

UNIT V

THE NATION TRANSFORMED

CHAPTER 11 The Age of Industrialization

The years between the Civil War and 1900 is often called the Age of Industrialization. Established businesses expanded their operations, and new industrial plants sprang up across the country. By 1900, the United States was the world's leading industrial nation.

INDUSTRIAL GROWTH

The Civil War created a huge demand for weapons, war supplies, and machinery of all kinds. Growth continued after the war for five main reasons: (1) The national government maintained high tariffs to protect American industry from foreign competition. (2) An ever-increasing population offered an expanding market for manufactured goods. (3) A continuous flow of immigrants provided an ample labor force. (4) Abundant natural resources supplied industry with raw materials. (5) A network of railroads opened up national markets to manufacturers.

1. Railroad Improvements. Beginning in the 1860s, rail lines were extended across the entire United States. Track mileage increased from about 30,000 miles in 1860 to almost 260,000 miles in 1900. For 50 years after the Civil War, railroad construction and operation was the nation's biggest nonagricultural business.

Railroads brought about standard time zones in the United States. Until the 1880s, each locality across the country set its own time, fixing as noon the moment when the sun was directly

overhead. The resulting time differences made it difficult for railroads to work out schedules. In 1883, the railway companies agreed to divide the country into four standard time zones. This division remains in effect.

2. Better Communications. The telegraph, in wide use by the 1850s, was followed by other inventions that speeded up communication. Cyrus Field laid the first permanently successful underwater telegraph cable across the Atlantic in 1866. The line, from Newfoundland to Ireland, made possible telegraphic communication between North America and Europe. Cables were later laid across the other oceans, linking all the continents by the telegraph.

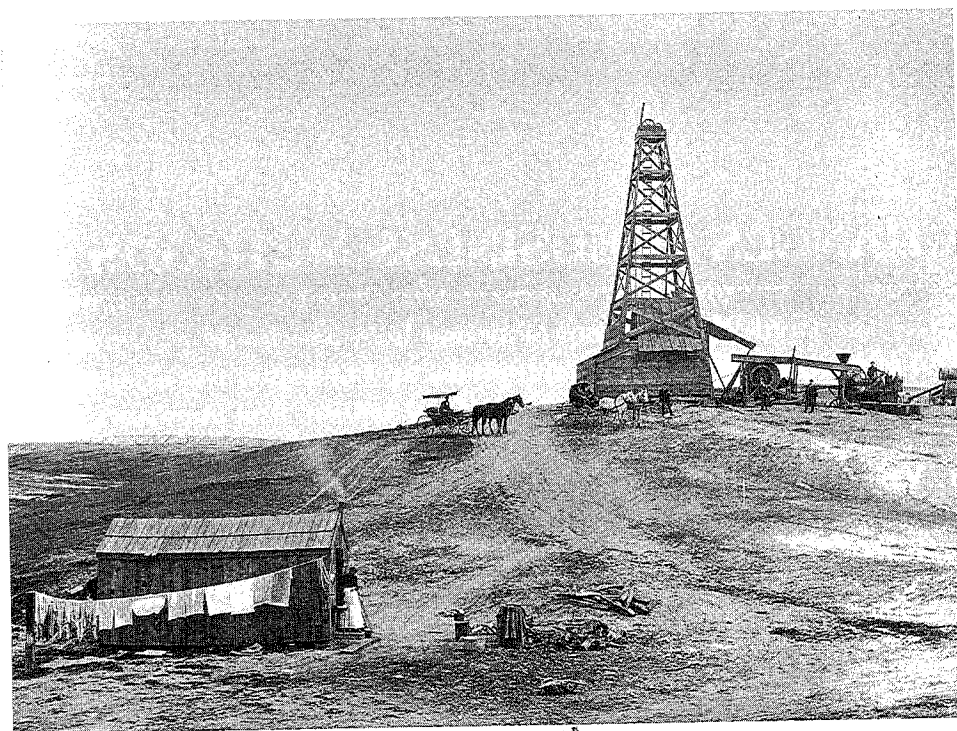
Another communications breakthrough, the telephone, was patented in 1876 by Alexander Graham Bell. By 1900, more than a million telephones were in use. Still another advance in communications was the wireless telegraph. Guglielmo Marconi, an Italian scientist, developed it in 1895. This invention made possible ship-to-ship, ship-to-shore, and *transoceanic* (across-an-ocean) communication without the use of cables. Typewriters, adding machines, and cash registers were also introduced in the 1870s.

3. New Industries. Although railroad construction offered the prime example of industrial growth in the late 1800s, other industries also expanded. They included meatpacking, flour milling, and the manufacture of clothing and shoes. Entirely new industries sprang up as well.

a. Steel. Although the early Industrial Revolution was an age of iron, steel dominated industry's later growth. This metal, stronger and more flexible than iron, can be shaped into a great variety of useful products. In the 1850s, William Kelly, a Kentucky blacksmith, discovered a new, cheaper method of making steel. In England, Henry Bessemer independently developed a similar technique. In the Bessemer process, cold air is forced through molten iron to remove its impurities. Then carbon is added to make the steel tough and elastic. The first Bessemer converter in the United States went into operation in 1864.

Once steel was inexpensive to produce, it replaced iron in trains, railroad tracks, bridges, ships, and many kinds of machinery. The steel industry was first centered in Pittsburgh but soon spread elsewhere.

b. Petroleum. In 1859, Edwin L. Drake drilled the world's first successful oil well near Titusville, Pennsylvania. Oil prospectors rushed to the area and drilled other wells. Special railroad cars and



California oil derricks, about 1898.

pipelines were built to transport the petroleum to refineries. There petroleum was processed into kerosene to fuel lamps or into oil and grease to lubricate machinery. Petroleum made possible the invention of the gasoline engine, which led to the growth of the automobile industry in the early 20th century.

c. Electrical power. In the 1870s, three important developments in the generation and use of electricity took place: (1) Charles F. Brush designed a practical *dynamo*, a machine that could produce a sustained flow of electric current. (2) Thomas A. Edison invented the electric lightbulb. (3) The electric motor came into use. Before long, power plants were built to generate electricity in commercial amounts. The first electric power plant in the United States opened in New York City in 1882.

Factories switched from steam power to electric power. Electric lights replaced kerosene and gas lamps, and electrically operated home appliances were invented. By 1900, patents had been granted for an electric iron, electric stove, and electric sewing machine.

IDENTIFY OR DEFINE: Cyrus Field, Alexander Graham Bell, Guglielmo Marconi, Edwin L. Drake.

CRITICAL THINKING: Why was the United States divided into four time zones in the 19th century?

CHANGES IN BUSINESS METHODS

After the Civil War, a group of strong business leaders gained control of the nation's leading industries and changed the structure of American business.

1. Vertical Integration. One of the most famous of these industrialists was Andrew Carnegie. In 1873, Carnegie founded his own steel company, using the Bessemer process to produce the metal in large quantities.

Carnegie gained control of every phase of steelmaking by buying mining companies, ore ships, and railroad lines. Owning the various stages of production from raw materials to finished products is called *vertical integration*. Petroleum refiners followed Carnegie's lead by acquiring oil fields, pipelines, and distribution facilities.

2. The Corporation. The Carnegie Steel Company was a *partnership*, meaning that it had only a few co-owners. But many of the new industrial companies were *corporations*, a type of business owned by all the people who buy shares in it. There can be thousands of *shareholders* (also called *stockholders*). They elect a board of directors to manage the business. Each shareholder receives a part of the profits in the form of *dividends*. The amount of the dividend is based on the number of shares a person owns.

An important advantage of the corporation is its ability to raise a large amount of capital by selling stock to investors. This enables the corporation to build huge factories, buy expensive machinery, and expand nationally and internationally. The corporation soon became the dominant form of business organization in the United States. By 1900, corporations controlled more than two-thirds of all manufacturing.

3. Combinations. Individual companies not only grew in size and wealth but also formed *combinations*—business alliances that increased their assets and power.

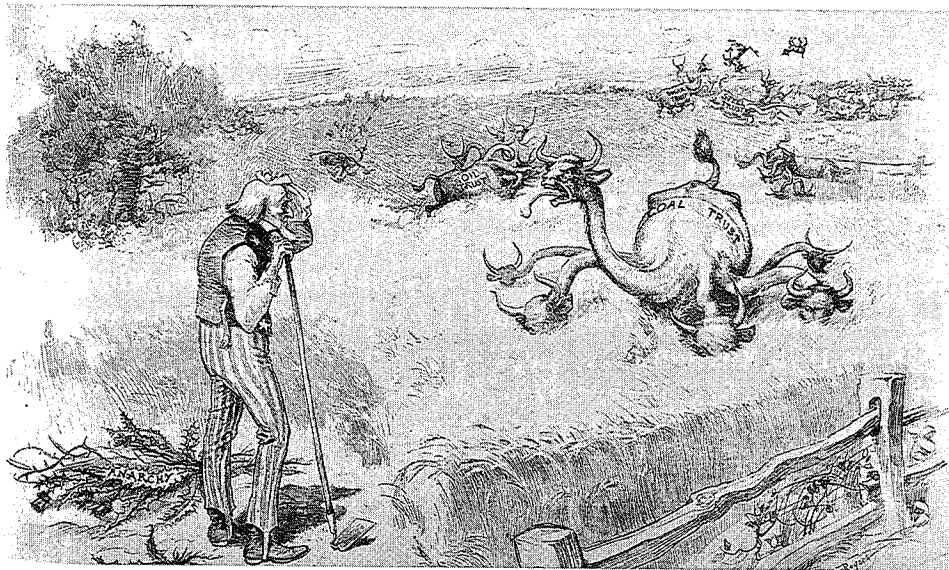
a. The merger. In one form of combination, the *merger*, two or more companies joined to form a larger one. In 1869, Cornelius Van-

derbilt merged a number of short railroad lines between New York City and Buffalo. The result was the country's first great railroad system, the New York Central. Many business leaders arranged mergers to reduce or eliminate competition. Once they gained a monopoly on a product or service, they could then demand higher prices.

b. The pool. A *pool* was an informal agreement among competing companies to fix prices, share profits, or divide the market for their products. Rival railroads serving the Midwest set up the first pool in 1870. Pooling soon became a common practice among competing railroads and spread to other industries. But pools were not legally binding and were often broken. The pool was replaced by the trust.

c. The trust. A *trust* combined a number of corporations in the same field or in related fields. A small board of trustees managed the combination. Stockholders in each company signed over their stock to the trustees. In exchange, the stockholders received trust certificates that entitled them to a proportionate share of the trust's profits.

John D. Rockefeller organized the first successful trust. After starting an oil-refining business in the 1860s, he bought out competitors or ruined them by sharply lowering his own prices. In 1879, he formed the Standard Oil Trust, which controlled 90 percent of the oil refining business. During the next decade, trusts were formed in many other industries, including sugar, lead, whiskey, and



Nothing but Feed and Fight: Farmer Jonathan (who has just been rooting out foreign thistles). "I GUESS THIS NEW BREED OF CATTLE HAS GOT TO GO NEXT."

meatpacking. One of the biggest trusts was the American Tobacco Company, formed in 1890 by James B. Duke.

d. The holding company. The *holding company* did not produce or distribute goods or services. Instead, it held a controlling interest in the stock of several related companies, called *subsidiaries*, and concerned itself with directing their operations. A pioneer in this form of combination was the Bell Telephone Company. By the end of the century, 185 industrial holding companies controlled a third of all the capital invested in American manufacturing.

4. Investment Banking. *Investment bankers* raised capital for corporations by supervising the issue and sale of *securities* (stocks and bonds). They often sat on a corporation's board of directors. In the age of industrialization, the giant of U.S. investment bankers was J. Pierpont Morgan. He headed the country's largest private bank. When hundreds of railroads faced ruin after a business panic in 1893, Morgan reorganized and restored them. In 1901, he and his associates bought the Carnegie Steel Company, merged it with other companies, and formed the huge U.S. Steel Corporation, the nation's first billion-dollar company.

5. New Retailing Practices. Before the rise of big business, people had few choices about where to buy everyday supplies. The availability of mass-produced goods during the age of industrialization brought changes. Merchants developed new types of stores and new techniques of merchandising.

The *chain store*, a group of retail outlets owned by one company, could sell goods at lower prices because of centralized management and large-scale purchasing. The first grocery-store chain was founded in 1859. It later became known as the Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company (A&P). F.W. Woolworth opened the first unit in his chain of five-and-ten-cent stores in 1879.

Another retailing novelty was the *department store*, which sold goods of almost every description. Each kind of product—women's clothing, toys, kitchenware, and so on—was located in a separate department. The first department stores were founded in the 1860s and 1870s, including Macy's in New York City, Wanamaker's in Philadelphia, and Marshall Field in Chicago.

Mail-order companies published catalogs offering a wide variety of goods. Customers ordered and received merchandise by mail. Pioneers in this field were Montgomery Ward, founded in 1872, and Sears Roebuck, founded in 1895.

Selling techniques improved in the late 1800s. Foodstuffs, once sold in bulk, were now packaged and labeled. Brand names came into wide use. The number of trademarks registered at the U.S. Patent Office jumped from 121 in 1870 to 10,568 in 1906. Advertising appeared not only in magazines and newspapers but also on big electric signs. Another shopping innovation was *installment buying* (paying over a period of time).

The Free-Enterprise System

The United States' economic system is called the *free-enterprise system*, or *capitalism*. It is based on the following principles: (1) Private individuals should own and control a nation's resources. (2) Producers should be able to compete freely among themselves for a share of the market. Consumers should have the opportunity to make their own choices among the available products. Such competition would establish a firm foundation for a healthy economy and would benefit society as a whole. (3) Government should not interfere with the operation of the eco-

nommic system. Such a policy is called *laissez-faire* (French for "let do"). This principle is not always strictly followed by governments, however.

The principles of capitalism dated back to the late 1700s. The U.S. system during the age of industrialization differed in many ways from the ideal. For instance, trusts and other business combinations severely limited free competition in many fields. But the economy was booming. Many Americans believed that a *laissez-faire* policy was the best way to sustain economic growth.

IDENTIFY OR DEFINE: vertical integration, corporation, merger, pool, trust, holding company.

CRITICAL THINKING: Why did industries form trusts in the late 19th century?

PROBLEMS OF LABOR

As the United States industrialized, the number of wage earners grew. Employees generally worked long hours for low pay. Working conditions were often poor and sometimes dangerous. Unemployment was an ever-present threat. Acting alone, a worker could do nothing about a bad situation except quit and look for another job.

1. Organizing Unions. Workers realized that they could make changes only by forming labor unions. A union's first objective was to win recognition by an employer as the official representative of the employees. Then it could engage in *collective bargaining*—negotiations between labor and management officials to settle such issues as wages, hours, and working conditions.

a. The Knights of Labor. The first important national union was the Knights of Labor, formed in 1869 by garment workers in Philadelphia. It aimed to unite all workers, skilled and unskilled, into one large union. Members included African Americans and women. The Knights hoped not only to better the worker's lot but also to reform society in general.

The Knights were active in the nation's first major strike. In 1877, workers on the Baltimore and Ohio and other railroads in the East walked off their jobs to protest a wage cut. The railroads replaced them with other workers. When angry strikers tried to halt the trains, riots broke out. A militia was called in and pitched battles resulted. President Hayes sent in U.S. troops to restore order. Unable to stop the trains and afraid of losing their jobs, the strikers accepted the wage cut.

Nevertheless, the Knights continued to grow, with membership reaching more than 700,000 by 1886. In that year, thousands of workers seeking an eight-hour workday went on strike in Chicago. Strikers and police clashed at the McCormick Harvester Company. A protest meeting was called at Haymarket Square to protest the killing of two strikers by the police. When police arrived to break up the crowd, someone threw a bomb, which killed or injured a number of people. Eight agitators among the strikers were convicted of conspiracy to commit murder. Although the evidence against them was flimsy, four were hanged and three were sentenced to long prison terms.

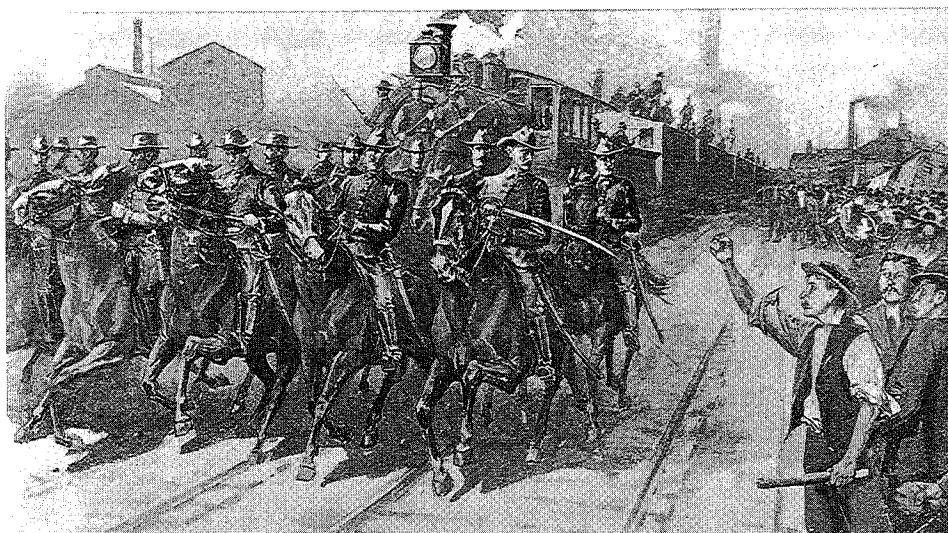
Although the Knights of Labor had not been involved in the Haymarket riot, the public blamed the union for the incident. As a result, its membership fell off sharply. Other factors that contributed to the decline of the Knights were unsuccessful strikes, internal disputes over political activity, and conflicting interests of skilled and unskilled workers within the organization.

b. The American Federation of Labor. Many of those who left the Knights of Labor joined the American Federation of Labor (AFL). Samuel Gompers, one of its founders, was the AFL's president from 1886 to 1924. He believed that unions should not reform society but win immediate benefits for their members. Under Gompers's

leadership, the AFL's membership grew to about 550,000 in 1900. The AFL was made up of *craft unions*, ones in which skilled workers were grouped according to their trades. Unskilled workers, including most minority and women workers, were excluded. Each trade formed its own national union, with many locals throughout the country. The AFL was a union of unions rather than a union of individual workers.

2. A Time of Struggle. Although more successful than the Knights of Labor, the AFL represented less than 10 percent of American non-farmworkers in 1900. The times did not favor organized labor. Corporations often refused to recognize unions and fired employees who tried to organize other workers. They hired *strikebreakers* (sometimes called scabs) to work in place of strikers. When labor and management were at odds, government at all levels almost always sided with business. The courts, for example, often issued *injunctions* (court orders) against strikers. The public and the press also often supported business over unions.

In 1892, a particularly bitter dispute erupted at the Carnegie Steel Company's plant in Homestead, Pennsylvania. Refusing to accept a wage cut, union workers went on strike. To protect its property and break the strike, the company hired 300 armed guards from the Pinkerton detective agency. In a fight between strikers and guards, seven guards were killed and the rest driven off. A state militia then stepped in. Strikebreakers kept up production. The strike collapsed after five months, and the power of the union was broken.



Chicago stockyards. Strikers in the Great Railway Strike of 1894 jeered when a train passed escorted by the U.S. Cavalry.

Even more discouraging to organized labor was the Pullman strike. The Pullman Company, near Chicago, manufactured sleeping cars for trains. Its workers went on strike in 1894 to protest a wage cut. Members of the independent American Railway Union, headed by Eugene V. Debs, supported them by refusing to handle any trains hauling Pullman cars. Violence flared up when the railroads tried to keep the trains running. President Grover Cleveland sent in U.S. troops to restore order. Meanwhile, the railroads obtained an injunction forbidding strikers to interfere with the U.S. mail and interstate commerce. When Debs refused to call off the strike, he was arrested and jailed. Under the protection of federal troops, train service was restored, and the strike was broken.

IDENTIFY OR DEFINE: collective bargaining, Haymarket riot, craft union, injunction, Homestead strike, Pullman strike.

CRITICAL THINKING: Why was it difficult for unions in late 19th-century America?

THE GROWTH OF CITIES

In the years 1860–1900, there was a strong trend toward *urbanization*—the growth of cities. In 1860, less than 15 percent of all Americans lived in cities having a population of 10,000 or more. By 1900, more than 30 percent lived in such cities. Many Americans moved to urban areas to find jobs in factories and businesses. Cities also attracted most of the immigrants who arrived in the United States during this period.

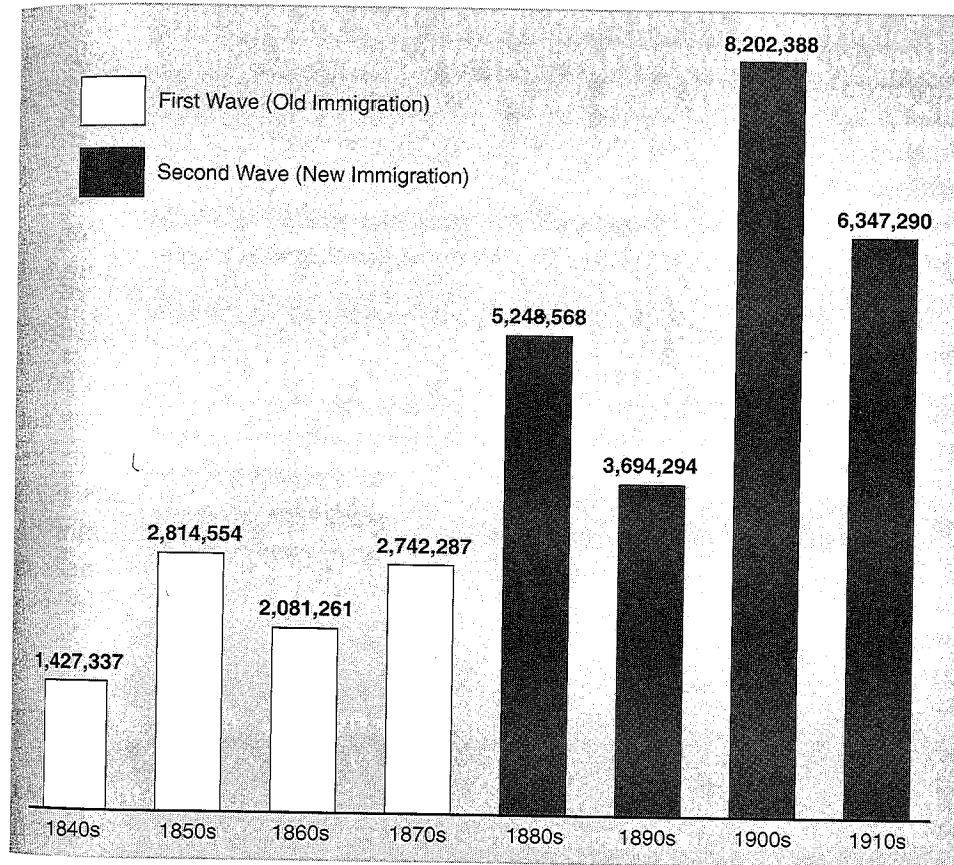
1. The New Immigration. In 1886, the Statue of Liberty, a gift of the French people, was unveiled in New York Harbor. Located at the entrance to the biggest U.S. port, it became a symbol of the nation's promise to immigrants. During 1860–1900, the number of newcomers to the United States averaged more than 200,000 a year. In some peak years in the 1880s, there were three times as many.

Until the 1880s, most immigrants to the United States came from Northern and Western Europe. Most were Protestants. Then, this so-called “old” immigration gave way to a “new” immigration. More and more people came from Eastern and Southern Europe—

Poland, Russia, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Balkan states, and Italy. There were not only thousands of Catholics but also large numbers of Jews. Few of the newcomers spoke English, and many could not read or write. By 1900, immigrants from Eastern and Southern Europe outnumbered other immigrants.

READING A GRAPH

Immigration to the United States, 1840–1919



1. In which decade, was “old” immigration the highest?
2. In which decade, was immigration 5,248,568?
3. How many people immigrated to the United States in the 1890s?

a. Patterns of work and settlement. Many of the new immigrants, being poor and unskilled, tended to settle in large cities,

where they could find factory or construction jobs. Italians worked on subways, bridges, and water systems in urban areas. Slavs mined coal, poured steel, and worked in the stockyards. Jews went into the garment industry or ran small stores. Chinese immigrants—who settled mainly on the West Coast—operated laundries and restaurants. The new immigrants felt more comfortable among their own people and often formed ethnic neighborhoods within cities. There they set up businesses and organizations to help their own group of people. Among these were welfare societies, newspapers, theaters, and sports clubs.

b. Response to the newcomers. As in the past, Americans' reactions to the newcomers were mixed. Business leaders welcomed the supply of cheap labor. But wage earners were less happy. Desperately poor immigrants were often willing to work for less than the normal wages and to take jobs as strikebreakers. Then, too, many people were suspicious of the foreigners' different customs. The strongest nativist opposition was directed against Roman Catholics. Members of the American Protective Association, founded in 1887, pledged not to vote for or employ Catholics.

Some Americans urged the government to limit immigration. In 1882, Congress passed a law to keep out criminals, paupers, the insane, and those with certain diseases. But the law was not strictly enforced. Inspectors at Ellis Island in New York—the nation's main immigration station—had only two minutes to ask each new arrival 32 questions and complete a medical examination. The main exception to free immigration involved the Chinese. Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882. It banned all Chinese immigration.

2. City Life. Between 1860 and 1900, the number of U.S. cities with 100,000 or more people jumped from 14 to 38. Cleveland, Ohio, for example, grew from 43,417 people to 381,768. Urban centers offered not only jobs but also entertainment, educational opportunities, and such conveniences as electric lights and running water.

Most American cities grew without plan. Since there was no zoning, builders might place houses next to a packing plant or a chemical factory. And since there were few building regulations, many structures were ugly, unhealthy, and dangerous.

a. Construction. Because city real estate was expensive, builders tried to cram as many people as possible into the space available. The result was the *tenement*. Originally, a tenement was any rental dwelling that housed many families. But it soon came to

mean a crowded, run-down apartment building. Usually, several tenement apartments had to share toilet facilities, which might consist of one privy in a courtyard. Tenements had little light or air. Tenement neighborhoods quickly became slums.

Workspace, as well as living space, was limited. After the invention of the passenger elevator in the 1850s, buildings began to expand upward. At first, the outside walls had to be thick enough to support the floors. This limited a building's height to a few stories. A true skyscraper was possible only when builders started using iron frameworks to support both walls and floors. (Steel later replaced iron.) William LeBaron Jenney is generally credited with designing the nation's first skyscraper—the ten-story Home Insurance Building—in Chicago in 1884. Other skyscrapers soon rose in other cities. The greatest of the early skyscraper architects was Louis H. Sullivan. His motto “form follows function” pointed the way toward a more modern, less cluttered style.

b. Transportation. City transportation could not accommodate the number of city dwellers. Streets were too narrow to handle the traffic. Many of them were unpaved. In Chicago as late as 1890,



Recent immigrants lived in crowded areas of America's cities.

more than two-thirds of the street mileage consisted of rutted dirt roads.

Streetcars were the main form of public transportation. Horse-drawn at first, they were later powered by electricity. Because of traffic jams, several cities tried other ways of moving people. Chicago and New York raised trains above the ground to make "elevateds" (els). Other cities put railroad lines underground. In 1897, Boston opened the nation's first subway, a mile and a half long.

c. Services. Urban services were often inadequate. Wooden buildings were common and these often caught fire. In 1871, a great fire burned a huge area of Chicago, where even the sidewalks were made of wood. Volunteer fire companies were the rule until the mid-19th century. In the 1860s and 1870s, big cities like New York began to set up professional firefighting units.

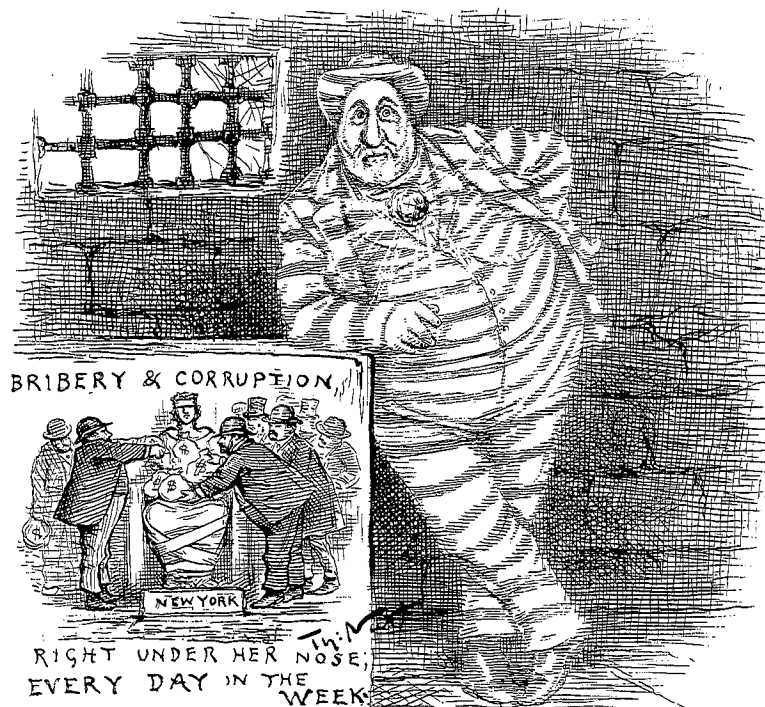
Sanitation was a problem, too. Sewers often emptied into the same rivers that supplied drinking water. Many cities had no regular garbage pickup. Although several states and localities had established public health departments by 1900, conditions were still far from ideal.

3. Coping With City Problems. Most city governments had their hands full keeping order and providing minimum services. They could not offer welfare and the other benefits provided today. City dwellers in need of help turned to other resources.

a. Political machines. Strong political organizations called *political machines* first arose in the United States early in the 1800s. These groups were labeled "machines" because of their efficiency. By 1870, both Republicans and Democrats controlled city districts by means of political machines. Candidates of these parties could count on votes from such districts.

So-called *bosses* usually ran political machines. The party leaders supplied city jobs and city contracts in exchange for bribes. They rarely held major political office. Bosses offered business leaders a way of avoiding competitive bidding and other such procedures. They provided jobs, legal advice, and loans to ordinary citizens when times were hard. They gave much needed help to poor immigrants in exchange for their votes.

Almost every big city had its machine and its bosses. The most notorious big-city boss was William M. Tweed, who headed Tammany Hall, the Democratic machine of New York City. Tweed and his associates, known as the Tweed Ring, swindled the city



Thomas Nast: "The Spirit of Tweed Is Mighty Still"

out of \$75 million or more. Convicted of fraud, Tweed was sent to prison.

b. Reformers and settlement houses. Reformers helped bring about changes in city living conditions. One was a Danish immigrant, Jacob Riis. As a police reporter in New York City, he became familiar with slums, vice, and crime. He publicized his findings in such books as *How the Other Half Lives* (1890). Pressured by the public reaction to Riis's books, the city cleaned up its water supply, built playgrounds, improved schools, and tore down some of its worst tenements.

Settlement houses were another response to city problems. These community centers in poor neighborhoods were usually supported by private contributors and run by volunteers. In 1889, Jane Addams founded Hull House in Chicago, and four years after that, Lillian Wald founded New York's Henry Street Settlement. A settlement house usually provided free classes in English, cooking, and child care. It also offered medical help and provided recreation in the form of clubs, sports teams, and theaters. The problems of city living gave rise to a new professional field, *social work*. Since dedicated amateurs and private charities were no longer able to handle all the

pressing needs of ever-expanding city populations, local governments hired social workers.

EDUCATION

Many of the immigrants who came to America during the age of industrialization needed to learn to adapt to a new culture and the United States' political process. Reformers began to call for more and better public schools. City and state governments played key roles in the growth of education.

States passed laws requiring attendance at school. The first one to do so was Massachusetts, in 1852. Between 1870 and 1900, the number of pupils between ages 5 and 17 who attended public schools more than doubled, from 7 million to 15 million. In the same period, the number of high schools increased from 160 to 6,000.

Most of the new schools were in towns or cities. And many of the students were first-generation Americans. Public school was the main place where most of them learned what it meant to be an American. In fact, an important goal of public education was *Americanization*—teaching the immigrants English, U.S. history, and the values and traditions of their new homeland.

The first public kindergarten was opened in St. Louis in 1873. Soon, many other cities started classes for preschool children. The 1862 Morrill Act helped states found colleges and universities. The original purpose of this law had been to improve agricultural education. But its main result was the creation of the modern system of state universities.

John H. Vincent, a Methodist clergyman, organized the Chautauqua Institution for adult education. Each summer, thousands flocked to Chautauqua, New York, to attend concerts, operas, literary readings, and educational lectures presented by famous people. The idea spread, and "chautauquas" were organized in other parts of the country.

All these educational developments were aided by the growth of public libraries. The nation's first public libraries had been founded before the Civil War. But they became widespread later in the century. Andrew Carnegie donated more than \$40 million for the building of libraries.

IDENTIFY OR DEFINE: urbanization, tenement, political machine, settlement house, Americanization.

CRITICAL THINKING: Some of the municipal services that are common today began developing in the late 19th century. Why do you think they developed then?

Chapter Review

MATCHING TEST

Column A

1. Jane Addams
2. Thomas A. Edison
3. Andrew Carnegie
4. Jacob Riis
5. Eugene V. Debs

Column B

- a. invented electric lightbulb
- b. got rich as steel manufacturer
- c. reporter who publicized big-city problems
- d. founder of Hull House
- e. head of American Railway Union

MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST

1. Which was *not* a factor that contributed to industrialization after the Civil War? (a) abundant natural resources (b) high tariffs (c) a growing population (d) the formation of labor unions.
2. The biggest nonagricultural business in the United States between 1865 and 1915 was (a) railroad construction (b) shipbuilding (c) war armaments (d) telegraph.
3. The inventor who reduced costs for producing steel was (a) Cyrus Field (b) Samuel Gompers (c) Henry Bessemer (d) Thomas Edison.
4. A major factor in the development of the skyscraper was (a) strictly enforced zoning (b) the invention of the passenger elevator (c) regulations against tenements (d) the construction of elevated trains.
5. The first successful trust in the United States was organized by (a) James B. Duke (b) John D. Rockefeller (c) Andrew Carnegie (d) William Tweed.

6. A notorious 19th-century big-city political boss was (a) William Tweed (b) Thomas Edison (c) Lillian Wald (d) Jacob Riis.
7. The Knights of Labor lost support as a result of the (a) invention of the lightbulb (b) Haymarket riot (c) Homestead strike (d) rise of Tammany Hall.
8. Samuel Gompers founded the (a) American Federation of Labor (b) United Mine Workers (c) Knights of Labor (d) Transport Workers Union.
9. Andrew Carnegie gave more than \$40 million to build (a) agricultural colleges (b) kindergartens (c) settlement houses (d) public libraries.
10. In 1882, Congress passed a bill that banned immigration from (a) Mexico (b) Germany (c) China (d) India.



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Why did industrial growth accelerate during and after the Civil War?
2. What is a corporation, and how does it work? Why did corporations have an advantage in an age of industrial expansion?
3. What new industries developed during the age of industrialization? Name a person who was important in the development of *each* industry listed. Describe each person's contribution.
4. Compare the Knights of Labor and the AFL as to organization, membership, and aims.
5. How did the "new" immigrants differ from the "old"? For what reasons did nativists react negatively to the "new" immigrants?

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

This question is based on the accompanying documents (1–4). It will improve your ability to work with historical documents.

Historical Context:

From 1860 to 1900, immigration to the United States was quite heavy—about 14 million people. The immigrants' arrivals made a

great impact on the nation's political, social, and economic life. The immigrants' influence was especially strong in urban areas, as immigrants contributed to the rapid growth of American cities.

Task:

Using information from the documents and your knowledge of United States history, read each document and answer the question or questions that follow it. Your answers to the questions will help you write the document-based essay.

Document 1. Description of life for the poor in New York City in the 1880s, from Jacob Riis's book *How the Other Half Lives*:

Be a little careful, please. The hall is dark and you might stumble over the children pitching pennies back there. Not that it would hurt them; kicks and cuffs are their daily diet. They have little else. . . . Close? Yes! What would you have? All the fresh air that enters these stairs is from the hall-door that is forever slamming. . . . Here is a door. Listen! That short hacking cough, that tiny helpless wail—what do they mean? . . . The child is dying with measles. With half a chance it might have lived; but it had none. That dark bedroom killed it.

Source: Riis, Jacob. *How the Other Half Lives*. NY: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1890, pp. 43–44.

Judging from the title of Jacob Riis's book and the excerpt, why do you think he wrote the book?

Document 2. Study the graph on page 213.

During which decade shown was immigration to the United States the greatest?

Document 3. Study the cartoon of "Boss" William M. Tweed on page 217.

- a. Why was "Boss" Tweed shown in jail?
- b. Do you think that cartoonist Thomas Nast was trying to make fun of "Boss" Tweed? Explain your answer.

Document 4. Remarks by George Washington Plunkitt, a political "boss" in New York City, 1905:

If there's a fire in Ninth, Tenth, or Eleventh Avenue, for example, any hour of the day or night, I'm usually there with some of my election district captains as soon as the fire-engines. If a family

is burned out I don't ask whether they are Republicans or Democrats, and I don't refer them to the Charity Organization Society, which would investigate their case in a month or two and decide they were worthy of help about the time they are dead from starvation. I just get quarters for them, buy clothes for them if their clothes were burned up, and fix them up till they get things runnin' again. It's philanthropy, but it's politics, too—mighty good politics. Who can tell how many votes one of these fires bring me?

Source: Riordon, William L. *Plunkitt of Tammany Hall*. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 1994, p. 64.

What reason did Plunkitt give for not referring the burned-out family to the Charity Organization Society?

DOCUMENT-BASED ESSAY

Using information from the above documents and your knowledge of United States history, write an essay in which you:

- Explain whether conditions of the poor in cities in the late 1800s and early 1900s contributed to the rise of powerful political bosses and to the willingness of some poor people to overlook the illegal actions of bosses.