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## ■ Publisher's Note

Watergate, the end of the Vietnam War, the environmental movement, the energy crisis, the women's movement, disco, the development of personal computers—so much happened during the 1970's. *The Seventies in America* brings this controversial decade to life by examining these topics and many more. The encyclopedia appears at a time when many people are reevaluating the 1970's, realizing that, far from a superficial or throwaway era, it was actually a time of dynamic political, social, and cultural change. In many ways, the impact of the decade is just being felt and understood. *The Seventies in America* is a much-needed source of reliable and accessible information for today's students, all of whom were born after the decade ended.

**Contents of the Encyclopedia** This illustrated three-volume encyclopedia is a companion set to *The Sixties in America* (1999) and *The Fifties in America* (2005). It covers events, movements, people, and trends in popular culture, literature, art, sports, science, technology, economics, and politics in both the United States and Canada. *The Seventies in America* features longer overviews and shorter entries discussing people, books, films, television series, musical groups, and other important topics representative of that era. Every entry focuses on the topic or person during the 1970's—for this work, defined as January 1, 1970, through December 31, 1979—in order to explore what made the decade unique. Topics that span several decades often provide some background and information on subsequent events to help place the 1970's in perspective.

*The Seventies in America* contains 672 essays, in alphabetical order, ranging from 1 to 6 pages in length. Written with the needs of students and general readers in mind, the essays present clear discussions of their topics, explaining terms and references that may be unfamiliar. Entries fall into the following general categories:

- African Americans
- art and architecture
- Asian Americans
- business
- Canada
- court cases

- crime and punishment
- disasters
- economics
- education
- energy issues
- environmental issues
- film
- health and medicine
- international relations
- journalism
- Latinos
- legislation
- literature
- military and war
- music
- Native Americans
- people
- politics and government
- popular culture
- religion and spirituality
- science and technology
- sexuality
- social issues
- sports
- television
- theater and dance
- transportation
- women's issues

The encyclopedic format allows readers to take either a broad view or a narrow one. For example, in addition to the overview of Watergate, *The Seventies in America* offers related entries on important figures (such as Special Prosecutor Archibald Cox, White House counsel John Dean, and the informant “Deep Throat”); events and documents in the scandal (such as the Pentagon Papers, the Saturday Night Massacre, and the Nixon tapes); and the aftermath and cultural assessment (such as Richard Nixon's resignation and pardon and *All the President's Men*).

*The Seventies in America* contains three hundred photographs of notable people, events, and other imagery that evoke the look and feel of the decade. In addition, sixty sidebars—lists, time lines, maps, tables, graphs, excerpts from famous speeches—highlight interesting facts and trends from the era.

**Essay Organization** Every essay begins with a clear, concise title followed by a brief description called **Identification** (for people, organizations, and works, such as books or films); **Definition** (for objects, concepts, and overviews); or **The Event**. Next, a heading for **Author, Publisher, Director, or Producer** is used when appropriate and includes vital dates. A **Date** line appears for events, legislation, films, books, television series, plays, and any topic linked to a discrete time. Biographical entries feature the headings **Born** and **Died**, listing the date and place of birth and death for the subject. A **Place** line appears if appropriate. Every essay begins with a brief assessment of what made the topic important during the 1970's.

Within the text, boldfaced subheads show readers the overall organization of the essay at a glance, make finding information quick and easy. Every essay features an **Impact** section, which examines the subject's broader importance during the 1970's. Longer overviews sometimes include a section called **Subsequent Events** that sums up later developments. Cross-references at the end of each essay direct readers to additional entries in the encyclopedia on related subjects. Every entry, regardless of length, offers bibliographical notes under the heading **Further Reading** in order to guide readers to additional information about the topic; annotations are provided in essays of 1,000 words or more. Every essay includes an author byline.

**Appendices** Volume 3 of *The Seventies in America* contains seventeen appendices that provide additional information about selected aspects of the decade in easily accessible formats. The five entertain-

ment appendices list major films, Academy Award winners, major Broadway plays and theatrical awards, most-watched television shows, and Emmy Award winners. The two literature appendices list the best-selling U.S. books and the winners of major literary awards, and two music appendices discuss some of the decade's most popular musicians and list Grammy Award winners. A sports appendix provides a quick glance at the winners of major sporting events of the 1970's. The two legislative appendices look at the U.S. Supreme Court and its major decisions and important legislation passed by Congress during the decade. The other appendices are a glossary of new words and slang from the 1970's, a detailed time line of the decade, an annotated general bibliography, an annotated list of Web sources on 1970's subjects, and a list of entries sorted by category.

The encyclopedia also contains a number of useful tools to help readers find entries of interest. A complete list of all essays in *The Seventies in America* appears at the beginning of each volume. Volume 3 contains personage and photo indexes and a comprehensive subject index.

**Acknowledgments** The editors of Salem Press would like to thank the scholars who contributed essays and appendices to *The Seventies in America*; their names and affiliations are listed in the front matter to volume 1. The editors would also like to thank Professor John C. Super of West Virginia University for serving as the project's Editor and for bringing to the project his expertise on North American history.

# A

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## ■ Abortion rights

**Definition** Legal efforts to establish or deny the right to abortion in North America

*The United States and Canada both made important changes in abortion policy in the 1970's that eventually led to reproductive rights for women.*

The abortion issue gained considerable attention in the United States and Canada during the 1970's. Both countries addressed the issue to satisfy strong political movements seeking more privacy and freedom for women. In the United States, a divorced woman named Norma McCorvey inspired the change in abortion policy by appealing to the U.S. Supreme Court, with assistance from members of the legal community and organized interests. In Canada, physician Henry Morgentaler almost single-handedly brought attention to the abortion issue by serving time in prison for performing thousands of safe, yet illegal, abortions. Morgentaler's efforts inspired a feminist movement across Canada in the 1970's that led to the legalization of abortion in the late 1980's.

**Abortion Rights in the United States** In the early 1970's, a national policy regarding abortion did not exist, and abortion rights were dependent upon the laws in the fifty states—each state decided abortion policy for itself. In the state of Texas, the abortion procedure was a criminal act unless necessary to save the life of the mother. McCorvey, also known as Jane Roe, was a divorced woman living in Texas with one child when she became pregnant with her second. McCorvey claimed that she had been raped by three men while walking home from a carnival where she was employed as a ticket-taker. After unsuccessfully trying to obtain an abortion, she gave birth to the child and gave it up for adoption. McCorvey was introduced to law school graduates Sarah Weddington and Linda Coffee, who together decided to challenge the Texas law prohibiting abortion. McCorvey

also was supported by a variety of liberal interest groups in her test case against Henry Wade, the district attorney in Dallas, Texas. Eventually, her dispute with the state of Texas was selected for review by the U.S. Supreme Court.

In *Roe v. Wade* (1973), the Supreme Court voted 7-2 to recognize the right to privacy to include a woman's right to abortion when it struck down the Texas law prohibiting the controversial medical procedure. Justice Harry A. Blackmun was selected by Chief Justice Warren Burger to write the Court's majority opinion because Blackmun had served previously as an attorney for a medical clinic in Minnesota: He was familiar with the legal aspects of the abortion procedure. Justice Blackmun's majority opinion established that privacy was to be found in the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. The due process clause was strategically selected because of its focus on freedom and liberty as well as the fact that it could be used to impose the right of personal privacy upon the governments of all fifty states. Specifically, the due process clause contained the word "liberty" and also referred directly to "state power."

**Trimester Approach and Dissent** In *Roe*, Justice Blackmun divided the thirty-six-week pregnancy term into three trimesters, or twelve-week intervals. Hence, Blackmun's test to judge the legality of the abortion procedure was called the trimester approach. In his opinion for the Supreme Court, Blackmun asserted that a woman's right to privacy was absolute in the first trimester of her pregnancy term. Hence, no government interest existed to justify limiting a woman's right of privacy in the first twelve weeks, or three months, of pregnancy. However, Blackmun also recognized that the health of the pregnant mother and the prenatal health of the fetus were compelling government interests in the second and third trimesters. Because of these compelling interests, states would be able to regulate abortions between the twelfth and twenty-fourth

weeks and also ban abortions in the final twelve weeks of pregnancy.

Blackmun noted that information provided to the Supreme Court by interest groups through the use of legal briefs significantly influenced his decision. Interest groups documented the use of “back-alley abortions” by women who risked their lives in order to end their pregnancies. The two justices casting dissenting votes in *Roe*, William H. Rehnquist and Byron White, opposed the majority’s decision to establish a fundamental right to abortion using the right to privacy. Rehnquist and White concluded that the right to privacy was unrelated to the abortion decision and argued that the Supreme Court should have restrained itself and deferred the issue to state governments. In his dissenting opinion, Rehnquist wrote that a majority of states had in place severe restrictions on the abortion procedure for more than a century and that this was evidence that the right to abortion was not part of the history and

tradition of the United States. Rehnquist also expressed concern that the majority in *Roe* had engaged in a type of judicial activism that was comparable to legislating, not interpreting the law.

In *Doe v. Bolton* (1973), a companion case to *Roe*, the Supreme Court struck down state requirements that made abortions unreasonably difficult to obtain. In *Doe*, the Court ruled that abortions did not have to be performed in licensed hospitals, did not require that a hospital committee approve abortions beforehand, and did not have to be approved by two doctors.

**Post-*Roe* Decisions** In 1976, Congress passed the Hyde Amendment to the Medicaid program, which eliminated federal funding for abortions. The ban was challenged in federal court as a violation of equal protection. It was argued that, while a woman with economic means could afford an abortion, a poor woman would be denied the right to abortion



Women picket on behalf of abortion rights in 1972. (AP/Wide World Photos)

without federal funding. The Supreme Court upheld the ban on federal funding for abortions in 1980 in the case of *Harris v. McRae*. In 1979, the Supreme Court ruled in *Bellotti v. Baird* that states can require minors to obtain parental consent before obtaining an abortion. Minors could alternatively gain authorization from a judge, using a judicial bypass procedure, if the parents refused to consent or the minor did not want to ask the parents for consent.

**Abortion Rights in Canada** While a variety of individuals played significant roles in establishing abortion rights in the United States, one prominent individual stands out as the person responsible for abortion rights in Canada. Dr. Henry Morgentaler, the president of the Humanist Fellowship of Montreal and a Polish survivor of Nazi concentration camps, began performing illegal abortions in the late 1960's in violation of Canada's 1967 abortion law. The Canadian Parliament had criminalized abortion after 1869, with the threat of life imprisonment as a punishment. In 1967, Canada liberalized its abortion policy by allowing women to apply to a therapeutic abortion committee comprising three doctors at a hospital, but only if a woman's life or health were in danger. Even with the liberalized policy in 1967, abortion would remain a crime.

Because of the high number of deaths of women resulting from illegal abortions, Morgentaler started to provide abortions in his office. His actions were criminal because they bypassed the required hospital review process. In 1973, he spoke out in public that he had performed thousands of safe abortions in his office without the approval of a therapeutic abortion committee. Morgentaler boldly filmed himself performing an abortion on a patient and had the medical procedure aired on television. Morgentaler was arrested and tried before a jury three times in the Province of Quebec, where he practiced medicine. However, three separate juries voted not to convict Morgentaler of any crime. Even though Morgentaler was acquitted in his first trial, the courts overturned the jury's verdict and sentenced him to eighteen months in prison. During his stay in prison, he was tried a second and third time on separate charges and again acquitted.

As a result of Morgentaler's trials, a new federal law that prohibited courts from overturning a jury's decision was passed by civil rights advocates. Mor-

gentaler was eventually released after serving ten months of his eighteen-month sentence from the first trial, with a promise that he would not be prosecuted in the future.

Morgentaler's quest for abortion rights inspired a feminist movement in Canada. After his release from prison, Morgentaler continued to perform abortions in clinics across Canada, and with the help of interest groups, such as the Canadian Alliance to Repeal the Abortion Law (CARAL), he continued to put pressure on the Canadian government to legalize abortion.

**Impact** During the 1970's, the United States and Canada both took important steps toward reproductive rights for women. Whereas the United States legalized abortion in 1973, Canada saw the creation of a feminist movement in the 1970's inspired by Dr. Henry Morgentaler, who led the country toward abortion rights in the late 1980's. In the United States, a strong conservative movement of evangelical Christians began to be politically active in an attempt to overturn the *Roe* decision.

**Subsequent Events** In 1988, the Canadian Supreme Court ruled that abortion was legal and declared the 1967 abortion law unconstitutional in the landmark case *Her Majesty the Queen v. Morgentaler*. The Canadian Supreme Court stated that the 1967 law was unconstitutional because it presented unreasonable obstacles for women seeking to end their pregnancies. The decision to have an abortion was viewed as a moral decision based upon the conscience of the individual in a free and democratic society.

Abortion remained legal in the United States, but conservative states that opposed abortion became more successful at creating formal and informal obstacles for women. These obstacles tended to affect poor women and minors seeking abortions. Norma McCorvey later recanted her rape story and became an evangelical Christian who opposed abortion. She stated that she was manipulated by liberal interest groups in their attempts to legalize abortion in the United States during the 1970's.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, Canada was one of a few countries that did not have a criminal law restricting abortion in any way. A large segment of the Canadian population, roughly 80 percent, believed that abortion should remain legal.

Hence, the pro-life movement in Canada was not as strong as it was in the United States.

### Further Reading

Baird, Robert M., and Stuart E. Rosenbaum. *The Ethics of Abortion: Pro-Life vs. Pro-Choice*. Amherst, N.Y.: Prometheus Books, 2001. A variety of essays from scholars in the fields of philosophy, theology, psychotherapy, law, medicine, and journalism. The book confronts broad aspects of the abortion issue and is successful at providing a meaningful analysis from the pro-life and pro-choice perspectives.

McCorvey, Norma, and Gary Thomas. *Won by Love: Norma McCorvey, Jane Roe of "Roe v. Wade," Speaks Out for the Unborn as She Shares Her New Conviction for Life*. Nashville, Tenn.: Thomas Nelson, 1998. An autobiography by McCorvey.

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Tatalovich, Raymond. *The Abortion Controversy in Canada and the United States*. Orono: University of Maine, 1996. A comparative analysis of abortion policy in Canada and the United States.

Scott P. Johnson

**See also** Conservatism in U.S. politics; Feminism; Health care in Canada; Health care in the United States; Liberalism in U.S. politics; Quebec Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms; *Roe v. Wade*; Sexual revolution; Supreme Court decisions; Women's rights.

## ■ Academy Awards

**Identification** Annual recognition of excellence in filmmaking by the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences

*By 1970, the studio system and film censorship were dead, television dominated the mass media, and film attendance declined. For many, Oscar winners and ceremonies seemed irrelevant to the social concerns of the 1970's, and the ceremonies during that decade were punctuated by protests that, by decade's end, promised to bring a new social awareness to filmmaking.*

With the breakdown of the studio system, many young filmmakers imagined that the creative vision of committed artists would govern film production. Instead, corporations and dealmakers came to power and, with them, the tendency to make films along traditional lines, although increasingly targeting a young, white, and male audience. While some controversial films were made about Vietnam and other contemporary issues, most Oscar-winning films and acting awards did not reflect changing social attitudes.

**Minorities and Women in Film** Some minority actors, particularly African Americans, did receive recognition during the decade. In 1970, black actor James Earl Jones was nominated as Best Actor for his role in *The Great White Hope* and seventy-one-year-old Salish chief Dan George was nominated as Best Supporting Actor for *Little Big Man*. Neither won. A few years later, African American women received Best Actress nominations—Diana Ross for *Lady Sings the Blues* (1972), Cicely Tyson for *Sounder* (1972), and Diahann Carroll for *Claudine* (1974)—but none of them won. Asian Americans, Latinos, and Native Americans remained virtually invisible in American cinema and at the Academy Awards.

In general, the women's roles that received Academy Awards or nominations in the 1970's were weak or stereotypical. Female characters often suffered, as in the roles played by Tyson and Carroll. Sometimes, they were entertainers, such as Oscar-winning Liza Minnelli's Sally Bowles in *Cabaret* (1972) and Ross's Billie Holiday in *Lady Sings the Blues* (1972). If they were strong, then they could be ridiculed for stepping outside conventional feminine activities and attitudes, as with the Oscar-winning performances of Louise Fletcher as Nurse Ratched in *One*

*Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest* (1975) or Faye Dunaway as Diana Christensen in *Network* (1976).

In 1974, Shirley MacLaine commented on the shortage of good women's roles, and the Actors Branch of the Academy found it difficult to find five women to nominate as Best Actress for the films of that year. Ellen Burstyn, the eventual winner for *Alice Doesn't Live Here Anymore* (1974), asked that no one be nominated as a protest against the dearth of parts available for women.

**Oscar-Winning Pictures** Blockbuster films featuring the military, male comradeship, heroism, or special effects dominated the era. The Best Picture award in 1970 went to *Patton*, with George C. Scott winning a Best Actor award for his portrayal of the controversial World War II general George S. Patton. Other motion pictures nominated that year included *Airport*, a disaster film, and *M\*A\*S\*H*, a comedy that made its one significant female character the target of cruel masculine humor. At the 1971 ceremony, the Best Picture winner was *The French Connection*, a film based on the exploits of a real New York policeman. Its star, Gene Hackman, was named Best Actor. Marlon Brando and *The Godfather* dominated the 1972 ceremony, with *Deliverance* as the main rival. Later Best Picture winners were *The Sting* (1973); *The Godfather, Part II* (1974), with nominated films including *Chinatown*, *Lenny*, and *The Towering Inferno*; *One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest* (1975), with *Jaws* also nominated; and *Rocky* (1976), with nominations that year for *All the President's Men*, *Network*, and *Taxi Driver*.

In 1977, Woody Allen's *Annie Hall* won over *Star Wars*; the recognition of Allen's film was acknowledgment by the Academy that the lives of couples were changing and that such changes were worthy of examination. While *The Deer Hunter*, a film about the Vietnam War, won the Best Picture award in 1978, the Best Picture of 1979 was *Kramer vs. Kramer*, a motion picture that, although reminiscent of the tearjerkers of the 1930's and 1940's, also offered a new view of family relationships.

**Controversies** Given the gap between filmmakers and the social changes happening in the world around them, the use of Academy Award ceremonies for a variety of protests was not surprising, although few women and minorities protested their own causes. In 1972, rather than accepting his Oscar for his role in *The Godfather*, Marlon Brando sent Sacheen Littlefeather, Apache president of the National Native American Affirmative Image Committee, who explained that Brando would not accept the award because of the portrayal of Native Americans in films and the recent violence at Wounded Knee.

The 1973 ceremony was punctuated by a naked man streaking across the stage signaling a peace sign. In 1975, many viewers protested when Burt Schneider, cited with Peter Davis for their anti-Vietnam documentary *Hearts and Flowers*, read a congratulatory message from a Viet Cong leader. Protesters later in the decade included members of the Jewish Defense League who, in 1977, demonstrated against Vanessa Redgrave's nomination as Best Supporting Actress because of her pro-Palestinian propaganda film, while Palestinian sympathizers protested against the Jewish protesters. Members of a third group, Blacks in Media Broadcasting Organization (BIMBO), protested the awards, noting the



Art Carney, Best Actor recipient, and Francis Ford Coppola, Best Director winner, pose with their Oscars in 1975. (AP/Wide World Photos)

extremely limited participation of African Americans. In 1978, *The Deer Hunter* brought out protesters from BIMBO and two committees opposed to the Vietnam War, who perceived the film as racist.

Yet, if the Academy was not changing rapidly enough for critics, it did seek to make up for unfair treatment of an earlier age. Famed comedian Charlie Chaplin, who was denied a reentry permit after he had left the United States in 1952 because of alleged political and moral deviance, made his first return trip in 1972, receiving an honorary Oscar and a record-breaking standing ovation.

**Impact** Through television coverage, the Oscar ceremonies of the 1970's brought to international attention the social turmoil that was disrupting traditional American life. Few winners attended the 1970 ceremony, but celebrity attendance increased as the ceremonies became increasingly newsworthy, while the protests attracted the youthful audience that the filmmakers sought. Moreover, the controversies—subjects of newspaper, magazine, and television coverage—served as forces for change within the film industry itself.

#### Further Reading

Bernardoni, James. *The New Hollywood: What the Movies Did with the New Freedoms of the Seventies*. Reprint. Jefferson, N.C.: McFarland, 2001. A detailed analysis of Hollywood successes and failures, including one Best Picture winner and many Best Picture nominees.

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Wiley, Mason, and Damien Bona. *Inside Oscar: The Unofficial History of the Academy Awards*. New York: Ballantine Books, 1986. Offers details about nominees and ceremonies not included in Osborne's official history.

*Betty Richardson*

**See also** *All the President's Men*; Allen, Woody; *American Graffiti*; *Annie Hall*; *Apocalypse Now*; Block-

busters; Brando, Marlon; *Chinatown*; *Clockwork Orange, A*; *Coming Home*; *Deer Hunter*; *The Deliverance*; De Niro, Robert; Disaster films; Dreyfuss, Richard; Dunaway, Faye; *Exorcist, The*; Field, Sally; Film in the United States; Fonda, Jane; *French Connection, The*; *Godfather* films; Hoffman, Dustin; *Jaws*; *Kramer vs. Kramer*; *Love Story*; *M\*A\*S\*H*; *Network*; Nicholson, Jack; *One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest*; Pacino, Al; *Patton*; Redford, Robert; *Rocky*; Special effects; *Star Wars*; Streep, Meryl; *Taxi Driver*.

#### ■ Acid rain

**Definition** Precipitation with higher-than-normal acidity caused by air pollutants

*The adverse effects of acid rain, including damage to surface water ecosystems, soils, vegetation, human structures, air visibility, and human health, were identified and solutions were sought during the 1970's.*

Although chemist Robert A. Smith identified acid rain as early as around 1900, it was not considered a threat to the environment until the 1950's, when increased acidity levels were discovered in lakes in Scandinavia and Canada. Scientific research aimed at identifying the sources of acid rain and the associated damage increased during the 1960's. By 1970, the adverse effects of acid rain were showing up at an alarming rate. As fish were washing up along their beaches, more than two hundred lakes in Canada and Scandinavia were declared devoid of life. Scientists in Sweden were the first to identify the primary cause as increased acidity of the lake water due to acid rain.

The primary pollutants that produce acid rain are sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides. When they are released into the air, they can combine with water vapor, eventually forming sulfuric acid and nitric acid. The Clean Air Act, passed by the U.S. Congress in 1970 and administered by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), established levels of pollution for sulfur dioxide, carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides, particulates, and ozone that should not be exceeded in order to maintain environmental and human health. The act mandated that motor vehicle emissions, which include carbon monoxide, volatile organic compounds, and nitric oxides, be reduced by 90 percent by 1975. Although that number proved to be unrealistic, vehicle emissions were reduced.