Chapter Outline

1.1 Railroad, Industry, and Urbanization
1.2 Reconstruction in Tennessee
1.3 Election of 1876 and the End of Reconstruction
1.4 Gilded Age Politics
1.5 Settling the Western Frontier
1.6 Entrepreneurs and Business Leaders Bring Changes to American Life
1.7 Emergence of the American City
1.8 Political Cartoons of the Gilded Age
1.9 A Rush of Immigration

Students analyze the various causes of the Industrial Revolution, the transformation of the American economy, and the changing social and political conditions in the United States in response to the Industrial Revolution. Students will also examine the relationship among the rise of industrialization, large-scale rural-to-urban migration, and massive immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe and Asia.

US.1 ... Explain patterns of agricultural and industrial development as they relate to climate, use of natural resources, markets and trade, the growth of major urban areas, and describe the geographic considerations that led to the location of specialized industries such as textiles, automobiles, and steel. (E, G)

US.2 ... Summarize the major developments in Tennessee during the Reconstruction era, including the Constitutional Convention of 1870, the yellow fever epidemic of 1878, and the election of African Americans to the General Assembly. (C, E, H, TN)

US.3 ... Explain the impact of the Hayes-Tilden Presidential election of 1876 and the end of Reconstruction on African Americans, including Jim Crow laws, lynching, disenfranchisement methods, efforts of Pap Singleton and the Exodusters. (C, H, P, TN)

US.4... Analyze the causes and consequences of Gilded Age politics and economics, including the rise of political machines, major scandals, civil service reform, and the economic difference between farmers, wage earners, and industrial capitalists, including the following: (E, H, P)

- Boss Tweed
- Thomas Nast
- Credit Mobilier
- Whiskey Ring
- Garfield’s assassination
- Pendleton Act· Interstate Commerce Act

US.5 ... Analyze the controversy that arose over the currency system in the late 1800’s, including the impact of gold and silver strikes in the West, the contrasting views of farmers and industrialists, the Sherman Silver Purchase Act
of 1890, the Gold Crisis during the Cleveland administration, and an analysis of William Jennings Bryan’s Cross of Gold speech. (E, H, P)

**US.6** ... Describe the changes in American life that resulted from the inventions and innovations of business leaders and entrepreneurs of the period: (C, E)

- Henry Bessemer
- George Pullman
- Alexander Graham Bell
- Andrew Carnegie
- Thomas Edison
- J.P. Morgan
- John D. Rockefeller
- Swift and Armour
- Cornelius Vanderbilt

**US.7** ... Analyze the movement of people from rural to urban areas as a result of industrialization. (E, G)

**US.8** ... Evaluate multiple sources of information presented in diverse formats and media as in the political cartoons of Thomas Nast and others during the Gilded Age. (C, P)

**US.9** ... Describe the difference between “old” and “new” immigrants and analyze the assimilation process and consequences for the “new” immigrants and their impact on American society, including ethnic clusters, competition for jobs, rise of nativism, the work of Jane Addams, the documentation of living conditions by Jacob Riis, Chinese Exclusion Acts, and the Gentlemen’s Agreement. (C, E, G).

**Primary Documents and Supporting Texts to Read:** excerpts from the “Cross of Gold” speech, William Jennings Bryan; excerpts from Twenty Years at Hull House, Jane Addams; excerpts from The Gospel of Wealth, Andrew Carnegie

**Primary Documents and Supporting Texts to Consider:** excerpts from “The New Colossus,” Emma Lazarus
1.1 Railroads, Industry, and Urbanization

INDUSTRIAL AMERICA EMERGES

From the ashes of the American Civil War sprung an economic powerhouse. The factories built by the Union to defeat the Confederacy were not shut down at the war’s end. Now that the fighting was done, these factories were transformed to better serve peacetime purposes. Although industry had existed prior to the war, agriculture had represented the most significant portion of the American economy.

After the war, beginning with the railroads, small businesses grew larger and larger. By the century’s end, the nation’s economy was dominated by a few, very powerful individuals. In 1850, most Americans worked for themselves. By 1900, most Americans worked for an employer.

The growth was astounding. From the end of RECONSTRUCTION in 1877 to the disastrous PANIC OF 1893, the American economy nearly doubled in size. New technologies and new ways of organizing business led a few individuals to the top. The competition was ruthless. Those who could not provide the best product at the cheapest price were simply driven into bankruptcy or were bought up by hungry, successful industrialists.

THE TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROAD

Soon after the railroad made its appearance in the United States in the 1830s, Americans dreamed of linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by rail. A TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROAD would allow for settlement of the west, open new markets for eastern manufacturers, and bring relief to overcrowded eastern cities.

Some even believed that it was divinely intended that Americans should control the whole of the continental U.S. In 1845, a Democratic journalist named John L. O’Sullivan coined the phrase "MANIFEST DESTINY ."
1.1. Railroads, Industry, and Urbanization

Manifest Destiny

"... the right of our manifest destiny to over spread and to possess the whole of the continent which Providence has given us for the development of the great experiment of liberty and federaltive development of self government entrusted to us...."

Steaming locomotives would hasten western settlement, spread democratic values, and increase the size of the United States (Arizona, Oklahoma, New Mexico etc., were not yet states, only territories). Western settlement was a paramount national interest. As such, the federal government awarded the contract to link the coasts by rail to two companies, the UNION PACIFIC and the CENTRAL PACIFIC.

I 'VE BEEN WORKING ON THE RAILROAD

Union Pacific workers, many of whom were Irish and Chinese immigrants, started at Omaha, Nebraska, and hammered their way westward. From Sacramento, California, the Central Pacific made its way eastward with the assistance of thousands of Chinese immigrants.

Those working on the railroad gave their sweat and sometimes their lives blasting through the often unforgiving terrain. Other dangers that workers faced were disease, searing summer heat, freezing temperatures in the mountains, Native American raids and the lawlessness and violence of pioneer towns.

THE GOLDEN SPIKE

The government declared that the two lines would merge at PROMONTORY SUMMIT near Ogden, Utah. On May 10, 1869, LELAND STANFORD, representing the Central Pacific Railroad, was provided the honor to hammer a golden spike into the ground that marked the completion of the coast-to-coast line. Celebrations erupted across the land. Even the Liberty Bell tolled once again to commemorate the occasion.

Soon, other transcontinental lines were constructed and travel across the continent became worlds simpler, less expensive, and much faster, than by the old Conestoga wagon.

ON THE RIGHT TRACK

The engineering achievement was monumental. The costs of the operation to railroads were enormous. Tens of thousands of workers had to be paid, sheltered, and fed. Tons of steel and wood were required.

However, the economic incentives to railroads were enormous. The government offered generous loans to companies who were willing to assume the risk. The greatest reward was land. For each mile of track laid by the Central and Union Pacific Railroads, the companies received 640 acres of public land. In other rail projects, state governments often kicked in additional acres for a growing number of rail companies.

All in all, the railroads received nearly 200 million acres of land from the U.S. government for fulfilling contracts. Directors of some railroads made fortunes. Foremost among the RAILROAD TYCOONS were CORNELIUS VANDERBILT, JAMES J. HILL, and JAY GOULD.

As a result of improved transportation, all Americans had access to more goods at a cheaper price and westward movement was greatly accelerated. Those seeking a new start in life could much more easily "go west."

No industrial revolution can occur without a transport web. The nation was now bound together by this enormous network and its citizens were ready to reap the rewards.
INDUSTRIALIZATION

Advances in technology drove American Industrialization, as did access to the immense and untapped resources of the North American continent. Industrialization brought the growth of new American cities such as Chicago, and the arrival of a flood of immigrants from all over Europe to man the factories. The Civil War had transformed the North into one of the most heavily industrialized regions in the world, and during the Gilded Age, businessmen reaped enormous profits from this new economy. Powerful tycoons formed giant trusts to monopolize the production of goods that were in high demand. Andrew Carnegie, for one, built a giant steel empire using vertical integration, a business tactic that increased profits by eliminating middlemen from the production line. Though industrialization caused many long-term positives, it did cause problems in the short-term. Rich farmers who could afford new machinery grew even richer, while poorer farmers were forced to move into urban areas as they could not compete in the agricultural sector.

Early innovations in the technology of the internal-combustion engine took place in Europe. In 1885 a German
engineer, Gottlieb Daimler, built a lightweight engine driven by vaporized gasoline. This development inspired one of America’s most visionary manufacturers, Henry Ford. In the 1880’s, Ford, an electrical engineer in Detroit’s Edison Company, experimented in his spare time using Daimler’s engine to power a vehicle. George Selden, a Rochester, New York, lawyer, had already been tinkering with such technology, but Ford applied organizational genius to this invention and spawned a massive industry in automobiles.

AGRICULTURE

In the late 1880s and early 1900s, a typical farm would be just about 100 acres. Farmers had only one way of farming, which was by horse or a mule. Farmers raised cows, pigs, chickens, and horses. They grew turnips, potatoes, carrots, grain, wheat, and corn. Farmers often ate off of their own establishment, because it was cheaper and it also was a way of life.

While industry generally increased in importance, farmers struggled due to debt and falling prices. The crop failures of the 1880s greatly exacerbated the situation.

The economic transformation taking place created prosperity and new lifestyles for some, but for some states still dominated by farming, these changes also had a widespread negative impact.

Agriculture reformed the railroad system, when farmers’ crops needed transported they had to rely on the railroads, but the railroads implemented outrageous prices. This caused farmers, small merchants and reform politicians to demand rate regulations. By 1880 fourteen states had established commissions to limit freight and storage charges of state-chartered lines. In 1877, in Munn v. Illinois, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the principle of state regulation, declaring that grain warehouses owned by railroads acted in the public interest and therefore must submit to regulations for the common good.

In the late 1800s and early 1900s the number of farms had tripled from 1860-1905, from 2 million to 6 million. In the year of 1905 the number of people living on farms grew to an outstanding 31 million. The value of farms went from 8 billion in 1860; to 30 million in 1906.

In post Civil War America, farmers began using more and more machinery to plant and harvest their crops. In 1879 the centrifugal cream separator was patented. In 1885, chicken raising became a lot more profitable due to the invention of the mechanized incubator. Because of all the machines that were invented, a farmer went from being able to harvest about 7.5 acres of wheat to being able to harvest about 135 acres in the same amount of time. In short, the American farmer produced far too much for his own good.

In the 1920s, the agriculture economy in America fell on hard times. As a result of the numerous years of surplus, farming income was low and many farms did not have running water or electricity.

More problems developed for farms with the conclusion of World War I. The war had disrupted farming in Europe and the warring European nations greatly depended on American farming for food. When peace came, demand for crops like cotton and grain suddenly fell but farmers kept planting at wartime rates, so they were left without money to pay off their loans or new devices like tractors. A lot of farmers were dependent on a main crop such as cotton, but in the twenties the price of cotton also plummeted because of new man-made materials that entered the market.

URBANIZATION

With industrialization came urbanization. The increasing factory businesses created many more job opportunities in the cities. Soon people began to flock from rural and farm areas to large cities. Minorities and immigrants added to these numbers. Factory jobs were the only jobs some immigrants could get, and as more came to the cities to work, the larger the urbanization process became. In 1870 there were only two American cities with a population of more than 500,000, but by 1900 there were six, and three of these, New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia had over one million inhabitants. Roughly 40 percent of Americans lived in cities and the number was climbing. These large populations in the cities caused the crime rates to go up, and disease to rapidly spread. Not only did urbanization
cause cities to grow in population, it also caused cities to grow in building size. Skyscrapers were built in the cities and the idea of mass transit began to emerge. Mass transit systems allowed people to commute to work from further distances. This increased efficiency in transportation also allowed higher class families to move to the suburbs. The suburbs provided removal from the overcrowded city, but still gave individuals the ability to go into the city to work each day. As a result of wealthier families migrating to the suburbs, city living became populated by the lower class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>1860</th>
<th>1880</th>
<th>1900</th>
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<tr>
<td>New York City</td>
<td>1,174,800</td>
<td>1,912,000</td>
<td>3,437,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philadelphia</td>
<td>565,500</td>
<td>847,000</td>
<td>1,294,000</td>
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<td>Boston</td>
<td>177,800</td>
<td>363,000</td>
<td>561,000</td>
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<td>Baltimore</td>
<td>212,400</td>
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<td>Cincinnati</td>
<td>161,000</td>
<td>255,000</td>
<td>326,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Louis</td>
<td>160,800</td>
<td>350,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>109,300</td>
<td>503,000</td>
<td>1,698,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 1.3**
Growth of Major U.S. Cities, 1860-1900
1.2 Reconstruction in Tennessee

RECONSTRUCTION IN TENNESSEE

- Reconstruction, 1865-1875
- Reconstruction
- Reconstruction and the African-American Legacy in . . .
- Civil War and Reconstruction
- The Transition from Slavery to Freedom
- Reconstruction

CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION OF 1870

- TN Constitution History
- Constitution of the State of Tennessee
- Tennessee

YELLOW FEVER EPIDEMIC OF 1878

- First victim of Memphis yellow-fever epidemic dies
- A history of the yellow fever. The yellow fever epidemic of . . .
- Yellow Fever Epidemics
- Memphis Yellow Fever Epidemic
FIGURE 1.5
James Davis Porter (1828-1912) as a member of the 1870 Tennessee Constitutional Convention.

FIGURE 1.6
A Howard Association physician on his rounds during the Memphis yellow fever epidemic.
AFRICAN AMERICANS IN THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

- African American Legislators
- Tennessee’s African American Legislators of the ...
- African American State Legislators
- William A. Fields
- Sampson Wesley Keeble

FIGURE 1.7
Sampson W. Keeble, barber, businessman, and civic leader, became the first African-American to serve in the Tennessee General Assembly. Serving from 1873 to 1875, Keeble was appointed to the House Military Affairs Committee and the Immigration Committee. After service in the legislature, he was elected magistrate in Davidson County and served from 1877 to 1882.


1.3 Election of 1876 and the End of Reconstruction

HAYES-TILDEN ELECTION OF 1876

- The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow
- Presidential Election of 1876
- Disputed Election of 1876
- The Campaign and Election of 1876

FIGURE 1.8

"Compromise—Indeed!", Harper’s Weekly, January 27, 1876, by Thomas Nast. Nast’s cartoon is about the Electoral Commission Act passed by Congress to resolve the disputed elections in Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina. Nast represents the dissatisfaction that many Republicans, including candidate Rutherford Hayes, felt about the Electoral Commission Act: “Democrats, on the other hand, widely supported the law, feeling it a better alternative to Republican Senate president Thomas Ferry determining the votes. Republicans were more divided, with many feeling, as Nast did, that the commission would be a tool for Democratic coercion.”

RECONSTRUCTION FADES AWAY

Many Southerners, whether white or black, rich or poor, barely recognized the world in which they now lived. Wealthy whites, long-accustomed to plush plantation life and the perks of political power, now found themselves barred from voting and holding office. Their estates were in shambles. African-Americans were loathe to return to work for them. Poor white farmers now found blacks competing with them for jobs and land.

For the freed slave, Reconstruction offered a miraculous window of hope. Those born into slavery could now vote and own land. In parts of the South, blacks could ride with whites on trains and eat with them in restaurants. Schools, orphanages, and public relief projects aimed at improving the lives of blacks were emerging all over the South. Perhaps most stunning of all, African-Americans were holding political office. Blacks were becoming sheriffs and judges. They were elected to school boards and city councils. Sixteen blacks sat in Congress from 1867-77. HIRAM REVELS of Mississippi became the first African-American Senator in 1870. In December 1872 P.B.S. PINCHBACK of Louisiana became the first African-American Governor. All in all, about 600 blacks served as legislators on the local level. But as the saying goes, the more things change, the more they remain the same.
Economically, African-Americans were disadvantaged. Most had skills best suited to the plantation. By the early 1870s sharecropping became the dominant way for the poor to earn a living. Wealthy whites allowed poor whites and blacks to work land in exchange for a share of the harvest. The landlord would sometimes provide food, seed, tools, and shelter. **Sharecroppers** often found themselves in debt, for they had to borrow on bad terms and had to pay excessively for basic supplies. When the harvest came, if the debt exceeded harvest revenues, the sharecropper remained bound to the owner. In many ways, this system resembled slavery.

Many whites resented and rejected the changes taking place all about them. Taxes were high. The economy was stagnant. Corruption ran rampant. Carpetbaggers and scalawags made matters worse. **Carpetbaggers** were Northerners who saw the shattered South as a chance to get rich quickly by seizing political office now barred from the old order. After the war these Yankees hastily packed old-fashioned traveling bags, called carpetbags, and rushed south. "**Scalawags"** were southern whites, who allied themselves with the Carpetbaggers, and also took advantage of the political openings.

Out of a marriage of hatred and fear, the **Ku Klux Klan**, the **Knights of the White Camelia**, and the **White Brotherhood** were born. They are all supremacy groups who aimed at controlling African-Americans through violence and intimidation. Massacres, lynching, rape, pillaging and terror were common. In essence, these groups were paramilitary forces serving all those who wanted white supremacy. And it was not only ex-Confederate soldiers and poor whites. Ministers, merchants, military officers and other professionals donned hoods, burned crosses, and murdered those who interfered with their vision.
Emancipated blacks began finding the new world looking much like the old world. Pressure to return to plantations increased. Poll taxes, violence at the ballot box, and literacy tests kept African-Americans from voting — sidestepping the 15th Amendment.

Slavery was over. The struggle for equality had just begun.

**JIM CROW LAWS**

Although slavery was now abolished, many whites still saw themselves as better than blacks and sought out new ways to oppress them. In the 1896 Supreme Court case Plessy v. Ferguson, the Supreme Court ruled that segregation was legal as long as the institutions maintained separate-but-equal qualities. After the ruling segregation laws in the South began to pop up. Known as Jim Crow laws, they relegated blacks to sit in the back of street cars, separate public drinking fountains and toilets, and separate sections of cemeteries and hospitals. Jim Crow laws created even more of a separation and gave whites the opportunity to continue to treat African Americans as inferior.

**THE EXODUSTER MOVEMENT**

Benjamin “Pap” Singleton (1809-1892), a former slave born in Nashville, Tennessee, became the leader of the "Exoduster Movement" of 1879, and in later years he was accorded the title "Father of the Exodus." In the late 1860s, Singleton and his associates urged blacks to acquire farmland in Tennessee, but whites would not sell productive land to them. As an alternative Singleton began scouting land in Kansas in the early 1870s. Soon several black families migrated from Nashville. By 1874, Singleton and his associates had formed the Edgefield Real Estate and Homestead Association in Tennessee, which steered more than 20,000 black migrants to Kansas between 1877 and 1879. In 1880 Singleton claimed to be “the whole cause of the Kansas immigration,” in testimony before a U.S. committee on the “exodus to Kansas.”

**EMIGRANTS TRAVELING TO KANSAS**

In February of 1880, more than 900 black families from Mississippi reached St. Louis, en route to Kansas. Some black migrants sought "conductors" to make travel arrangements for them. These conductors would often ask for
money in advance and not show up at the appointed departure time, leaving migrants stranded at docks and train stations.

**EXODUSTERS EN ROUTE TO KANSAS**

At the time of the Exodus to Kansas, yellow fever ravaged many river towns in Missouri, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Because many of the black migrants who stopped over in these towns – coming by steamboat, train, or horseback – were sick, unwashed, and poverty-stricken, it was assumed by city officials that they must be potential disease carriers. This caused great alarm in such cities as St. Louis, which imposed unnecessary quarantine measures to discourage future migrants.

**PAP SINGLETON**

- PBS - THE WEST - Benjamin "Pap" Singleton
- Benjamin "Pap" Singleton
- Pap Singleton: To Kansas!
- Singleton
EXODUSTERS

- PBS - THE WEST - The Exodusters
- Exodusters - Homestead National Monument of America (U.S)
- Exodusters
- Exodusters Mark the Spot
POLITICS AND CORRUPTION OF THE GILDED AGE

Becoming **Mayor** of a big city in the Gilded Age was like walking into a cyclone. Demands swirled around city leaders. Better sewers, cleaner water, new bridges, more efficient transit, improved schools, and suitable aid to the sick and needy were some of the more common demands coming from a wide range of interest groups.

To cope with the city's problems, government officials had a limited resources and personnel. Democracy did not flourish in this environment. To bring order out of the chaos of the nation's cities, many political bosses emerged who did not shrink from corrupt deals if they could increase their power bases. The people and institutions the bosses controlled were called the **political machine**.

THE POLITICAL MACHINE

Personal politics can at once seem simple and complex. To maintain power, a boss had to keep his constituents happy. Most political bosses appealed to the newest, most desperate part of the growing populace — the immigrants. Occasionally bosses would provide relief kitchens to receive votes. Individuals who were leaders in local neighborhoods were sometimes rewarded city jobs in return for the loyalty of their constituents.

Bosses knew they also had to placate big business, and did so by rewarding them with lucrative contracts for construction of factories or public works. These industries would then pump large sums into keeping the political machine in office. It seemed simple: "You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours." However, bringing diverse interests together in a city as large as New York, Philadelphia, or Chicago required hours of legwork and great political skill.

All the activities mentioned so far seem at least semi-legitimate. The problem was that many political machines broke their own laws to suit their purposes. As contracts were awarded to legal business entities, they were likewise awarded to illegal gambling and prostitution rings. Often profits from these unlawful enterprises lined the pockets of city officials. Public tax money and bribes from the business sector increased the bank accounts of these corrupt leaders.

**Voter fraud** was widespread. Political bosses arranged to have voter lists expanded to include many phony names. In one district a four-year-old child was registered to vote. In another, a dog's name appeared on the polling lists. Members of the machine would "vote early and often," traveling from polling place to polling place to place illegal votes. One district in New York one time reported more votes than it had residents.

**Boss Tweed**

The most notorious political boss of the age was **William "Boss" Tweed** of New York's **Tammany Hall**. For twelve years, Tweed ruled New York. He gave generously to the poor and authorized the handouts of Christmas turkeys and winter coal to prospective supporters. In the process he fleeced the public out of millions of taxpayer money, which went into the coffers of Tweed and his associates.

Attention was brought to Tweed's corruption by political cartoonist **Thomas Nast**. Nast's pictures were worth more than words as many illiterate and semi-literate New Yorkers were exposed to Tweed's graft. A zealous attorney named **Samuel Tilden** convicted Tweed and his rule came to an end in 1876. Mysteriously, Tweed escaped from prison and traveled to Spain, where he was spotted by someone who recognized his face from Nast's cartoons.
He died in prison in 1878.

**GILDED AGE POLITICAL LEGACY**

The Gilded Age will be remembered for the accomplishments of thousands of American thinkers, inventors, entrepreneurs, writers, and promoters of social justice. Few politicians had an impact on the tremendous change transforming America. The Presidency was at an all-time low in power and influence, and the Congress was rife with corruption. State and city leaders shared in the graft, and the public was kept largely unaware. Much like in the colonial days, Americans were not taking their orders from the top; rather, they were building a new society from its foundation.

The American Presidents who resided in the White House from the end of the Civil War until the 1890s are sometimes called "**THE FORGETTABLE PRESIDENTS**." A case-by-case study helps illustrates this point.
ANDREW JOHNSON was so hated he was impeached and would have been removed from office were it not for a single Senate vote.

A Soldier in the White House

ULYSSES S. GRANT was a war hero but was unprepared for public office. He had not held a single elected office prior to the Presidency and was totally naive to the workings of Washington. He relied heavily on the advice of insiders who were stealing public money. His secretary of war sold Indian land to investors and pocketed public money. His private secretary worked with officials in the Treasury Department to steal money raised from the tax on whiskey.

Many members of his Administration were implicated in the CRÉDIT MOBILIER SCANDAL, which defrauded the American public of common land. Grant himself seemed above these scandals, but lacked the political skill to control his staff or replace them with officers of integrity.
Electoral Woes

Grant’s successor was RUTHERFORD B. HAYES. Hayes himself had tremendous integrity, but his Presidency was weakened by the means of his election. After the electoral votes were counted, his opponent, SAMUEL TILDEN, already claimed a majority of the popular vote and needed just one electoral vote to win. Hayes needed twenty. Precisely twenty electoral votes were in dispute because the states submitted double returns — one proclaiming Hayes the victor, the other Tilden. A Republican-biased electoral commission awarded all 20 electoral votes to the Republican Hayes, and he won by just one electoral vote.

While he was able to claim the White House, many considered his election a fraud, and his power to rule was diminished.

Assassination

JAMES GARFIELD succeeded Hayes to the Presidency. After only four months, his life was cut short by an assassin’s bullet. CHARLES GUITEAU, the killer, was so upset with Garfield for overlooking him for a political job that he shot the President in cold blood on the platform of the Baltimore and Potomac train station.

Vice-President CHESTER ARTHUR became the next leader. Although his political history was largely composed of appointments of friends, the tragedy that befell his predecessor led him to believe that the system had gone bad. He signed into law the PENDLETON CIVIL SERVICE ACT, which opened many jobs to competitive exam
rather than political connections. The Republican Party rewarded him by refusing his nomination for the Presidency in 1884.

One President impeached, one President drowning in corruption, one President elected by possible fraud, one President assassinated, and one disgraced by his own party for doing what he thought was right. Clearly this was not a good time in Presidential history.

Congressional Supremacy

This was an era of CONGRESSIONAL SUPREMACY. The REPUBLICAN PARTY dominated the Presidency and the Congress for most of these years. Both houses of Congress were full of representatives owned by big business.

Laws regulating campaigns were minimal and big money bought a government that would not interfere. Similar conditions existed in the states. City governments were dominated by political machines. Members of a small network gained power and used the public treasury to stay in power — and grow fabulously rich in the process.

Not until the dawn of the 20th century would serious attempts be made to correct the abuses of Gilded Age government.

BOSS TWEED

- Boss Tweed
- "Boss" Tweed delivered to authorities

THOMAS NAST

- Thomas Nast Biography - Facts, Birthday, Life Story
- Thomas Nast
- Thomas Nast
CREDIT MOBILIER

- The Credit Mobilier Scandal
- Crédit Mobilier - Facts & Summary - HISTORY.com

WHISKEY RING

- Grant, Babcock, and the Whiskey Ring
- Whiskey Ring

GARFIELD’S ASSASSINATION

- President James Garfield
- President James Garfield dies
- The Charles Guiteau Trial (Assassination of President James
- The Garfield Assassination
- The Stalking of the President
**PENDLETON ACT**

- Pendleton Act (1883)
- Pendleton Act
- Pendleton Act

**INTERSTATE COMMERCE ACT**

- Interstate Commerce Act (1887)
- Interstate Commerce Act
- The Interstate Commerce Act [1887] / An Act To Regulate . . .
- The Interstate Commerce Act
- Interstate Commerce Act
1.5 Settling the Western Frontier

AMERICANS EXTEND WEST

When the Native Americans were placed on reservations, one of the last barriers to western expansion was lifted. The railroad could get people where they wanted to go, and the resources of the West seemed boundless.

How did the typical Westerner make a living? Although migrant settlers had skills too numerous to mention, the most dominant Western industries were mining, ranching, and farming.

"PIKES PEAK OR BUST!" was the motto of many gold-seekers who ventured west during the 1859 COLORADO GOLD RUSH. Strikes of gold and silver were found in every western territory.

Eastern industry required lead and other precious metals. The inventions of the telephone, light bulb, and DYNAMO (a massive generator that could pump electricity directly into people’s homes) all required copper wiring. New mining techniques presented the possibility for large-scale industry to provide these necessary ores. Life in the western mining towns contributed much to the legendary lore of the American West.

Demand for beef soared after the Civil War. Learning from the Spanish Mexican tradition, cattle ranchers sought their fortunes in Southern Texas. The archetypal American cowboy was needed between 1866 and 1889 to move the steer to market. Life on the open prairies became a reality for thousands of cowhands during the American cattle boom.

By far, the most numerous of western pioneers were the farmers. Seeking a dream of stable existence working a homestead of their own, thousands of migrant families had their dreams dashed by the harsh realities of western life. Nature, isolation, politics, and economics all seemed to work against the hopeful farmer.

Soon farm issues spilled into politics as new groups and political parties formed demanding a better deal for rural America. The nation voted zealously and in larger numbers than ever before when the 1896 election proposed to shift the balance of power in America back to its agricultural roots. But it was not to be. America’s future seemed to lie in the direction of the industrial Northeast. But as the 19th century expired, millions of westerners struggled to
keep the bucolic past hitched to the present.

THE MINING BOOM

BONANZA! That was the exclamation when a large vein of valuable ore was discovered. Thousands of optimistic Americans and even a few foreigners dreamed of finding a bonanza and retiring at a very young age.

Ten years after the 1849 CALIFORNIA GOLD RUSH, new deposits were gradually found throughout the West. Colorado yielded gold and silver at PIKES PEAK in 1859 and LEADVILLE IN 1873. NEVADA claimed COMSTOCK LODE, the largest of American silver strikes.

From COEUR D'ALENE in Idaho to TOMBSTONE in Arizona, BOOM TOWNS flowered across the American West. They produced not only gold and silver, but zinc, copper, and lead, all essential for the eastern Industrial Revolution. Soon the West was filled with ne'er-do-wells hoping to strike it rich.

PROSPECTING

Few were so lucky. The chances of an individual prospector finding a valuable lode were slim indeed. The gold-seeker often worked in a stream bed. A tin pan was filled with sediment and water. After shaking, the heavier gold nuggets would sink to the bottom. Rarely was anything found of substantial size.

Once the loose chunks of gold were removed from the surface, large machinery was required to dig into the earth and to split the quartz where the elusive gold was often hidden. This was too large of an operation for an individual prospector. Eastern investors conducted these ventures and often profited handsomely. The best case scenario for the prospector was to locate a large deposit and sell the claim. Those who were not as lucky often eventually went to work in the mines of the Eastern financiers.

WESTERN MINING wrought havoc on the local environment. Rock dust from drilling was often dumped into river beds, forming silt deposits downstream that flooded towns and farmlands. Miners and farmers were often at loggerheads over the effects of one enterprise on the other. Poisonous underground gases, mostly containing sulfur, were released into the atmosphere. Removing gold from quartz required mercury, the excess of which polluted local streams and rivers. Strip mining caused erosion and further desertification. Little was done to regulate the mining industry until the turn of the 20th century.

LIFE IN A MINING TOWN

Each mining bonanza required a town. Many towns had as high as a 9-to-1 male-to-female ratio. The ethnic diversity was great. Mexican immigrants were common. Native Americans avoided the mining industry, but mestizos, the offspring of Mexican and Native American parents, often participated. Many African Americans aspired to the same get-rich-quick idea as whites. Until excluded by federal law in 1882, Chinese Americans were numerous in mining towns.

The ethnic patchwork was intricate, but the socio-economic ladder was clearly defined. Whites owned and managed all of the mines. Poor whites, Mexicans and Chinese Americans worked the mine shafts. A few African Americans joined them, but many worked in the service sector as cooks or artisans.

It is these mining towns that often conjure images of the mythical American Wild West. Most did have a saloon (or several) with swinging doors and a player piano. But miners and prospectors worked all day; few had the luxury of spending it at the bar. By nighttime, most were too tired to carouse. Weekends might bring folks out to the saloon for gambling or drinking, to engage in the occasional bar fight, or even to hire a prostitute.

Law enforcement was crude. Many towns could not afford a sheriff, so vigilante justice prevailed. Occasionally a posse, or hunting party, would be raised to capture a particularly nettlesome miscreant.

When the bonanza was at its zenith, the town prospered. But eventually the mines were exhausted or proved fruitless. Slowly its inhabitants would leave, leaving behind nothing but a ghost town.
LIFE ON THE FARM

A homestead at last! Many eastern families who longed for the opportunity to own and farm a plot of land of their own were able to realize their dreams when Congress passed the **Homestead Act** in 1862. That landmark piece of legislation provided 160 acres free to any family who lived on the land for five years and made improvements. The same amount could be obtained instantly for the paltry sum of $1.25 per acre.

Combined with the completed transcontinental railroad, it was now possible for an easterner yearning for the open space of the West to make it happen. Unfortunately, the lives they found were fraught with hardship.

MONEY PROBLEMS

There were tremendous economic difficulties associated with Western farm life. First and foremost was overproduction. Because the amount of land under cultivation increased dramatically and new farming techniques produced greater and greater yields, the food market became so flooded with goods that prices fell sharply. While this might be great for the consumer, the farmer had to grow a tremendous amount of food to recoup enough profits to survive the winter.

New machinery and fertilizer was needed to farm on a large scale. Often farmers borrowed money to purchase this equipment, leaving themselves hopelessly in debt when the harvest came. The high tariff forced them to pay higher prices for household goods for their families, while the goods they themselves sold were unprotected.

The railroads also fleeced the small farmer. Farmers were often charged higher rates to ship their goods a short distance than a manufacturer would pay to transport wares a great distance.

A HARSH AND ISOLATING ENVIRONMENT

The woes faced by farmers transcended economics. Nature was unkind in many parts of the Great Plains. Blistering summers and cruel winters were commonplace. Frequent drought spells made farming even more difficult. Insect blights raged through some regions, eating further into the farmers’ profits.

Farmers lacked political power. Washington was a long way from the Great Plains, and politicians seemed to turn deaf ears to the farmers’ cries. Social problems were also prevalent. With each neighbor on 160-acre plots of land, communication was difficult and loneliness was widespread.

Farm life proved monotonous compared with the bustling cities of the East. Although rural families were now able to purchase **mail-order products** through catalogs such as **Sears and Roebuck’s** and **Montgomery Ward**, there was simply no comparison with what the Eastern market could provide.

These conditions could not last. Out of this social and economic unrest, farmers began to organize and make demands that would rock the Eastern establishment.

FARMERS ORGANIZE

Organization was inevitable. Like the oppressed laboring classes of the East, it was only a matter of time before Western farmers would attempt to use their numbers to effect positive change.

In 1867, the first such national organization was formed. Led by **Oliver Kelley**, the **Patrons of Husbandry**, also known as the **Grange**, organized to address the social isolation of farm life. Like other **secret societies**, such as the **Masons**, **Grangers** had local chapters with secret passwords and rituals.

The local Grange sponsored dances and gatherings to attack the doldrums of daily life. It was only natural that politics and economics were discussed in these settings, and the Grangers soon realized that their individual problems were common.
Identifying the railroads as the chief villains, Grangers lobbied state legislatures for regulation of the industry. By 1874, several states passed the **GRANGER LAWS**, establishing maximum shipping rates. Grangers also pooled their resources to buy grain elevators of their own so that members could enjoy a break on grain storage.

**FARMERS’ ALLIANCES** went one step further. Beginning in 1889, **NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN FARMERS’ ALLIANCES** championed the same issues as the Grangers, but also entered the political arena. Members of these alliances won seats in state legislatures across the Great Plains to strengthen the agrarian voice in politics.

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**FIGURE 1.21**

An 1873 promotional poster for the National Grange. Notice the incorporation of various scenes depicting the cooperation of neighbors, harmonious family life, and the bountiful harvest provided by the Grange member.

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**CREATING INFLATION**

What did all the farmers seem to have in common? The answer was simple: debt. Looking for solutions to this condition, farmers began to attack the nation’s monetary system. As of 1873, Congress declared that all federal money must be backed by gold. This limited the nation’s money supply and benefited the wealthy.

The farmers wanted to create **INFLATION**. Inflation actually helps debtors. If a farmer owes $3,000 and can earn $1 for every bushel of wheat sold at harvest, he needs to sell 3,000 bushels to pay off the debt. If inflation could push the price of a bushel of wheat up to $3, he needs to sell only 1,000 bushels. The economics are simple.

To create inflation, farmers suggested that the money supply be expanded to include dollars not backed by gold. The first strategy farmers attempted was to encourage Congress to print **GREENBACK DOLLARS** like the ones issued during the Civil War. Since the greenbacks were not backed by gold, more dollars could be printed, creating an inflationary effect.
The **GREENBACK PARTY** and the **GREENBACK-LABOR PARTY** each ran candidates for President in 1876, 1880, and 1884 under this platform. No candidate was able to muster national support for the idea, and soon farmers chose another strategy.

Inflation could also be created by printing money that was backed by silver as well as gold. This idea was more popular because people were more confident in their money if they knew it was backed by something of value. Also, America had a tradition of coining **SILVER MONEY** until 1873.

**BIRTH OF POPULISTS**

Out of the ashes of the Greenback-Labor Party grew the **POPULIST PARTY**. In addition to demanding the free coinage of silver, the **POPULISTS** called for a host of other reforms. They demanded a graduated income tax, whereby individuals earning a higher income paid a higher percentage in taxes.

They wanted political reforms as well. At this point, United States Senators were still not elected by the people directly; they were instead chosen by state legislatures. The Populists demanded a constitutional amendment allowing for the direct election of Senators.

They demanded democratic reforms such as the initiative, where citizens could directly introduce debate on a topic in the legislatures. The referendum would allow citizens — rather than their representatives — to vote a bill. Recall would allow the people to end an elected official’s term before it expired. They also called for the secret ballot and a one-term limit for the President.

In 1892, the Populists ran **JAMES WEAVER** for President on this ambitious platform. He polled over a million popular votes and 22 electoral votes. Although he came far short of victory, Populist ideas were now being discussed at the national level. When the Panic of 1893 hit the following year, an increased number of unemployed and dispossessed Americans gave momentum to the Populist movement. A great showdown was in place for 1896.

**THE ELECTION OF 1896**

Everything seemed to be falling into place for the Populists. James Weaver made an impressive showing in 1892, and now Populist ideas were being discussed across the nation. The Panic of 1893 was the worst financial crisis to date in American history. As the soup lines grew larger, so did voters’ anger at the present system.

When **JACOB S. COXEY** of Ohio marched his 200 supporters into the nation’s capital to demand reforms in the spring of 1894, many thought a revolution was brewing. The climate seemed to ache for change. All that the Populists needed was a winning Presidential candidate in 1896.

**THE BOY ORATOR**

Ironically, the person who defended the Populist platform that year came from the Democratic Party. **WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN** was the unlikely candidate. An attorney from Lincoln, Nebraska, Bryan’s speaking skills were among the best of his generation. Known as the "**GREAT COMMONER**," Bryan quickly developed a reputation as defender of the farmer.

When Populist ideas began to spread, Democratic voters of the South and West gave enthusiastic endorsement. At the Chicago Democratic convention in 1896, Bryan delivered a speech that made his career. Demanding the free coinage of silver, Bryan shouted, "You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold!" Thousands of delegates roared their approval, and at the age of thirty-six, the "**BOY ORATOR**" received the Democratic nomination.

Faced with a difficult choice between surrendering their identity and hurting their own cause, the Populist Party also nominated Bryan as their candidate.
1.5. Settling the Western Frontier

A political cartoon showing William Jennings Bryan who backed the idea of free silver on a one dollar bill. The bill bearing the image of his opponent William McKinley, a defender of the gold standard, is worth almost twice as much as Bryan’s money. The intended message was that the idea of free silver would cause economic instability. The slogans “We Want No Change” and “Four More Years of the Full Dinner Pail” were meant to support the status quo and the reelection of William McKinley.

William Jennings Bryan - Democratic presidential candidate of 1896. Bryan, a gifted orator, was famous for his "Cross of Gold" speech advocating Free Silver.

THE STAY-AT-HOME CANDIDATE

The Republican competitor was WILLIAM MCKINLEY, the governor of Ohio. He had the support of the moneymaking eastern establishment. Behind the scenes, a wealthy Cleveland industrialist named MARC HANNA was determined to see McKinley elected. He, like many of his class, believed that the free coinage of silver would bring financial ruin to America.

Using his vast wealth and power, Hanna directed a campaign based on fear of a Bryan victory. McKinley campaigned
from his home, leaving the politicking for the party hacks. Bryan revolutionized campaign politics by launching a nationwide WHISTLE-STOP effort, making twenty to thirty speeches per day.

When the results were finally tallied, McKinley had beaten Bryan by an electoral vote margin of 271 to 176.

![William McKinley, the Republican Candidate in 1896](image)

**FIGURE 1.24**
William McKinley, the Republican Candidate in 1896

**UNDERSTANDING 1896**

Many factors led to Bryan’s defeat. He was unable to win a single state in the populous Northeast. Laborers feared the free silver idea as much as their bosses. While inflation would help the debt-ridden, mortgage-paying farmers, it could hurt the wage-earning, rent-paying factory workers. In a sense, the election came down to city versus country. By 1896, the urban forces won. Bryan’s campaign marked the last time a major party attempted to win the White House by exclusively courting the rural vote.

The economy of 1896 was also on the upswing. Had the election occurred in the heart of the Panic of 1893, the results may have differed. Farm prices were rising in 1896, albeit slowly. The Populist Party fell apart with Bryan’s loss. Although they continued to nominate candidates, most of their membership had reverted to the major parties.

The ideas, however, did endure. Although the free silver issue died, the graduated income tax, direct election of senators, initiative, referendum, recall, and the secret ballot were all later enacted. These issues were kept alive by the next standard bearers of reform — the PROGRESSIVES.

**SHERMAN SILVER PURCHASE ACT OF 1890**

- Grover Cleveland, Message on the repeal of the Sherman ...

**WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN’S CROSS OF GOLD SPEECH**

- Bryan’s “Cross of Gold” Speech: Mesmerizing the Masses
- William Jennings Bryan Cross of Gold Speech July 8, 1896
- William Jennings Bryan Cross Gold Speech
1.6 Entrepreneurs and Business Leaders Bring Changes to American Life

HENRY BESSEMER

- Lemelson-MIT Program
- Henry Bessemer
- Henry Bessemer Biography

GEORGE PULLMAN

- American Experience | Chicago: City of the Century | People ...
- George Mortimer Pullman
- George Pullman: His Impact on the Railroad Industry, Labor ...

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL

- Alexander Graham Bell Biography - Facts, Birthday, Life Story
- Alexander Graham Bell - Inventions - HISTORY.com
- Alexander Graham Bell
- Alexander Graham Bell Family Papers: Home
FIGURE 1.27
George Pullman

FIGURE 1.28
Pullman Palace Car Co. Sleeping Car

FIGURE 1.29
Alexander Graham Bell

FIGURE 1.30
Bell's First Telephone
Oil was not the only commodity in great demand during the Gilded Age. The nation also needed steel. The railroads needed steel for their rails and cars, the navy needed steel for its new naval fleet, and cities needed steel to build skyscrapers. Every factory in America needed steel for their physical plant and machinery. Andrew Carnegie saw this demand and seized the moment.

HUMBLE ROOTS

Like John Rockefeller, ANDREW CARNEGIE was not born into wealth. When he was 13, his family came to the United States from Scotland and settled in Allegheny, Pennsylvania, a small town near Pittsburgh. His first job was in a cotton mill, where he earned $1.20 per week.

His talents were soon recognized and Carnegie found himself promoted to the bookkeeping side of the business. An avid reader, Carnegie spent his Saturdays in the homes of wealthy citizens who were gracious enough to allow him access to their private libraries. After becoming a telegrapher for a short while, he met the head of a railroad company who asked his services as a personal secretary.

During the Civil War, this man, THOMAS SCOTT, was sent to Washington to operate transportation for the Union Army. Carnegie spent his war days helping the soldiers get where they needed to be and by helping the wounded get to hospitals. By this time, he had amassed a small sum of money, which he quickly invested. Soon iron and steel caught his attention, and he was on his way to creating the largest steel company in the world.

VERTICAL INTEGRATION: MOVING ON UP

When WILLIAM KELLY and HENRY BESSEMER perfected a process to convert iron to steel cheaply and efficiently, the industry was soon to blossom.

Carnegie became a tycoon because of shrewd business tactics. Rockefeller often bought other oil companies to
eliminate competition. This is a process known as **HORIZONTAL INTEGRATION**. Carnegie also created a **VERTICAL COMBINATION**, an idea first implemented by **GUSTAVUS SWIFT**. He bought railroad companies and iron mines. If he owned the rails and the mines, he could reduce his costs and produce cheaper steel.

Carnegie was a good judge of talent. His assistant, **HENRY CLAY FRICK**, helped manage the **CARNegie STEEL COMPANY** on its way to success. Carnegie also wanted productive workers. He wanted them to feel that they had a vested interest in company prosperity so he initiated a profit-sharing plan.

All these tactics made the Carnegie Steel Company a multi-million dollar corporation. In 1901, he sold his interests to J.P. Morgan, who paid him 500 million dollars to create U.S. Steel.

**Giving Back**

Retirement did not take him out of the public sphere. Before his death he donated more than $350 million dollars to public foundations. Remembering the difficulty of finding suitable books as a youth, he helped build three thousand libraries. He built schools such as **CARNegie-MELLON UNIVERSITY** and gave his money for artistic pursuits such as **CARNegie HALL** in New York.

Andrew Carnegie was also dedicated to peace initiatives throughout the world because of his passionate hatred for war. Like Rockefeller, critics labeled him a robber baron who could have used his vast fortunes to increase the wages of his employees. Carnegie believed that such spending was wasteful and temporary, but foundations would last forever. Regardless, he helped build an empire that led the United States to world power status.

**FIGURE 1.32**
The Ohio Works of the Carnegie Steel Company in Youngstown, Ohio, 1910.

**THOMAS EDISON**

People often say Edison was a genius. He answered, "Genius is hard work, stick-to-it-leness, and common sense."

Thomas Alva Edison was born February 11, 1847 in Milan, Ohio (pronounced MY-lan). In 1854, when he was seven, the family moved to Michigan, where Edison spent the rest of his childhood.

"Al," as he was called as a boy, went to school only a short time. He did so poorly that his mother, a former teacher, taught her son at home. Al learned to love reading, a habit he kept for the rest of his life. He also liked to make
1.6. Entrepreneurs and Business Leaders Bring Changes to American Life

Al not only played hard, but also worked hard. At the age of 12 he sold fruit, snacks and newspapers on a train as a "news butcher." (Trains were the newest way to travel, cutting through the American wilderness.) He even printed his own newspaper, the Grand Trunk Herald, on a moving train.

At 15, Al roamed the country as a "tramp telegrapher." Using a kind of alphabet called Morse Code, he sent and received messages over the telegraph. Even though he was already losing his hearing, he could still hear the clicks of the telegraph. In the next seven years he moved over a dozen times, often working all night, taking messages for trains and even for the Union Army during the Civil War. In his spare time, he took things apart to see how they worked. Finally, he decided to invent things himself.

After the failure of his first invention, the electric vote recorder, Edison moved to New York City. There he improved the way the stock ticker worked. This was his big break. By 1870 his company was manufacturing his stock ticker in Newark, New Jersey. He also improved the telegraph, making it send up to four messages at once.

During this time he married his first wife, Mary Stilwell, on Christmas Day, 1871. They had three children – Marion, Thomas, Jr., and William. Wanting a quieter spot to do more inventing, Edison moved from Newark to Menlo Park, New Jersey, in 1876. There he built his most famous laboratory.

He was not alone in Menlo Park. Edison hired "muckers" to help him out. These "muckers" came from all over the world to make their fortune in America. They often stayed up all night working with the "chief mucker," Edison himself. He is sometime called the "Wizard of Menlo Park" because he created two of his three greatest works there.

The phonograph was the first machine that could record the sound of someone’s voice and play it back. In 1877, Edison recorded the first words on a piece of tin foil. He recited the nursery rhyme "Mary Had a Little Lamb," and the phonograph played the words back to him. This was invented by a man whose hearing was so poor that he thought of himself as "deaf"!

Starting in 1878, Edison and the muckers worked on one of his greatest achievements. The electric light system was more than just the incandescent lamp, or "light bulb." Edison also designed a system of power plants that make the electrical power and the wiring that brings it to people’s homes. Imagine all the things you "plug in." What would your life be like without them?

In 1885, one year after his first wife died, Edison met a 20-year-old woman named Mina Miller. Her father was an inventor in Edison’s home state of Ohio. Edison taught her Morse Code. Even when others were around, the couple could "talk" to each other secretly. One day he tapped a question into her hand: would she marry him? She tapped back the word "yes."

Mina Edison wanted a home in the country, so Edison bought Glenmont, a 29-room home with 13-1/2 acres of land in West Orange, New Jersey. They married on February 24, 1886 and had three children: Madeleine, Charles and Theodore.

A year later, Edison built a laboratory in West Orange that was ten times larger than the one in Menlo Park. In fact, it was one of the largest laboratories in the world, almost as famous as Edison himself. Well into the night, laboratory buildings glowed with electric light while the Wizard and his "muckers" turned Edison’s dreams into inventions. Once, the "chief mucker" worked for three days straight, taking only short naps. Edison earned half of his 1,093 patents in West Orange.

But Edison did more than invent. Here Edison could think of ways to make a better phonograph, for example, build it with his muckers, have them test it and make it work, then manufacture it in the factories that surrounded his laboratory. This improved phonograph could then be sold throughout the world.

Not only did Edison improve the phonograph several times, but he also worked on X-rays, storage batteries, and the first talking doll. At West Orange he also worked on one of his greatest ideas: motion pictures, or "movies." The inventions made here changed the way we live even today. He worked here until his death on October 18, 1931, at the age of 84.

By that time, everyone had heard of the "Wizard" and looked up to him. The whole world called him a genius. But
he knew that having a good idea was not enough. It takes hard work to make dreams into reality. That is why Edison liked to say, "Genius is 1% inspiration and 99% perspiration."

- Thomas Edison Biography - Facts, Birthday, Life Story
- Thomas Alva Edison Biography
- Thomas Edison’s biography :: Edison Invents!
- Edison: The Life of Thomas A. Edison

J.P. MORGAN

Not all of the tycoons of the Gilded Age were rags-to-riches stories. **J. PIERPONT MORGAN** was born into a family of great wealth. His father had already made a name for himself in the banking industry. With Morgan’s family resources, he enjoyed the finest business education money could buy.

He did not scratch and claw his way to the top of any corporate ladder. His father arranged for an executive track position at one of New York’s finest banks. Regardless of his family’s advantages, Morgan had a great mind of his own. He set out to conquer the financial world, and conquer it he did.
MORGAN THE BANKER

Morgan’s first business ventures were in banking. By 1860, he had already established his own foreign exchange office. He knew the power of investment. Not content to control just the banking industry, he bought many smaller ventures to make money.

During the Civil War, he paid the legally allowed fee to purchase a substitute soldier and evaded military service. Morgan made handsome profits by providing war materials. One of his enterprises sold defective rifles to the Union army. Upon later investigations, he was declared ignorant of the poor quality of his guns and was cleared of all charges.

After the war, he set out to corner the nation’s financial markets. When the Panic of 1873 rocked the nation’s economy, Morgan protected himself wisely and emerged in the aftermath as the king of American finance.

Despite his label as a robber baron, Morgan felt his investments benefited America. His railroad dealings helped consolidate many smaller, mismanaged firms, resulting in shorter trips and more dependable service. Two times during financial panics he allowed the federal government to purchase his vast gold supplies to stop the spiral of deflation.

He owned a bridge company and a tubing company. His most renowned purchase was in 1901, when he bought the Carnegie Steel Company for $500 million to create U.S. Steel. Within ten years U.S. Steel was worth over a billion dollars.

Morgan’s actions marked a shift in thinking among American industrialists. He proved that it was not necessary to be a builder to be successful. Smart investment and efficient consolidation could yield massive profits. Young ENTREPRENEURS shifted their goals to banking in the hopes of mirroring Morgan’s success.

TROUBLE WITH THE GOVERNMENT

For all his accomplishments, he was harshly criticized. The first decade of the twentieth century brought challenges to Morgan from the government. His NORTHERN SECURITIES RAILROAD company was deemed illegal under federal ANTITRUST LAW, the first such action by the national government. He was investigated by Congress for his control of the financial markets. Even U.S. Steel was forced to relinquish its MONOPOLY.

Jaded by the criticism, Morgan moved to Europe, where he lived his final days. He was a favorite target of intellectuals who claimed that such tycoons robbed the poor of their deserved wealth. He was a hero to enterprising financiers across the land who dreamed of following his example. That is, of course, unless they were destroyed by his shrewd, fierce tactics.
JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER

He was America’s first billionaire.

In a pure sense, the goal of any capitalist is to make money. And JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER could serve as the poster child for CAPITALISM. Overcoming humble beginnings, Rockefeller had the vision and the drive to become the richest person in America.

At the turn of the century, when the average worker earned $8 to $10 per week, Rockefeller was worth millions.

ROBBER BARON OR CAPTAIN OF INDUSTRY?

What was his secret? Is he to be placed on a pedestal for others as a "CAPTAIN OF INDUSTRY"? Or should he be demonized as a "robber baron." A ROBBER BARON, by definition, was an American capitalist at the turn of the 19th century who enriched himself upon the sweat of others, exploited natural resources, or possessed unfair government influence.

Whatever conclusions can be drawn, Rockefeller’s impact on the American economy demands recognition.

Rockefeller was born in 1839 in Moravia, a small town in western New York. His father practiced herbal medicine, professing to cure patients with remedies he had created from plants in the area. John’s mother instilled a devout Baptist faith in the boy, a belief system he took to his grave. After being graduated from high school in 1855, the family sent him to a Cleveland business school.

Young John Rockefeller entered the workforce on the bottom rung of the ladder as a clerk in a Cleveland shipping firm. Always thrifty, he saved enough money to start his own business in produce sales. When the Civil War came, the demand for his goods increased dramatically, and Rockefeller found himself amassing a small fortune.

He took advantage of the loophole in the Union draft law by purchasing a substitute to avoid military service. When EDWIN DRAKE discovered oil in 1859 in Titusville, Pennsylvania, Rockefeller saw the future. He slowly sold off his other interests and became convinced that refining oil would bring him great wealth.

WASTE NOT….

Rockefeller introduced techniques that totally reshaped the OIL INDUSTRY. In the mid-19th century, the chief demand was for kerosene. In the refining process, there are many by-products when CRUDE OIL is converted to
KEROSENE. What others saw as waste, Rockefeller saw as gold. He sold one byproduct paraffin to candlemakers and another byproduct petroleum jelly to medical supply companies. He even sold off other "waste" as paving materials for roads. He shipped so many goods that railroad companies drooled over the prospect of getting his business.

Rockefeller demanded REBATES, or discounted rates, from the railroads. He used all these methods to reduce the price of oil to his consumers. His profits soared and his competitors were crushed one by one. Rockefeller forced smaller companies to surrender their stock to his control.

STANDARD OIL - A TRUSTWORTHY COMPANY?

This sort of arrangement is called a trust. A TRUST is a combination of firms formed by legal agreement. Trusts often reduce fair business competition. As a result of Rockefeller’s shrewd business practices, his large corporation, the STANDARD OIL COMPANY, became the largest business in the land.

As the new century dawned, Rockefeller’s investments mushroomed. With the advent of the automobile, gasoline replaced kerosene as the number one petroleum product. Rockefeller was a bona fide billionaire. Critics charged that his labor practices were unfair. Employees pointed out that he could have paid his workers a fairer wage and settled for being a half-billionaire.

Before his death in 1937, Rockefeller gave away nearly half of his fortune. Churches, medical foundations, universities, and centers for the arts received hefty sums of oil money. Whether he was driven by good will, conscience, or his devout faith in God is unknown. Regardless, he became a hero to many enterprising Americans.

FIGURE 1.38
John D. Rockefeller, of Standard Oil, as Emperor. Puck magazine, 1901, Artist unknown

SWIFT AND ARMOUR

- A Bio. of America: Industrial Supremacy - Transcript
- American Experience | Chicago: City of the Century | People . . .
- Meatpacking
FIGURE 1.39
Swift's Refrigerated Railroad Car

FIGURE 1.40
A Chicago stockyard with the Armour and Swift meatpacking plants in the distance.

CORNELIUS VANDERBILT

FIGURE 1.41
At age 12, with $100 in borrowed money, "Commodore" Cornelius Vanderbilt began building a shipping and railroad empire. He died the richest man in America.

- Cornelius Vanderbilt - Facts & Summary - HISTORY.com
- Cornelius Vanderbilt
- Cornelius Vanderbilt Biography - Facts, Birthday, Life Story
- Vanderbilt Mansion National Historic Site–Reading 1
The AGE OF INDUSTRY brought tremendous change to America. Perhaps the single greatest impact of industrialization on the growing nation was urbanization. THOMAS JEFFERSON had once idealized America as a land of small, independent farmers who became educated enough to participate in a republic. That notion was forever a part of history.

As large farms and improved technology displaced the small farmer, a new demand grew for labor in the American economy. Factories spread rapidly across the nation, but they did not spread evenly. Most were concentrated in urban areas, particularly in the Northeast, around the Great Lakes, and on the West Coast. And so the American workforce began to migrate from the countryside to the city.
The speed with which American cities expanded was shocking. About 1/6 of the American population lived in urban areas in 1860. **URBAN** was defined as population centers consisting of at least 8000 people, only a modest-sized town by modern standards. By 1900 that ratio grew to a third. In just 40 years the urban population increased four times, while the rural population doubled. In 1900, an American was twenty times more likely to move from the farm to the city than vice-versa. The 1920 census declared that for the first time, a majority of Americans lived in the city.

**THE BEST AND WORST OF AMERICAN LIFE**

These new cities represented both the best and the worst of American life. Never before in American history had such a large number of Americans lived so close to each other. The ease with which these people could share ideas was never greater. Although these cities produced many products, they were also a huge market. Now, in one small area, citizens could enjoy better and cheaper products. **TECHNOLOGY** created possibilities as the skyscraper changed the skyline, and electric cars and trolleys decreased commuting time. The light bulb and the telephone transformed every home and business.

There was also a darker side. Beneath the magnificent skylines lay slums of abject poverty. Immigrant neighborhoods struggled to realize the American dream. Overcrowding, disease, and crime plagued many urban communities. Pollution and sewage plagued the new metropolitan centers. Corruption in local leadership often blocked needed improvements.

American values were changing as a result. Urban dwellers sought new faiths to cope with new realities. Relations between men and women, and between adults and children also changed. As the 20th century approached, American ways of life were not necessarily better or worse than before. But they surely were different.

**SEEING, TALKING, SHOPPING, AND MOVING**

Few inventions allowed humans to challenge nature more than the light bulb. No longer dependent on the rising and setting of the sun, city dwellers, with their ample supply of **ELECTRICITY**, could now enjoy a night life that candles simply could not provide. Developed by **THOMAS EDISON** in 1879, urban areas consumed them at a staggering rate.

**ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL** added a new dimension to communications with his **TELEPHONE** in 1876. The implications for the business world were staggering, as the volume of trade skyrocketed with faster communications. In addition to the telephone, many urban denizens enjoyed electric fans, electric sewing machines, and electric irons by 1900.

The farm could not compete. Most of these new conveniences were confined to the cities because of the difficulties of sending electric power to isolated areas. Indoor plumbing and improved sewage networks added a new dimension of comfort to city life. Department stores such as **WOOLWORTH'S**, **JOHN WANAMKER'S**, and **MARSHALL FIELD'S** provided a large variety of new merchandise of better quality and cheaper than ever before.

People could reach their destinations faster and faster because of new methods of mass transit. **CABLE CARS** were operational in cities such as San Francisco and Chicago by the mid-1880s. Boston completed the nation’s first underground **SUBWAY** system in 1897. Middle-class Americans could now afford to live farther from a city’s core. Bridges such as the **BROOKLYN BRIDGE** and improved regional transit lines fueled this trend.

The modern American city was truly born in the Gilded Age. The bright lights, tall buildings, material goods, and fast pace of urban life emerged as America moved into the 20th century. However, the marvelous horizon of urban opportunity was not accessible to all. Beneath the glamour and glitz lay social problems previously unseen in the United States.
1.7. Emergence of the American City

FIGURE 1.43
New York City’s Woolworth Building, known as the “Cathedral of Commerce” was completed in 1913 and designed by Cass Gilbert. It was the tallest building in the world until 1930.
FIGURE 1.44

Bridges such as the Brooklyn Bridge permitted middle-class Americans to work farther from home.
POLITICAL CARTOONS

FIGURE 1.45
Political cartoons sometimes played on Americans’ fears of immigrants. This one, which appeared in a 1896 edition of the Ram's Horn, depicts an immigrant carrying his baggage of poverty, disease, anarchy and sabbath desecration, approaching Uncle Sam.

- Political Cartoon Analysis
- Gilded Age Cartoons
In this Thomas Nast political cartoon you can see Boss Tweed ready to have a donkey head titled “Tweed’s Status” placed on his head. Tweed rejects it saying he is not lacking common-sense.
1.8. Political Cartoons of the Gilded Age

**FIGURE 1.47**

Boss Tweed. The Tweed Ring

**FIGURE 1.48**

Boss Tweed. The Tweed Ring
FIGURE 1.49
Drawn by Joseph Keppler - a prominent Populist cartoonist for Puck, this 1889 political cartoon attracts attention to the gross power of industrial lobbies over the Senate.

FIGURE 1.50
1896 Judge cartoon shows William Jennings Bryan/Populism as a snake swallowing up the mule representing the Democratic party.
IMMIGRATION was nothing new to America. Except for Native Americans, all United States citizens can claim some immigrant experience, whether during prosperity or despair, brought by force or by choice. However, immigration to the United States reached its peak from 1880-1920. The so-called "OLD IMMIGRATION" brought thousands of Irish and German people to the New World.

This time, although those groups would continue to come, even greater ethnic diversity would grace America’s populace. Many would come from Southern and Eastern Europe, and some would come from as far away as Asia. New complexions, new languages, and new religions confronted the already diverse American mosaic.

Most immigrant groups that had formerly come to America by choice seemed distinct, but in fact had many similarities. Most had come from Northern and Western Europe. Most had some experience with representative democracy. With the exception of the Irish, most were PROTESTANT. Many were literate, and some possessed a fair degree of wealth.

The vast majority were ROMAN CATHOLIC or EASTERN ORTHODOX. However, due to increased persecution of JEWS in Eastern Europe, many Jewish immigrants sought freedom from torment. Very few newcomers spoke any English, and large numbers were illiterate in their native tongues. None of these groups hailed from democratic regimes. The American form of government was as foreign as its culture.

The new American cities became the destination of many of the most destitute. Once the trend was established, letters from America from friends and family beckoned new immigrants to ethnic enclaves such as CHINATOWN, GREEKTOWN, or LITTLE ITALY. This led to an urban ethnic patchwork, with little integration. The dumbbell tenement and all of its woes became the reality for most newcomers until enough could be saved for an upward move.

Despite the horrors of tenement housing and factory work, many agreed that the wages they could earn and the food they could eat surpassed their former realities. Still, as many as 25% of the European immigrants of this time never intended to become American citizens. These so-called "BIRDS OF PASSAGE" simply earned enough income to send to their families and returned to their former lives.

Not all Americans welcomed the new immigrants with open arms. While factory owners greeted the rush of cheap labor with zeal, laborers often treated their new competition with hostility. Many religious leaders were awestruck at the increase of non-Protestant believers. RACIAL PURISTS feared the genetic outcome of the eventual pooling of these new bloods.

Gradually, these "NATIVISTS" lobbied successfully to restrict the flow of immigration. In 1882, Congress passed
the CHINESE EXCLUSION ACT, barring this ethnic group in its entirety. Twenty-five years later, Japanese immigration was restricted by executive agreement. These two Asian groups were the only ethnicities to be completely excluded from America.

Criminals, contract workers, the mentally ill, anarchists, and alcoholics were among groups to be gradually barred from entry by Congress. In 1917, Congress required the passing of a literacy test to gain admission. Finally, in 1924, the door was shut to millions by placing an absolute cap on new immigrants based on ethnicity. That cap was based on the United States population of 1890 and was therefore designed to favor the previous immigrant groups.

But millions had already come. During the age when the STATUE OF LIBERTY beckoned the world’s "huddled masses yearning to breathe free,” American diversity mushroomed. Each brought pieces of an old culture and made contributions to a new one. Although many former Europeans swore to their deaths to maintain their old ways of life, their children did not agree. Most enjoyed a higher standard of living than their parents, learned English easily, and sought American lifestyles. At least to that extent, America was a MELTING POT.

THE UNDERSIDE OF URBAN LIFE

Lights, trolleys, skyscrapers, romance, action. These were among the first words to enter the minds of Americans when contemplating the new urban lifestyle. While American cities allowed many middle- and upper-class Americans to live a glamorous lifestyle, this was simply a fantasy to many poorer urban dwellers. Slums, crime, overcrowding, pollution, disease. These words more accurately described daily realities for millions of urban Americans.

TENEMENTS

Much of the urban poor, including a majority of incoming immigrants, lived in tenement housing. If the skyscraper was the jewel of the American city, the tenement was its boil. In 1878, a publication offered $500 to the architect who could provide the best design for MASS-HOUSING. JAMES E. WARE won the contest with his plan for a DUMBBELL TENEMENT. This structure was thinner in the center than on its extremes to allow light to enter the building, no matter how tightly packed the tenements may be. Unfortunately, these "vents" were often filled with garbage. The air that managed to penetrate also allowed a fire to spread from one tenement to the next more easily.

Because of the massive overcrowding, disease was widespread. CHOLERA and YELLOW-FEVER epidemics swept through the slums on a regular basis. TUBERCULOSIS was a huge killer. Infants suffered the most. Almost 25% of babies born in late-19th century cities died before reaching the age of one.

THE STENCH OF WASTE, THE STENCH OF CRIME

The cities stank. The air stank, the rivers stank, the people stank. Although public sewers were improving, disposing of human waste was increasingly a problem. People used private cesspools, which overflowed with a long, hard rain. Old sewage pipes dumped the waste directly into the rivers or bays. These rivers were often the very same used as water sources.

Trash collection had not yet been systemized. Trash was dumped in the streets or in the waterways. Better sewers, water purification, and trash removal were some of the most pressing problems for city leadership. As the 20th century dawned, many improvements were made, but the cities were far from sanitary.

POVERTY often breeds crime. Desperate people will often resort to theft or violence to put food on the family table when the factory wages would not suffice. Youths who dreaded a life of monotonous factory work and pauperism sometimes roamed the streets in GANGS. VICES such as gambling, prostitution, and alcoholism were widespread. Gambling rendered the hope of getting rich quick. Prostitution provided additional income. Alcoholism furnished a false means of escape. City police forces were often understaffed and underpaid, so those with wealth could buy a better slice of justice.
The glamour of American cities was real indeed. As real was the sheer destitution of its slums. Both worlds — plenty and poverty — existed side by side. As the 20th century began, the plight of the urban poor was heard by more and more reformers, and meaningful change finally arrived.

THE WORK OF JANE ADDAMS

The Protestant churches of America feared the worst. Although the population of America was growing by leaps and bounds, there were many empty seats in the pews of urban Protestant churches. Middle-class churchgoers were ever faithful, but large numbers of workers were starting to lose faith in the local church. The old-style heaven and hell sermons just seemed irrelevant to those who toiled long, long hours for small, small wages.

Immigration swelled the ranks of Roman Catholic churches. Eastern Orthodox churches and Jewish synagogues were sprouting up everywhere. At the same time, many cities reported the loss of Protestant congregations. They would have to face this challenge or perish.

PREACHING FOR POLITICS

Out of this concern grew the social gospel movement. Progressive-minded preachers began to tie the teachings of the church with contemporary problems. Christian virtue, they declared, demanded a redress of poverty and despair on earth.

Many ministers became politically active. WASHINGTON GLADDEN, the most prominent of the social gospel ministers, supported the workers’ right to strike in the wake of the Great Upheaval of 1877. Ministers called for an end to child labor, the enactment of temperance laws, and civil service reform.

Liberal churches such as the CONGREGATIONALISTS and the UNITARIANS led the way, but the movement spread to many sects. Middle-class women became particularly active in the arena of social reform.

At the same time, a wave of URBAN REVIVALIST PREACHERS swept the nation’s cities. The most renowned, DWIGHT LYMAN MOODY, was a shoe salesman who took his fiery oratory on the road. As he traveled from city to city, he attracted crowds large enough to affect local traffic patterns.

The YOUNG MEN’S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION and the YOUNG WOMEN’S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION were formed to address the problems of urban youth. Two new sects formed. MARY BAKER EDDY founded the CHRISTIAN SCIENCE denomination. She tried to reconcile religion and science by preaching that faith was a means to cure evils such as disease. The SALVATION ARMY crossed the Atlantic from England and provided free soup for the hungry.

THE THIRD GREAT AWAKENING

The changes were profound. Many historians call this period in the history of American religion the THIRD GREAT AWAKENING. Like the first two awakenings, it was characterized by revival and reform. The temperance movement and the settlement house movement were both affected by church activism. The chief difference between this movement and those of an earlier era was location. These changes in religion transpired because of urban realities, underscoring the social impact of the new American city.

This pioneering work of photjournalism by Jacob Riis focused on the plight of the poor in the Lower East Side, and greatly influenced future "muckraking" journalism. Riis mostly attributed the plight of the poor to environmental conditions, but he also divided the poor into two categories: deserving of assistance (mostly women and children) and undeserving (mostly the unemployed and intractably criminal). He wrote with prejudice about Jews, Italians, and Irish, and he stopped short of calling for government intervention. Still, the catalyst of his work was a genuine sympathy for his subjects, and his work shocked many New Yorkers.
In the first two decades of the twentieth century, the relationship between the United States and Japan was marked by increasing tension and corresponding attempts to use diplomacy to reduce the threat of conflict. Each side had territory and interests in Asia that they were concerned the other might threaten. U.S. treatment of Japanese immigrants, and competition for economic and commercial opportunities in China also heightened tensions. At the same time, each country’s territorial claims in the Pacific formed the basis for several agreements between the two nations, as each government sought to protect its own strategic and economic interests.

At the turn of the century, U.S. and Japanese interests appeared to be aligned. Both nations supported the idea of an “open door” for commercial expansion in China. After the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05, U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt acted as a mediator at Japan’s request, and the two sides of the conflict met on neutral territory in Portsmouth, New Hampshire. In the same year, U.S. Secretary of War William Howard Taft met with Prime Minister Katsura Taro in Japan. The two concluded the secret Taft-Katsura Agreement, in which the United States acknowledged Japanese rule over Korea and condoned the Anglo-Japanese alliance of 1902. At the same time, Japan recognized U.S. control of the Philippines.
In the years that followed, however, tensions rose over Japanese actions in northeast China and immigration to the United States. In 1905, the Japanese started to establish more formal control over South Manchuria by forcing China to give Japan ownership rights to the South Manchurian Railway. The Japanese used this opening to make further inroads into northeast China, causing the Roosevelt Administration concern that this violated the ideals of free enterprise and the preservation of China’s territorial integrity. Simultaneously, leading Japanese officials expressed frustration with the treatment of Japanese immigrants in the United States. A U.S.-Japanese treaty signed in 1894 had guaranteed the Japanese the right to immigrate to the United States, and to enjoy the same rights in the country as U.S. citizens. In 1906, however, the San Francisco Board of Education enacted a measure to send Japanese and Chinese children to segregated schools. The Government of Japan was outraged by this policy, claiming that it violated the 1894 treaty. In a series of notes exchanged between late 1907 and early 1908, known collectively as the Gentlemen’s Agreement, the U.S. Government agreed to pressure the San Francisco authorities to withdraw the measure, and the Japanese Government promised to restrict the immigration of laborers to the United States. With the immigration problem temporarily settled, the two countries met to provide mutual reassurances about their territories and interests in East Asia. In 1908, U.S Secretary of State Elihu Root and Japanese Ambassador Takahira Kogoro formed an agreement in which Japan promised to respect U.S. territorial possessions in the Pacific, its Open Door policy in China, and the limitation of immigration to the United States as outlined in the Gentlemen’s Agreement. The Government of Japan redirected its labor emigrants to its holdings in Manchuria, maintaining that these were not a part of China. For its part, the United States recognized Japanese control of Taiwan and the Pescadores, and the Japanese special interest in Manchuria. By reiterating each country’s position in the region, the Root-Takahira Agreement served to lessen the threat of a misunderstanding or war between the two nations.

This series of agreements still did not resolve all of the outstanding issues. U.S. treatment of Japanese residents continued to cause tension between the two nations. The Alien Land Act of 1913, for example, barred Japanese from owning or leasing land for longer than three years and adversely affected U.S.-Japanese relations in the years leading up to World War I. Economic competition in China, which the United States feared would result in increasing Japanese control, was another issue that increased tensions between the two nations. In 1915, the Japanese issued
its “Twenty-One Demands” of China, in which it asked that China recognize its territorial claims, prevent other powers from obtaining new concessions along its coast, and take a series of actions designed to benefit the Japanese economically. China turned to the United States for assistance, and U.S. officials responded with a declaration that they would not recognize any agreement that threatened the Open Door. Although this was consistent with past policies, this announcement was of little use to the Chinese. However, President Woodrow Wilson was not willing to take a stronger stand given his need for assistance in protecting U.S. interests in Asia, addressing the growing conflict in Europe, and managing racial issues in California.

The potential for conflict between the United States and Japan, especially over China, led the two governments to negotiate yet again. In the Ishii-Lansing Agreement of 1917, Secretary of State Robert Lansing acknowledged that Manchuria was under Japanese control, while Japanese Foreign Minister Ishii Kikujiro agreed not to place limitations on U.S. commercial opportunities elsewhere in China. The two powers also agreed not to take advantage of the war in Europe to seek additional rights and privileges. Though non-binding, Lansing considered the agreement an important measure in promoting mutual interests in Asia, but it proved short-lived. Ultimately, the two nations agreed to cancel the Ishii-Lansing Agreement after concluding the Nine-Power Treaty, which they signed in 1922 at the Washington Conference.

Japan and the United States clashed again during the League of Nations negotiations in 1919. The United States refused to accept the Japanese request for a racial equality clause or an admission of the equality of the nations. In addition, the Versailles Treaty granted Japan control over valuable German concessions in Shandong, which led to an outcry in China. This coupled with the growing fear of a militant Japan, contributed to the defeat of the League Covenant in the U.S. Senate. The persistent issues preventing accommodation continued to be racial equality (especially with regard to the treatment of Japanese immigrants in the United States) and differences in how to address expansion in Asia. In spite of the many efforts to reach agreements on these points, by the early 1920s Japan and the United States were again at odds.

- Gentlemen’s Agreement - Facts & Summary - HISTORY.com
1.9. A Rush of Immigration

FIGURE 1.55
Secretary of State Robert Lansing