This is version 1.4 of this resource, released August of 2018.

Information on the latest version and updates are available on the project homepage:  http://textbooks.wmisd.org/dashboard.html
About the Authors - United States History - Reconstruction - Today

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Rebecca Bush is currently the Social Studies Consultant at the Ottawa Area Intermediate School District (OAISD), where she assists K-12 social studies teachers in developing curriculum, modeling instructional strategies in social studies literacy, and designing district-level formative and summative assessments. Additionally, as Project Director, she has written and received multiple Teaching American History grants, working with teachers throughout an eight-county radius. She has presented at various national conferences on multiple topics surrounding social studies instruction as well as innovative techniques and topics in formative and summative assessment design. Currently she is Co-Project Director of The Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (PASST) Project and assists with the professional development of teacher writers for the MI Open Book Project where she serves as an editor of several of the project’s texts. Rebecca currently leads the Michigan Social
Chapter 1

Did the Economic Benefits of the Industrial Revolution Outweigh the Social and Environmental Costs?

• How did physical geography impact industrial growth?
• How did tycoons influence the growth of corporations?
• How did inventions impact demands for labor?
• How did the government interact with big business?
• How did urban development change the landscape of America?
• How did race, gender and social status affect American politics?
The Industrial Revolution

In 1870, the United States was primarily an agricultural nation. Most Americans made a living from farming. Flash forward fifty years, the United States underwent a major transformation as more Americans left farming in search of industrial jobs in cities. With the discovery and usage of raw materials, creation of new inventions, and expansion of big business; the Industrial Revolution transformed the American economy and the lives of millions of Americans.
Natural Resources

In the early Industrial Revolution, factories and modes of transportation greatly relied on the steam engine as their main power source. As a result, factories grew up along natural water sources for easy access to the natural resource. The Northeastern portion of the United States served as the leading industrial area as water sources were in abundance.

Native Americans have long known and used oil sources in the U.S. It was not until 1859 when oil was first successfully drilled commercially. George Bissell and Edwin L. Drake made the first outside of Titusville, Pennsylvania. The United States proved to have a vast amount of natural resources to fuel the Industrial Revolution. Natural gas, petroleum, and coal were extracted from below the earth’s surface and used to power factories and production. Iron ore would be used to create steel to urbanize the United States.

How do the maps above demonstrate that the United States was geographically ready for the Industrial Revolution?
Early Inventions

As natural resources were fueling industrial growth, American inventors sought to create inventions or perfect previous creations. **Thomas Alva Edison** was one such inventor who transformed American lives. With his perfection of the electric lightbulb in 1879, the night now could become easily become day. Edison would patent electric currents and create the country’s first power company which serviced New York City. With that, factories could run longer production hours as they were not limited to sunlight. Along with the economic impact, Americans on average would sleep approximately two hours less per night.

Along with invention of the light bulb, communication inventions greatly transformed American lives. **Christopher Sholes**, a newspaper publisher from Wisconsin, sought ways to increase word typing productivity. In 1867, Sholes was able to perfect the typewriter which allowed for a faster and neater means to scribe messages which included the standard QWERTY keyboard.

**Alexander Graham Bell**, a Scottish born inventor, would successfully complete the first telephone call in 1875 which enabled communication to be faster than ever before. Women greatly benefited from these inventions as they would become staples in offices. Clerical jobs opened up an entire job market to women.

Woman with Underwood Typewriter (1918). Image via [https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/c/ca/Woman_with_Underwood_typewriter.jpg](https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/c/ca/Woman_with_Underwood_typewriter.jpg)
Railroads

Prior to the Civil War, the United States government was providing land grants and low interest loans to railroad companies to develop the nation’s railway network. Railways allowed for an increase of commercial activity and development of the West. The Central Pacific and the Union Pacific Railroads were tasked with completing the first connected railroad from the west coast to the east coast. Thousands of immigrants including Chinese for the Union Pacific and Civil War veterans jumped on the task. With dangerous conditions such as fearing attacks from Native Americans and explosions, it was a treacherous task. On May 10th, 1869, the first transcontinental railroad was sealed with a golden spike at Promontory, Utah. The United States was efficiently connected from coast to coast. By 1890, roughly 180,000 miles of railroads crisscrossed the nation which well exceeded the amount of network prior to the Civil War.

There were numerous effects after the completion and expansion of the national railway network. New towns such as Seattle, Washington and Denver, Colorado sprung up as materials were needed to complete the railroads. As communities were connected, railroads faced handling irregular time zones. In 1870, Charles F. Dowd proposed four standard time zones which two years later would be revised to be based off of Greenwich-Median time. The new time zones would make interstate business easier to conduct as the United States would adopt them.

Click to watch the growth of railroads video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a8IX5A2q-Eo

Interactive 1.1 The Growth of Railroads
**Government Interaction with Railroads**

With the numerous positive effects of the railroad industry, there also were numerous negative effects which brought the government into play. During construction of the first transcontinental railroad, Crédit Mobilier, a construction company created by railroad executives, overpriced the cost of laying down track by two to three times. Their investors kept the profits for themselves and paid off government officials to keep quiet. In the end, government officials were left merely untouched and the executives maintained their profits.

As the railroads helped move people west, they also clashed with the same people that they took west, the farmers. Railroads would often sell the best lands to businesses, charge higher shipping rates on local routes as they had a monopoly, and charge different individuals different rates. Upset, the farmers organized into The Grange as an attempt to voice their concerns. They elected many officials at local and state levels who passed laws known as the “Granger Laws” that did protect farmers’ interests. In *Wabash, St. Louis & Pacific Company v. Illinois*, the Supreme Court overturned state legislation and noted that it was the federal government who maintained the right to regulate railroads. However, a year later in 1887, Congress passed the **Interstate Commerce Act** which gave federal regulation over railroads via the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC). The ICC was unique as it was the first independent governmental regulatory agency in which future agencies would be modeled after. In the transition from state to federal power, the railroad monopolies greatly benefited from ICC rulings within the first ten years. The commission lacked the power to support the needs of farmers which enabled the railroad companies to return to their
practices. The Interstate Commerce Commission would obtain power in the future via new acts and court rulings to regulate railroads.

**Rise of Big Business**

As railroads served as the big business in the West, the steel and oil industries began to take off in the East. Andrew Carnegie, a Scottish immigrant who came to the United States when he was twelve, worked his way up through the Pennsylvania Railroad Company as messenger. On a trip to England, he observed the **Bessemer Process** which blew cold air over hot iron which rid of impurities and made steel stronger and cheaper to produce. He brought this practice back to Pittsburg and founded the Carnegie Steel Factory. By 1900, Carnegie dominated the United States’ steel market and produced more steel than all of Great Britain.

Carnegie was able to do so because he practiced **vertical integration** in which he bought out all of the suppliers including the mines, freighters, and railroads. Carnegie was able to cut costs by owning all factors of production and ensure a quality product. Carnegie would later sell the Carnegie Steel Factory to J. P. Morgan who created the United States Steel Corporation, the largest corporation in the world.
American industrialist **John D. Rockefeller** took a different approach when he entered the oil industry. In 1870, Rockefeller’s corporation Standard Oil Company owned roughly three percent of the nation’s oil. Rockefeller practiced horizontal integration by merging with other oil companies or driving his competition out of the market by underpricing his product and paying his employees cheaply. Rockefeller would create trusts, a larger company that controls similar smaller companies, to help him dominate the oil industry. He would raise oil prices to incredibly higher prices once he controlled the market.

**Economic Policies of Government and Big Business**

The Carnegie Steel Company and the Standard Oil Company perfectly represent big business practices. They rose to the top by cutting costs, raising profits, paying low wages, and dominating their markets. The idea that businesses will survive, thrive, or die without government intervention is known as **social darwinism**. This concept, evolved from Charles Darwin’s theory of biological evolution, was well practiced in this era as the United States’ government kept a hands off approach and allowed the markets to dictate how big business would operate.

To counteract the harshness of social darwinism, Andrew Carnegie wrote “The Gospel of Wealth.” His view was that it was the job of the elite to help enrich society. With his own money he donated millions to create public libraries, encourage scientific research, and left ninety percent of his fortune behind after death to support learning. Rockefeller also donated $500 million dollars which helped set up the University of Chicago.

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With the growing power of big business, Americans were growing worrisome of monopolies and their power on markets. The United States government reacted when Congress passed the Sherman Anti-Trust Act in 1890. This act targeted trusts that interfered with the free market including and interstate commerce. Despite the intentions of the government, the Sherman Anti-Trust Act did little to improve conditions as big business’ lawyers were able to find legal loopholes in the legislation. It was not until the Progressive Era when the act was strengthened and impacted big business.

**Auto Industry**

Just as the railroads revolutionized transportation in the 1800s, a new invention transformed the need for railroads. Henry Ford created his first car, the “Ford Quadricle” in 1896. This first model ran on ethanol fuel and used bicycle tires for wheels. Seven years later, Henry Ford found the Ford Motor Company in Detroit, Michigan. In 1908, the Ford Motor Company produced the famous Model-T which served as the basis for autos in the future.
Just as revolutionary as the automobile itself, Henry Ford was able to produce them at reasonable costs so all Americans could afford them. He is credited with perfecting the assembly line which allowed for mass production. The **assembly line** allowed for factory workers to complete the same task repeatedly so the automobile could be produced in record time. As production efficiency increased, the price fell. As assembly line jobs were unskilled, they attracted millions of laborers to Detroit to fill the demands of the growing auto field. By 1914, Ford was able to offer $5 a week to his laborers. Along with Ford; Chrysler, Dodge, and General Motors brought in workers. Factory workers were able to purchase single family houses, typically in the neighborhood of the factory they worked. However, two distinct cities emerged as white Americans and African Americans lived in neighborhoods. Ford would also attract skilled workers such as engineers and supervisors who brought a middle class to neighborhoods further away from the plant.


**Ford Assembly Line (1913). Source**

![Detroit Population 1900 to 2010](http://www.netpursual.com/index.php?page=search/images&search=detroit+population+history+graph&type=images)


**How does the population growth in Detroit reflect the growth of the Auto Industry?**
Interactive 1.3 Crash Course - The Industrial Economy

Review the growth of the United States Industrial Economy in this video from John Green.

Video Question:

1. How did labor change and stay the same from pre-Industrial Revolution to during the Industrial Revolution?

2. What inventions greatly changed how Americans work?

3. To what extent did labor benefit from the Industrial Revolution?

4. To what extent did government interact with the economy?
QUESTIONS TO GUIDE INQUIRY

1. How did physical geography impact industrial growth?
2. How did tycoons influence the growth of corporations?
3. How did inventions impact demands for labor?
4. How did the government interact with big business?
5. How did urban development change the landscape of America?
6. How did race, gender and social status affect American politics?

TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE
Grange
Farmers’ Alliances
Populism
gold standard
Knights of Labor
Haymarket Square
Samuel Gompers
American Federation of Labor
closed shop
Eugene V. Debs
Industrial Workers of the World
Mary Harris Jones
Pullman Strike
Homestead Strike

Industry and Labor

Just as the Industrial Revolution impacted the economy of the United States, it also had an enormous impact on the lives of millions of Americans. Early industrial inventions such as the McCormick reaper and the Cyrus plow lessened the demand for farm labor which drove rural populations to urban industrial jobs. As farmers looked to expand their land to make profits, they oppositely found themselves in debt as eastern banks and the railroad industry exploited their opportunities. Likewise, urban factory workers faced terrible conditions while working for large industries that demanded long hours, unsafe conditions, and low wages. Efforts to combat unfair conditions were created in both rural and urban settings to make life better for the ordinary American.

Early Farming Organizations

As industry helped farmers increase production, technology also impacted the farming sector. As farmers competed to make profits, technological advances led to overproduction. With a high supply, prices dropped as the demand did not increase as rapidly with the increase of supply. Along with overproduction, the banking sector charged high interest rates on loans. The railroad industry charged higher rates on short hauls as they maintained a monopoly on local markets and
charged different rates to different individuals. As the farmers grew increasingly in debt, they organized to improve their situation.

The Grange became the first major farmers group to address the issues. This organization gained momentum in the midwest by establishing cooperatives and battling the railroad sector at the state level. However, the federal government overturned the states’ control on railroads with the Wabash, St. Louis & Pacific Railroad Company v. Illinois case which noted the federal government had the final say with railroads as they are part of interstate commerce in 1886. The Grange would drop in membership but began the farmers’ crusade to improve their conditions.

In the south and west, the Farmers Alliance set out to educate farmers on topics including low interest rates and government influence on railroads and banking. Lecturers went from town to town to promote concepts to improve the conditions of most farmers. It grew up to nearly 4 million members at its peak. However, the Farmers Alliance ignored tenant farmers and African Americans. As they made up a high percentage of farmers, the alliance weakened itself by not including large subgroups of farmers.
Populist Party

The education provided by the Farmers Alliance eventually led to political action. The Populist Party formed in the 1890s and focused on the plights of the farmers and working class. Their platform included a graduated income tax, single terms for president, eight hour workday, direct election of U. S. Senators, and loan programs that would balance the costs of food. Lastly, they called for unlimited coinage of silver which would help put more wealth in the hands of farmers and the working class.

The Populist Party had great success in the 1892 election by securing five U.S. senate seats, sending representatives to the U. S. House of Representatives, and winning seats at numerous seats state level Congresses. In the 1896 presidential election, the debate heavily focused on the gold standard which used only gold to back up the currency. The Populists greatly supported Democratic candidate William Jennings Bryan who delivered his infamous cross of Gold Speech. In this speech, Jennings Bryan noted that the weight of gold will crush the country. In the end, William Jennings Bryan lost to William McKinley and the U.S. would remain on the gold standard. The Populists failed to secure enough urban votes. As the nation’s population became more urban for the first time in history, the Populists would lose their voice as they could not connect to that setting.

Interactive 1.4 The Cross of Gold Speech

1) What grievances does William Jennings Bryan address in this speech?
2) How does he compare farmers to those on the Atlantic Coast?
3) How does this speech represent the goals of the Populist Party?

Check out an excerpt of the “Cross of Gold Speech” here!

Source: http://stealthflation.org/2015/03/01/the-end-of-honest-money/
Interactive 1.5 Gold Bugs and Silverites

Test your knowledge with this drag-and-drop quiz.

The Election of 1892

Election Map of 1892. Source: http://www.rense.com/general90/1892.JPG

Depiction of William Jennings Bryan's Cross of Gold Speech. Source:

https://historymartinez.files.wordpress.com/2015/05/cross-of-gold.jpg
Big Business Affects Laborers

Unskilled workers flocked to the factories during the Industrial Revolution. These unskilled workers included working class men, women, and children. The working class was continuously filled as new immigrants flocked to the United States for a better life. As labor was quite easy to replace, factory owners were able to maintain low wages. Even with low wages, factory workers faced highly unsafe conditions.

The average working class American male made approximately $453 a year which equates to $13,000 today. Women were roughly paid half of a male’s salary and children were expected to earn roughly one third of the salary. Factory workers typically worked from before ten to fourteen hour days to earn that pay. Along with low pay, factory conditions were deplorable. Factories lacked guardrails, proper ventilation, and proper safety techniques. In 1900, there was reportedly 35,000 deaths in factories with approximately 1 million injuries. Without health insurance or factory accountability, workers were left to deal with death and injuries on their own.

Working class children were often needed to take jobs to help support their families. By 1900, roughly 18% of children under the age of 16 were employed in industrial work. These children were often employed with tasks of cleaning dangerous machines, coal mining, and working in the textile industry. They were often paid lower wages and were easily replaceable. Working children forwent an education which greatly hindered their chances of obtaining a skilled job as an adult. Reforms would come in the early 1900s to rid the United States of the grim conditions of child labor and placed emphasis on students minimally earning a primary school education.

Child Labor, Coal Mines c. 1912

Source: https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/b/b3/Childlabourcoal.jpg
Two young children work in a textile mill.

Source: Library of Congress


1) What does this graph tell you about how Americans lived and worked?

2) What can you infer about the rise of union membership

Labor Unions

To combat long hours, low pay, and unsafe working conditions; multiple labor unions form. The Knights of Labor began as a secret society in 1869 and would not become more public until 1881. The Knights championed both skilled and unskilled
laborers and included women and African Americans. Their main goal was to set a standard eight hour workday and improve safety conditions at factories. The Knights also pushed for the abolition of child labor and equal pay for equal work. The Knights’ membership piqued in 1886 after a successful strike against Jay Gould’s Wabash Railroad in 1885. The Knights of Labor faced an untimely setback when they were linked to anarchist bombs at the Haymarket Square protest in Chicago in 1886. The public backlashed against the alleged connection to the incident and the Knights of Labor plummeted to approximately 100,000 members by 1889. The other downfall for the union was that there were many tensions between skilled workers and unskilled workers which led to internal disputes and resentment.

As the Knights of Labor were on the downfall, another union began to rise. Samuel Gompers, a cigar maker, founded the American Federation of Labor (AFL). The AFL consisted of groups of unions, usually skilled, instead of one large union. The main goals of the AFL were to increase wages and have shorter work weeks. Samuel Gompers also pushed for a closed shop in which a factory would only employ union members. The union used strikes as a main tactic to achieve its goals. The AFL had numerous successes in establishing 8 hour workdays and increasing pay for its members. By 1914, the AFL topped 2 million members.

Samuel Gompers

While the AFL championed skilled laborers, radical union ideas emerged throughout the United States. Eugene V. Debs championed the idea of a union including all laborers. Debs’ American Railway Union won a strike in 1894 which increased its membership by the thousands. However, his union was short lived as membership dwindled only after a successful strike. The Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), a socialist union, formed in Chicago in 1905. By including African Americans and being too radical, its numbers rarely exceeded 100,000. While both unions had few successes, they contributed to the idea that members should unite for the betterment of their lives and working conditions.
Mary Harris Jones, commonly known as Mother Jones, proved an exceptional leader for the rights of miners and children. She helped organize the United Mine Workers of America and was faced numerous death threats. In 1903, she led children onto the White House lawn and demonstrated the harshness of child labor to President Roosevelt which inspired child labor laws. By committing to the need of miners and children, Jones continued to push for better conditions for the working class until her death.

Failed Strikes

While unions had some successes, they often faced numerous setbacks when strikes proved unsuccessful in achieving their goals. The Pullman Town, established in 1880, was based on the Pullman factory that created luxury railroad cars. The owner,
George Pullman, owned all parts of the town so his employees bought goods from his stores and paid rent as his tenants. This practice by a business owner became known as a company town. Soon, company towns sprang up all over major industrial cities as an unregulated way for wealthy business owners to increase their already exorbitant profits. During the panic of 1893, Pullman cut wages but did not lower the cost of rent or goods from his town. The Pullman Strike occurred in 1894 as Eugene V. Debs led the way to aid the workers. Federal troops were sent in and the strike was exterminated. Most of the workers lost their jobs and were placed on blacklists that prevented them from obtaining employment at other factories.

In 1892, Andrew Carnegie’s Homestead Steel Mill cut the wages of its workers. Roughly 750 belonged to the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers Union out of 3,000. Determined to break the union, Carnegie gave manager Henry Frick full support to crush the union and bargain with employees separately. The Homestead Strike began workers striked and the factory was walled off as union workers vowed to prevent anyone from entering. The police were first sworn to help protect the factory and were chased off by strikers. Frick hired private guards to have strike breakers and new labor come in to keep the factory operating. After four months of striking, support for the union plummeted and the workers gave into the factory’s conditions.

Even though unions faced setbacks, they created a unity among workers. Unions would grow in numbers through the 1900s and gain further rights most notably during the Progressive Era and Franklin Roosevelt administration.
QUESTIONS TO GUIDE INQUIRY

1. How did physical geography impact industrial growth?

2. How did tycoons influence the growth of corporations?

3. How did inventions impact demands for labor?

4. How did the government interact with big business?

5. How did urban development change the landscape of America?

6. How did race, gender and social status affect American politics?

TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE

Immigration
push and pull factors
Urbanization
Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882
“paper sons”
steerage

An Influx of Immigrants

As the United States increased its industrial output, the need for workers increased. This, along with other factors, drew more people into the US globally. Immigration into the United States grew immensely between 1860-1910 and peaked in 1907. People then, as well as today, migrated for many reasons. The reasons that people move are categorized as push and pull factors.

Welcome to America

When immigrants entered the US, they did through two major entry points: Angel Island in California and Ellis Island in New York. The majority of European immigrants arrived in New York and Asian immigrants arrived in California.

Immigrants Waiting:

In this undated photo, immigrants stand outside of a building on Ellis Island at the Port of New York. Between 1892 and 1924, an estimated 20 million individuals began their new lives in America at the Immigration Processing Station, Ellis Island. Photo courtesy of The National Archives
Create your own comic strip describing what would cause your character to move. Try using Bit Strips!

Angel Island in San Francisco Bay processed hundreds of thousands of immigrants from 1910-1940. Most of these immigrants arrived from China. After the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882, the Chinese were not welcomed in the US, not easily anyway. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 banned the immigration of Chinese laborers into the US and prohibited the Chinese from becoming natural citizens. This act remained in effect for 60 years. Years later, court cases were brought by second and third generation children to claim their constitutional right to citizenship by birth. Angel Island’s main goal was to control the flow of Chinese people into the United States. At Angel Island men and women were housed separately and spent most of their time waiting in the barracks during their detention between interview interrogations. During this process immigrants would have been detained on Angel Island for weeks or months - some even years- before entering the US or being deported. Interrogation questions were purposefully challenging and even included obscure questions about Chinese villages and family genealogies that would have been difficult for immigrants to answer correctly. Many of the people arriving on Angel Island were not allowed entry into the United States.

Think Geography! Why would more Asian immigrants enter through California, while more European immigrants came in through New York?
"I have been stayed in the wooden house for couple of days due to some writing product issues. Unfortunately my skills and abilities can't be used at the right place. From now on, I will leave this building. Everyone seems very happy. The design of this building is more western- looks very pretty but I think it's more like a cage.

(Poetic verse carved into the wall of the detention barracks at Angel Island. Image courtesy of the Library of Congress.)

After the earthquake and fire that ravaged San Francisco in 1906, many government records were destroyed, leading to the practice of “paper sons”. When new citizenship papers were obtained after the fire, people were able to pass on citizenship rights to their children. Many claimed that their Chinese born offspring were really born in the US. Sometimes one would report the birth of a son when in reality the “slot” would be sold or given to a relative. Sons who entered the US this way were known as “paper sons.” This deception was in reaction to the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882.
In New York, Ellis Island opened up its doors to immigrants in 1892 and it processed over 12 million people in the 62 years it was open. The immigrants that arrived in America having purchased a first or second class ticket were able to avoid the Ellis Island inspection by having a cursory one done aboard the ship. The idea behind this was that if a person was wealthy enough to afford a high class ticket that they were less likely to contribute negatively to the general public either due to medical or legal reasons. The federal government felt that more affluent immigrants were less likely to end up in state institutions or hospitals and become financial burdens to the state.

The story looks different for third class passengers, also known as “steerage” passengers. These people traveled to America in tight, unsanitary quarters near the belly of the ship. Passengers from steerage would undergo a physical and legal inspection that took about 3-5 hours if one was in good health. Approximately 2% of immigrants arriving at Ellis Island were not allowed to enter the United States. A person would have been deported back to their country of
origin if a doctor diagnosed him or her with a contagious disease that risked the health of the public or if a legal inspector thought he or she would have ended up living at the expense of the government.

**Urbanization**

America was a land of farmers for much of its early life as a nation. In 1820, barely 5% of the nation’s population lived in cities of over 10 thousand or more. Decade by decade after that the numbers in cities grew. By 1900, 30% of Americans lived in a city and the architecture shifted to accommodate them. The first skyscrapers were built.

Factories were built at a rapid rate; therefore, people were settling to be near work. Skyscrapers were introduced and started reaching into the clouds while tenements were overflowing with people. Imperial looking banks and mansions of the uber wealthy emerged while the slums teeming with rats and lice were available to the lower working class. Middle class white collar workers also emerged and added to the success of cities. Cities were not just places to make a living but also became cultural centers, too.

While people in rural areas were still successful in the agriculture field, city dwellers were working in factories, manufacturing, shipyards and transportation systems. Jobs in the entertainment field were also on the rise as the middle class saw an increase in leisure activities like stadium sports, amusement parks, theaters, and department store shopping. Cities were setting trends in art, music, and fashion. Large department stores like Macy’s in New York and Marshall Fields in Chicago attracted urban middle class shoppers and provided jobs for the working class—even young women.

Living in a city proved to be much different than living in a rural area. Living on a farm, not much went to waste. Table scraps went to pigs, families mended clothing instead of tossing it out,
household products were bought in bulk at the general store and most things weren’t wrapped. Cities were different. Cities had electricity, indoor plumbing, and the latest in technology such as the telephone. Packaging such as boxes, bottles, cans and bags were disposable. Apartments didn’t have pig pens for scraps. Ready-to-wear clothes “off the rack” were cheap and as fashion trends changed quickly old garments ended up in the trash piles.

Urban problem solving such as what to do with massive amounts of waste became a new issue in cities. The increase in consumerism and its subsequent waste was not the only issue in cities. Hygiene and safe living were also concerns. Lice was rampant in the slums, and most of the water was unsafe for drinking, cooking and bathing. This along with animal waste, uncollected garbage and unwashed people also contributed to the health and safety of urban city dwellers.

The worst of all places in the cities were the slums. In 1879, tenement style
housing was perfected. In these multi level buildings people lived in a tight barracks’ like situation with extended families in small rooms with a shared community bathroom on each floor. People also worked out of their homes in many cases to help raise money for the family. This also allowed for women to work at home while tending to the children, or putting them to work as well. Lice and rats were frequent guests of the residents in the tenements and sickness spread quickly, as did fire on occasion.
One of the worst fires happened to the city of Chicago in 1871. Like all major cities of the time, most city dwellings were made of wood and built tightly together. The use of candles and kerosene in such tight quarters made city fires much more catastrophic and deadly than in rural settings. The fire in Chicago started on October 8 and raged for two full days. When the inferno ceased, the city was left with 100,000 people who had lost their homes and over 300 dead. There was $200 million in lost and damaged property and the entire central business district was completely destroyed.

John R. Chapin was an illustrator for Harper’s Weekly and was staying at the Sheridan House hotel when he was awoken by the commotion from the fire. He reported the following:

In the presence of such a fearful calamity, surrounded by such scenes of misery and woe, having within a brief hour barely escaped with my life from the burning hotel, knowing that under my eye human life was being destroyed, wealth swept away, and misery entailed upon untold thousands of my fellow-men, nothing but the importance of preserving a record of the scene induced me to force my nervous system into a state sufficiently calm to jot down the scenes passing before me. . . . Niagara sinks into insignificance before that towering wall of whirling, seething, roaring flame, which swept on, on—devouring the most stately and massive stone buildings as though they had been the cardboard playthings of a child. . .

Although the loss was tragic, it did bring about new building requirements. Brick (and eventually steel) structures replaced the traditional wooden ones that acted like fuel to the fires of cities.
As many people moved from rural farm lives and transitioned to life in the cities, cities swelled from the influx of new residents. As immigrants were moving into the American cities they carried with them customs and experiences from their homelands. Often times, when settling in new neighborhoods, people with a common culture, language, religion and history would form their own ethnic communities. In this era of urbanization, cities see “little China”, “little Italy” and “little Poland” (to name a few) emerged. With these new immigrants to America, new newspapers, shops, celebrations and eating emerge as well. The growth religions other than the majority protestant christian grow, too. Eastern European Jews and Roman Catholics from all over Europe made their way to the shores of America.

In a metropolis like New York City came the freedom of chosen anonymity. In the shtetl, the Jew was marked as such by clothing, language and association. In New York, a Jewish man could shave off his beard. A married Orthodox Jewish woman could discard her required wig. They could buy some American style clothes. Walk out of the ghetto. And be seen and treated as any other person just walking down the street. With the skills in English, the possible transformation was complete. 1910 was the high tide of Jewish immigration to America. At that time the greater Lower East Side housed more than 500,000 people in two square miles. It was then that the Lower East Side came to be known as the Jewish Ghetto. The adjoining communities of Little Italy and Chinatown were minuscule in comparison to the Jewish community. The Lower East Side was always crowded. As the 20th Century began, Jewish immigrants, having crossed the Atlantic in steerage. Having endured the processing and the fear of rejection at Ellis Island. And having been dropped on the tip of Manhattan in the shadow of a forest of unbelievably high buildings. Now walked into a virtual cauldron of people. A maze of streets strewn with offal from slaughtered animals and garbage and horse manure. Just the horse and wagon, period, for transportation. There’s a lot of horse doo in the city, which is collected regularly. Put on carts. Taken to the East River. And dumped there in the river where the boys were swimming. Life seemed to gush out of the suffocating flats and shops into an ever-flowing stream of shouting men. Babbling women. Shrieking children from early dawn to midnight. So many of these new arrivals had come from small towns. And now in the two square mile sea of five, six and seven-story tenements, they had to locate relatives or countrymen. Find housing. Obtain work. Learn anew language, et cetera. Amazed by the people flooded streets, journalists of the time described the Lower East Side as having a population density greater than Bombay or Calcutta. The incredible scene was, of course, most daunting to the immigrants and their children.

(The Tenement Saga, webcast, Sanford Sternlicht, 5/19/2014, Library of Congress)
The Political Machine

Politics in major cities also suffered challenges from urbanization. Nothing was quite as scandalous during the Gilded Age as the political machine of Tammany Hall in New York City. The term “political machine” is basically an organization that works to get its member(s) elected into political positions, thus holding political power. In New York City, this was Tammany Hall and its leader was William “Boss” Tweed.

In the 1860s and 1870s the men of Tammany Hall used graft bribery and rigged elections to extort over $200 million from the city of New York. Some money went towards helping immigrants and creating public buildings that helped create jobs. The trouble was that anyone doing business in their city - especially suppliers and contractors - had to give “kickbacks” (money) to the bosses in order to stay in business. “Boss” Tweed and other machine bosses grew large fortunes as a result of these kickbacks and bribes.

Interactive 1.9 An Honest Graft?

Is there such a thing as an honest graft? Click here to read an excerpt from NY politician George Plunkitt in Plunkitt of Tammany Hall: A Series of Very Plain Talks on Very Practical Politics, Delivered by Ex-Senator George Washington Plunkitt, the Tammany Philosopher, from his Rostrum—the New York County Courthouse Bootblack Stand
Prior to the 1880s, the United States government policies toward Native Americans was dominated by the idea to remove the people from their land, acquire land (via treaties), wage war and civilize and assimilate tribal communities into American society. For tribal communities, the entire 19th century is defined by their loss of land, either through treaties or forced removal, which translates into loss of their culture and way life. By 1900, tribes in Michigan had lost 99% of their ancestral land base. What lands tribes did reserve for themselves under treaties were called reservations. On average, these reservations were the equivalent to the size of a county. But reservation lands would be alienated from tribes as well.
Certain federal measures, such as the Homestead Act of 1862, the Indian Homestead Act of 1875 and the Dawes Act of 1887, would help break up reservation lands and open them to public purchase. On February 8, 1887 Congress passed the Dawes Act, named after Massachusetts senator, Henry Dawes. Dawes once expressed that to be civilized was to "wear civilized clothes...cultivate the ground, live in houses, ride in Studebaker wagons, send children to school, drink whiskey [and] own property." The Dawes Act focused on breaking up reservation land by granting land parcels to individual Native Americans. The mentality of the government was that if native individuals owned their own land and farmed their own land like their white neighbors they would lose their “Indian-ness” and become assimilated.

Unfortunately the theories did not come to pass as reality. Natives holding individual patents to their allotments were often swindled out of their lands by greedy land speculators. Unethical government officials were also a problem, as they sold Indian patents of tribal lands to non-natives. Tribal land (reservations) was valuable for different reasons. Some lands had rich timber resources, others good for farms. Some lands were valuable for the growing railways across the country. But the fact America’s population was exploding and white settlers needed land was the most prominent reason tribal people became alienated from their homelands.

The change from owning land communally to individual ownership was a radical change in belief. Often children that inherited land became severed from the land because they had been sent away to boarding schools. (See more on this below.) Allotment selection did not extend to future generations, thus only one group of tribal members got to make a selection, making their children and grandchildren ineligible to make a allotment selection under treaty provisions. Tribal reservations became overrun with land speculators and white squatters during the 1800s, leaving the Odawa, Potawatomi and Ojibway with the hardship of staying on their homelands. As white American settlers expanded their presence into Michigan, the indigenous peoples’ presence shrank.

**Treaties**

If you ask somebody what the most important document for them as a U.S. citizen is, many would answer “the Constitution”. But for indigenous people, many would answer “the treaties”. Treaties...
directly impacted tribal communities with regard to economics, land use, right to self-government and natural resource use. The United States engaged in over 600 treaties with tribes across the United States, from 1778-1883. Not all tribes were party to treaties and some tribes were involved in multiple treaties, with multiple tribes. Treaties reserved land, resources, rights and created a trust relationship between the tribes and federal government. But treaties were many times not honored by the United States and created problems for tribal communities. Some treaties did end wars between tribes and the United States but the vast majority were land acquisitions from tribes. The majority of treaties were made during the 1800s. In Michigan, the Odawa, Ojibway and Potawatomi signed multiple treaties, in order to avoid forced removal from their lands, to retain access to natural resources and reserve lands for themselves.

Michigan tribes made treaties between 1795-1864. Chiefs from individual villages would represent their communities with these negotiations with the United States. Sometimes tribes did not always see eye to eye on the terms spelled out in the treaty. Many treaties were made under extreme pressure as well. If a tribe did not sign the treaty, it was very possible the U.S. army would remove them by force. Or the tribe would lose out on securing a land base for future generations and monies, if they did not sign. Treaties were part of a federal policy to civilize natives. The U.S. government thought that if natives owned small tracts of lands, they would become farmers; not hunters. Also, treaties provided the legal means of acquiring millions of acres. The civilization policy of natives would go beyond treaties and onto the children as well.

**The Civilization Policies**

As the United States grew in the 19th century, so did its handling of tribes. As land bases shrunk for tribes, their subjection to American rule became more prevalent. Tribes would continue to fight American expansion west of the Mississippi River after the War of 1812 but with each losing battle to the United States, the force of American law was inescapable. A large part of this law was the civilization policies for tribes. The prevailing thought among American officials during the 1800s was that tribes were “uncivilized” “barbaric” and “heathen” in nature. Thus, it was the duty of the American society to “enlighten” the tribes and bring them into a civilized state. This “civilized” state was that of the Americans, which had a huge emphasis on individual land ownership, western education, Christianity, American appearance, English as the primary language, capitalism and farming. Thus it became illegal for tribes to practice their traditional religions and access to sacred areas became forbidden under private land ownership. Private land ownership also drastically altered the traditional use of land in hunting and fishing. Natives began to mirror the appearance of Americans, in order to assimilate into society. Hair was cut, tattooing ceased, piercings taken out, body painting stopped and American clothes...
became the norm. By the 1880s, the government deemed that the natives were still not “civilized”, even though many were farmers, worked the same jobs as whites and attended church. The government argued that as long as family units stayed together, kids were still learning traditions at the home, speaking their native language and thus, not fully becoming civilized. The answer, according to the federal government, was to take the children directly out of the home and place them in institutions where it was forbidden to practice anything native. These institutions were boarding schools.

**Boarding Schools**

The US government established boarding schools in the late 19th century with the goal of assimilating native youth into while culture by stripping them of their own culture, tradition and ways of worship. Roughly 100 schools were established in the US. The largest and most infamous was the school established by Richard Pratt in Carlisle, Pennsylvania. His sentiments below were widely followed by many Americans at the time.

"A great general has said that the only good Indian is a dead one," Pratt said. "In a sense, I agree with the sentiment, but only in this: that all the Indian there is in the race should be dead. Kill the Indian in him, and save the man."

Three assimilation schools were established in Michigan: Baraga, Mt. Pleasant and Harbor Springs. Some children were taken away from their families by government officials, others were sent away by parents that felt it was their only choice as regular public schools wouldn’t allow their children to attend with white children.

According to the Library of Congress, “To make Indian children patriotic and productive citizens, government-run boarding schools, reservation boarding schools and day schools were introduced. These schools strictly adhered to the speaking of only the English language. They were conducted with military-like schedules and discipline, and emphasized farming and other manual skills. The daily schedule was split between academics and vocational training. By 1893, such education for Indian children was mandatory. The Bureau of Indian Affairs ceased to support this form of education in the 1920s. Complaints about costs, substandard living conditions, poor medical care, and poor teaching practices contributed to the demise of this strict, mandatory program.”

The schools trained the children to become laborers. They were taught to become domestic and manual laborers and were not given the option of becoming professionals like lawyers, teachers or doctors. They were not taught to become leaders.
Indian Training School in Chemawa, Oregon. Boarding school students learned skills that the American teachers believed would benefit the students in an Americanized way of life. (www.edb.utexas.edu)

Primary Source Activity

The Library of Congress has many documents to explore the education and assimilation of Native peoples in America from the late 1800s-1920s. Students can explore...

- legal government documents
  - annual reports
  - photographs
  - short film clips
- first hand accounts
- a musical performance and battle demonstration

Use these sources to compare and contrast the mixed messages that are in these materials.

Before and After: Tom Torino, Navajo youth who entered the Carlisle Boarding School in Pennsylvania.

Discussion Questions for Classrooms

- What does it mean to be civilized? How are civilized persons different from uncivilized persons?
  - Who decides who is civilized and who is not?
- From what you know about the Indians living in North America before the Europeans arrived, were they civilized? By whose standards?
- Look at the "before and after" photo of Tom Torino (above). Tom was a Navajo youth who entered Carlisle Boarding School. Ask the students if you think Tom is more civilized in the "after" photo. Why or why not?
The civilization policies carried on well into the 20th century for native people in the United States. The last boarding school to close its doors in the United States was the Holy Childhood of Jesus Indian School, Harbor Springs, Mi. This institution ceased operation in 1983. Other civilization policies that went well into the late 1900s were the inability for tribal people to practice their religion. This was reversed in 1978 with the Indian Religious Freedom act. Even further into the 20th century is the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990. This law enabled tribes to reclaim ancestral human remains and sacred items.

Tribes would advocate for their civil rights throughout the 20th century, which in turn reversed many of the archaic civilization policies of the 19th century. As women, African-American and other minority groups advocated for their personal freedoms, so did the tribes of the United States. But the civilization policies had devastating effects on tribes, particularly when it comes to land loss and loss of culture, religion and heritage. Many tribes are working diligently to recover language, ceremonies and sacred areas today.

Additional Links and Resources

- American Indian Boarding Schools Haunt Many
- Native American Names for National Parks
- Native American boarding schools have nearly killed Michigan’s native language
- Our Spirits Don’t Speak English
- White Bison Website