Module 13

Immigration and Urbanization

Essential Question
Did the benefits of immigrating to the United States at the turn of the century outweigh the challenges?

In this module you will explore the immigrant experience. You will also learn about the rapid growth of cities, advances in technology, and the rise of mass culture.

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The Big Idea  As Americans had more time for leisure activities, a modern mass culture emerged.

About the Photograph: This photo shows the intersection of Orchard and Hester Streets on New York City’s Lower East Side, a center of Jewish immigrant life in 1905.

Videos, including...
- Arrival at Ellis Island
- Angel Island: Ellis Island of the West
- Italians in America: Old World, New Land
- Irish in America
- Jacob Riis
- Captured Light
- Roller Coasters

Document-Based Investigations
Graphic Organizers
Interactive Games
Carousel: Immigrant Workers
Image with Hotspots: Skyscrapers
**United States Events**

- **1876** Rutherford B. Hayes takes office as president.
- **1878** Bicycle Touring Club is founded in Europe.
- **1880** James A. Garfield is elected president.
- **1883** Brooklyn Bridge is completed.
- **1884** Grover Cleveland is elected president.
- **1888** Benjamin Harrison is elected president.
- **1888** Electric trolleys are first introduced.
- **1892** Grover Cleveland is elected to a second term.
- **1896** William McKinley is elected president.
- **1898** Hawaii is annexed by the United States.
- **1900** McKinley is reelected.
- **1901** McKinley is assassinated.
- **1901** Theodore Roosevelt becomes president.
- **1903** The Wright brothers achieve the first successful airplane flight.
- **1908** Henry Ford introduces the Model T.
- **1908** William H. Taft is elected president.
- **1910** Mexican Revolution begins.
- **1912** Woodrow Wilson is elected president.
- **1914** Panama Canal opens.
- **1916** Woodrow Wilson is reelected president.
- **1917** World War I begins in Europe.

**World Events**

- **1876** Bicycle Touring Club is founded in Europe.
- **1877** Rutherford B. Hayes takes office as president.
- **1884** Berlin Conference meets to divide Africa among European nations.
- **1884** Grover Cleveland is elected president.
- **1889** Barnum & Bailey Circus opens in London.
- **1892** Electric trolleys are first introduced.
- **1896** William McKinley is elected to a second term.
- **1898** Hawaii is annexed by the United States.
- **1900** McKinley is reelected.
- **1901** Theodore Roosevelt becomes president.
- **1903** The Wright brothers achieve the first successful airplane flight.
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- **1912** Woodrow Wilson is elected president.
- **1914** Panama Canal opens.
- **1916** Woodrow Wilson is reelected president.
- **1917** World War I begins in Europe.
The Big Idea
Immigration from Europe, Asia, the Caribbean, and Mexico reached a new high in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

Why It Matters Now
This wave of immigration helped make the United States the diverse society it is today.

Key Terms and People
Ellis Island
Angel Island
melting pot
nativism
Chinese Exclusion Act
Gentlemen’s Agreement

One American’s Story
In 1871, 14-year-old Fong See came from China to “Gold Mountain”—the United States. Fong See stayed, worked at menial jobs, and saved enough money to buy a business. Despite widespread restrictions against the Chinese, he became a very successful importer and was able to sponsor many other Chinese who wanted to enter the United States. Fong See had achieved the American Dream. However, as his great-granddaughter Lisa See recalls, he was not satisfied.

“He had been trying to achieve success ever since he had first set foot on the Gold Mountain. His dream was very ‘American.’ He wanted to make money, have influence, be respected, have a wife and children who loved him. In 1919 when he traveled to China, he could look at his life and say he had achieved his dream. But once in China, he suddenly saw his life in a different context. In America, was he really rich? Could he live where he wanted? . . . Did Americans care what he thought? . . . The answers played in his head—no, no, no.”

—Lisa See, from On Gold Mountain

Despite Fong See’s success, he could not, upon his death in 1957, be buried next to his Caucasian wife because California cemeteries were still segregated.
Through the “Golden Door”

Millions of immigrants, like Fong See, entered the United States in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. They were drawn by pull factors, such as the promise of a better life. Others wanted to escape push factors, such as famine, land shortages, or religious or political persecution. Still others, known as “birds of passage,” intended to immigrate temporarily. They wanted to earn money and then return to their homelands.

EUROPEANS  Between 1870 and 1920, approximately 20 million Europeans arrived in the United States. Before 1890 most immigrants came from countries in western and northern Europe. Beginning in the 1890s, however, increasing numbers came from southern and eastern Europe. In 1907 alone, about a million people arrived from Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.

Why did so many leave their homelands? Many of these new immigrants left to escape religious persecution. Whole villages of Jews were driven out of Russia by pogroms. These were organized attacks often encouraged by local authorities. Other Europeans left because of rising population. Between 1800 and 1900, the population in Europe doubled to nearly 400 million, resulting in a scarcity of land for farming. Farmers competed with laborers for too few industrial jobs. In the United States, jobs were supposedly plentiful. In addition, a spirit of reform and revolt had spread across Europe in the 19th century. Influenced by political movements at home, many young European men and women sought independent lives in America.

American Literature

A Poem for Liberty

In 1883 poet Emma Lazarus was asked to write a poem that would be auctioned to raise funds to build a pedestal for the Statue of Liberty. Lazarus was a descendant of Jewish immigrants. She wanted her poem to reflect the hopes, dreams, and fears of immigrants and the promise of a better life offered by the American Dream. The sonnet she wrote, called “The New Colossus,” summed up this feeling in these now-famous lines.

The New Colossus

“Keep ancient lands, your storied pomp!” cries she With silent lips. “Give me your tired, your poor, Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free, The wretched refuse of your teeming shore. Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me, I lift my lamp beside the golden door!”

—Emma Lazarus, from “The New Colossus”

Analyze American Literature

What do you think Emma Lazarus is saying about the United States, as compared to other countries at the time?
**CHINESE AND JAPANESE** While waves of Europeans arrived on the shores of the East Coast, Chinese immigrants came to the West Coast in smaller numbers. Between 1851 and 1883, about 300,000 Chinese arrived. Many came to seek their fortunes after the discovery of gold in 1848 started the California gold rush. Chinese immigrants helped build the nation’s railroads, including the first transcontinental line. When the railroads were completed, they turned to farming, mining, and domestic service. Some, like Fong See, started businesses. However, Chinese immigration was sharply limited by an act of Congress in 1882.

The United States annexed Hawaii in 1898. This resulted in increased Japanese immigration to the West Coast. Immigration continued to increase as word of comparatively high American wages spread. The wave peaked in 1907, when 30,000 left Japan for the United States. By 1920 more than 200,000 Japanese lived on the West Coast.

**THE WEST INDIES AND MEXICO** Between 1880 and 1920, about 260,000 immigrants arrived in the eastern and southeastern United States from the West Indies. They came from Jamaica, Cuba, Puerto Rico, and other islands. Many West Indians left their homelands because jobs were scarce. The industrial boom in the United States seemed to promise work for everyone.

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**U.S. Immigration Patterns, as of 1900**

Map showing U.S. immigration patterns with settlement figures in thousands.

**Interpret Maps**

1. **Movement** Where did the greatest number of Italian immigrants settle?

2. **Movement** From which country did the smallest percentage of immigrants come?
Mexicans, too, immigrated to the United States to find work and to flee political turmoil. The 1902 National Reclamation Act encouraged the irrigation of arid land and created new farmland in western states. This drew Mexican farm workers northward. After 1910 political and social upheavals in Mexico prompted even more immigration. About 700,000 people—7 percent of the population of Mexico at the time—came to the United States over the next 20 years.

**A Difficult Journey**

By the 1870s almost all immigrants traveled by steamship. The trip across the Atlantic Ocean from Europe took approximately one week. The Pacific crossing from Asia took nearly three weeks. Many immigrants traveled in steerage, the cheapest accommodations in a ship’s cargo holds. Immigrants were crowded together in the gloom. They were rarely allowed on deck, so they could not exercise or catch a breath of fresh air. They often had to sleep in bunks infested with lice and share toilets with many other passengers. Under these conditions, disease spread quickly. Some immigrants died before they reached their destination. For those who survived, the first glimpse of America could be breathtaking.

**ELLIS ISLAND** After initial moments of excitement, the immigrants faced the anxiety of not knowing whether they would be admitted to the United States. They had to pass inspection at immigration stations, such as the one at Castle Garden in New York City. That station was later moved to **Ellis Island** in New York Harbor. From 1892 to 1924, Ellis Island was the chief immigration station in the United States. An estimated 17 million immigrants passed through its noisy, crowded facilities.
About 20 percent of the immigrants at Ellis Island were held for a day or more before being inspected. However, only about 2 percent of those were denied entry. The processing of immigrants on Ellis Island was an ordeal that might take five hours or more. First, they had to pass a physical examination by a doctor. Anyone with a serious health problem or a contagious disease, such as tuberculosis, was promptly sent home. Those who passed the medical exam then reported to a government inspector. The inspector checked documents and questioned immigrants. He had to determine whether they met the legal requirements for entering the United States. The requirements included proving they had never been convicted of a felony, demonstrating that they were able to work, and showing that they had some money (at least $25 after 1909).

Women traveling alone had to remain on the island until a male relative came for them. If they had no male relative in the country, they would often be deported, or sent back to their home country. Under an 1891 rule, inspectors could turn away single women and widows. Officials thought that they would “likely become public charges,” or require public assistance, such as welfare.

ANGLER ISLAND While European immigrants arriving on the East Coast passed through Ellis Island, Asians—primarily Chinese—arriving on the West Coast gained admission at Angel Island in San Francisco Bay. Between 1910 and 1940, about 50,000 Chinese immigrants entered the United States.

“America! . . . We were so near it seemed too much to believe. Everyone stood silent—like in prayer. . . . Then we were entering the harbor. The land came so near we could almost reach out and touch it. . . . Everyone was holding their breath. Me too. . . . Some boats had bands playing on their decks and all of them were tooting their horns to us and leaving white trails in the water behind them.”

—Rosa Cavalleri, quoted in Rosa: The Life of an Italian Immigrant

“When I saw Ellis Island, it’s a great big place, . . . We all had to gather your bags, and the place was crowded with people and talking, and crying, . . . And we passed through some of the halls there, big open spaces there, and there was bars, and there was people behind these bars, and they were talking different languages, and I was scared to death. I thought I was in jail.”

—Mary Mullins Gordon, from Ellis Island Oral History Project
through Angel Island. Processing at Angel Island was different from the procedure at Ellis Island. Immigrants endured harsh questioning. They were kept in dirty, run-down buildings while they waited to find out whether they would be admitted or rejected.

**Life in the New Land**

No matter what part of the globe immigrants came from, they faced many adjustments to a foreign—and often unfriendly—culture.

**COOPERATION FOR SURVIVAL** Once admitted to the country, immigrants faced many challenges. They had to find a place to live and get a job. They had to get along in daily life, while trying to learn an unfamiliar language and culture. Many immigrants tried to find people who shared their cultural values, practiced their religion, and spoke their native language. They settled in ethnic neighborhoods that served as life rafts for immigrants. In these communities, they could speak their native language. In New York City, for example, Jewish immigrants founded a theater that gave performances in Yiddish. This was the language spoken by Jews from central and eastern Europe. They even published newspapers in their own languages.

These ethnic neighborhoods also allowed immigrants to practice their own customs and traditions, which had often been passed down from generation to generation through families. People pooled their money to build churches or synagogues. They formed schools and social clubs to help preserve their customs. Ethnic neighborhoods also provided the comfort foods immigrants craved. These foods included Chinese dumplings, Italian pasta, Jewish latkes, and Polish perogies.

Immigrants also opened local shops and small businesses in these neighborhoods. Established business owners often helped new arrivals by offering credit and giving small loans. Such aid was important for newcomers because there were few commercial banks in immigrant communities.

Immigrants were committed to their own cultures, but they also tried to take on new identities. Many immigrants began to think of themselves as “hyphenated” Americans. They tried hard to fit in. However, these new Polish- and Italian- and Chinese-Americans felt increasing friction as they rubbed shoulders with people born and raised in the United States. Native-born people often disliked the immigrants’ unfamiliar customs and languages. Ironically, the descendants of earlier immigrants often viewed these new groups of immigrants as a threat to the American way of life.

**SEEKING OPPORTUNITIES** The majority of European immigrants settled in cities. Most were unskilled workers, so they took low-paying jobs in factories and mills. However, unskilled southern and eastern European immigrants were also recruited to work in the mining industry. These jobs usually paid the same low wages as factory jobs, but they were much more dangerous. Miners worked in dark, cramped conditions under the constant threat of cave-ins. Worse still was the presence of gases, such as methane, that could
kill if breathed in an enclosed space. On top of that, miners had to deal with pools of stagnant dirty water, coal dust, and swarms of rats. In the early 1900s, mine accidents killed three out of every ten miners in the United States each year.

In 1884 the Japanese government allowed Hawaiian planters to recruit Japanese workers. This caused a boost in Japanese emigration. By 1886 the majority of farm workers in the United States were of Asian descent. These workers included Chinese, Japanese, Indians, and Filipinos. Often they were barred from labor unions because of their race or status as unskilled workers. These immigrants had few protections and suffered terrible working conditions. They usually worked 16 hours a day in the hot sun. Low wages and unsanitary conditions in workers’ camps made life for these immigrants even more difficult.

**Immigration Restrictions**

Many native-born Americans thought of their country as a *melting pot*, a mixture of people of different cultures and races who blended together by abandoning their native languages and customs. Many new immigrants, however, did not wish to give up their cultural identities. As immigration increased, strong anti-immigrant feelings emerged.

**THE RISE OF NATIVISM** One response to the growth in immigration was *nativism*, or overt favoritism toward native-born Americans. Nativism gave rise to anti-immigrant groups and also led to a growing demand for immigration restrictions.

Many nativists believed that Anglo-Saxons—the Germanic ancestors of the English—were superior to other ethnic groups. These nativists did not object to immigrants from the “right” countries.

Prescott F. Hall, a founder in 1894 of the Immigration Restriction League, identified desirable immigrants as “British, German, and Scandinavian stock, historically free, energetic, progressive.” Nativists thought that problems were caused by immigrants from the “wrong” countries—“Slav, Latin, and Asiatic races, historically down-trodden . . . and stagnant.”

Nativists sometimes objected more to immigrants’ religious beliefs than to their ethnic backgrounds. Many native-born Americans were Protestants and thought that Roman Catholic and Jewish immigrants would undermine the democratic institutions established by the country’s Protestant founders. The American Protective Association, a nativist group founded in 1887, launched vicious anti-Catholic attacks, and many colleges, businesses, and social clubs refused to admit Jews.

In 1897 Congress, influenced by the Immigration Restriction League, passed a bill requiring a literacy test for immigrants. Those who could not read 40 words in English or their native language would be refused entry. Although President Cleveland vetoed the bill, it was a powerful statement of public sentiment. In 1917 a similar bill would be passed into law in spite of President Woodrow Wilson’s veto.
ANTI-ASIAN SENTIMENT Nativism also found a foothold in the labor movement, particularly in the West, where native-born workers feared that jobs would go to Chinese immigrants, who would accept lower wages. The depression of 1873 intensified anti-Chinese sentiment in California. Work was scarce, and labor groups exerted political pressure on the government to restrict Asian immigration. The founder of the Workingmen’s Party, Denis Kearney, headed the anti-Chinese movement in California. He made hundreds of speeches throughout the state, each ending with the message, “The Chinese must go!”

In 1882 Congress essentially slammed the door on Chinese immigration for ten years by passing the Chinese Exclusion Act. This act banned entry to all Chinese except students, teachers, merchants, tourists, and government officials. In 1892 Congress extended the law for another ten years. In 1902 Chinese immigration was restricted indefinitely; the law was not repealed until 1943.

THE GENTLEMEN’S AGREEMENT The fears that had led to anti-Chinese agitation were extended to Japanese and other Asian people in the early 1900s. In 1906 the local board of education in San Francisco segregated Japanese children by putting them in separate schools. When Japan raised an angry protest at this treatment of its emigrants, President Theodore Roosevelt worked out a deal. Under the Gentlemen’s Agreement of 1907–1908, Japan’s government agreed to limit emigration of unskilled workers to the United States in exchange for the repeal of the San Francisco segregation order.

Although doorways for immigrants had been all but closed to Asians on the West Coast, cities in the East and the Midwest teemed with European immigrants—and with urban opportunities and challenges.

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Fear and resentment of Chinese immigrants sometimes resulted in mob attacks, like the one shown here.

Reading Check
Analyze Causes
How did nativism influence United States’ policy on immigration?

Lesson 1 Assessment

1. Organize Information Create a two-column chart, and list two or more causes of each effect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immigrants</td>
<td>Immigrants leave their home countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrants</td>
<td>Immigrants face hardships in the United States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>Some nativists want to restrict immigration.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Key Terms and People For each key term in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Evaluate What arguments can you make against nativism and anti-immigrant feelings?

   Think About:
   • the personal qualities of immigrants
   • the reasons for anti-immigrant feelings
   • the contributions of immigrants to the United States

4. Identify Problems Which group of immigrants do you think faced the greatest challenges in the United States? Why?

5. Analyze Effects What were the effects of the massive influx of immigrants to the United States in the late 1800s?
Lesson 2

The Challenges of Urbanization

The Big Idea
The rapid growth of cities forced people to deal with problems of housing, transportation, water, and sanitation.

Why It Matters Now
Consequently, residents of U.S. cities today enjoy greatly improved living conditions.

Key Terms and People
urbanization
Americanization movement
tenement
social stratification
mass transit
Social Gospel movement
settlement house
Jane Addams
social mobility

One American’s Story

In 1870, at age 21, Jacob Riis left his native Denmark for the United States. Riis found work as a police reporter, a job that took him into some of New York City’s worst slums, where he was shocked at the conditions in the overcrowded, airless, filthy tenements. Riis used his talents to expose the hardships of New York City’s poor.

“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 [stuffy]? Yes! What would you have? All the fresh air that ever enters these stairs comes 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.”
—Jacob Riis, from How the Other Half Lives

Making a living in the late 19th and early 20th centuries was not easy. Natural and economic disasters had hit farmers hard in Europe and in the United States, and the promise of industrial jobs drew millions of people to American cities. The urban population exploded from 10 million to 54 million between 1870 and 1920. This growth revitalized the cities but also created serious problems that had a powerful impact on the new urban poor.
Urban Opportunities

The technological boom in the 19th century contributed to the growing industrial strength of the United States. The result was rapid urbanization, or growth of cities, mostly in the regions of the Northeast and Midwest.

Immigrants Settle in Cities Most of the immigrants who streamed into the United States in the late 19th century became city dwellers because cities were the cheapest and most convenient places to live. As a result, many of the large, established cities—such as New York City and Chicago—got larger. Cities also offered unskilled laborers steady jobs in mills and factories. By 1890 there were twice as many Irish residents in New York City as in Dublin, Ireland. By 1910 immigrant families made up more than half the total population of 18 major American cities.

The Americanization movement was designed to assimilate people of wide-ranging cultures into the dominant culture. This social campaign was sponsored by the government and by concerned citizens. Schools and voluntary associations provided programs to teach immigrants skills needed to participate in American democracy, such as English literacy and American history and government. Subjects such as cooking and social etiquette were included to help the newcomers learn the ways of native-born Americans.

Despite these efforts, many immigrants did not wish to abandon their traditions. Ethnic communities provided the social support of others from the same country. This enabled immigrants to speak their own language and practice their customs and religion. In time, the customs, traditions, literature, arts, and foods of ethnic communities began to influence the national culture. A new American culture began to develop in diverse American cities, such as New York City. After the turn of the century, new movements in art, music, and literature were inspired by the ethnic diversity of American cities. These movements would bring fresh ideas, such as jazz music, to the world stage. People from America’s rural areas moved to these cities, and they added even more to the cultural mix.

Migration from Country to City Rapid improvements in farming technology during the second half of the 19th century were good news for some farmers but bad news for others. Inventions such as the McCormick reaper and the steel plow made farming more efficient but meant that fewer laborers were needed to work the land. As industrialization continued to move the U.S. economy away from agriculture and toward manufacturing, many rural people moved to cities to find whatever work they could. Rural areas, especially in the South, continued to struggle with poverty well into the 20th century.

Many of the southern farmers who lost their livelihoods were African Americans. Between 1890 and 1910, about 200,000 African Americans moved to northern and midwestern cities, such as Chicago and Detroit, in an effort to escape racial violence, economic hardship, and political oppression. Many found conditions only somewhat better than those they had left behind. Segregation and discrimination also existed in northern cities. Job competition
between blacks and white immigrants caused further racial tension. These social and economic pressures helped divide many northern and midwestern cities along racial lines. African Americans settled in mostly black neighborhoods in much the same way, and for some of the same reasons, that immigrants settled in ethnic neighborhoods.

The West also attracted African American migrants looking to escape discrimination and build better lives for themselves and their families. Instead of settling in cities, though, many African American migrants in Kansas and other western states continued to farm.
Urban Problems

As the urban population skyrocketed, city governments faced the problems of how to provide residents with needed services and safe living conditions.

HOUSING  When the industrial age began, working-class families in cities had two housing options: They could either buy a house on the outskirts of town, where they would face transportation problems, or rent cramped rooms in a boarding house in the central city. As the urban population increased, however, new types of housing were designed. For example, row houses, single-family dwellings that shared side walls with other similar houses, packed many single-family residences onto a single block.

After working-class families left the central city, immigrants often took over their old housing. Sometimes two or three families occupied a one-family residence. As Jacob Riis pointed out, these multifamily urban dwellings, called tenements, were overcrowded and unsanitary. In some cases, these tenement neighborhoods turned into ghettos. In a ghetto, people of a certain ethnic or racial group live together because of social, political, or economic pressure. In many cities, residents were not only divided along ethnic and racial lines but also along class lines. This social stratification, or organization of people into social classes by wealth, was clearly on display in New York City. The city was home to grand mansions, modest working-class neighborhoods, and sprawling slums.

In 1867 New York City passed the first in a series of laws to improve such slum conditions. These laws set minimum standards for plumbing, safety, and ventilation in apartments. However, landlords found creative ways to get around the new building requirements. The second law, passed in 1879, required a window for each bedroom to provide fresh air. In many buildings, though, this window opened onto a dark, interior air shaft. Because garbage was picked up infrequently, people sometimes dumped it into the air shafts, where it attracted vermin. Residents nailed the windows shut to keep out the smell. The final law, passed in 1901, included a key element the other two laws did not have. It set up the Tenement House Department to inspect and enforce the laws. Although landlords continued to resist reform, these laws are still in effect today. The new tenements were established with good intent, but they soon became even worse places to live than the converted single-family residences.

POVERTY  Working conditions in cities were often no better than living conditions. Having come mainly from rural areas, few new immigrants were skilled in modern manufacturing or industrial work. They often had no choice but to take low-paying, unskilled jobs in factories, mills, and sweatshops. Often, entire families had to work just to make ends meet.

In New York City, the garment, or clothing, industry employed mainly immigrant women. Long hours and dangerous conditions were common. Many of these immigrant women joined the International Ladies’ Garment Workers’ Union. They organized a series of successful strikes. The longest strike lasted 133 days. Afterward, the workers won new contracts for increased wages and fewer working hours.
TRANSPORTATION Innovations in mass transit, transportation systems designed to move large numbers of people along fixed routes, enabled workers to go to and from jobs more easily. Streetcars were introduced in San Francisco in 1873 and electric subways in Boston in 1897. By the early 20th century, there were mass-transit networks in many urban areas. They linked city neighborhoods to one another and to outlying communities. Cities tried to meet the transportation demands of their growing populations. They struggled to repair old transit systems and to build new ones.

WATER Cities also faced the problem of supplying safe drinking water. As the urban population grew in the 1840s and 1850s, cities such as New York and Cleveland built public waterworks to handle the increasing demand. As late as the 1860s, however, the residents of many cities had inadequate piped water—or none at all. Even in large cities like New York, homes seldom had indoor plumbing. Residents had to collect water in pails from faucets on the street and heat it for bathing. There was a clear need to improve water quality to control diseases such as cholera and typhoid fever. To make city water safer, filtration was introduced in the 1870s. Chlorination was introduced in 1908. However, in the early 20th century, many people in cities still had no access to safe water.

SANITATION As the cities grew, so did the challenge of keeping them clean. Horse manure piled up on the streets, and sewage flowed through open gutters. Factories released foul smoke into the air. People dumped garbage on the streets because they had no dependable trash collection. Private contractors called scavengers were hired to sweep the streets, collect garbage, and clean outhouses. But they often did not do the jobs properly. By 1900 many cities had developed sewer lines and created sanitation departments. However, providing healthful living conditions was an ongoing challenge for city leaders.

Vocabulary
chlorination a method of purifying water by mixing it with the chemical chlorine

Sanitation problems in big cities were overwhelming. It was not unusual to see a dead horse in the street.
Reading Check

Analyze Effects

How did conditions in cities affect people’s health?

CRIME  As the populations of cities increased, pickpockets and thieves flourished. New York City organized the first full-time, salaried police force in 1844. However, most city law enforcement units were too small to have much impact on crime.

FIRE  The limited water supply in many cities contributed to another risk: the spread of fires. Major fires occurred in almost every large American city during the 1870s and 1880s. In addition, most cities had many wooden buildings. These structures were like kindling waiting for a spark. The use of candles and kerosene heaters also created a fire hazard.

At first, most city firefighters were volunteers and not always available when they were needed. Cincinnati, Ohio, established the nation's first paid fire department in 1853. By 1900 most cities had full-time professional fire departments. Cities were made safer by the introduction of a practical automatic fire sprinkler in 1874. In addition, brick, stone, or concrete began to replace wood as a building material.

Reformers Mobilize

As problems in cities mounted, concerned Americans worked to find solutions. Social reformers focused their efforts on relieving urban poverty.

THE SETTLEMENT HOUSE MOVEMENT  An early reform program, the Social Gospel movement, preached salvation through service to the poor. One of the founders of this movement was a Protestant minister named Washington Gladden. As an editor of the New York Independent, Gladden

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

The San Francisco Earthquake of 1906

At 5:12 on the morning of April 18, 1906, while many in the city slept, a massive earthquake struck San Francisco, California. The force of the earthquake and the fires that followed destroyed much of the city. Jack London described the fires that raged after the earthquake.

“On Wednesday morning at a quarter past five came the earthquake. A minute later the flames were leaping upward. In a dozen different quarters south of Market Street, in the working-class ghetto, and in the factories, fires started. There was no opposing the flames. . . . And the great water-mains had burst. All the shrewd contrivances and safeguards of man had been thrown out of gear by thirty seconds’ twitching of the earth-crust.”

—Jack London, from “The Story of an Eye-witness”

Analyze Historical Sources

According to Jack London, how did the earthquake undo the safeguards the city had put into place to fight fires?
helped to expose the greed and corruption caused by industrialization. He also focused public attention on the living and working conditions of the poor. Members of the movement believed that churches had a moral duty to help solve society's problems. They also believed that religious faith should be expressed through good works.

Inspired by the message of the Social Gospel movement, 19th-century reformers responded to the call to help the urban poor. In the late 1800s a few reformers established settlement houses, community centers in slum neighborhoods that provided assistance to people in the area, especially immigrants. London reformers had founded the first settlement houses in 1884.

Settlement houses in the United States were founded by Charles Stover and Stanton Coit in New York City in 1886. Jane Addams—one of the most influential members of the movement—and Ellen Gates Starr founded Chicago's Hull House in 1889. In 1890 Janie Porter Barrett established the Locust Street Social Settlement in Hampton, Virginia—the first settlement house for African Americans.

Run largely by middle-class, college-educated women, settlement houses provided educational, cultural, and social services. Many settlement workers lived at the houses so that they could learn firsthand about the problems caused by urbanization and help create solutions.

“Keenly conscious of the social confusion all about us and the hard economic struggle, we at times believed that the very struggle itself might become a source of strength. . . . We fatuously hoped that we might pluck from the human tragedy itself a consciousness of a common destiny which should bring its own healing, that we might extract from life's very misfortunes a power of cooperation which should be effective against them.”

—Jane Addams, quoted in Twenty Years at Hull House

**Jane Addams (1860–1935)**

During a trip to England, Jane Addams visited Toynbee Hall, the first settlement house. Addams believed that settlement houses could be effective because there, workers would “learn from life itself” how to address urban problems. She cofounded Chicago’s Hull House in 1889.

Addams was also an antiwar activist and a spokesperson for racial justice. She advocated for quality-of-life issues, from infant mortality to better care for the aged. In 1931 she was a co-winner of the Nobel Peace Prize. Until the end of her life, Addams insisted that she was just a “very simple person.” But many familiar with her accomplishments consider her a source of inspiration.
Settlement houses provided classes in such subjects as English, health, and painting, and offered college extension courses. They also sent visiting nurses into the homes of the sick and provided whatever aid was needed to secure “support for deserted women, insurance for bewildered widows, damages for injured operators, furniture from the clutches of the installment store.” Reformers hoped that these services would help immigrants claim the benefits of living in a democracy and help them increase social mobility. Social mobility refers to the ability of families or individuals to move into a higher social class.

Settlement houses also sought political solutions by lobbying state and local governments to resolve social and economic problems. By 1910 about 400 settlement houses were operating in cities across the country. These settlement houses helped cultivate a sense of social responsibility toward the urban poor.

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Use a spider map to organize information about urban problems. List urban problems on the vertical lines. Fill in details about attempts that were made to solve each problem.

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Effects** What effects did the migration from rural areas to the cities in the late 19th century have on urban society?

   **Think About:**
   - why people moved to cities
   - the problems caused by rapid urban growth
   - the differences in the experiences of whites and blacks

4. **Analyze Motives** Why did immigrants tend to group together in cities?

5. **Evaluate** Which solution (or attempted solution) to an urban problem discussed in this lesson do you think had the most impact? Why?
Politics in the Gilded Age

The Big Idea
Local and national political corruption in the 19th century led to calls for reform.

Why It Matters Now
Political reforms paved the way for a more honest and efficient government in the 20th century and beyond.

Key Terms and People
political machine
graft
Boss Tweed
patronage
civil service
Rutherford B. Hayes
James A. Garfield
Chester A. Arthur
Pendleton Civil Service Act
Grover Cleveland
Benjamin Harrison

One American’s Story

Mark Twain described the excesses of the late 19th century in a satirical novel, The Gilded Age, a collaboration with the writer Charles Dudley Warner. The title of the book has since come to represent the period from the 1870s to the 1890s. Twain mocks the greed and self-indulgence of his characters, including Philip Sterling.

“There are many young men like him [Philip Sterling] in American society, of his age, opportunities, education and abilities, who have really been educated for nothing and have let themselves drift, in the hope that they will find somehow, and by some sudden turn of good luck, the golden road to fortune. . . . He saw people, all around him, poor yesterday, rich today, who had come into sudden opulence by some means which they could not have classified among any of the regular occupations of life.”

—Mark Twain and Charles Dudley Warner, from The Gilded Age

Twain’s characters find that getting rich quick is more difficult than they had thought it would be. Investments turn out to be worthless; politicians’ bribes eat up their savings. The glittering exterior of the age turns out to hide a corrupt political core and a growing gap between the few rich and the many poor.
The Emergence of Political Machines

In the late 19th century, cities experienced rapid growth under inefficient government. In a climate influenced by dog-eat-dog Social Darwinism, cities were receptive to a new power structure, the political machine, and a new politician, the city boss.

THE POLITICAL MACHINE  The political machine was an organized group that controlled the activities of a political party in a city. It also offered services to voters and businesses in exchange for political or financial support. In the decades after the Civil War, political machines gained control of local government in Baltimore, New York, San Francisco, and other major cities.

The machine was organized like a pyramid. At the pyramid’s base were local precinct workers and captains who reported to a ward boss. They tried to get voters’ support on a city block or in a neighborhood. At election time, the ward boss worked to secure the vote in all the precincts in the ward, or electoral district. Ward bosses helped the poor and gained their votes by doing favors or providing services. As Martin Lomasney, elected ward boss of Boston’s West End in 1885, explained, “There’s got to be in every ward somebody that any bloke can come to . . . and get help. Help, you understand; none of your law and your justice, but help.” At the top of the pyramid was the city boss, who controlled the activities of the political party throughout the city. Precinct captains, ward bosses, and the city boss worked together to elect their candidates and guarantee the success of the machine.

THE ROLE OF THE POLITICAL BOSS  Whether or not the boss officially served as mayor, he controlled access to municipal jobs and business licenses. He also influenced the courts and other municipal agencies. Bosses like Roscoe Conkling in New York City used their power to build parks, sewer systems, and waterworks. They also gave money to schools, hospitals, and orphanages. Bosses could also provide government support for new businesses, a service for which they were often paid extremely well.

It was not only money that motivated city bosses. By solving urban problems, bosses could reinforce voters’ loyalty, gain additional political support, and extend their influence.

IMMIGRANTS AND THE MACHINE  Many precinct captains and political bosses were first-generation or second-generation immigrants. Few were educated beyond grammar school. They entered politics early and worked their way up from the bottom. They could speak to immigrants in their own language and understood the challenges that newcomers faced. More important, the bosses were able to provide solutions. The machines—such as New York City’s powerful Democratic political
machine Tammany Hall—helped immigrants with naturalization (attaining full citizenship). They also helped immigrants find housing and jobs, the newcomers’ most important needs. In return, the immigrants provided the votes that the political bosses needed.

“Big Jim” Pendergast, an Irish American saloonkeeper, worked his way up from precinct captain to Democratic city boss in Kansas City, Missouri. He did this by helping Italian, African, and Irish American voters in his ward. By 1900 he controlled Missouri state politics as well.

“I’ve been called a boss. All there is to it is having friends, doing things for people, and then later on they’ll do things for you. . . . You can’t coerce people into doing things for you—you can’t make them vote for you. I never coerced anybody in my life. Wherever you see a man bulldozing anybody he don’t last long.”

—James Pendergast, quoted in The Pendergast Machine

Municipal Graft and Scandal

While the well-oiled political machines provided city dwellers with services, many political bosses fell victim to corruption as their influence grew.

ELECTION FRAUD AND GRAFT When the loyalty of voters was not enough to carry an election, some political machines turned to fraud. Party members used fake names to cast as many votes as were needed to win.

Once a political machine got its candidates into office, it could take advantage of numerous opportunities for graft, the illegal use of political influence for personal gain. For example, by helping a person find work on a construction project for the city, a political machine could ask the worker to bill the city for more than the actual cost of materials and labor. The worker then “kicked back” a portion of the earnings to the machine. Taking these kickbacks, or illegal payments for their services, enriched the political machines—and individual politicians.

Political machines also granted favors to businesses in return for cash. They accepted bribes to allow illegal activities, such as gambling, to flourish. Politicians were able to get away with dishonest deals because the police rarely interfered. Until about 1890, police forces were hired and fired by political bosses.

THE TWEED RING SCANDAL William M. Tweed, known as Boss Tweed, became head of Tammany Hall in 1868. Between 1869 and 1871, Boss Tweed led the Tweed Ring. This group of corrupt politicians defrauded New York City.

One scheme, the construction of the New York County Courthouse, involved extravagant graft. The project cost taxpayers $13 million, but the actual construction cost was $3 million. The difference went into the pockets of Tweed and his followers.
Reading Check

Draw Conclusions
What finally prompted the government to take action against Boss Tweed and Tammany Hall?

Thomas Nast, a political cartoonist, helped provoke public outrage against Tammany Hall’s graft. The Tweed Ring was finally broken in 1871. Tweed was indicted on 120 counts of fraud and extortion and was sentenced to 12 years in jail. His sentence was reduced to one year, but after leaving jail, Tweed was quickly arrested on another charge. While serving a second sentence, Tweed escaped. He was captured in Spain when officials identified him from a Thomas Nast cartoon. By that time, political corruption had become a national issue.

Vocabulary

extortion illegal use of one’s official position to obtain property or funds

Civil Service Replaces Patronage

The desire for power and money made local politics corrupt in the industrial age. It also infected state and national politics.

PATRONAGE SPURS REFORM Since the beginning of the 19th century, presidents had complained about the problem of patronage. This was the practice of giving government jobs to people who had helped a candidate get elected. In Andrew Jackson’s administration, this policy was known as the spoils system. People from cabinet members to workers who scrubbed the steps of the Capitol owed their jobs to political connections. As might be expected, some government employees were not qualified for the positions they filled. In addition, political appointees sometimes used their positions for personal gain.

Reformers began to push for the elimination of patronage. They wanted a merit system of hiring. Reformers believed that jobs in civil service—government administration—should go to the most qualified persons. It should not matter what political views they held or who recommended them.

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

“The Tammany Tiger Loose”

Political cartoonist Thomas Nast ridiculed Boss Tweed and his machine in the pages of Harper’s Weekly. Nast’s work threatened Tweed, who reportedly said, “I don’t care so much what the papers write about me—my constituents can’t read; but . . . they can see pictures!” In this cartoon, under the Tammany tiger’s victim, is a torn paper that reads “LAW.” Boss Tweed and his cronies are portrayed as noblemen. They watch from the stands on the left. The cartoon’s caption reads: “What are you going to do about it?”

Analyse Historical Sources

What effect do you think Nast wanted this political cartoon to have on his audience?
REFORM UNDER HAYES, GARFIELD, AND ARTHUR  Civil service reform made gradual progress under Presidents Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur. Republican president Rutherford B. Hayes, elected in 1876, could not convince Congress to support reform, so he used other means. Hayes named independents to his cabinet. He also set up a commission to investigate the nation’s customhouses, which were well-known centers of patronage. On the basis of the commission’s report, Hayes fired two of the top officials of New York City’s customhouse, where jobs were controlled by the Republican Party. These firings enraged the Republican New York senator and political boss Roscoe Conkling and his supporters, the Stalwarts.

When Hayes decided not to run for reelection in 1880, a free-for-all broke out at the Republican convention, between the Stalwarts—who opposed changes in the spoils system—and reformers. Neither Stalwarts nor reformers could win a majority of delegates. As a result, the convention settled on an independent presidential candidate, Ohio congressman James A. Garfield. To balance out Garfield’s ties to reformers, the Republicans nominated for vice-president Chester A. Arthur, one of Conkling’s supporters. Despite Arthur’s inclusion on the ticket, Garfield angered the Stalwarts by giving reformers most of his patronage jobs once he was elected.

On July 2, 1881, President Garfield walked through the Washington, DC, train station. There he was shot two times by a mentally unbalanced lawyer named Charles Guiteau, whom Garfield had turned down for a job. Guiteau announced, “I did it and I will go to jail for it. I am a Stalwart and Arthur is now president.” Garfield ultimately died from his wounds on September 19. Despite his ties to the Stalwarts, Chester Arthur turned reformer when he became president. His first message to Congress urged legislators to pass a civil service law. The resulting Pendleton Civil Service Act of 1883 authorized a bipartisan civil service commission. This group was to make appointments to federal jobs through a merit system based on candidates’ performance on an examination.

GOVERNOR THEODORE ROOSEVELT  Reforms also took place at the state level. In 1898 the New York State Republican political machine, run by Thomas C. Platt, chose to back Rough Rider and Spanish-American War hero Theodore Roosevelt for governor. Roosevelt was up against the Tammany Hall candidate, Augustus Van Wyck. With Platt’s help and influence, Roosevelt won a close victory to become New York’s 33rd governor in 1899.

Roosevelt had campaigned on putting public interest ahead of partisan politics. Once in office, he went against tradition and refused to fill civil service jobs through patronage. When Roosevelt also began to ignore the state Republican machine’s wishes on policy matters, donors began to doubt Platt’s influence over Roosevelt. Before Roosevelt’s reforms could hurt the Republican state machine further, Platt devised a clever plan. With the help of national Republican Party leaders, Roosevelt was nominated to replace Vice-President Garret Hobart, who had just died in office. Roosevelt accepted, hoping that this might be a step toward winning a nomination to run for president. As president, Roosevelt hoped to continue reforming the political system. However, by leaving the governorship, Roosevelt left New York in the hands of the machine.
**Business Buys Influence**

By 1901 more than 40 percent of all federal jobs had been classified as civil service positions. But the Pendleton Act had mixed consequences. On the one hand, public administration became more honest and efficient. On the other hand, officials could no longer pressure employees for campaign contributions. Consequently, politicians turned to other sources for donations—wealthy business owners. Therefore, the alliance between government and big business became stronger than ever.

Big business leaders hoped the government would preserve, or even raise, the tariffs that protected domestic industries from foreign competition. The Democratic Party, however, opposed high tariffs because they increased prices. In 1884 the Democratic Party won a presidential election for the first time in 28 years with candidate Grover Cleveland. As president, Cleveland tried to lower tariff rates, but Congress refused to support him.

In 1888 Cleveland ran for reelection on a low-tariff platform. His opponent was former Indiana senator Benjamin Harrison, the grandson of President William Henry Harrison. Harrison’s campaign was financed mostly by large contributions from companies that wanted even higher tariffs. Although Cleveland won about 100,000 more popular votes than his opponent, Harrison took a majority of the electoral votes and the presidency. He signed the McKinley Tariff Act of 1890, which raised tariffs on manufactured goods to their highest level yet.

In 1892 Cleveland was elected again—the only president to serve two nonconsecutive terms. He supported a bill for lowering the McKinley Tariff but refused to sign it because it also provided for a federal income tax. Despite his opposition, the Wilson-Gorman Tariff became law in 1894 without the president’s signature. In 1897 William McKinley was inaugurated president and raised tariffs once again.

The attempt to reduce the tariff had failed, but the spirit of reform was not dead. New developments in areas ranging from technology to mass culture would help redefine American society as the United States moved into the 20th century.

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**Reading Check**

**Analyze Effects**
What were the positive and the negative effects of the Pendleton Civil Service Act?

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**Lesson 3 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Use a web diagram to list examples of corruption in 19th-century politics.

   ![Corruption Diagram]

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Predict** How do you think politics in the United States would have been different if the Pendleton Civil Service Act had not been passed?

   **Think About:**
   - the act’s impact on federal workers
   - the act’s impact on political fundraising
   - Republican Party conflicts

4. **Evaluate** Reread the quotation from James Pendergast. Explain whether you agree or disagree that machine politicians did not coerce people.

Four years later, trains ran across the bridge 24 hours a day and carried more than 30 million travelers each year.

“Inside the caisson everything wore an unreal, weird appearance. There was a confused sensation in the head. . . . What with the flaming lights, the deep shadows, the confusing noise of hammers, drills, and chains, the half-naked forms flitting about . . . one might, if of a poetic temperament, get a realizing sense of Dante’s Inferno.”

—E. F. Farrington, quoted in The Great Bridge

Four years later, trains ran across the bridge 24 hours a day and carried more than 30 million travelers each year.
Technology and City Life

Engineering innovations, such as the Brooklyn Bridge, laid the groundwork for modern American life, and they also helped fuel the imaginations of those chasing the American Dream. Through technology, innovation, and hard work, it seemed that even the impossible could be achieved. Cities in every industrial area of the country expanded both outward and upward. In 1870 only 25 American cities had populations of 50,000 or more; by 1890, 58 cities could make that claim. By the turn of the 20th century, due to the increase of industrial jobs, four out of ten Americans made their homes in cities.

In response to these changes, technological advances began to meet the nation’s needs for communication, transportation, and space. One remedy for more urban space was to build toward the sky.

SKYSCRAPERS Archiects were able to design taller buildings because of two factors: the invention of elevators and the development of internal steel skeletons to bear the weight. In 1890–1891, architect Louis Sullivan designed the ten-story Wainwright Building in St. Louis. He called the new breed of skyscraper a “proud and soaring thing.” The tall building’s appearance was graceful because its steel framework supported both floors and walls.

The skyscraper became America’s greatest contribution to architecture, “a new thing under the sun,” according to architect Frank Lloyd Wright, who studied under Sullivan. Skyscrapers solved the practical problem of how to make the best use of limited and expensive space. The unusual form of another skyscraper, the Flatiron Building, seemed perfect for its location at one of New York City’s busiest intersections. Daniel Burnham designed this slender 285-foot tower in 1902. The Flatiron Building and other new buildings served as symbols of a rich and optimistic society.

ELECTRIC TRANSIT As skyscrapers expanded upward, changes in transportation allowed cities to spread outward. Before the Civil War, horses had drawn the earliest streetcars over iron rails embedded in city streets. In some cities during the 1870s and 1880s, underground moving cables powered streetcar lines. Electricity, however, transformed urban transportation.

In 1888 Richmond, Virginia, became the first American city to electrify its urban transit. Other cities followed. By the turn of the 20th century, networks of electric streetcars—also called trolley cars—ran from outlying neighborhoods to downtown offices and department stores.
New railroad lines also fed the growth of suburbs, allowing residents to commute to downtown jobs. New York’s northern suburbs alone moved 100,000 commuters each day to the central business district.

A few large cities moved their streetcars far above street level, creating elevated or “el” trains. Other cities, like New York, built subways by moving their rail lines underground. These streetcars, elevated trains, and subways enabled cities to annex suburban developments that emerged along the advancing transportation routes.

**ENGINEERING AND URBAN PLANNING** Steel-cable suspension bridges, like the Brooklyn Bridge, also brought cities’ sections closer together. Sometimes these bridges provided recreational opportunities. In his design for the Brooklyn Bridge, for example, John Augustus Roebling provided an elevated promenade whose “principal use will be to allow people of leisure, and old and young invalids, to promenade over the bridge on fine days.” This need for open spaces in crowded commercial cities inspired the new science of urban planning.

City planners tried to restore serenity to the environment by designing recreational areas. Landscape architect **Frederick Law Olmsted** led the movement for planned urban parks.

In 1857 Olmsted, along with English-born architect Calvert Vaux, helped draw up a plan for “Greensward.” It was selected to become Central Park, in New York City. Olmsted envisioned the park as a rustic haven in the center of the busy city. The finished park featured boating and tennis facilities, a zoo, and bicycle paths. Olmsted hoped that the park’s beauty would soothe the city’s inhabitants and let them enjoy a “natural” setting.

“The main object and justification [of the park] is simply to produce a certain influence in the minds of people and through this to make life in the city healthier and happier. The character of this influence . . . is to be produced by means of scenes, through observation of which the mind may be more or less lifted out of moods and habits.”

—Frederick Law Olmsted, quoted in Frederick Law Olmsted’s New York

In the 1870s Olmsted planned landscaping for Washington, DC, and St. Louis. He also drew the initial designs for “the Emerald Necklace,” Boston’s parks system. Boston’s Back Bay area had originally been a 450-acre swamp. It was drained and developed by urban planners into an area of elegant streets and cultural attractions, including Olmsted’s parks.

**CITY PLANNING** By contrast, Chicago, with its explosive growth from 30,000 people in 1850 to 300,000 in 1870, represented uncontrolled expansion. Fortunately for the city, a local architect, Daniel Burnham, was intrigued by the prospect of remaking the city. His motto was “Make no little plans. They have no magic to stir men’s blood.” He oversaw the transformation of a swampy area near Lake Michigan. He transformed it into a glistening White City for Chicago’s 1893 World’s Columbian Exposition. Majestic
exhibition halls, statues, the first Ferris wheel, and a lagoon greeted more than 21 million visitors who came to the city.

Many urban planners saw visions of future cities in Burnham’s White City. Burnham, however, left Chicago an even more important legacy. It was an overall plan for the city, crowned by elegant parks strung along Lake Michigan. As a result, Chicago’s lakefront today has curving banks of grass and sandy beaches instead of a jumbled mass of piers and warehouses.

**FEEDING CITIES** To feed their populations, large cities needed a reliable food supply. The same new agricultural technologies that pushed many rural workers off of farms and into cities made it possible for cities to supply large, growing populations with food. New technologies and ideas allowed farmers to produce more crops on the same amount of land with fewer workers.

The ideas of George Washington Carver helped revolutionize farming in the South. By repeatedly planting cotton crops season after season, southern farmers were wearing out the soil. To combat this, Carver promoted the idea of crop rotation. This practice restored nitrogen, an important nutrient for growing crops, to the soil. Carver even developed and promoted ways to use crops that restored soil nutrients, such as peanuts. By promoting new uses for these crops, Carver provided farmers with new markets.

Another important breakthrough in agriculture occurred in 1905. Chemist Fritz Haber discovered a way to extract nitrogen from the air. This discovery led to the Haber-Bosch process, which made it possible to create chemical fertilizers. With chemical fertilizers, farmers could provide nutrients directly to crops. By 1909 farmers were using more than 3 million tons of chemical fertilizer a year.

Even though farmers could produce plenty of food for the growing population, they still needed a way to get their products to market before they spoiled. One solution was refrigerated railroad cars. Another was chemical preservatives, such as borax. These chemicals did extend the freshness of food, but many were harmful to human health. By 1906 the government would enact regulations to ensure the safety of the U.S. food supply.
Advances in Communication

New developments in communication brought the nation closer together. In addition to a railroad network that now extended across the nation, further advances in printing, aviation, and photography helped to speed the transfer of information.

A REVOLUTION IN PRINTING  By 1890 the literacy rate in the United States had risen to nearly 90 percent. Publishers turned out ever-increasing numbers of books, magazines, and newspapers to meet the growing demand of the reading public. A series of technological advances in printing facilitated their efforts.

American mills began to produce huge quantities of cheap paper from wood pulp. The new paper proved durable enough to withstand high-speed presses. The electrically powered web-perfecting press, for example, printed on both sides of a continuous paper roll, rather than on just one side. It then cut, folded, and counted the pages as they came down the line. Faster production and lower costs made newspapers and magazines more affordable. People could now buy newspapers for a penny a copy.

AIRPLANES  In the early 20th century, brothers Orville and Wilbur Wright, bicycle manufacturers from Dayton, Ohio, experimented with new engines powerful enough to keep “heavier-than-air” craft aloft. First the Wright brothers built a glider. Then they commissioned a four-cylinder internal combustion engine, chose a propeller, and designed a biplane with a 40-foot 4-inch wingspan. Their first successful flight—on December 17, 1903, at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina—covered 120 feet and lasted 12 seconds. Orville later described the take-off.

Vocabulary

internal combustion engine  an engine in which fuel is burned within the engine rather than in an external furnace

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

The Wright Flyer

The Wright Flyer had a wooden frame covered in canvas. It measured 9 feet 4 inches high and just over 21 feet long, with a wingspan of 40 feet 4 inches. Powered by a 4-cylinder 12-horsepower piston engine, the total weight of the airplane was 605 pounds. The engine, at 180 pounds, was the heaviest component in the airplane. The design of lighter, more powerful engines was the most important development in early aviation history.

Analyze Historical Sources

Examine the photo of the Wright Flyer. Why do you think the Wright brothers did not paint their airplane?
“After running the motor a few minutes to heat it up, I released the wire that held the machine to the track, and the machine started forward into the wind. Wilbur ran at the side of the machine . . . to balance it . . . Unlike the start on the 14th, made in a calm, the machine, facing a 27-mile wind, started very slowly . . . One of the life-saving men snapped the camera for us, taking a picture just as the machine had reached the end of the track and had risen to a height of about two feet.”

—Orville Wright, quoted in Smithsonian Frontiers of Flight

Within two years, the Wright brothers had increased their flights to 24 miles. By 1920, convinced of the great potential of flight, the U.S. government had established the first transcontinental airmail service.

PHOTOGRAPHY EXPLOSION Before the 1880s, photography was a professional activity. Because of the time required to take a picture and the weight of the equipment, a photographer could not shoot a moving object. In addition, photographers had to develop their shots immediately.

New techniques eliminated the need to develop pictures right away. George Eastman developed a series of more convenient alternatives to the heavy glass plates previously used. Now, instead of carrying their darkrooms around with them, photographers could use flexible film, coated with gelatin emulsions, and could send their film to a studio for processing. When professional photographers were slow to begin using the new film, Eastman decided to aim his product at the masses.

In 1888 Eastman introduced his Kodak camera. The purchase price of $25 included a 100-picture roll of film. After taking the pictures, the photographer would send the camera back to Eastman’s Rochester, New York, factory. For $10, the pictures were developed and returned with the camera reloaded. Easily held and operated, the Kodak prompted millions of Americans to become amateur photographers. The camera also helped to create the field of photojournalism. Reporters could now photograph events as they occurred.

Lesson 4 Assessment

1. Organize Information Use a three-column chart to list three important changes in city design, communication, and transportation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City Design</th>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Transportation</th>
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<td>3.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Which change had the greatest impact on urban life? Why?

2. Key Terms and People For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Predict If you had been an urban planner at the turn of the century, what new ideas would you have included in your plan for the ideal city?

Think About:
• Olmsted’s plans for Central Park
• Burnham’s ideas for Chicago

4. Evaluate Which scientific or technological development described in this lesson had the greatest impact on American culture? Use details from the text to justify your choice.

5. Summarize How did bridge building contribute to the growth of cities?
Lesson 5

The Dawn of Mass Culture

The Big Idea
As Americans had more time for leisure activities, a modern mass culture emerged.

Why It Matters Now
Today the United States has a worldwide impact on mass culture.

Key Terms and People
Ashcan school
pragmatism
Mark Twain
Joseph Pulitzer
William Randolph Hearst
rural free delivery (RFD)

One American’s Story

Along the Brooklyn seashore, on a narrow sandbar just nine miles from busy Manhattan, rose the most famous urban amusement center, Coney Island. In 1886 its main developer, George Tilyou, bragged, “If Paris is France, then Coney Island . . . is the world.” Indeed, tens of thousands of visitors mobbed Coney Island after work each evening and on Sundays and holidays. When Luna Park, a spectacular amusement park on Coney Island, opened in May 1903, reporter Bruce Blen described the scene.

“[Inside the park was] an enchanted, storybook land of trellises, columns, domes, minarets, lagoons, and lofty aerial flights. And everywhere was life—a pageant of happy people; and everywhere was color—a wide harmony of orange and white and gold. . . . It was a world removed—shut away from the sordid clatter and turmoil of the streets.”

—Bruce Blen, quoted in Amusing the Million

Coney Island offered Americans a few hours of escape from the hard workweek. A schoolteacher who walked fully dressed into the ocean explained her unusual behavior by saying, “It has been a hard year at school, and when I saw the big crowd here, everyone with the brakes off, the spirit of the place got the better of me.” The end of the 19th century saw the rise of a “mass culture” in the United States.
American Leisure

Middle-class Americans from all over the country had shared experiences. They enjoyed new leisure activities and experienced nationwide advertising campaigns. The rise of a consumer culture began to level regional differences. As the 19th century drew to a close, many Americans could forget city congestion and dull industrial work by enjoying amusement parks, bicycling, new forms of theater, and spectator sports. Many Americans saw their standard of living rise. As members of the carpenters’ union of Worcester, Massachusetts, proclaimed, “eight hours for work, eight hours for rest, eight hours for what we will.”

AMUSEMENT PARKS  Cities worked to meet the recreational needs of their residents. Chicago, New York City, and other cities began setting aside precious green space for outdoor enjoyment. Many built small playgrounds and playing fields in neighborhoods for their citizens’ enjoyment.

Some amusement parks were constructed on the outskirts of cities. Often trolley-car companies built them to attract more passengers. The parks featured picnic grounds and a variety of rides. The roller coaster drew adventurous customers to Coney Island in 1884. The first Ferris wheel drew enthusiastic crowds to the World’s Columbian Exposition in Chicago in 1893. Clearly, many Americans were ready for new forms of entertainment—and a variety of recreational activities soon became available.

BICYCLING AND TENNIS  The first American bicycles had huge front wheels and solid rubber tires. It was a challenge to ride them. A bump might throw the cyclist over the handlebars. As a result, bicycling began as a male-only sport. However, in 1885 the first commercially successful “safety bicycle” was built. It had smaller wheels and air-filled tires. This bicycle made the activity more popular. The Victor safety bicycle had a dropped frame and no crossbar, which appealed to women.

Instead of tight corsets, women bicyclists wore tailored blouses called shirtwaists and “split” skirts. This clothing allowed them to cycle more comfortably. This outfit soon became popular for daily wear. The bicycle also freed women from the ever-present chaperone. Suffragist Susan B. Anthony declared, “I think [bicycling] has done more to emancipate women than anything else in the world. . . . It gives women a feeling of freedom and self-reliance.” About 50,000 men and women had begun cycling by 1888. Two years later, 312 American companies produced 10 million bikes in one year.
Americans took up the sport of tennis as enthusiastically as they had taken up cycling. The modern version of this sport originated in North Wales in 1873. A year later, the United States saw its first tennis match. Socialite Florence Harriman recalled that in the 1880s her father returned from England with one of New York’s first tennis sets. At first, neighbors thought the elder Harriman had installed the nets to catch birds.

Hungry or thirsty after tennis or cycling? Turn-of-the-century Americans began eating new snacks with recognizable brand names. They could munch on a Hershey chocolate bar, first sold in 1900, and wash down the chocolate with a Coca-Cola®. An Atlanta pharmacist originally formulated the drink as a cure for headaches in 1886. The ingredients included extracts from Peruvian coca leaves as well as African cola nuts.

**SPECTATOR SPORTS** Americans not only participated in new sports but became eager fans of spectator sports, especially boxing and baseball. These two sports had begun as popular informal activities. By the turn of the 20th century, they were profitable businesses. Fans who couldn’t attend an important boxing match crowded into barbershops and hotel lobbies. There they listened to the contest’s highlights sent out by telegraph.

**BASEBALL** New rules changed baseball into a professional sport. In 1845 Alexander J. Cartwright, an amateur player, organized a club in New York City. He set down regulations using elements of an English sport called rounders. Five years later, 50 baseball clubs had sprung up in the United States. New York alone had 12 clubs in the mid-1860s.

In 1869 a professional team named the Cincinnati Red Stockings toured the country. Other clubs soon followed. This led to the formation of the National League in 1876 and the American League in 1900. In the first World Series, held in 1903, the Boston Pilgrims beat the Pittsburgh Pirates. African American baseball players were excluded from both leagues because of racial discrimination. They formed their own clubs and two leagues—the Negro National League and the Negro American League.

The Negro leagues were first formed in 1920.
Novelist Mark Twain called baseball “the very symbol . . . and visible expression of the drive and push and rush and struggle of the raging, tearing, booming nineteenth century.” By the 1890s baseball had a published game schedule, official rules, and a standard-sized diamond.

**The Spread of Mass Culture**

As increasing numbers of Americans attended school and learned to read, their cultural opportunities expanded. More people had access to art galleries, libraries, books, and museums. Other advances promoted mass entertainment. New media technology led to the release of hundreds of motion pictures. Mass-production printing techniques generated thousands of books, magazines, and newspapers.

**PROMOTING FINE ARTS** By 1900 every large city had at least one art gallery. Some American artists, including Philadelphian Thomas Eakins, began to embrace realism. This was an artistic school that tried to portray life as it is really lived. Eakins had studied anatomy with medical students. He used exacting geometric perspective in his work. By the 1880s Eakins was also using photography to make realistic studies of people and animals.

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**Document-Based Investigation Historical Source**

**Realism**

This 1871 painting, *The Champion Single Sculls (Max Schmitt in a Single Scull)*, by Thomas Eakins is an example of the realist movement. This artistic school focused on representing people and environments as they really are.

**Analyze Historical Sources**

What realistic details do you see portrayed in this painting?
In the early 20th century, the Ashcan school of American art was led by Eakins’s student Robert Henri. He painted urban life and working people with gritty realism and no frills. However, both Eakins and the Ashcan school soon were challenged by the European development known as abstract art. This was a direction that most people found difficult to understand.

In many cities, people could walk from a new art gallery to a new public library. Libraries were sometimes called “the poor man’s university.” By 1900 free circulating libraries in America numbered in the thousands.

**PHILOSOPHY** As industrialization, mass immigration, and technological innovation pushed the boundaries of American society, scholars tried to make sense of it all. **Pragmatism** was a school of philosophical thought developed in the United States in the 1870s by Charles Peirce and William James. Its main goal was to help reconcile the tensions between science and morality and religion. Science was based on facts and observed evidence, but religion and morality were based on faith, feelings, and beliefs. For pragmatists, the value of a theory, idea, or innovation was based on its practical application. For example, the practical application of electricity is to provide light and power for homes and businesses. According to pragmatists, the purpose of thought was to promote action in solving problems. Ideas that were not practical should be rejected. Over time, pragmatic ideals would influence and be adopted by government officials. Their job was to develop and run programs that served citizens.

**PERFORMING ARTS** As Americans moved from rural areas to cities, they looked for new ways to spend their weekend and evening leisure time. Audiences could choose from a wide range of music, drama, circus, and the latest in entertainment—motion pictures.

Vaudeville theater performances included song, dance, juggling, and slapstick comedy. It sometimes featured chorus lines of female performers. In October 1899, actor Edwin Milton Royle wrote in *Scribner’s Magazine* that vaudeville theater was “an American invention” that offered something to attract nearly everyone. However, in many towns, the biggest spectacle of all was often the annual visit of the Barnum & Bailey Circus. Its founders—P.T. Barnum and Anthony Bailey—advertised it as the “Greatest Show on Earth.”

In time, motion pictures would become more widespread than live performances. A film could be shown as often as 16 times a day. This produced greater profits than a costly stage production. In 1888 Edison Company engineer William Dickson developed the first successful motion picture camera—the Kinetograph. The first films were one-reel, ten-minute sequences. They consisted mostly of vaudeville skits or faked newsreels. In 1903 the first modern film debuted in five-cent theaters called nickelodeons. It was an eight-minute silent feature called *The Great Train Robbery*. By 1907 an estimated 3,000 nickelodeons dotted the country.

Around the turn of the century, a new style of music also began to sweep the nation. Called ragtime, it was a blend of African American spirituals and European musical forms. Ragtime led later to jazz, rhythm and blues, and rock ‘n’ roll. Sheet music, and later phonograph records, helped these forms of popular music spread worldwide. Thomas Edison invented the phonograph
in 1877. It used a tinfoil cylinder and needle to record the human voice or other sounds. A second needle played back the recording. Edison often said that of all his inventions, the phonograph was his favorite. Though it took some time to catch on, phonograph production reached into the millions by the end of the 1920s.

**POPULAR FICTION** As literacy rates rose, scholars debated the role of literature in society. Some felt that literature should uplift America’s literary tastes, which tended toward crime tales and western adventures.

Most people preferred to read light fiction. Such books sold for a mere ten cents. For this reason, they were called “dime novels.” Dime novels typically told glorified adventure tales of the West and featured heroes like Edward Wheeler’s Deadwood Dick. Wheeler published his first Deadwood Dick novel in 1877. In less than a decade, he produced over 30 more.

Some readers wanted a more realistic portrayal of American life. Successful writers of the time included Sarah Orne Jewett, Theodore Dreiser, Stephen Crane, Jack London, and Willa Cather. Most wrote about characters less polished than the upper-class men and women of Henry James’s and Edith Wharton’s novels. Samuel Langhorne Clemens was the novelist and humorist better known as Mark Twain. He inspired a host of other young authors when he declared his independence of “literature and all that bosh.” Yet, some of his books have become classics of American literature. The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, for example, remains famed for its description of life along the Mississippi River.

Although art galleries and libraries tried to raise cultural standards, many Americans had little interest in high culture. Others did not even have access to it. African Americans, for example, were excluded from visiting many museums and other white-controlled cultural institutions.

**MASS-CIRCULATION NEWSPAPERS** American newspapers, looking for ways to captivate readers’ attention, began using sensational headlines. For example, to introduce its story about the horrors of the Johnstown, Pennsylvania flood of 1889, in which more than 2,000 people died, one newspaper used the headline “THE VALLEY OF DEATH.”
Joseph Pulitzer, a Hungarian immigrant who had bought the New York World in 1883, pioneered popular innovations, such as a large Sunday edition, comics, sports coverage, and women’s news. Pulitzer’s paper emphasized “sin, sex, and sensation” in an attempt to outdo his main competitor, the wealthy William Randolph Hearst. Hearst had purchased the New York Morning Journal in 1895, and already owned the San Francisco Examiner. He tried to outdo Pulitzer by filling the Journal with exaggerated stories. These tales featured personal scandals, cruelty, hypnotism, and even an imaginary conquest of Mars. The escalation of their circulation war drove both papers to even more sensational news coverage. By 1898 the circulation of each paper had reached more than 1 million copies a day.

**New Ways to Sell Goods**

Along with enjoying new activities, Americans also changed the way they shopped. At the beginning of the 19th century, many Americans, especially in rural areas, produced their own goods or traded with neighbors for what they needed. Americans at the turn of the 20th century witnessed the beginnings of the shopping center, the development of department and chain stores, and the birth of modern advertising. These steps in the market revolution made it even easier for people around the country to buy goods.

**URBAN SHOPPING** Growing city populations made promising targets for enterprising merchants. The nation’s earliest form of a shopping center opened in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1890. The glass-topped arcade contained four levels of jewelry, leather goods, and stationery shops. The arcade also provided band music on Sundays so that Cleveland residents could spend their Sunday afternoons strolling through the elegant environment and gazing at the window displays.

Retail shopping districts formed where public transportation could easily bring in shoppers. To anchor these retail shopping districts, ambitious merchants started something quite new: the modern department store.

**THE DEPARTMENT STORE** Marshall Field of Chicago first brought the department store concept to America. While working as a store clerk, Field found that paying close attention to women customers could increase sales considerably. In 1865 Field opened his own store, featuring several floors of specialized departments. Field’s motto was “Give the lady what she wants.” Field also pioneered the bargain basement, selling bargain goods that were “less expensive but reliable.”

**THE CHAIN STORE** Department stores prided themselves on offering a variety of personal services. New chain stores—retail stores offering the same merchandise under the same ownership—sold goods for less by buying in quantity and limiting personal service. In the 1870s F. W. Woolworth found that if he offered an item at a very low price, “the consumer would purchase it on the spur of the moment” because “it was only a nickel.” By 1911 the Woolworth chain boasted 596 stores and sold more than a million dollars in goods a week.
Catalog Shopping

Catalogs were a novelty when Sears and Montgomery Ward arrived on the scene. However, by the mid-1990s, more than 13 billion catalogs filled the mailboxes of Americans.

Today, the world of mail-order business is changing. After over 100 years of operation, Montgomery Ward filed for bankruptcy on December 28, 2000.

ADVERTISING  Advertising exploded with consumerism. Expenditures for advertising were under $10 million a year in 1865 but increased to $95 million by 1900. Patent medicines took the largest number of advertising lines, followed by soaps and baking powders. In addition to newspapers and magazines, advertisers used creative methods to push products. Passengers riding the train between New York and Philadelphia in the 1870s might see signs for Dr. Drake’s Plantation Bitters on barns, houses, billboards, and even rocks.

CATALOGS AND RFD  Montgomery Ward and Sears Roebuck brought retail merchandise to small towns. Ward’s catalog, launched in 1872, grew from a single sheet the first year to a booklet with ordering instructions in ten languages. Richard Sears started his company in 1886. Early Sears catalogs stated that the company received “hundreds of orders every day from young and old who never [before] sent away for goods.” By 1910 about 10 million Americans shopped by mail. In 1896 the post office introduced a rural free delivery (RFD) system that brought packages directly to every home.

The turn of the 20th century saw prosperity that caused big changes in Americans’ daily lives. At the same time, the nation’s growing industrial sector faced problems that called for reform.

Online shopping is challenging mail-order commerce today. Online retail sales grew from $500 million in 1998 to nearly $305 billion in 2014. What do online shoppers order? Clothing, computer hardware, and electronics make up about 30 percent of online spending.

Lesson 5 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Use a spider diagram to organize information about mass culture.

   ![Modern Mass Culture Emerges]

   Why is mass culture often described as a democratic phenomenon?

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Summarize**  How did American methods of selling goods change at the turn of the 20th century?

   **Think About:**
   - how city people shopped
   - how rural residents bought goods
   - how merchants advertised their products

4. **Analyze Primary Sources**  According to the cartoonist, where were the masters of the “new journalism,” Pulitzer and Hearst, leading American journalists?
Module 13 Assessment

Key Terms and People

For each key term or person below, write a sentence explaining its significance to immigration and urbanization.

1. Ellis Island
2. Gentlemen's Agreement
3. Americanization movement
4. Jane Addams
5. patronage
6. Rutherford B. Hayes
7. Pendleton Civil Service Act
8. Louis Sullivan
9. Orville and Wilbur Wright
10. rural free delivery (RFD)

Main Ideas

Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

The New Immigrants

1. What pull factors and push factors prompted people to move to the United States in the late 19th and early 20th centuries?
2. After 1890 from where did most of the European immigrants come?
3. How did immigrants deal with challenges they faced?
4. Why did nativists want the government to bar entry to Chinese immigrants?
5. What compromise did the governments of the United States and Japan reach on immigration?

The Challenges of Urbanization

6. How did mass immigration and migration help accelerate urbanization?
7. Why did many immigrants choose to settle in cities?
8. How did many farm workers in the South react to technological and economic changes in the late 1800s?
9. What problems did rapid growth pose for cities?
10. What solutions to urban problems did the settlement house movement propose?

Politics in the Gilded Age

11. Why did machine politics become common in big cities in the late 19th century?
12. Why did immigrants support political machines?
13. What government problems arose as a result of patronage?
14. Summarize the views of Grover Cleveland and Benjamin Harrison on tariffs.

New Technologies

15. How did new technologies make the building of skyscrapers practical?
16. How did new technologies promote urban growth around the turn of the century?
17. How did the ideas of George Washington Carver improve farming in the South?

The Dawn of Mass Culture

18. How did the mass production of bicycles change women's lives?
19. What factors contributed to the popularity of dime novels?
20. Ragtime was a blend of what two musical styles?

Critical Thinking

1. Categorize Use a diagram to list one result of and one reaction against (a) the increase in immigration and (b) the increase in machine politics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Increased Immigration</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased Machine Politics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Module 13 Assessment, continued

2. **Evaluate** The United States government set up two ports of entry to process immigrants and passed laws to limit immigration. What do you think of the effectiveness of the government’s response to the mass immigration in the late 1800s? Use facts and details from the module to support your answer.

3. **Categorize** Nativism was a reaction to the massive influx of immigrants at the turn of the 20th century. What groups, ideas, laws, and agreements grew out of this movement?

4. **Analyze Effects** Many new immigrants resisted the Americanization movement, holding on to their traditions, beliefs, values, language, and customs. What impact do you think this has had on American culture and the arts?

5. **Evaluate** In the 1860s Horace Greeley—editor of the *New York Tribune*—remarked, “We cannot all live in the cities, yet nearly all seem determined to do so.” Why do you think this was true at the end of the 19th century? Do you think it is still true? Why or why not?

6. **Contrast** The philosophy of Social Darwinism embraced the idea that society could gradually fix itself if left alone. Stronger people, businesses, and nations would prosper. Weaker ones would fail. How were the ideas of Social Darwinism different from the ideas of the Social Gospel movement?

7. **Synthesize** Many immigrants came to the United States in search of the American Dream—a better life for themselves and their families. What were some of the impediments and opportunities presented to immigrants in search of the American Dream?

8. **Compare** How were politicians like Boss Tweed similar to industrial magnates like Carnegie and Rockefeller?

9. **Draw Conclusions** How did changes in technology affect urban life at the turn of the 20th century?

10. **Analyze Effects** How did new technology and advances in agriculture become both a push- and pull-factor for the growth of cities?

11. **Develop Historical Perspective** In what way was pragmatism a reaction to rapid industrialization?

**Engage with History**

With what you have learned about the challenges faced by immigrants in the 19th century, consider the following question: What were the best solutions attempted by government and reformers in the 1800s? Create a pamphlet promoting one of the reforms, improvements, or government solutions you chose.

**Focus on Writing**

Imagine you are a senator and the Senate is about to vote on the Chinese Exclusion Act. Prepare a persuasive speech arguing against the new law. For the first part of your speech, explain why this law is unjust and unfair to the Chinese. For the second part, address the concerns of those in favor of the act and provide an alternate solution for the issues prompting it.

**Collaborative Learning**

Organize into small groups and discuss stories of immigration or the experiences of recent immigrants to the United States that you have heard or read about. With the group, create a multimedia presentation of these stories. Use pictures, text, and sound to represent the stories.
For most European immigrants, Ellis Island was the first stop. Between 1892 and 1954, the immigration station processed over 12 million immigrants. These immigrants went through an inspection before they were allowed to enter the United States. Those with serious health problems were sent home, as were those who did not meet various legal requirements. Others were sent home because they exceeded immigration quotas. However, if immigrants could clear these hurdles, they were free to enter the United States and begin their new lives.

Go online to explore some of the personal stories and recollections of immigrants who made the journey to America and passed through Ellis Island. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more through your online textbook.
Doctors examined immigrants as they headed upstairs to the Great Hall.

Lines were long, but the inspection often lasted only a few minutes.

Immigrants who passed the inspection could exchange money, send mail or telegrams, or buy train tickets.

Immigrants then met relatives or loved ones.

Immigrants who had to stay overnight were assigned to dormitories.

**The Golden Door**
Watch the video to see how and why immigrants traveled to the United States.

**Examination**
Watch the video to see the physical examination that immigrants experienced at Ellis Island.

**Quotas**
Watch the video to see how immigration quotas affected immigrants trying to come to the United States.