that reinforced them in confronting their most powerful institutional opponents, especially the nobility. Louis XIV, the Sun King, ruler of France for 72 years, was widely recognized as the perfect embodiment of absolutist principles. Many features of the modern state were created in France during his reign: centralized authority, a civil bureaucracy, a national judiciary, national tax collection, state control of culture, and a large standing army.

SEE FIGURE 14

1687
Isaac Newton Promulgates Laws of Gravity

By formulating laws of gravity, defining light, color, and optics, and inventing the calculus, Isaac Newton revolutionized study of the physical world. A graduate of Cambridge University, Newton as a young man investigated the nature of light, observing that when a beam passes through a prism it spreads into a spectrum of colored rays. His experiments convinced him that such fracturing limits the effectiveness of lenses and led him to invent the reflecting telescope. After 1679 Newton returned to an earlier interest, the problems of planetary orbits and celestial mechanics. Hypothesizing that attraction within the solar system was the same force as terrestrial gravity, in 1687 he published Principia Mathematica, propounding a universal law of gravitation and three laws of motion that form the basis of classical mechanics. In 1704 Newton published a second great work, Optiks, in which he reiterated a theory of light and a spatial ether in which light moves. Internationally acclaimed, Newton was elected president of the Royal Society in 1703 and knighted in 1705.

1703
Peter the Great Establishes St. Petersburg

In the two centuries following the end of Tatar domination, Moscow faced two fundamental questions: (1) whether it was to be ruled by a feudal aristocracy or an autocratic tsar, and (2) whether it was to remain landlocked or reach the sea. It was during the reign of Tsar Peter the Great that these questions were answered. Coming to the throne in 1689, Peter waged war against Tatars and Turks, but with little success. In 1697, hoping to secure allies as well as obtain the latest knowledge about shipbuilding, he embarked on an 18 month tour of Western Europe. Finding no interest in a crusade against
Turkey, he joined a coalition against Sweden, the objective of which was to end Sweden’s longstanding domination of the Baltic. This led to the Great Northern War, which lasted more than 20 years. Following initial setbacks, Peter reorganized his armed forces, founded a fortress at St. Petersburg on the Baltic, and ultimately defeated the Swedish king. In 1713, in conjunction with his efforts to reform Russia, he made St. Petersburg his country’s capital. It became Russia’s long-sought port and a window to the West.

**1761–1763**

**Britain Achieves Supremacy in India and Canada**

Throughout the 17th and 18th centuries Britain and France competed against each other, and with other countries like Portugal and Holland, in establishing colonies abroad and taking control of far-flung territories. This was the case not only in sparsely inhabited regions like North America but also in densely populated places like India and the East Indies. The object was to find and seize wealth directly, as Spain had done in Mexico and Peru, and to create and profit from trade in marketable items. Britain, despite having a smaller population than France, was more successful in competing due to a more efficient economy and more balanced form of government. After a long series of colonial conflicts, the British took Canada from France at the end of the Seven Years War in 1763. Two years earlier a British army crushed French forces in India, leaving the British East India Company in control of that country’s increasingly profitable textile and opium trades.

**1776**

**Franciscans Found Mission San Juan Capistrano**

Spain had sought to convert natives to Christianity from the time of its earliest explorations, but it was not until 1741, when Russian territorial ambitions in North America became known, that King Philip V decided that religious missions were necessary in Upper California. Almost three decades later, after the Jesuits, founders of 18 missions in Baja California, had been suppressed in Spain, the Spanish viceroy entrusted the Baja missions to the Dominican order so that priests of the Franciscan order could establish new missions farther north. An expedition under Father Junípero Serra and Gaspar de Portola founded the first of these in 1769 in San Diego, and additional missions were quickly established in Carmel, San Gabriel, San Luis Obispo, and San Francisco. The mission in San Juan Capistrano dates from November 1, 1776, and has the distinction of possessing the oldest building in California still in use, the only extant structure where Father Serra celebrated mass. Records indicate that almost 5,000 Indians were baptized at San Juan between 1776 and 1847.

**SEE FIGURE 15**

**1776**

**Adam Smith Champions Free Market Economics**

The father of liberal economics (in the classic sense of the term), Adam Smith first established himself as a professor of moral philosophy at Glasgow University, where he became known for his conviction that moral sentiments arise from human empathy. In the 1760s his interests shifted to jurisprudence and economics, and in 1776 he published what was to become a classic of political economy, *The Wealth of Nations*. With this study Smith launched a vigorous attack on Mercantilism, the dominant economic theory of the previous two centuries, the doctrine that government control of the economy was necessary to ensure security of the state. Mercantilism taught that a positive balance of trade was essential and that this should be achieved by such means as subsidizing manufactures, placing tariffs on imports, and prohibiting a nation’s colonies from trading with other countries. Smith maintained that wealth, not security, should be a nation’s paramount objective and that self-interested individuals competing in a free market would, like an “invisible hand,” enrich society as a whole.
The expulsion of France from North America in 1763 had a number of unexpected consequences. It freed Britain’s colonies of a fear that had kept them extremely dependent on the Crown. Moreover, the colonies, which had spent heavily in manpower, money, and blood during the Seven Years War, now confronted a British government with a large postwar debt, heavy taxes at home, and the need to support an army in America. When Parliament sought to distribute this burden by enforcing the mercantilist Navigation Acts, imposing taxes like the Stamp Act (1765), and requiring assistance in quartering British troops, the American response was predictable, particularly after decades in which colonial governments went virtually unregulated. “No taxation without representation” became the cry as Americans organized boycotts of British goods. A vicious circle of anger ensued, and when Parliament sent troops to Boston following the Tea Party protest (1773), armed resistance to British military movements quickly developed. By July 4, 1776, a year of bloody conflict had persuaded leaders of the Continental Congress that independence from Britain was inevitable.

SEE FIGURE 16

1787
U.S. Constitution
1789
George Washington President

By the mid-1780s the government created under the Articles of Confederation had shown itself inadequate both in coping financially and in protecting the nation’s sovereignty. Congress was denied the power to tax as well as to regulate trade. Most decisions required unanimous approval of all 13 state legislatures. In face of this failure the Confederation Congress called a convention of state delegates at Philadelphia to formulate a new plan of government. Eventually 12 states were represented there by 55 men. The convention’s sessions ran from May to September 1787 and produced a number of artful compromises: e.g. a national government within a federal structure, an independent executive and judiciary, a bicameral legislature designed to protect large and small states, representation based on white and 3/5 of the black population. The new Constitution was ratified by the ninth state (New Hampshire) in June of 1788. In February 1789 George Washington of Virginia was unanimously elected president. He took office in New York City on April 30, 1789.

SEE FIGURE 17

1789–1815
French Revolution and Revolutionary/Napoleonic Wars

Revolution in France in 1789 ushered in two decades of unprecedented change that had a lasting impact on French and world history. In the process an absolute monarchy collapsed, the nation underwent profound transformation, and assumptions about tradition and hierarchy were...
supplanted by Enlightenment ideas of equality, citizenship, and natural rights. The immediate causes of the revolution lay in poor harvests, bankruptcy due to past wars, an antiquated financial system, and an inequitable tax structure. Frustrated by aristocratic resistance to reform, Louis XVI summoned the Estates General in 1789, and this body, replicated in several forms, led the country in painful stages to establish a constitutional monarchy and then in 1792 a secular, democratic republic called the Directory. Beset by conservative foreign enemies, the republic successfully defended itself for ten years, but in 1799 it was overthrown by one of its own generals, Napoleon Bonaparte, who as self-styled consul and then emperor, imposed internal order and embarked on a futile ten-year effort to conquer Europe.

1790–1850
Industrial Revolution in England

Concurrent with the political revolution in France, an economic revolution was gathering speed in England. This transformation involved steady improvement of production, transportation, and communications through the substitution of mechanical devices for human labor. It was given its specific direction by inventions in the textile industry and by the application of steam to the operation of machines. Eighteenth century England was particularly receptive to innovation. The country had a damp climate favorable to the manufacture of textiles, large supplies of coal and iron, and decent roads, canals, and later railroads. It had a population drifting to cities where it could be employed in factories. It had played a leading role in the great Commercial Revolution of 1400–1700, and its colonial empire continued to furnish a variety of raw materials and markets. British businessmen had accumulated large amounts of investable capital, and thinkers like Adam Smith encouraged them to pursue their self-interest. The result was increased wealth, a growing population, and a rising standard of living, creating what some called the “British century.”

SEE FIGURE 18

1803
United States Purchases Louisiana from France

At the beginning of the 19th century the Mississippi River served as the western boundary of the United States. The region west of the Mississippi belonged to Spain, which had taken it from France under the terms of a peace treaty in 1762. Forty years later, as its own New World Empire was disintegrating, Spain secretly returned Louisiana — the territory between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains — to France. However, following the failure of the French effort to crush the rebellion of its colony in Haiti, Napoleon Bonaparte lost interest in the region. Needing funds to wage war in Europe, he stunned President Jefferson’s diplomatic representatives to France — Robert Livingston and James Monroe — by offering to sell Louisiana. The president, faced with an unexpected opportunity to double the nation’s size and in spite of his concern about exceeding the legal powers of the presidency, agreed to purchase Louisiana in 1803 for approximately $15 million.

1810–1822
Latin America Gains Independence from Europe

In 1800 Spain’s empire in the New World stretched from the western regions of the United States to the southern tip of Latin America, and from the Caribbean to the Pacific Ocean. By 1825, but for several islands in the Caribbean, that empire had virtually disappeared, replaced by newly independent countries such as Argentina, Chile and Mexico. A number of developments hastened the process of imperial disintegration. The most profound were the experiences of the American and French Revolutions, which had a powerful impact on Spanish, Portuguese, and French colonies in North and South America. A contributing factor was that Spain failed to incorporate into its colonial administration the highly successful class of New World creoles, preferring instead to appoint native-born Spaniards. Also significant was the fact that the Spanish king, Charles IV, was an indecisive monarch, more interested in joining with Napoleonic France against the British than in preserving imperial holdings in the New World.
1846–1848
Mexican-American War

1848
U.S. Annexes Southwest

The Mexican-American War was America’s first international conflict explicitly justified by the idea of “Manifest Destiny.” This belief was first expressed in 1845 by a Democratic Party publicist who argued that the superiority of American values and institutions bestowed a right to extend the nation’s borders across the continent. Thus native Americans and Mexicans who occupied portions of the Western territories could be pushed aside, isolated, or even exterminated. In 1845 the United States annexed the republic of Texas, territory still claimed by Mexico. Resulting diplomatic tensions and border disputes set the stage for war in 1846. For President James Polk and his expansionist allies, the justice of the conflict was never in doubt. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed after American forces reached Mexico City, resulted in the annexation of California and the Southwest as well as the establishment of the Rio Grande River as the nation’s southern boundary.

1848
Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels Publish Communist Manifesto

At a time of renewed European unrest, Karl Marx (1818–1883) and his fellow socialist Friedrich Engels (1820–1895) issued a call to arms in 1848 that was intended to define the role of the working class. In so doing, they sought to explain the structural dynamics of economic systems and the crises that beset them. Converting the idealist dialectic of Georg W. F. Hegel (1770–1831) into a materialist interpretation, Marx and Engels argued that history progresses by means of class struggle: an enduring conflict between an upper class of owners and a lower class that does the actual labor. In the case of capitalism the internal tensions deriving from this conflict would inevitably lead, they thought, to the system’s destruction through revolution and its replacement by a socialism governed by the workers. Both Marx and Engels were German by birth, but in 1849 they moved to England. In 1859 Marx published the extended study for which he is also remembered, a critique of capitalism entitled Das Kapital.

1849–1850
Gold Rush and California Statehood

By the time Americans came into formal possession of Alta (Upper) California, the region’s tremendous commercial potential had become clearly evident. The discovery of gold by James Marshall in March 1848 had launched the first of the great “gold rushes” of the 19th century and quickly transformed the pastoral economy of the Mexican era. By mid-century the population of California had grown dramatically, as tens of thousands of gold seekers arrived from other regions of the United States, Latin America, Europe, China, and Australia. These newcomers established American political structures in a frontier society where legal institutions had been weak and ineffective. With the ratification of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in July 1848, and with the creation of the first of the extractive industries that would long dominate the economic history of the American West, the stage was set for California statehood in 1850.

SEE FIGURES 19A & B

1859
Charles Darwin Formulates Theory of Evolution

Even as a boy Charles Darwin (1809–1882) had been interested in observing birds and collecting insects. As a young man, having first studied medicine at the University of Edinburgh and then theology at Cambridge University, Darwin decided to focus his career on natural history. In his early 20s he was selected for the position of naturalist on the HMS Beagle and spent the next five years on a collecting expedition to South America and the South Pacific. In the course of this experience he concluded that all organisms necessarily adapt to environmental changes and that, as a result, they evolve over time. He also concluded that organic species are involved in an intense competition for limited resources. Those species with adaptive characteristics are more likely to survive and reproduce. Darwin referred to this as evolution by natural selection. Portions of Darwin’s lifelong research were ultimately published in On the Origin of Species (1859), a book that fundamentally transformed biology.
When Abraham Lincoln was elected in 1860 without receiving one electoral vote south of the Mason-Dixon line, Southerners quickly reassessed the value of remaining in the Union, where they feared their minority status and the hostility of Lincoln’s “free soil” Republicans would make preserving slavery impossible. In late 1860 seven southern slave states seceded from the United States, forming the Confederate States of America and designating Jefferson Davis as president. Four more states later joined the Confederacy, leaving but 23 states loyal to the federal government. Hostilities between North and South began in April 1861 at Fort Sumter in South Carolina and continued for four agonizing years at a cost of more than 633,000 lives. Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation of January 1863, a wartime measure, though it did not make slavery illegal, began the process completed by the adoption of the 13th Amendment in December 1865, which outlawed slavery. The leaders of the Meiji Restoration (1867–1912) introduced fundamental social reforms, seeking to modernize and strengthen Japan against the threat posed by the colonial powers. These reforms put an end to feudalism and featured the creation of a bureaucratic state and national army, necessarily ending the special status of the samurai warrior class. They also fostered the creation of tax systems, the building of railroads and communications systems, and in 1890, the convening of a constitutional government with an elected parliament. Drafters of the 1849 Constitution for the new state of California envisioned creation of a major university that "would contribute even more than California’s gold to the glory and happiness of advancing generations." Within two decades a university was established in Berkeley by merging a private College of California with a new state land-grant institution called the Agricultural, Mining, and Mechanical Arts College. An early UC President, Daniel Coit Gilman (1872–1875), came from Yale (America’s premier research university) to build a similar institution in the West, but he soon encountered a competing vision: that of a trade school for farmers and workers. In fact, the early years of the university were rife with battles over its mission — would it be scholarship, or service to agriculture and industry? Eventually the Yale-Gilman research model prevailed. By the end the century, the University of California had become widely recognized for academic excellence.
1869

U.S. Transcontinental Railroad
Completed

Railroads possess an iconic status in American history and symbolize the inventiveness of capitalism. Their owners and workers met and conquered enormous challenges, vastly expanding national and international markets. Yet any depiction of the railroads’ contributions must be balanced against one that includes political corruption, financial exploitation, and huge government subsidies. The first transcontinental railroad, symbolic of the railroad age, was built between 1863 and 1869 by the Central Pacific Railroad of California and the Union Pacific Railroad, with headquarters in Nebraska. This huge endeavor, largely constructed by Chinese and Irish laborers, linked the existing railway networks of the East with the Pacific coast. Popularly referred to as “the Overland Route,” the project was generously supported by government bonds and land grants. Its completion was celebrated by the pounding of a golden spike at Promontory Point, Utah, in May 1869.

SEE FIGURE 21A & B

1871

Germany Becomes a Nation State; France Becomes a Republic

Until 1871 there was no “Germany.” There were, however, many German-speaking principalities within a decentralized central European empire and later within a customs union. During the 18th and 19th centuries Prussia and its rival Austria became the most powerful states within this area, and the eventual unification of Germany resulted from Prussian expansionism. Under Chancellor Otto von Bismarck, Prussia defeated Austria in 1866 and France in 1870, using these wars to nationalize and justify the formation of a German Empire in 1871. In France, meanwhile, the collapse of the imperial regime of Napoleon III in the Franco-Prussian War led the National Assembly to seek restoration of a constitutional monarchy. Yet, because of divisions among the monarchists, a “temporary” republic was established. The Third French Republic survived until Nazi Germany invaded France in 1940, making it the longest-lasting government in France since the collapse of the Ancien Regime in 1789.

SEE FIGURE 22

1872

Yellowstone, the World’s First National Park

In the years following the Civil War, efforts to protect and conserve the nation’s scenic areas received a valuable boost from the widespread expansion of railroad networks and the invention of Pullman sleeping cars. In the early 1870s a University of Pennsylvania geologist, Ferdinand Hayden, founder of the United States Geological Survey, conducted a scientific study of the Yellowstone region’s natural geysers, hot springs and other wonders that generated substantial public interest. Soon Jay Cooke, owner of the Northern Pacific Railroad and mindful of the profits that could be generated from tourist traffic, proposed that Congress declare Yellowstone, located on federal territory in the Rocky Mountains, “a public park forever.” In March 1872 Congress designated more than two million acres, mostly in Wyoming, as Yellowstone National Park, and the bill was immediately signed into law by President Ulysses S. Grant. It was the first area in the world designated as a national park.

SEE FIGURE 22

1876

Irvine Ranch Created
From Mexican Ranchos

The Spanish mission system in California came to an end during the decades following the birth of the Mexican Republic in 1821. This historic transition involved a process of “secularization” by which missions were converted into parish churches. It also witnessed the “emancipation” of Indian neophytes from close supervision by the mission’s friars. These two developments made possible the emergence of private ranchos which eventually covered most of southern California. After the United States annexed...
California, these Mexican ranchos were increasingly acquired by American-born owners. In 1864, a group of such ranchers — James Irvine, Llewellyn Bixby, and Thomas and Benjamin Flint — purchased Rancho San Joaquin, along the coast. In 1866 they added Rancho Lomas de Santiago and in 1868 part of Rancho Santiago de Santa Ana. In 1876, when James Irvine bought out his partners, the boundaries of this property extended from the Pacific Ocean around Newport Bay to the foothills of the Santa Ana Mountains, more than 100,000 acres.

1879
Thomas Edison Perfects the Electric Light

By the turn of the 20th century, two American inventors — Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas Alva Edison — had become folk heroes. In 1876 Bell had discovered a way to transmit the human voice over wires, creating the telephone. In 1879 Edison had developed a carbonized filament for the light bulb, thereby ushering in the age of electric lighting. Edison spent his lifetime inventing at his laboratory in Menlo Park, New Jersey, and at the height of his career averaged a U.S. patent every eleven days, including those for the phonograph, carbon microphone, and motion picture camera. Subsequently he applied the principles of mass production and teamwork to the inventive process, forming the Edison Electric Light Company with the support of such financiers as J. P. Morgan and the Vanderbilt family. By 1900, electrical service had become a significant feature of American urban life. The telephone industry grew rapidly as well, led by the Bell Company (later AT&T). By 1895 there were 340,000 telephones in the United States.

SEE FIGURES 23A & B

1882
John D. Rockefeller Organizes Standard Oil Trust

The major source of lighting for 19th century Americans was crude oil refined into kerosene for lamps. As cities grew and a national need for lighting did as well, smart investors began to put their money in oil refining. In the end, one businessman — John D. Rockefeller — came to dominate this activity by employing new forms of technique and structure. Through innovative strategies, aggressive pricing, and questionable manipulation, Rockefeller was able to undersell, intimidate, and acquire competing firms. By the early 1870s, his Standard Oil Company controlled the refining industry in Cleveland, and Rockefeller turned his sights on national markets. Organizing his corporation in 1882 as the nation’s first corporate trust (a form of integration designed to limit competition by managing production and distribution), Rockefeller soon gained control of America’s entire oil industry. Public reaction to such concentrated power was so negative that it prompted passage of the Sherman Antitrust Act in 1890 and an Ohio Supreme Court decision in 1892 declaring the Standard Oil Trust an illegal monopoly. Meanwhile, Rockefeller had become the nation’s first billionaire.

1886
American Federation of Labor Founded

During the last quarter of the 19th century American workers were in constant debate regarding what kind of union movement to build in response to the new system of corporate capitalism. They saw that centralized companies producing for large-scale markets were increasingly at the heart of industries such as railroads, steel, meat-packing, coal, and mining. They also recognized that the crucial labor struggles of this period arose largely within these core industries. One organized response by workers to this situation took the form of the Knights of Labor, founded in 1869. The Knights sought to build a broad network of employees, including women, that would pursue a wide range of systemic reforms. A different, more modest, and ultimately more successful approach was taken by the American Federation of Labor, launched in 1886. Under the leadership of Samuel Gompers, the AF of L was organized by craft among skilled workers and confined itself to seeking improvements in the workplace.
1880–1900
European Imperialism Subdivides Africa

Imperialism has been defined as the extension of control, whether direct or indirect, territorial or commercial, political, economic, or social, by one group over another. This practice is as old as humans, but it came strongly into play in the European expansionism of the early modern era (1500–1790). Subsequently, in the final decades of the 19th century and spurred by the needs of industrialization for assured raw materials and guaranteed markets, it led to the partition and eventual conquest of Africa by European powers. Political and military factors also played an important role because of the inter-European struggles among Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Portugal, and Spain. Though African societies fought against European designs and invasions, they were repeatedly defeated. By 1900, most of Africa was governed by seven European nations.

1898
Spanish-American War

A fierce depression from 1893–1897 set the United States on a path toward war with Spain over Cuba. Persuaded that the depression’s cause was overproduction and lack of overseas markets, President William McKinley declared in 1895: “No worthier cause than the expansion of trade can engage our energies.” From this point of view, the Cuban resistance to Spanish colonialism that broke into open rebellion in 1895 constituted an excellent opportunity to increase American commerce. It also gave the United States a chance to destroy one of the last remnants of European empire in the New World and remove an affront to the Monroe Doctrine of continental independence. Unlike Europe’s experience in India or Africa, American success in Cuba generated no occupying military force or colonial administration. Moreover, with victory in the Spanish-American War, United States investment in the Caribbean region soared. In 1900 American investments in the Caribbean amounted to $100 million. A decade later they had reached $1.5 billion. Supplemented by the provisional annexation of the Philippines, America’s invisible empire stretched halfway around the globe.

SEE FIGURE 24

Figure 24. Colonel Theodore Roosevelt and his Rough Riders plant the American flag atop Cuba’s San Juan Hill. Image courtesy of William Dinwiddie.
**1900–1915**

**California Impressionists Enrich Art**

The artistic movement known as Impressionism came to America about a decade after its debut in Paris in 1874, where a small group of painters including Monet, Renoir, and Degas had sought to evoke sensory impression rather than the objective reality that their Romantic and Realist predecessors had tried to capture. By 1900, Impressionism had become the preferred style among American painters. Artists in California, and most especially in southern California, pursued a regional variety of this perspective, engaging in plein-air painting (a French term for “in the open air”) focused on landscape as the ideal subject for expressing Americans’ democratic aspirations. This art was characterized by loose, choppy brush strokes and the use of bright colors. Leading California Impressionists included William Wendt (1863–1946) and Edgar Payne (1883–1947), who had homes and studios in Laguna Beach. By 1915 the plein-air artists of Laguna Beach and southern California had become widely recognized.

SEE FIGURES 25A & B

**1901**

**U.S. Steel Syndicate Formed**

During the years from roughly 1880 to 1920 the United States transformed its economy from one of family-owned businesses producing for relatively limited markets to one based on centralized, bureaucratic corporations producing for substantial markets. The man who became the organizational architect of this economic change was the banker, J. P. Morgan. His acquisition in 1898 of Carnegie Steel, the company formed by Andrew Carnegie in Pittsburgh six years earlier, signifies the passing of an era dominated by individual entrepreneurs. When in March 1901 Morgan merged Carnegie Steel with its chief competitors to form U.S. Steel, it became America’s first billion-dollar corporation and the largest in the world. Surprisingly, however, U.S. Steel did not monopolize the steel industry. Instead, together with several other companies including Bethlehem Steel, it became part of an oligopoly (a group of a few sellers), an arrangement that has characterized much of American business to the present day.

**1901–1917**

**Progressive Reform Era in the United States**

The increasingly consolidated economic system created during the final years of the 19th century provoked both legal and political responses: (1) a legal response in the form of an antitrust movement which sought to outlaw and destroy monopoly, and (2) a political response in the form of a multifaceted Progressive reform movement. Beginning at the grassroots level during the economic recovery following 1898, and flowing upward in both political parties to local, state, and national politics, the Progressive movement sought legislation to ameliorate problems arising from rapid industrialization, urbanization, immigration, and concentration of wealth. Among its achievements were the Pure Food and Drug Act, the Hepburn Railway Act, and the income tax amendment. In order to return government to the people, the movement also championed direct democracy with such innovations as the initiative, referendum, and recall. Among the most prominent progressives were Tom Johnson, Mayor of Cleveland, Robert La Follette, Governor and Senator from Wisconsin, Hiram Johnson, Governor and Senator from California, and Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson.

**1903**

**Wright Brothers Invent Airplane**

In December 1903 at Kittyhawk, North Carolina, Wilbur and Orville Wright, two Ohio brothers and bicycle-makers, conducted the first successful experiment in which a flying machine transported a man under its own power. For centuries, men had experimented with kites, hot air balloons, and gliders. As early as 400 BC, the Chinese discovered that kites could fly against the wind. In the 1480s, Leonardo da Vinci made the first systematic studies of flight. The Wright brothers, building on earlier experiments with gliders, discovered the three axes of motion required to
manage a flying machine — pitch, roll, and yaw. Their control solution was “wing warping,” or bending the surface of each of their biplane’s wings to change its position in relation to oncoming wind. After extensive research and numerous glider tests, the Wrights successfully designed a 12-horsepower engine to produce the “lift” needed to drive their machine forward and upward.

SEE FIGURE 26

1905
Albert Einstein Publishes “Special Relativity” Theory

In 1905, Albert Einstein, a German physicist and Nobel prize winner, proposed the first part of what in 1916 became the general theory of relativity, a set of ideas that changed the world. The special relativity theory of 1905 modified concepts of space and time to reconcile them with experiments showing that light does not travel in a medium (or ether) and has a velocity independent of the motion of its source or observer. To make his new theory consistent with Newton’s Laws of Motion, Einstein hypothesized that the mass of an object increases as it approaches the speed of light. This led him to the conclusion that mass (m) and energy (E), previously considered unrelated concepts, are related according to the formula $E = mc^2$. Einstein’s famous equation has since been confirmed by thousands of experiments. His special theory of relativity applied only to reference frames moving at constant speed and direction relative to one another. Einstein’s 1916 general theory extended the special theory to encompass accelerating reference frames, establishing a theory relating gravity to properties of space and time.

SEE FIGURE 27

1908
Henry Ford Produces Model T

America’s most admired man in the 1920s, according to some surveys, was Henry Ford. Born on a farm in Dearborn, Michigan in 1863, Ford as a boy much preferred working with machines than with animals. By age thirty he had built one of the first gasoline-powered motor vehicles in the United States. Ten years later he incorporated Ford Motor Company, declaring, “I will build a car for the great multitude.” In 1908, he did exactly that, producing the Model T automobile, of which more than 15 million were ultimately sold in America alone. Reasonably priced, simple to drive, and easy to maintain, the Model T ushered in the Automobile Age. Ford soon introduced the continuous conveyor belt, or assembly line, into his plants, vastly increasing production and reducing costs. While he opposed unions, Ford was a pioneer of “welfare capitalism” and paid workers substantially higher wages than his industrial rivals. By 1918, despite the existence of competitors such as Dodge and Oldsmobile, half the automobiles in America were Model T’s.

SEE FIGURE 28

1911
China Becomes a Republic

The Qing Dynasty, which ruled China from 1644 to 1912, was weakened in its later years by imperial corruption and repeated defeats in wars against European powers. Indeed, China’s defeat in the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–1895 demonstrated that Japan’s modernization process had been much more successful than China’s “Self-Strengthening Movement” of the late 19th century. Following European and American intervention to put down the anti-western Boxer Rebellion (1898–1899), the Qing Imperial Court undertook efforts at reform, but these were mostly half-hearted and de-stabilizing. This failure to liberalize and modernize prompted reformers to adopt revolutionary measures. The strongest of these revolutionary groups was led by Sun Yat-sen, an anti-Qing activist who called for a nationalist uprising against foreign domination, a democratically elected government, and socialism to help common people. Protests organized by Sun and other revolutionaries ultimately spread throughout China, gaining support from regional military officers and leading to the Wuchang Uprising of October 1911, the beginning of China’s republican era.

SEE FIGURE 28
From World War to World War

1914–1918
World War I
The event that triggered the First World War was the assassination in June 1914 of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian empire, by a Bosnian Serb nationalist. The deeper causes of the war, however, lay in the rivalries and resulting anxieties developed by the great imperialist powers during the preceding decades. Following the assassination and Austria-Hungary’s ensuing attack on Serbia, European alliances came into play. A general war broke out in August 1914, with Germany, Austria-Hungary and Turkey arrayed against Britain, France, Russia, and subsequently Italy. The United States remained neutral for almost three years, but after Germany embarked on unrestricted submarine warfare in the Atlantic in January 1917, Congress endorsed President Woodrow Wilson’s call for war “to make the world safe for democracy.” The four-year conflict, which ended with an armistice in November 1918, witnessed unprecedented levels of death, destruction, and turmoil. Among its results were the overthrow of three monarchies (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia), the emergence of several new states (Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia), and the break-up of the Ottoman Empire.

1917
Communist Revolution in Russia
The Russian Revolution of 1917 developed in stages, involving major political upheavals in February and October. The February revolution was precipitated by the pain and failure of the ongoing war, but it grew from decades of popular unrest deriving from poor urban conditions, peasant resentments toward aristocratic landowners, inadequate efforts at reform, and military defeat. The upheaval of February, led by liberals and moderate socialists, deposed Tsar Nicholas II and replaced his regime with a provisional government in Petrograd (previously and now St. Petersburg). During the October revolution, the Bolshevik (or left-socialist) party, led by Vladimir Lenin in concert with workers councils and units of the armed forces, overthrew that government. The Bolsheviks quickly took control of major industries, redistributed land, and publicized their wish for peace. In March 1918 their leaders ended Russia’s participation in World War I by signing the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany. Meanwhile, they founded the world’s first communist state and worked tirelessly to crush internal and external opposition.

SEE FIGURE 29

1920
19th Amendment Gives U.S. Women Voting Rights
Nineteenth century efforts to obtain the right to vote for women were largely unsuccessful, primarily because there was no extensive and unified movement advocating these changes. The women’s rights movement began at Seneca Falls, New York in 1848, but by the time of the Civil War its champions had come to disagree seriously over tactics. During the campaign for the 14th Amendment, which granted voting rights to African-American men, women’s rights advocates such as Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony favored the inclusion of women. Others cautioned that it was “the Negro’s hour.” Twenty years later, by 1890, these rival groups had come together to form the National American Woman Suffrage Association, and their great cause, while not widely endorsed, was no longer dismissed as unrealistic. Despite early victories in western states such as Colorado and Idaho, it would require a Progressive movement and participation in a war before women gained the vote with the ratification of the 19th Amendment in 1920.
Oil Discovered in Huntington Beach

What would become the city of Huntington Beach in Orange County was conceived in 1901 as a West Coast version of Atlantic City and was named in honor of Henry E. Huntington, founder of the Pacific Electric Railway. In subsequent years the growing use of automobiles in the United States led to an increased need for oil. Suspecting that the region might be rich in deposits of this mineral, Standard Oil of California in 1919 leased large blocks of undeveloped land in Huntington Beach. The discovery of oil there in 1920 soon resulted in 59 producing wells and beaches crowded with derricks. This was followed by serious inflation in real estate values, as the population of the city grew from 1,600 to 7,000, not including 4,000 migrant oil workers, many of whom lived in tents. For many years thereafter city politics were dominated by debates regarding drilling restrictions and the environmental impact of oil exploration.

SEE FIGURE 30

Pacific Coast Highway Completed in Orange County

During the first half of the 20th century new forms of transportation facilitated much of Orange County’s growth. Between 1904 and 1910 interior cities (as well as Newport Beach) grew because the Pacific Electric Railway built three lines to the county, including a coast line, a Santa Ana line, and a La Habra line. During the 1910s and 1920s, highway construction made possible the development of several cities, including Laguna Beach and Dana Point, which were made easily accessible by the completion of the Pacific Coast Highway (PCH) in 1926. The 40 mile long Orange County section of PCH begins at Seal Beach and runs south through Huntington Beach, Newport Beach, Laguna Beach, and Dana Point. It is a portion of a federal highway system that stretches 2,500 miles from the Mexican border to the Olympic peninsula and includes some of the nation’s most beautiful coastlines.

The Great Depression

Despite the acknowledged significance of the Great Depression in transforming the role of government in America’s economy, scholars disagree about its fundamental causes. One explanation relies on theories stressing overproduction, under consumption, and unregulated stock market speculation. Evidence for this explanation can be found in the growing inequality within the United States, since by the end of the 1920s the top one percent of the population was receiving 15% of the nation’s income. An alternative explanation for the Great Depression emphasizes policy mistakes by monetary authorities that led to shrinking the money supply and tightening credit. Proponents of this view argue the Federal Reserve did not provide the banking system with sufficient liquidity. Despite such disagreements, there is no debate about the Great Depression’s devastating impact in the years following the stock market crash of October 1929. At its worst in 1933, 25% of all workers and 37% of all non-farm workers were unemployed. Despite the New Deal, the American economy had not fully recovered when the United States entered World War II in 1941.

Nazis Come to Power in Germany

The term Nazi is commonly used to describe the ostensible marriage of nationalism and socialism. The Nazi party of Germany — technically, the National Socialist German Workers Party — like the Fascists in Italy, developed from a number of alienated and right-wing political groups that emerged in the final years of World War I. It drew support from those bitterly angered by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, which levied debilitating reparation payments and required Germany to accept blame for the war. Its proponents also held anti-Semitic and anti-Marxist views while proclaiming belief in German superiority as part of the Aryan “master race.” By the early 1930s the effects of the Great Depression were devastating Germany’s economy, providing fertile soil for radical nationalist and racist ideologies. In January 1933, following elections in which the Nazis obtained more than 40% of the popular vote, the German President made the fateful decision to appoint the Nazi leader, Adolf Hitler, chancellor of the country. Hitler quickly replaced Germany’s democratic government with a brutal totalitarian regime.
1933–1941
Franklin Roosevelt Fashions New Deal

Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal evolved from a series of legislative acts designed to combat the Great Depression and create a more equitable society. The election of November 1932 resulted in a landslide victory by Roosevelt over incumbent Herbert Hoover and generated large congressional majorities for the Democratic Party, which successfully mobilized a broad coalition of farmers, industrial labor, white-collar workers, women, African-Americans, and intellectuals. FDR and his party quickly proceeded to enact reforms in the areas of banking and finance (Glass-Steagall Act), industrial organization (National Industrial Recovery Act), agriculture (Agricultural Adjustment Act), and relief and conservation (Civilian Conservation Corps and Tennessee Valley Authority, among others). In ensuing years the New Deal established the framework of an American welfare state with the Social Security Act (1935), the National Labor Relations Act (1936), and the Fair Labor Standards Act (1938). These changes were strongly opposed by business leaders and conservatives who believed they represented unacceptable governmental involvement in the economy.

SEE FIGURE 31

1937
Japan Invades China

Bent on dominating the Pacific Basin, Japan needed raw materials and markets for its goods to become an industrial and imperial power. In 1931, to increase its economic reach and because it desired a buffer with the Soviet Union, Japan occupied Manchuria, the northernmost province of China. The two nations fought intermittently after 1931. Total war began in 1937, when Japan launched a full-scale invasion of China known as the Second Sino-Japanese War, thereby inaugurating a conflict that would involve it militarily on the Asian mainland for the next eight years. By the end of 1937 Japan had secured major victories in Shanghai and captured the Chinese capital of Nanking, but by 1939 the war reached a stalemate when Chinese Nationalist and allied Communist forces achieved victories. With the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941, and the entrance of the United States into the Pacific War, the ongoing Chinese-Japanese conflict merged into World War II.

SEE FIGURE 32

1934–1938
“Okies” and “Arkies”
Flee the Dust Bowl

In addition to experiencing the devastating effects of the Great Depression, the 1930s also witnessed an American ecological disaster known as the Dust Bowl. Beginning in 1931, the plentiful rains that customarily fell on the Great Plains were replaced by a prolonged drought. As ferocious dust storms repeatedly occurred, thousands of families were forced into destitution. The response to widespread farm bankruptcy and tenant eviction was another epic western migration, this time with “farm pioneers” traveling in automobiles rather than covered wagons. John Steinbeck poignantly described the harrowing experiences of one such fictional migrating family of tenant farmers, the Joads, in his influential novel, The Grapes of Wrath (1939). Hundreds of thousands of “Okies” (from Oklahoma), “Arkies” (from Arkansas), and others sought work in California’s “factories in the fields,” where they faced hostility and disdain. Often unsuccessful in their search for agricultural jobs, many migrants flooded into Los Angeles and other urban centers.

SEE FIGURE 32
SEPTEMBER 1–3, 1939
Germany Invades Poland; Britain & France Declare War

The humiliation of defeat in World War I, the turmoil of the 1920’s, and the onset of the Great Depression had fueled the rise of Adolf Hitler and his National Socialist (Nazi) Party to power in Germany. Becoming chancellor in 1933 and having created a one party dictatorship, Hitler rapidly embarked on overturning the Treaty of Versailles and “restoring” the Germans of Central and Eastern Europe to a greater German fatherland. In the spring of 1938 he sent troops to annex Austria. In the autumn, at the Munich Conference, he intimidated Britain and France into allowing him to seize the ethnically German borderlands of Czechoslovakia. When he occupied Prague in March 1939, despite promises not to do so, London and Paris responded by guaranteeing Polish independence. When Hitler invaded Poland in September 1939, the Western allies felt compelled to declare war, an act that marked the beginning of World War II.

SEE FIGURE 33

JUNE 21, 1941
Germany Invades the Soviet Union

Having conquered most of Europe and driven by a long-standing desire to acquire “living space” for Germans in the Ukrainian region, Hitler unleashed his military forces on Stalin’s Russia in a surprise attack on the first day of summer in 1941. Moving rapidly eastward, the German army reached the outskirts of Moscow and deep into the Caucasus by December, but it was unable to deliver the knockout blow that the Fuhrer (leader) had hoped to achieve. Hitler was now engaged in a two front war, as Britain and the Soviet Union, not by choice, became allies in the struggle against German Nazism and Italian Fascism.

AUGUST 14, 1941
Atlantic Charter – Democracy’s Response

At a critical moment for the anti-Axis cause, though the United States was not yet at war, President Franklin Roosevelt met British Prime Minister Winston Churchill aboard a battleship off the coast of Newfoundland to discuss long-range goals and strategy. Their joint declaration provided the ideological foundation for the war effort and the peace to follow. It called for postwar economic collaboration and guarantees of political stability so that “all men in all lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want.” The declaration also supported free trade, self-determination, and collective security.

SEE FIGURE 34

NOVEMBER 1941
Douglas Aircraft Opens Long Beach Plant

America’s aircraft industry was heavily concentrated in southern California by 1938, but war transformed Los Angeles and its environs into
the nation’s air-age Detroit, with companies like North American, Northrop, Lockheed, Hughes, Douglas, Consolidated, and Vultee enormously expanding their operations in the area. In 1939 the United States Army Air Corps possessed 400 planes. During World War II America manufactured more than 231,000 airplanes, far exceeding the President’s announced goal of 50,000 a year.

SEE FIGURE 35

DECEMBER 7, 1941
Japan Bombs Pearl Harbor

With major powers focusing on Europe, Japan was encouraged to pursue its imperial ambitions in Asia, generating great unease in Washington. In September 1940, when Japan allied itself with Germany and Italy and dispatched forces into French Indo-China, the United States embargoed exports to Japan of scrap iron and steel. The following July, after Japanese troops occupied the rest of Indo-China, Roosevelt froze Tokyo’s assets in the United States, cutting off oil shipments that accounted for almost 80% of Japanese consumption. Faced with the choice — either accept Washington’s demands that it cease its expansion into Asia or secure alternative sources for oil, rubber, and other resources — the government of Japan began to prepare for war against the United States. The surprise attack on Pearl Harbor was devastating but it united the American people as never before.

SEE FIGURE 36

DECEMBER 18, 1941
War Powers Act Gives Roosevelt Unprecedented Authority

The New Deal’s response to the Depression had strengthened the office of the presidency, but the onset of war prompted Congress to grant the Chief Executive almost unlimited power to mobilize manpower, manage industrial production and labor relations, allocate materials and resources, censor mail, and stabilize prices. Presidential agencies were established in these areas within a few months. As has so often happened in history, an international crisis and centralization of authority went hand in hand.

DECEMBER 27, 1941
Rationing of Gasoline and Food

Shortages of fuel, tin, rubber, and food were severe in wartime America and necessitated the imposition of a rationing system designed to reduce civilian consumption and guarantee a minimum of fairness in distribution. Automobile owners were required to display an A, B, or C sticker on their windshields and could buy only as much gasoline as their category allowed. Every citizen was provided with a ration book with only enough stamps to buy certain types and quantities of meat and other foods. Certain products, such as automobiles, refrigerators and radios were not manufactured during the war.
FEBRUARY/MARCH 1942
Japanese Americans Interned

Japan’s attack on Pearl Harbor rekindled hostility toward minorities in America. It also created a hysteria that focused directly on Japanese American citizens, resulting in widespread questioning of their loyalty and, in the western states (though not Hawaii), their incarceration and removal by the Roosevelt administration to such distant places as the Manzanar Relocation Center in the Owens Valley and the Topaz Relocation Center in Utah. This incarceration has come to be understood as among America’s most regrettable wartime mistakes.

SEE FIGURE 37

APRIL 1942
Santa Ana Naval Air Station (Blimp Hangars) Established

Fear of Japanese submarines operating near America’s ports prompted the Navy to establish three blimp bases on the Pacific Coast, the southernmost near Santa Ana in rural Orange County. With their slow speed and ability to hover, blimps were ideal for tracking underwater craft. At first six, then twelve blimps flew out of the Santa Ana station, which commenced operations in November 1942. The two hangars, built in 1942 and 1943 to protect the blimps from powerful local winds, are the largest clear span wooden structures in the world. The Santa Ana Naval Air Station was decommissioned in June 1949, then re-commissioned during the Korean War in April 1951 shortly before it was transferred to the Marine Corps for use as a helicopter base. In 1970 the installation became Marine Corps Air Station Tustin. The base closed in 1991.

SEE FIGURE 38

JUNE 13, 1942
Office of War Information to Guide Hollywood

By the second decade of the twentieth century Hollywood, the center of the American film industry, had become the most important vehicle for disseminating images of the California dream. During World War II Hollywood was called upon to play a new role, mobilizing the nation with patriotic feature films and propaganda as well as morale building tours by movie stars like Betty Grable, John Wayne, Bob Hope, and Ronald Reagan. Among Hollywood’s best-known patriotic films were Wake Island (1942), Flying Tigers (1942), Casablanca (1942), Mrs. Miniver (1942), Bataan (1943), Air Force (1943), Watch on the Rhine (1943), Thirty Seconds Over Tokyo (1944), and God is My Co-Pilot (1945).

JULY 1942
Land Purchased for Marine Corps Air Station El Toro

In July 1942 the federal government purchased approximately 2,300 acres from the Irvine Company for construction of the Marine Corps Air Station (MCAS) El Toro. Further acreage was acquired in 1950 and 1975. The base was originally built to facilitate squadron formation and combat training prior to overseas deployment. In March 1943 MCAS El Toro was formally commissioned as a temporary wartime installation. In December 1944 it was designated as a permanent installation. At that point the base was home to 1,248 officers and 6,831 enlisted personnel, making it the largest Marine Corps Air Station on the west coast.

SEE FIGURE 39
California Transformed

1942
Economy Booms as Defense Spending Climbs from $6 to $22 Billion

Despite the New Deal’s many programs, full recovery from the Depression had not yet been achieved by end of the 1930s. In California personal income stood at the same level in 1939 as it had in 1930, while per capita income was below that figure. By the time the U.S. entered the war in 1941, however, new military expenditures had stimulated a vast economic expansion. California benefited more than any other state during World War II, securing half of the $70 billion the federal government spent in the West and ten percent of all federally authorized funding nation-wide.

AUGUST 1942
Mexican Farm Worker (Bracero) Program Initiated

As southern California’s agricultural production expanded during World War II, the main problem it confronted was a shortage of labor. This difficulty was exacerbated by the removal and detention of the state’s Japanese-Americans and the fact that more than 700,000 Californians entered military service. In response, the federal government arranged to import thousands of farm workers from Mexico beginning in 1942. The Bracero Program was terminated after the war but was reinstated between 1951 and 1964, playing a major role in harvesting California’s crops in the postwar period.

NOVEMBER 1942
Kaiser Sets Record for Liberty Ship Construction, Richmond, CA

In the decade prior to 1940, the United States launched only 23 merchant ships. In the five years after 1940, prodded by the menace of German U-Boats, America’s shipyards built 4,600 ships. San Francisco Bay area shipbuilders (especially Henry J. Kaiser in Richmond and Warren Bechtel in Sausalito) produced 45% of all cargo and 20% of all warship tonnage built in the entire country. At its peak, the Kaiser shipyard could assemble a prefabricated “liberty ship” in about four days.

1943
San Diego Designated as Repair Station for the Pacific Fleet

Throughout the twentieth century there was a lively competition among California cities for maritime facilities, with San Diego among the most effective competitors. As Roger Lotchim argued in Fortress California, 1910–1961, “The most important reason for the placement of what became the [Navy’s] main home base in San Diego was that the city [strongly encouraged] the nation-state to put it there.” The outcome was remarkable because San Diego had less strategic significance than other major Pacific ports.

1941–1944
Three Million Americans Migrate to California

California’s population grew by almost three million during the war, more than any other state. After the war the West and “Sun Belt” proved enormously attractive to returning veterans. The population of California reached 10.5 million in 1950, a 53% expansion in just one decade. In both the Bay area and southern California people flocked to the suburbs as developers snapped up cheap farmland and strove to take advantage of a critical housing shortage. One of the most popular songs of 1944 was Bing Crosby’s “Just Call the San Fernando Valley My Home.”
NOVEMBER 1943
Of 2.1 Million Workers in Aircraft Industry, 36% are Women

World War II not only brought new people and new groups to California; it altered social relationships among men and women as well as ethnic groups. The war was an important turning point for California women, especially those who were African American. As men entered the armed forces, women’s opportunities for employment were greatly expanded, especially in the aircraft and shipbuilding industries. The song “Rosie the Riveter” became a well-known symbol of female participation in the work force, which fell off sharply after 1945 but never declined to prewar levels.

SEE FIGURE 41

JUNE 1944
GI Bill of Rights Enacted

Under the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act (the GI Bill), 16 million veterans of World War II were eligible to claim unemployment compensation while they searched for jobs. Veterans were also eligible for low-interest loans to purchase homes, small businesses, and farms as well as grants for job training and education. As a result of the GI Bill, unprecedented numbers of young people flooded American colleges and universities after the war.

APRIL–JUNE 1945
United Nations Charter Drafted in San Francisco

As World War II approached its climax, the Allies created a new international organization to replace the defunct League of Nations and to assist in achieving world peace and security. The concept had been discussed at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in the fall of 1944 and endorsed by Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin at Yalta in February 1945. All countries would belong to a General Assembly, but a Security Council made up of Britain, France, China, the Soviet Union, the United States (each with a veto), and six elected members would wield decisive power. Delegates from 50 nations met in San Francisco from April to June 1945 to draft and approve the United Nations charter. It was ratified by the U.S. Senate in July by a vote of 89 to 2, and the organization came into existence in New York City in the autumn of 1945.

MAY 8, 1945
War Ends in Europe

The turning point of the war in Europe occurred during the winter of 1942–1943, when the Soviets blunted Hitler’s advance at Stalingrad and the western Allies launched major offensives in North Africa. In 1943, the United States and Britain invaded Italy, reaching Rome in June 1944, the same month that Allied forces crossed the English Channel and landed in Normandy. By September the Allies had driven the Germans out of most of France and Belgium while the Russians were advancing into Poland. The spring of 1945 saw German cities pulverized from the skies as Americans and British crossed the Rhine and Stalin’s forces reached the Oder River. On April 30, Hitler committed suicide in his Berlin bunker. Germany surrendered unconditionally the following week.

AUGUST 6 & 9, 1945
U.S. Drops Atomic Bombs on Japan; War Ends in Asia

Prompted by the discovery in Germany in 1938 that a chain reaction of nuclear fission would release tremendous amounts of energy, American scientists raced to harness nuclear reactions for military purposes before the enemy could. This top-secret research — code-named the Manhattan Project — cost $2 billion, employed 120,000 people, and required the establishment of 37 installations in 19 states. The first successful atomic test occurred in Alamogordo, New Mexico, on July 16, 1945. Shortly afterward President Harry Truman made the decision to employ the device against Japan in the hope it would make an American invasion of the home islands unnecessary. Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the two cities where bombs were dropped, suffered more than 160,000 immediate dead. Tens of thousands died slowly from radiation sickness. Japan surrendered quickly, but modern war would never be the same.

SEE FIGURE 42
The Onset of Cold War

1946
Beginning of Twenty Year “Baby Boom”

Following World War II, Americans came to place new emphasis on the family and having children. Marriages in this era were remarkably stable (the country’s divorce rate did not rise until the mid-1960s) and the birth rate shot up as well. More babies were born between 1948 and 1953 than were born in the previous thirty years. This was the start of a twenty-year “baby boom” that peaked in 1957.

NOVEMBER 5, 1946
Republicans Regain Control of Congress

In the period immediately following the end of World War II the United States experienced substantial difficulties in returning to a peacetime economy. Inflation proved an even more serious problem than unemployment and labor unrest as the consumer price index (CPI) rose by 18% in 1946. Economic uncertainty enabled the Republican Party to capture Congress in the 1946 midterm elections for the first time in 14 years. In the minds of American voters, the Truman administration clearly deserved the blame for rising prices.

MARCH 1947
Cold War, Containment, and the Truman Doctrine

The victors of World War II fell into immediate disagreement over the structure of peace, particularly in Eastern Europe. Within months what came to be called the “Cold War” took the place of the earlier conflict. As tensions mounted between the U.S. and USSR, an American diplomat — George F. Kennan — argued convincingly that the United States should pursue a policy of “firm containment at every point the Soviets show signs of encroaching upon the interests of a peaceful and stable world.” Containment was institutionalized in 1947 during a crisis in Greece in which Communist guerillas fought the Greek government and British occupation forces. The President proclaimed the “Truman Doctrine,” requested $400 million to aid Greece and Turkey, and called on Americans to support all peoples who are “resisting attempted subjugation.” This was a more open-ended commitment than George F. Kennan ever imagined.

APRIL 1947
Mendez v. Westminster Ruling Affirmed by Courts

Separate schools for “Mexicans” (even the children of U.S. citizens) was once common practice in a number of southern California cities. In March 1945, several Mexican American families applied for a federal injunction against segregating Spanish-speaking children in certain Orange County schools. In a landmark desegregation case, Mendez v. Westminster (February 1946), the court agreed that segregating Spanish-speaking students from English-speaking students was an unconstitutional denial of their right to learn English and thus of their rights to equal protection under the law. In 1947, this ruling was upheld by the Ninth Federal District Court of Appeals, although it skirted the issue of race by focusing on children with Mexican origins, not other racial groups. The Mendez ruling established a precedent for the better known Brown v. Board of Education ruling by the United States Supreme Court seven years later.

JUNE 5, 1947
The Marshall Plan; Economic Aid for Europe

Recognizing that the severe postwar dislocation of Europe’s economy might encourage the spread of Communism, the Truman administration instituted a program of large-scale economic and military aid for that continent known as the Marshall Plan. The plan was designed to complement United States containment policy and the Truman Doctrine and was unveiled by Secretary of State George C. Marshall in a commencement address at Harvard in June 1947. Over the next four years the United States contributed more than $12 billion to a highly successful western European recovery.

SEE FIGURE 43 ON FOLLOWING PAGE
OCTOBER–NOVEMBER 1947

“Witch-Hunt” for Communists in Hollywood

As American relations with the Soviet Union deteriorated, suspicion, fear, and partisanship spawned widespread public concern regarding Communist subversion. In the 1940s this was particularly evident in the investigations of the House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC), a body formed before World War II but newly active in the context of the Cold War. In 1947 HUAC helped launch what many saw as a “red scare” by holding hearings on Communist infiltration of the film industry. A group of writers and directors (the “Hollywood Ten”) were jailed when they refused to testify about past associations, and motion picture artists identified as “Reds” found themselves blacklisted. The anti-Communist crusade intensified in 1948 when Orange County Congressman Richard Nixon began an investigation of Alger Hiss, a former State Department official later convicted of perjury for lying about his Communist connections.

JUNE 1948 – MAY 1949

Berlin Blockade Generates Allied Air Lift

Accelerating efforts to strengthen Europe by rebuilding the West German economy, the United States, Britain, and France agreed in the spring of 1948 to fuse their zones of occupation and begin currency reform that included West Berlin. Soviet policy-makers, fearing increasing westernization of a city deep within their zone, imposed a blockade in July 1948 on all land traffic to and from West Berlin. President Truman responded with an airlift of supplies, and American and British pilots flew nearly 2.5 million tons of food and fuel a day into the former German capital until Stalin lifted the blockade in May 1949. The Berlin Blockade and an earlier Communist coup in Czechoslovakia were crucial catalysts in Allied decisions to create a North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) alliance and establish a West German state in May of 1949.

SEE FIGURE 44

JULY 26, 1948

Racial Integration of U.S. Military

After 1945 African Americans were determined to end the long-standing racial injustices of prewar America. They faced considerable resistance, however, especially in the South, where they encountered violence upon asserting their rights. Pressured by civil rights leaders and their liberal allies, President Truman concluded that presidential action was necessary. In 1946 he created a Committee on Civil Rights that recommended various measures to protect voting privileges and to eliminate segregation. Following up on this report, in 1948 Truman issued an executive order to desegregate the nation’s armed services. Though it attracted considerable attention, the order was not fully implemented until the Korean War in 1950.

JANUARY 20, 1949

Harry Truman at Inaugural Proclaims Fair Deal

In the 1948 presidential election Harry Truman encountered a resurgent Republican party emboldened by its successes in the 1946 congressional elections. He also faced revolts within his own party from Progressives on the left and a States’ Rights Party (the “Dixiecrats”) on the right. Nonetheless, he surprised everyone by handily defeating his Republican opponent, Thomas Dewey. Truman proclaimed his victory a mandate for a domestic agenda he called the...
“Fair Deal,” which included civil rights measures, a national health care program, and federal aid to education. Conservative legislators, determined to limit the role of government, waged a fierce battle against such programs.

SEE FIGURE 45

AUTUMN 1949
Billy Graham Embarks on Ministry as Church Membership Surges

Church attendance rose steadily in the 1940s, from 49% of America’s population to more than 60%. All major denominations shared in the growth, but it was particularly obvious in the rise to nation-wide popularity of spokesmen and preachers such as Norman Vincent Peale, Bishop Fulton J. Sheen, and the young Billy Graham. The impressive revival of religion spoke to Americans’ search for meaning in uncertain times.

SEE FIGURE 46

AUTUMN 1949
China Falls to Communists

Civil war had raged in China since the 1930s. Communist forces led by Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) contended for power with the Nationalist government of Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek). Following the defeat of Japan in 1945, Jiang badly over-extended his frail regime by attempting to occupy northern China and Manchuria. The Truman administration provided more than $2 billion in aid to the Nationalists, but to no avail. In 1948 and 1949 the Communists steadily drove Jiang’s armies southward, ultimately forcing them to flee the mainland to Taiwan. In America, conservative critics heaped blame for the “worst defeat in its history” on Truman. The refusal of the United States to recognize “Red China” helped to isolate the world’s most populous country and distorted relations between the two nations for more than two decades.

SEE FIGURE 47

Figure 46. Rev. Billy Graham was an influential evangelist and spiritual advisor to numerous presidents. Image courtesy of Billy Graham Evangelistic Association.

Figure 45. President since the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt, Harry S Truman was inaugurated in January 1949 after being elected in his own right. Image courtesy of Library of Congress.

Figure 47. Mao Zedong (left and above) dressed for cold weather, inspects a People’s Liberation Army artillery unit. Image courtesy of Gao Fan.
**THE COLD WAR**

The Cold War at its Most Intense

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**JUNE 25, 1950**

**Korean War**

The Soviet Union and the United States had forces in Korea when Japan collapsed in 1945, and neither was willing to abandon occupied territories. As a result, Korea was divided at the 38th parallel. Moscow supported a Communist regime in the North and Washington backed a nationalist government in the South. On June 25, 1950, North Korea, encouraged by both Russia and China, launched a massive surprise attack across the parallel aimed at seizing control of the country. President Truman asked the United Nations Security Council to authorize a defensive “police action” — which the UN could do because the Soviet Union opted to be absent — and immediately committed American troops. The ensuing military struggle surged up and down the peninsula for more than three years. Together with the earlier fall of China to the Communists and the successful testing of a Soviet atomic bomb in 1949, the Korean War led to rearmament of the United States and a more intense phase of the Cold War.

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**NOVEMBER 1952**

**Dwight Eisenhower Elected President**

Weared by two years of bloody struggle in Korea and frustrated with the continuing Cold War, the American public became disenchanted with the Democratic Party in 1952 and elected General Dwight D. “Ike” Eisenhower to the presidency. The architect of Allied victory in Europe during World War II, later army chief of staff, president of Columbia University, and NATO’s first supreme commander, Ike endorsed President Truman’s foreign policy and had originally entered the race for the Republican nomination to prevent Senator Robert Taft and isolationist compatriots from securing control of the party. A moderate critic of the New Deal and Fair Deal, Ike placated conservatives by choosing the outspoken anti-Communist Senator Richard M. Nixon of California as a running mate. Eisenhower defeated Democrat Adlai Stevenson in November by amassing 55.2% of the popular vote.

SEE FIGURE 48

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**APRIL 1953**

**James Watson and Francis Crick Identify DNA structure**

The science of human genetics was substantially transformed when in April 1953 James Watson and Francis Crick, then of Cambridge University, published a paper describing the structure of the DNA-helix. In the 1940s the American scientist Oswald Avery and several colleagues had demonstrated that genes were made up of nucleic acid and that DNA carries genetic information. Watson and Crick now showed that...
the DNA molecule consists of two spirally wound chains resembling a twisted rope ladder. In 1962 Watson, Crick, and their associate Maurice Williams would be awarded the Nobel Prize in Physiology/Medicine for their solution of one of the most significant biological riddles: how genetic information is stored in molecular form and how it is passed from one generation to the next. Ultimately Watson and Crick’s discovery led to an explosion in the field of molecular genetics, greatly enlarging our understanding of how genetic information is expressed, how mutations occur, and how they alter protein structure and cause disease.

**JULY 1953**

**Conflict in Korea Ends with Armistice**

United States involvement in the Korean War turned the tide of battle and carried the war into North Korea, though the massive intervention of Communist China in November and December 1951 recovered most of what the North had lost. Armistice talks began in mid-1951 but dragged on for more than two years, ensnared in wrangling over the exchange of prisoners and location of a final demarcation line. The election of Eisenhower and the death in March 1953 of Joseph Stalin in the Soviet Union deprived each side of the likelihood of victory and cleared the way for a truce. This “limited war” cost the United States 54,000 dead and more than 100,000 wounded. Total UN casualties were 382,000 killed and wounded while the Chinese and North Koreans lost more than 1.6 million, the South Koreans over 3 million.

**MARCH 1954**

**U.S. Explodes Hydrogen Bomb**

When the Soviet Union exploded its first atomic bomb in August 1949, ending the United States nuclear monopoly, Americans were so surprised that they felt it necessary to build an even deadlier weapon. In January 1950 President Truman approved development of a hydrogen bomb, expected by scientists to generate a thermonuclear explosion equivalent to 1,000 atomic bombs. The first test of this bomb, the largest American bomb ever detonated, was carried out in March 1954. The thermonuclear advantage proved to be short-lived because the Soviet Union exploded its own super bomb the very next year. An escalating race for nuclear dominance became part of an American defensive strategy based on the concept of “deterrence”—the assumption that its more powerful nuclear capacity would deter the Soviets from attacking the United States. This proved to be one of the most perilous periods in history, years in which two global powers possessed the means to destroy human civilization but believed that their enemy was too rational to do so.

**MAY 1954**

**Brown v. Board of Education**

In the early 1950s every southern state still required racial segregation in such public places as hospitals, schools, drinking fountains, and restrooms. Moreover, southern voting laws were designed to disfranchise African Americans. By mid-decade, however, this had begun to change as a result of resistance by African Americans, now in the process of building a civil rights movement that would transform race relations in the United States. Thurgood Marshall, on behalf of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), urged the Supreme Court to overturn the precedent established by *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which had declared “separate but equal” schools to be legally acceptable. In May 1954, a unanimous court headed by Chief Justice Earl Warren concluded that “separate educational facilities are inherently unequal,” dismantling the legal basis for racial segregation and paving the way for integration.

**JULY 1955**

**Disneyland Opens in Anaheim**

Walt Disney Productions was among the most profitable of Hollywood’s studios in the postwar era, having reduced its reliance on animated films to embrace family-oriented movies, nature
films, and the new medium of television. Walt Disney’s greatest success — the creation of the world’s most famous amusement park — was yet to come. Born in Chicago in 1901, Disney had been four when his family moved to a remote Missouri farm town called Marceline. This town would have a formative impact on Disney’s later life, as it provided him with archetypal American images that were later incorporated into Disneyland, which opened in Anaheim in July 1955 and became the all-consuming focus of Disney’s life. Disneyland’s appeal can be attributed to its re-creation of small-town America, as well as its use of adventure, frontier, space, and storybook themes. In 2007, nearly fifteen million people visited the park, a figure surpassed only by the Magic Kingdom at Walt Disney World in Florida.

SEE FIGURE 49

FEBRUARY 1956
Nikita Khrushchev Introduces “De-Stalinization”

Following Stalin’s death in March 1953, his former lieutenants, convinced that his domestic and foreign policies had been too severe and intimidating, cast about for alternatives, first under the leadership of Georgi Malenkov and then, after January 1955, under Nikita Khrushchev. The new Soviet foreign policy they devised strove for closer ties with Eastern Europe, the creation of buffers between military blocs, and more economic and political cooperation with NATO countries. The inevitability of war was played down; peaceful coexistence and non-violent competition became the objective. In a secret speech to the Twentieth Party Congress on February 2, 1956, Khrushchev extended these ideas to domestic affairs, attacking and discrediting Stalin for his crimes and promising the release of thousands from labor camps, relaxation of censorship, more contact with foreigners, and an increase in consumer goods. The “Khrushchev thaw” began to change the face of the Cold War.

OCTOBER 1957
The Soviet Sputnik in Space

When the Soviet Union launched “sputnik,” the first man-made earth satellite, on October 4, 1957, American space scientists publicly acknowledged that its transporting missile could just as easily carry a nuclear warhead. The American public, long accustomed to leadership in military technology, reacted with understandable dismay. Widespread soul-searching led not only to a renewed civil defense effort but also to the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which provided millions of dollars for scientific education in American high schools and universities. Problems with the launchings of America’s first satellites soon prompted claims by political critics such as Senator John F. Kennedy (D-MA) that a disadvantageous “missile gap” existed. This was the beginning of a decade-long “space race” with Russia, intensified by Khrushchev’s recklessness in falsely asserting that Soviet pre-eminence in space exploration required negotiations on issues like the status of Berlin.

SEE FIGURE 50

LATE 1950s
Aerospace-Defense Industry Launched in Orange County

During the Cold War, industrial firms receiving Department of Defense contracts were located primarily in the suburban areas of southern and western states, referred to by some as the Pacific’s “defense perimeter.” From 1951 to 1965 California received more defense contracts than any other state. Many of Orange County’s employers and workers participated in aerospace-defense. Indeed, that industry served as a major catalyst for the county’s economic boom, with firms such as Northrop Corporation, Hughes Aircraft, Douglas Aircraft’s Space Systems (later McDonnell Douglas Astronautics Company), North American Rockwell’s Autonetics Electronics Systems Division, and Ford Motor Company’s Aeronutronics establishing divisions in the region. With the decline of the aerospace-defense industry in the late 1980s, the county experienced a successful, if highly disruptive, transition to a more diversified economy.

SEE FIGURE 49

Figure 50. The Soviet Sputnik or “little traveler” launched in 1957 was the first man made object to orbit the earth. Image courtesy of National Aeronautics and Space Administration.
APRIL 1960
Master Plan for Higher Education
Adopted in California

Clark Kerr, the President of the University of California from 1957 to 1967, was a key leader in the history of California higher education. Early in his presidency, Kerr called attention to an impending enrollment “tidal wave,” and he was later instrumental in creating the influential Master Plan for Higher Education that was signed into law by Governor Pat Brown in April 1960. The plan differentiated among the state’s three segments of public post-secondary education: community colleges, a state university system, and the University of California. It promised a place at one of the state’s public colleges or universities for “all who have the capacity and willingness to profit by a college education.” The plan became a model for other states with similar challenges and aspirations. It was under the auspices of the Master Plan that three new UC campuses were established in the mid-1960s at Irvine, San Diego, and Santa Cruz.

NOVEMBER 1960
California Water Project Approved

Because deficient rainfall is California’s major natural imperfection, there have been struggles throughout its history over control of water. These include battles between farmers and “water monopolists,” conflicts over the controversial Owens Valley-Los Angeles aqueduct in the early twentieth century, and fights surrounding the Central Valley Project, a coordinated system of dams and canals that became operational in the 1950s. Because most of California’s water is in the northern half of the state, while most of the need is in the southern half, it was widely agreed that a statewide water program was indispensable to the state’s future growth. Despite opposition from most northern Californians, funding for such a program was provided in November 1960 by voter approval of the largest bond issue ($1.75 billion) ever adopted until that time by any state for any purpose. Little more than a decade later the California State Water Project (SWP), the world’s largest publicly built and operated water and power conveyance system, was providing water for arid southern California.

AUGUST 1961
Berlin Wall Erected

Frustrated by the destabilizing effect that West Berlin continued to have on the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) and disappointed by Soviet inability to negotiate a solution to this problem, Premier Khrushchev responded in August 1961 by directing the East German leadership to build a concrete barrier that cut off West Berlin from East Berlin and the surrounding region. In the 15 years before the wall 3.5 million East Germans had circumvented immigration prohibitions and defected to the West, largely through Berlin. Between 1961 and 1989 the Berlin wall and other physical obstacles prevented almost all such emigration. The wall allowed East Germany to improve its economic situation and thus strengthen the Eastern European Communist bloc, but the change came at the cost of largely destroying the new state’s claim to be a model of benevolent socialism.

SEE FIGURE 51

OCTOBER 1962
Cuban Missile Crisis

Called “the ultimate exercise in nuclear brinkmanship,” the Cuban missile crisis of October 1962 came very close to turning the Cold War hot. Eager to regain strategic equilibrium after American satellites made United States missile superiority clear, and feeling a responsibility to protect Cuba from outside intervention, Khrushchev, in league with Fidel
Castro, secretly began in August 1962 to build bases in Cuba for intermediate range ballistic missiles capable of reaching the United States. These became known to President Kennedy in October 1962 and not only prompted him to demand their immediate removal but led to the establishment of a naval blockade of Cuba and several extremely tense days of negotiation. Two Soviet-American agreements resulted — one public (requiring the withdrawal of the missiles in return for a pledge not to invade Cuba) and one secret (requiring the United States to dismantle Thor and Jupiter missile systems deployed in Turkey). The Cuban confrontation left both sides chastened and more open to accommodation. It also disastrously undermined Khrushchev's reputation at home and paved the way for his overthrow in 1964.

SEE Figure 52

August 1963
Limited Nuclear Test-ban Treaty

Following the crises of 1961 and 1962, the Soviet leadership found itself in a painful double bind, trying to convince Cuba and China of its steadfastness while attempting to reach out to an increasingly nervous United States. The effort to reassure Russia's allies had led Khrushchev to explode a 50 megaton nuclear warhead in the fall of 1961, the largest Soviet bomb ever, but this compounded his difficulties with the West, where there was growing concern about radioactive fallout. In the summer of 1963, impressed by Kennedy's unilateral suspension of atmospheric testing and a friendly speech at American University, Khrushchev opted for a serious movement toward accommodation, agreeing to establish a telegraphic "hot line" with Washington and dropping his longstanding demand that a ban on nuclear testing include underground tests. In July, building on negotiations that had gone on for nearly a decade, the United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union signed a treaty banning tests in the atmosphere, outer space, and under water.

November 1963
President John F. Kennedy Assassinated

Having won the presidency in an excruciatingly close election, John F. Kennedy balanced his vigorous foreign policy with a cautious and restrained domestic policy. Not until his final months in office, largely in response to grassroots agitation, did he press for reforms to address the problems of racism and poverty. Before his proposals could be acted upon, Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas on November 22, 1963, apparently by a former Marine named Lee Harvey Oswald who in the late 1950's had been briefly stationed at MCAS El Toro. Two days later, a vast TV audience watched in horror as a local nightclub owner named Jack Ruby shot Oswald while he was being moved from one jail to another. Ruby's act caused many to conclude that Oswald had been killed to cover up a conspiracy, some suspecting a plot by ultraconservative Texans who despised Kennedy and others pointing to a possible role by Communists or the Mafia. President Johnson appointed an investigative commission headed by Chief Justice Earl Warren, and in September 1964 it concluded that both Oswald and Ruby acted alone, a finding that has sparked widespread debate ever since.

See Figure 53

July 1964
Civil Rights Act Bans Public Discrimination

The landmark Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited discrimination in employment on the basis of race or sex while at the same time it extended voting rights, guaranteed access for all Americans to public accommodations, and outlawed racial segregation in public schools or the workplace. The original bill had been proposed by President Kennedy in a civil rights speech of June 1963, but it was not taken up in earnest until after his death. When the bill reached the Senate after its approval by the House of Representatives in February 1964, Richard Russell of Georgia led a filibuster to block its passage. After 57 days of debate, the Senate voted 71 to 29 to end the filibuster, the first time in history it had cut off discussion on a civil rights bill. President Johnson signed the bill into law in July 1964. Interestingly, the Civil Rights Act was strengthened the following year by another piece of legislation, the Voting Rights Act, which outlawed discriminatory voting practices that resulted in disenfranchisement of African American, Asian American, Latino, and American Indian citizens.
1964–1967
Lyndon Johnson Champions Great Society

Becoming president on the death of Kennedy, Lyndon Johnson was determined to achieve the reforms his predecessor sought, and more. His immediate priorities were Kennedy’s bills to reduce taxes and to ban discrimination, but he went on to declare “unconditional war on poverty.” By August 1964, President Johnson had secured passage of an Economic Opportunity Act that provided training for the disadvantaged and established community action programs like Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), Job Corps, and Head Start. Following his landslide victory in 1964, Johnson enlarged his vision, embarking on the creation of what he called the “Great Society.” Under his leadership, Congress enacted legislation providing federal funding for education, a Medicare program for the elderly, a Medicaid program for the poor, protection of voting rights, abolition of ethnic and national immigration quotas, subsidies for low income housing, and safety standards for air, water, and transportation. It was the greatest burst of legislative activity since the New Deal.

The Vietnam Years

1964–1967
U.S. Enters Land War in South Vietnam

In March 1965 Johnson sent combat forces into South Vietnam, authorizing them to go on the offensive against the Vietcong and their North Vietnamese allies. By 1967 almost a half million American soldiers were fighting in Vietnam and the war was costing more than $20 billion a year. See Figure 54.

1964–1967
Anti-Vietnam War Movement Erupts in the U.S.

1965
The Great Society

June 1965
Delano Grape Strike
Led by Cesar Chavez

California growers opposed the unionization of farm workers, arguing that perishable crops made them uniquely vulnerable to strikes. An added obstacle to unionizing farm workers was their poverty and lack of organization. Nevertheless, in 1959 the nation’s largest union, the AFL-CIO, took the offensive on the farm-labor front, establishing the Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee (AWOC). In 1962 a former migrant farm laborer and organizer named Cesar Chavez, in concert with Dolores Huerta, co-founded an independent union named the National Farm Workers Association, later called the United Farm Workers Association (UFW). In 1965, when Filipino farm workers and other AWOC members initiated a grape strike in Delano against 33 grape growers, Chavez and the UFW took the lead in supporting them. In the spring and summer of 1966 these workers won a series of victories that set a precedent for the unionization of California’s largest farms. By 1975, Chavez’s United Farm Workers of America had won passage of the Agricultural Labor Relations Act, which gave them legal bargaining rights.
OCTOBER 1965
University of California, Irvine Opens

The branches of the University of California established in the mid-1960s at Irvine, San Diego, and Santa Cruz were founded as "general campuses" and enrolled undergraduate and graduate students in the arts, biological sciences, humanities, physical sciences, and social sciences as well as professional schools. UC Irvine’s aspirations had been originally presented in June 1963 in a long-range plan that included both pedagogical principles and a physical design. A central figure in choosing the specific location was the architect-planner William Pereira, who in October 1957 had been named Master Architect for the campus. After an extensive search, the site he recommended was the Irvine Ranch, a historic landholding bisecting Orange County. Working closely with Pereira and founding Chancellor Daniel G. Aldrich, Jr. was Ray Watson of The Irvine Company, a persuasive advocate for Pereira’s concept of linking the city with the university. On October 4, 1965 the campus began operations with 1,589 students and 119 faculty members. The new city that would ultimately surround the campus was still six years in the future.

MARCH, SEPTEMBER 1967
South Coast Plaza & Fashion Island Open

A defining feature of Orange County in recent decades, as its population has become more diverse, is its increasing cosmopolitanism, i.e. its interest in, knowledge of, and appreciation for many parts of the world. A leading indicator of its cosmopolitanism can be found in its consumer culture — especially at two of Orange County’s upscale retail centers: South Coast Plaza and Fashion Island. South Coast Plaza was founded in 1967 by Harold T. Segerstrom and his cousin Henry T. Segerstrom in what had been one of the family’s lima bean fields in Costa Mesa. It was built the same year as the Irvine Company’s Fashion Island center in Newport Beach. In their early years these malls featured mainstream department stores such as Bullock’s, Nordstrom’s, Buffum’s, J. W. Robinson’s, and The Broadway. In more recent years these have been supplemented by enterprises featuring a more international flavor. Gorgio Armani, Versace, Marche Moderne, and Canaletto are examples.

JUNE 1967
Six Day War: Israel Expands Its Area of Control

Established as a state in 1948 and having survived wars with neighboring Arab nations in that year and again in 1956, Israel responded to increasing regional tension, Arab military mobilization, and a damaging Egyptian commercial blockade by launching surprise air strikes on June 5, 1967 against Egyptian, Jordanian, and Syrian forces. In the course of the next week Israeli armies advanced decisively, occupying new territory more than three times

APRIL 1966
Baseball’s Angels Come to Anaheim

In the 1950s and 1960s the growth of commercial aviation allowed professional baseball to expand nationally, bringing three National League teams (Giants, Dodgers, Padres) and two American League teams (Athletics and Angels) to California. The Angels franchise of today was created as an expansion team in 1961 under the ownership of the cowboy actor and singer, Gene Autry. It played at Wrigley Field, Los Angeles in 1961 and from 1962 to 1965 at Dodger Stadium, moving to a new stadium in Anaheim as the "California Angels" in 1966. The "Angels" name actually dates from 1892 and was used until 1957 by the Los Angeles Angels of the Pacific Coast League. In the 1990s the current team was renamed the "Anaheim Angels." In 2002, the same year the team won its first World Series, it was renamed the "Los Angeles Angels of Anaheim."

OCTOBER 1966
National Organization for Women (NOW) Founded

The civil rights struggle of the 1960s served as inspiration for an emerging women’s movement. Like the “first wave” of feminism that had achieved suffrage in 1920, “second wave” feminists found it necessary to be active in the political arena. While successfully piggybacking onto the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (by achieving a ban on sex discrimination), many women believed there had been little or no enforcement of the law. They therefore favored the formation of an organization to address women’s needs in the way civil rights groups had spoken out for African Americans. In 1966 Betty Friedan, whose book The Feminine Mystique (1963) had sparked a national debate about gender roles, joined with others to found the National Organization for Women (NOW) to pursue “true equality for all women in America ... and a fully equal partnership of the sexes.” By the 1970s the women’s movement had become extremely active in pursuing its goals. One such goal, the Equal Rights Amendment, passed both Houses of Congress, but fell three states short of ratification.
the size of Israel, expelling Jordan from Jerusalem and the West Bank, Syria from the Golan Heights, and Egypt from the Sinai Peninsula. Of the one million Palestinians on the West Bank before the conflict, more than 300,000 fled to Jordan, where they contributed significantly to growing unrest. The 1967 war diminished the prospects for peace in the Middle East, since Arab states found it difficult to accept such population movements and loss of territory. Moreover, despite Arab objections, in 1969 the Israeli government began to establish Jewish settlements in occupied areas.

1967–1968
Anti-Vietnam War Movement Erupts in the U.S.

In conjunction with the civil rights campaigns, student radicalism, and counter-cultural movements of the 1960s, a powerful aversion to United States involvement in Vietnam developed among young Americans in the years after 1965. By 1967 the demand for civil rights had come to constitute an attack on the structure of racial oppression throughout the nation. This critique was strongly reinforced by spokesmen of what was called the “the New Left,” a movement led by students critical of social apathy and disillusioned with the military-industrial-academic establishment. American bombing and invasion of Vietnam provided the catalyst that brought these protests together with an older peace movement whose goal had been the abolition of nuclear weapons. Opposition to the war, and demonstrations reflecting it, grew as troop levels climbed and television and press coverage conveyed the suffering of civilians and military. The anti-war movement peaked after the Vietcong’s Tet offensive of early 1968, but it proved crucial in persuading Lyndon Johnson not to run for re-election.

SEE FIGURE 55

DECEMBER 1968
Interstate 405 Completed in Orange County

Eisenhower as president generally preferred the initiatives of private enterprise, but when there was a military justification he could and did support governmental activity. One of his major accomplishments in this regard was the Interstate Highway Act of 1956, at that point the largest public works project in American history. This law authorized construction of a national highway system for which the federal government paid 90% of costs and the states 10%. The new system resulted in gains for the trucking and automobile industry but exacted costs in the form of pollution, energy consumption, and the decay of central cities (because new highways made commutes between urban centers and residential suburbs quicker). Of regional significance was the completion in late 1968 of Orange County’s Interstate 405, the major north-south highway running from the San Fernando Valley through the western areas of Los Angeles to southeastern Irvine, where it converged with Interstate 5. By 2008 the I-405’s average daily traffic reached 374,000 vehicles, highest in the nation.

APRIL, JUNE 1968
Martin Luther King and Robert F. Kennedy Assassinated

By 1968 the anti-war movement had inspired a substantial counter-mobilization on the part of those who supported American efforts in Vietnam, creating a highly charged polarization in national attitudes. In April of that year Dr. Martin Luther King, the African American champion of civil rights and a vigorous critic of the war, was assassinated in Memphis, Tennessee, and several days of destructive urban riots ensued. In subsequent weeks campus violence escalated sharply as students in the United States, France, and Germany took to streets to protest of the war and racial injustice. In June a second assassination stunned the nation, as Senator Robert F. Kennedy was shot and killed by an Arab refugee in Los Angeles shortly after winning the California presidential primary. In August young radicals battled police in the streets of Chicago during the Democratic National Convention. The coalition that had kept the Democrats the majority party for 30 years began to come apart as much of the South and white working class gravitated toward the Republican opposition.

SEE FIGURE 56

Figure 55. (Top) Florida State University students march in an antiwar protest. Image courtesy of Florida State Archives Memory Collection and Cpl. Chris Lyttle.

Figure 56. Civil rights leader, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., addresses the crowd during the March on Washington on August 28, 1963. It was during this address that he made his “I Have a Dream” statement.
**The Détente Years**

**JULY 1969**  
**U.S. Lands Man on the Moon**

Challenged by the Soviet Union’s achievements in space, including its success in putting the first man in earth orbit (Yuri Gagarin) and the first man-made object on the moon’s surface, President Kennedy had pledged in 1961 to land an American on, and return from, the moon within ten years. In a speech to a joint session of Congress the President had dramatically launched a space race with Moscow by urgently requesting a budget supplement of $1.7 billion to finance American lunar exploration efforts. This competition ended successfully for the United States on July 21, 1969 when, right on schedule, Apollo XI astronauts Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin set foot on the moon’s Sea of Tranquility. In the next three years, 12 Americans would land, walk, and conduct experiments on the moon. American technical superiority appeared to be confirmed.  

SEE FIGURE 57

**DECEMBER 1970**  
**Environmental Protection Agency Established**

Accompanying the demonstrations of the 1960s and early 1970s in favor of civil rights and against the Vietnam War were equally fervent protests regarding the negative effects of industrial pollution on the environment. In April 1970 millions of Americans observed the first Earth Day. These environmentalists had a much broader agenda than the one that had animated their conservationist predecessors earlier in the century. Not only did they wish to preserve large segments of nature but, more importantly, they sought protection for human beings from the debilitating effects of polluted air and water. Rachel Carson’s *A Silent Spring* (1962) is widely credited with helping launch the environmental movement by drawing national attention to the harmful effects of toxic chemicals, especially the pesticide DDT. President Nixon (1969–1974) endorsed the establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in late 1970. Nixon also signed the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA) and the Clean Air Act that same year.

**DECÉMBRE 1971**  
**City of Irvine Incorporated**

Following the death of James Irvine in 1886, ownership of the Irvine Ranch passed to his son James II, who took control of it upon reaching the age of 25 in 1892. Moving quickly, he incorporated the ranch in 1894 with the intent of vastly expanding its production of crops as well as its cattle operations. Over the next three decades he turned it into one of the most successful agricultural areas in California. He also sold off small pieces of its property on occasion, making possible the enlargement of Newport Beach, Laguna Beach, and other neighboring cities. In 1937 James founded a charitable trust, the Irvine Foundation, and established it as the majority stockholder of the Irvine Company. In the 1950s, after his death, the company began opening large sections of the ranch to suburban development, organizing them according to a detailed Master Plan. By 1970, the villages of Turtle Rock, University Park, Culverdale, The Ranch, and Walnut had come into existence. On December 28, 1971, residents of these communities voted to create the city of Irvine under a charter law form of government.

**DECEMBRE 1973**  
**Irvine General Plan Envisions Non-Aviation Future for MCAS El Toro**

See Figure 57. Astronaut Neil Armstrong on the moon taking “one small step for a man and a giant leap for all mankind.” Image courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration.
FEBRUARY 1972
President Richard Nixon Visits China

Even before he was elected President in 1968, Richard Nixon considered re-establishing American relations with mainland China, suspended since the revolution of 1949. Conservative by nature, Nixon envisioned Communist China as a useful counter-weight to the Soviet Union in the Cold War and a means of increasing pressure on Hanoi to make peace in Vietnam. As president, after a series of secret contacts and to the surprise of both the American public and Communist leaders in Russia, he accepted an invitation to visit Beijing in February 1972. At the conclusion of his stay the two governments issued the Shanghai Communiqué, pledging to work toward full normalization and committing the United States to remove its forces from the island of Taiwan at the end of the war in Southeast Asia. In succeeding years, Nixon’s “triangular diplomacy” (involving Moscow, Beijing, and Washington) did not serve American purposes in Vietnam as much as he had hoped, but it worked to the advantage of the United States in relations with the Soviet Union.

SEE FIGURE 58

JUNE 1972
California State College, Fullerton Becomes a University

Following World War II, partly as the result of the G.I. Bill, which provided federal funds for training and education, young people began flooding into American colleges and universities. These growing numbers, fortified by the general increase in population, ultimately led California to formulate its highly influential Master Plan for Higher Education, approved in 1960 (see April 1960 — Master Plan). Orange County benefited from this Master Plan by becoming the home of both a State University and a University of California campus. A few years earlier, in 1957, the campus in Fullerton had been founded as California’s twelfth State College and had opened in September 1959 as Orange County State College. In 1972, when the State College system was designated as The California State University and Colleges, it was renamed California State University, Fullerton. By its 50th anniversary in 2007, Fullerton had the highest enrollment of any California State University campus.

SEE FIGURE 59

1972–1973
Détente Achieved with Soviet Union

One of the ironic side-effects of the Vietnam War was a decline in popular support in the United States for an actively anti-Communist foreign policy. Other factors were involved in alleviating the East-West struggle, including growing parity in missiles, the break-up of alliances, and increasing economic difficulties in America and the Soviet Union. Yet it was primarily the unacceptable costs of the Vietnam conflict that afforded the superpowers a chance to reduce the scope of the Cold War. President Nixon took advantage of this opportunity and achieved specific tension-reducing understandings with Leonid Brezhnev and the Soviet leadership. Meeting in Moscow in May 1972, the two statesmen agreed to an anti-ballistic missile (ABM) treaty, Strategic Arms Limitation (SALT), commercial arrangements, and a Declaration of Principles to guide their relationship. The next two years saw the high tide of “détente” (relaxation), as Nixon and Brezhnev held two more summit conferences and tried to meet each other’s immediate needs without conceding victory in a competition each thought his side would win.

SEE FIGURE 60
JANUARY 1973
U.S.-North Vietnam Peace Agreement

Negotiations among the warring parties in Vietnam were initiated in 1968, but the most important conversations began secretly in August 1969, with Henry Kissinger representing the Nixon administration and Le Duc Tho the North Vietnamese regime. In the course of the next three years, as the United States withdrew its forces from the country, Washington abandoned many of its original objectives (for example, that North Vietnamese military units leave the South), but it obtained no significant response from the enemy until the autumn of 1972, when it became clear that Nixon would be re-elected. At that point, when Hanoi gave up its demand that the South Vietnamese government be disestablished before any future elections, the United States accepted the concession as sufficient and, though the South Vietnamese protested, signed an armistice with Hanoi (January 23, 1973). Thus the American role in the war ended, though the accords actually had little effect on the conflict and were only superficially honored. After Nixon resigned in 1974, Congress repudiated American promises of aid and air support to Saigon. In the face of a renewed North Vietnamese offensive, South Vietnam collapsed in 1975.

OCTOBER 1973
Yom Kippur War, Oil Embargo

Resentful at previous defeats and at continued Israeli occupation of the Sinai and Golan Heights, Egypt and Syria led an Arab coalition in launching a surprise attack in those regions on Yom Kippur (October 6) — among the holiest days of the Jewish year — in 1973. The offensive was initially successful and prompted a massive supply effort by the United States to compensate for Israeli losses. Within a week, however, the Israeli army recovered the initiative, and at this point it was the Soviet Union’s turn to become concerned about its ally, Egypt. An Israeli counter-attack across the Suez Canal isolated the Egyptian Third Army and finally compelled the superpowers to impose an armistice on October 25. The war not only severely strained Soviet-American relations, it also undermined Israeli feelings of invincibility, strengthened Arab confidence, and helped to alienate Egypt from the USSR. The most lasting effect lay in the impact of the oil embargo imposed by the Arabs in retaliation for the American re-supply of the Israeli army. This sanction tripled the cost of oil and seriously destabilized the global economy.

DECEMBER 1973
Irvine General Plan Envisions Non-Aviation Future for MCAS El Toro

The desire of Irvine to someday use MCAS El Toro for non-aviation purposes was carefully conveyed by the City to the County of Orange and the Local Agency Formation Commission at the time of Irvine’s incorporation in 1971. This intent was endorsed by The Irvine Company as a result of its concerns about environmental quality and safety. Such land use ideas were part of the City of Irvine’s first General Plan, adopted in December 1973, and the City Council reaffirmed opposition to the commercialization of El Toro in April 1988. Nevertheless, the base’s reuse after its closure (which occurred in July 1999) became Orange County’s most controversial planning issue during the 1990s. On January 12, 1999, the City Council adopted a resolution calling for the defeat of a proposed commercial airport at MCAS El Toro. In March 2002, voters approved a countywide anti-airport initiative, paving the way for a large metropolitan park and limited commercial development at the former Marine base.

AUGUST 1974
Watergate Leads to Nixon’s Resignation

The expansion of executive power during the Cold War, often described as the rise of the “imperial presidency,” reached a culmination in the abuses of the Watergate scandal, setting in motion the most serious constitutional crisis of the 20th century. The public story began in June of 1972, when five men working for Nixon’s re-election campaign were arrested while trying to bug the Democratic campaign headquarters in the Watergate office complex in Washington, D.C. Subsequent efforts by President Nixon and his aides to cover up their connection to the crime revealed that administration leaders had engaged in a number of illegal activities, including accepting inappropriate campaign monies, using “dirty tricks” to sabotage political opponents, and attempting unlawfully to silence critics. In February 1974 the House of Representatives began an impeachment investigation of the President. In July the Supreme Court ordered the President to turn over recordings he had made of White House conversations. On August 8, 1974, confronted with almost certain impeachment, President Nixon resigned and flew home to California, his plane landing at MCAS El Toro.

SEE FIGURE 61
SPRING AND SUMMER 1975
MCAS El Toro Serves as Gateway for Vietnamese Refugees

The Marine Corps Air Station at El Toro was the place where tens of thousands of Vietnamese refugees fleeing their war-ravaged country first set foot on American soil after the fall of Saigon to the Communists in April 1975. Many still refer to the former base as the “Vietnamese Ellis Island.” Upon arriving by air transport at MCAS El Toro, the refugees were taken by bus to hastily constructed relocation camps at Camp Pendleton, located 30 miles south of El Toro. Ultimately, eight separate camps complete with plumbing and wiring for communications were built in the northern portion of that base. Other refugee centers were set up at Fort Chaffee, Arkansas, Eglin Air Force Base, Florida, and Fort Indiantown Gap, Pennsylvania. Many who initially lived in the camps at Camp Pendleton later settled in central Orange County, where more than 150,000 new Americans established the largest Vietnamese community outside South East Asia.

SEE FIGURE 62

MID 1970s
Emergence of the Computer Industry

The arrival of the microelectronics and semiconductor industries in California after World War II initiated a reconfiguration of the state’s economy which took it from its traditional manufacturing base into the “information age.” The military, as a major consumer of electronics, communications systems, and synthetic materials, played a crucial role in this restructuring. In the mid-1950s and mid-1960s William Shockley’s efforts to commercialize a new transistor began the transformation of cities north of San Jose into the “Silicon Valley,” ultimately the nation’s center of electronics innovation. In 1976, when Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak founded Apple in Palo Alto, the Bay Area entered the computing world’s major leagues. Between 1960 and 1980, 400,000 new jobs were created in that region. Orange County was a rival for this new computer industry, and a high-tech phase of economic development also began here in the 1970s. Since then Orange County’s labor force has been heavily concentrated in what is called “the information sector,” producing information technology (hardware) and advanced information systems (software).
Mao Zedong Dies

Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung), the Marxist revolutionary who led the Communists to victory in a lengthy civil war against Jiang Jieshi’s (Chiang Kai-shek’s) nationalists, was the recognized leader of the People’s Republic of China from its founding in 1949 until his death in 1976. Mao advocated world revolution and initially sought to ally China with Stalin’s Soviet Union, isolating China from the West and sending forces to assist Communists in the Korean and Indo-Chinese wars. By the end of the 1950s, however, he had split with Khrushchev’s regime and embarked on a campaign to industrialize China that proved extraordinarily harsh and led to unprecedented starvation. After 1967 he returned to the theme of world revolution but played a balancing game, using the army to purge the party, then turning on the army and playing the “America card” to neutralize the Soviet threat and force the army back into a supporting role. Though Mao is still highly esteemed in China, his efforts to close the country to international commerce and to eradicate traditional culture were quickly abandoned by his successors. His death became a turning point in modern Chinese history.

SEE FIGURE 47

Donald Bren and Consortium Purchase the Irvine Company

Orange County’s spatial organization differs markedly from that of older metropolitan regions. It represents a new kind of decentralized and multi-centered area comprising many independent and highly specialized centers that no city dominates. In the 1950s much of the development of this de-concentrated area resulted from the activities and policies of the Irvine Company, owner of Southern California’s largest piece of undeveloped land. Responding to population increases and rising land values, the Irvine Company allocated portions of the ranch for residential and commercial projects and engaged in intense planning regarding the nature of these projects. The process was accelerated in the 1970s when a change in tax law led to the sale of the company to a group of investors who had borrowed heavily to raise the necessary money. In a second such sale, in 1977, a financial consortium that included Joan Irvine Smith (James Irvine II’s granddaughter), Alfred Taubman, and Donald L. Bren outbid the Mobil Corporation, purchasing the company for $337 million dollars.

SEPTEMBER 1976

President Carter Sponsors the Camp David Accords

When President Jimmy Carter came to office he intended to replace the incremental Middle East peace talks that characterized Henry Kissinger’s diplomacy with a multilateral regional approach. However, neither Jordan nor Syria would participate in an international conference, and both Egyptian President Anwar El Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin favored bilateral talks. In fact, Sadat short-circuited Carter’s plans by announcing in November 1977 that he would go to Jerusalem and address the Knesset, the first Arab leader to visit Israel. Subsequently, two framework agreements were negotiated at Camp David and signed by Sadat and Begin at the White House in September 1978. The first of these, which was concerned with the Palestinian territories, remained largely unutilized. The second, which dealt with Egyptian-Israeli relations, led to Israel’s evacuation of the Sinai and the peace treaty of 1979 between the two countries. Sadat’s eagerness to regain the Sinai and to enlist the West in assisting the Egyptian economy was compatible with Begin’s desire to retain the West Bank and detach the most powerful Arab state from the anti-Israeli alliance.

SEE FIGURE 63

MAY 1977

Tax Revolt and Proposition 13 in California

By 1970 more Americans lived in suburban regions than urban centers. This fact transformed the nation’s political agenda in many significant ways, especially in suburban California, where inflated real estate prices and a surge in California’s Hispanic and Asian population, with accompanying education and welfare costs, helped to fuel anti-tax sentiments. A taxpayer’s revolt in California put three fiscal-limitation measures on the state ballot between 1978 and 1980. The first and most significant of these was the Jarvis-Gann initiative (Proposition 13), a response to a series of California Supreme Court rulings requiring more equitable funding of schools across the state. Proposition 13 limited local real estate taxes to one percent of market value and no more than two percent on resale. Endorsed in 1978 by almost two-thirds of California voters, “Prop 13” provided savings to homeowners and businesses but ultimately resulted in severe cuts to public education, police and fire protection, public health, libraries, and other government services.

SEE FIGURE 64
LATE 1970s
Growth of Megachurches in Orange County

The late 1970s saw a phenomenal growth in the United States of large non-denominational Christian churches, often called “megachurches.” Defined as congregations with 2,000 or more worshipers per week, megachurches grew most rapidly in the sun-belt suburbs of California, Texas, Florida, and Georgia. Appealing particularly to the young and the aspiring middle class, these huge congregations offered a theological message focused on God’s love and care, personal salvation, spiritual growth, and practical advice for daily living. By 2004 nineteen of the largest and ten of the fastest-growing American churches were in southern California, where in Orange County they included the Crystal Cathedral, Calvary Chapel Diamond Bar, Calvary Chapel Costa Mesa, Mariners’ Church, and Saddleback Church. Yet only 3 million of an estimated 70 million Protestant churchgoers in America attended a megachurch, and overall religious affiliation in the nation appeared to be leveling off at less than half the country’s population.

SEE FIGURE 65

FEBRUARY 1979
Shah Overthrown in Iran

Established in power in 1954 by the Americans and British, Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi undertook an effort to modernize Iran that grew steadily more ambitious in the following decades. With help from the United States and money from a booming oil industry, the Shah’s government built smelters, steel mills, and truck factories, at the same time investing heavily in education, public health facilities, and the military. Yet poor economic management in the 1960s and 1970s generated shortages, massive inflation, and income inequality while the Shah’s government harshly repressed dissent, especially of Muslim clerics and groups hostile to westernization and secularization. Demonstrations against the Shah broke out in October 1977 and became more disruptive in the fall of 1978, virtually paralyzing the country. The Shah left Iran for medical reasons in January 1979, and the royal regime collapsed the following month. In April Iran voted by plebiscite to become an Islamic republic and to approve a new theocratic constitution, installing the Ayatollah Khomeini as supreme leader.

DECEMBER 1979
Soviet Union Invades Afghanistan

On December 27, 1979, a small unit of Soviet special forces disguised as regular Afghan soldiers infiltrated Kabul, the nation’s capital and largest city. Within a few weeks, all of Afghanistan’s cities and major roads were under the control of the Soviet army. These events occurred, despite a détente in relations between the Soviet Union and the United States, because Brezhnev and the Soviet leadership had adopted an increasingly assertive foreign policy, proclaiming their “right and duty” to take action “if and when an existing socialist regime was threatened.” Russia contended that American-supported Muslim opposition to the Soviet-backed Democratic Republic of Afghanistan represented just such a threat. Thus began a decade-long and steadily more expensive Russian intervention. The war was not only disastrous for the Afghans, who suffered more than one million casualties; it was a key factor in the breakdown of the Soviet Union and its collapse in 1991.
The Astonishing Eighties

Ronald Reagan, veteran screen actor and two-term governor of California, had sought the Republican nomination in 1976 and barely been turned back by Nixon’s successor, the incumbent Gerald Ford. In 1980 Reagan captured the nomination easily and mounted an aggressive campaign against President Jimmy Carter, whose voter appeal was severely diminished by high inflation, apparent Soviet success in the Third World, and the imprisonment of the American embassy in Tehran by Iranian militants. Reagan was decisively elected in November, capturing 50.7% of the vote to Carter’s 41%. Upon becoming president, and acting in accord with earlier promises, President Reagan launched an effort to reduce the size of government, securing a 25% reduction in individual and corporate taxes and making substantial cuts in most domestic programs aside from Social Security and Medicare. At the same time President Reagan pushed through an enormous increase in the military budget in an effort to rebuild armed forces he believed had deteriorated under Nixon, Ford, and Carter.

Orange County is commonly portrayed as a sleepy suburb of Los Angeles, well-manicured but inescapably boring. While such a portrait may have been accurate in the immediate post-World War II era, it was no longer true by the time the county’s population reached two million in early 1981. By then, Orange County had become an important entity of its own, and careful observers discovered in it not a simple hinterland but an economically and culturally dynamic region. It had quietly become a major export center for the international economy, with nearly 25% of its firms involved in overseas commerce. In other words, while Orange County had become increasingly independent of Los Angeles, it had also become more and more tied to the wider world. As a result, it had become surprisingly cosmopolitan and socially diverse. Such a change had occurred simultaneously with the appearance of ethnic enclaves and what has been called an “hour glass economy,” characterized by glaring economic inequalities.

First Woman Appointed to U.S. Supreme Court

Re-appearing in the 1960s, the feminist movement in the United States grew steadily stronger in succeeding years. It addressed a wide range of issues that included gender inequality, family obligations, employment opportunity, divorce law, and reproductive rights. Achieving significant legal victories, among them the Equal Pay Act of 1963, the Educational Equity Act of 1974, and Supreme Court decisions outlawing gender discrimination, it gradually transformed attitudes toward women. An important milestone was President Reagan’s appointment in 1981 of the first woman, Sandra Day O’Connor, to the United States Supreme Court, where she would serve with distinction for twenty-four years. The 1980’s witnessed other accomplishments as well, including the nomination of Geraldine Ferraro for vice president by the Republican ticket.
Democratic Party in 1984. In 1992, a breakthrough year, the number of women elected to the House of Representatives increased from 30 to 48 and to the Senate from three to seven, including two from California.

**SEE FIGURE 67**

**MARCH 1983**

**Reagan Champions Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI)**

After the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in December 1979, President Carter withdrew from consideration the strategic arms limitation treaty (SALT II) he had so painstakingly negotiated with Leonid Brezhnev. President Reagan refused to resubmit it to the Senate, arguing it did not sufficiently restrict Soviet heavy missiles. Reagan called for ambitious new negotiations, at the same time seeking and obtaining appropriations for added bombers and missiles, an enhanced nuclear force in Europe, an expanded navy, and a rapid deployment force. In March 1983, after describing the Soviet Union as an "evil empire," he announced plans for research on a strategic defense in space (dubbed "star wars" by critics) that constituted a dramatic abandonment of an existing system of mutual deterrence and the Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) Treaty. Moscow reacted suspiciously and angrily to these moves, clearly fearful that the United States sought first strike capability and that the Soviet Union would be required to spend huge sums to counter the threat.

**AUGUST 1984**

**Olympic Games in Los Angeles**

The modern Olympic Games are named for athletic contests held in ancient Greece every four years beginning in 776 BC. Banned by the Christian Church in 392 AD, the games were revived in the late 19th century and grew to include athletes from nearly every nation. Los Angeles hosted the Olympics in 1984. Though the games were boycotted by 14 countries (including the Soviet Union, Cuba, and East Germany) in retaliation for the American-led boycott of the 1980 games in Moscow (organized to protest the Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan), 140 nations — the most ever — participated that year. The United States team was led by Carl Lewis, winner of the 100 and 200 meter races and the long jump, and earned a record 83 gold medals. The Los Angeles Games of 1984 were the first to be financed privately. Moreover, organizers benefited from the experiences of the 1976 and 1980 games in Montreal and Moscow, which ran up expenses far in excess of revenues. Using existing facilities such as the Coliseum and the Forum helped control costs.
late 1960s and 1970s. In 1979 the Segerstrom family donated a five-acre site for a facility designed to house the Philharmonic Society of Orange County and the Pacific Symphony Orchestra. In 1998 the Segerstrom family donated a second parcel in Costa Mesa for a concert hall, multi-use theater, and education center. Meanwhile, the University of California, Irvine, provided land for the Irvine Barclay Theatre, which was constructed and is operated via a partnership between the City of Irvine and the University of California.

**SEE FIGURE 68**

**NOVEMBER 1986**

**Iran-Contra Scandal**

The Iran-Contra affair began in 1985 as a covert plan devised by several of President Reagan’s aides (among them, Robert McFarlane, John Poindexter, Oliver North, and William Casey) to sell arms to Iran, a country the United States was officially boycotting because it was at war with Iraq. In exchange, Iran was expected to pressure terrorists to release seven American hostages held in Lebanon. The funds generated by the arms sales were to be sent through Swiss banks to assist the Nicaraguan “Contras” in their efforts to overthrow their country’s leftist government. The plan was approved by President Reagan over the objections of his secretaries of State and Defense, although he later denied knowledge of any funds being diverted to the Contras. When these activities became public in November 1986, serious objections were raised because Reagan had repeatedly pledged not to bargain with terrorists and to maintain neutrality in the Iran-Iraq War. In addition, the plan’s implementation violated Congress’s explicit ban on providing military aid to the Contras. Eleven criminal convictions resulted, with participants found guilty of lying to Congress and/or destroying evidence.

**SEE FIGURE 69**

**NOVEMBER 1989**

**Berlin Wall Comes Down, the Cold War Ends**

Constructed by East Germany in 1961 to shut off the flight of its citizenry into the West, the massive wall around West Berlin came to symbolize the Cold War and Communist control of Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. By 1989, however, the forces of political and economic change unleashed in the Soviet Union by Mikhail Gorbachev, the General Secretary of the Communist Party, had spread to Eastern Europe. Popular uprisings pressed for an end to state repression, one-party rule, and economic stagnation. The de-stabilization of Communist regimes led to their collapse in Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Rumania, and to a dramatic climax when the East German government, acting independently of Moscow, opened its border with West Germany. On November 9, 1989, joyous Germans climbed onto the Berlin Wall and destroyed it with whatever instruments and tools they could find. German unification followed in October 1990. As Moscow’s empire in Central and Eastern Europe melted away, the Cold War disappeared as well.

**SEE FIGURE 70**

**JUNE 1989**

**China Crushes Democracy Movement**

The Tiananmen Square protests of 1989 were immortalized in the West by the photograph of a lone man defying a column of tanks. The origin of these protests was a series of reforms initiated by the Communist Party in 1978 to facilitate the introduction of a market economy and liberalization of the system established by Mao Zedong. The transition resulted in erratic change, increased economic uncertainty, and much unemployment. During the late 1980s the economic turmoil, frustrations over stalled political reform, and widespread corruption led to student protests in cities and universities across China. Joining by leading Chinese intellectuals, students demanded political democracy, freedom of speech and assembly, and elimination of special privileges enjoyed by elites. On June 4, 1989, after some indecision, Communist leaders suppressed the democracy movement by imposing martial law and forcibly removing students from Tiananmen Square, taking actions that resulted in a large number of deaths. Chinese relations with the West were seriously and negatively affected for several years.

**SEE FIGURE 69**
About the Authors

Keith L. Nelson
Research Professor; Professor Emeritus
of History, University of California, Irvine

Keith Nelson first came to Orange County 48 years ago as one of the founding faculty of the Department of History at the University of California, Irvine. He and his family have lived in Irvine ever since, save for three years (1999–2002) in which they represented the University of California’s Education Abroad Program as study center director in Sweden and in Denmark. Nelson’s teaching and research interests lie in the fields of American foreign relations, Cold War history, the socio/economic impact of war, and religious studies. He has served UCI in many capacities, among them as chair of the Humanities faculty, Associate Dean of Humanities for Undergraduate Studies, Director of the Humanities Core Course, Director of the Center for Peace and Conflict Studies, Director of the Center for International Education, and (at the present time) Director of the Program In Religious Studies. He has also served the larger local community in a number of ways, as, for example, president of the Newport-Irvine Rotary Club, vestryman at St Michael’s Episcopal Church, and an AYSO soccer coach. In 2011 he was named UCI Emeritus Professor of the Year. Nelson has authored, co-authored, edited and co-edited numerous historical studies, including The Impact of War on American Life: The Twentieth Century Experience; Victors Divided: America and the Allies in Germany, 1918–1923; Why War? Ideology, Theory, and History (with Spencer Olin); The Making of Détente: American-Russian Relations in the Shadow of Vietnam; and Re-Viewing the Cold War: Domestic Factors and Foreign Policy in the East-West Confrontation (with Patrick Morgan).

Spencer C. Olin
Professor Emeritus, History
University of California, Irvine

Spencer Olin is a founding faculty member at UCI, having joined the Department of History the year the campus opened in 1965. In subsequent years he served UCI in a number of capacities, including Acting Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs, Chair of the Department of History, Chair of the Academic Senate, Dean of Humanities, Acting Executive Vice Chancellor, and Acting Director of the Center for Global Peace and Conflict Studies. A specialist in the history of modern America and of the American West, Olin is the author, coauthor, or coeditor of six books and anthologies ranging across such topics as reform movements, race relations in California, California politics, the causes of international conflict, and the nature of metropolitan development in contemporary America. His first book, California’s Prodigal Sons: Hiram Johnson and the Progressives, was honored by the Historical Society of Southern California with the Martin Ridge Retrospective Award, which is intended to recognize books about California “that have made a difference in how we view and interpret the history of our state.” Another book, coauthored with UCI colleagues Rob Kling and Mark Poster, Postsuburban California, dealt with the transformation of Orange County since World War II and was selected by the Western History Association as the most outstanding book about the twentieth-century American West. His most recent publication is an anthology entitled Major Problems in California History, which he co-edited with Professor Sucheng Chan, formerly Chair of the Department of Asian American Studies at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Other publications as author and editor include Racism in California: A Reader in the History of Oppression; Why War? Ideology, Theory, and History, with Keith L. Nelson; California Politics, 1846–1920: The Emerging Corporate State and Trouble in Soccertown: A Lazer McNulty Adventure, a novel for children co-authored with Rita L. Olin.

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