Why It Matters

European and Asian immigrants arrived in the United States in great numbers during the late 1800s. Providing cheap labor, they made rapid industrial growth possible. They also helped populate the growing cities. The immigrants’ presence affected both urban politics and labor unions. Reactions to immigrants and to an urban society were reflected in new political organizations and in literature and philosophy.

The Impact Today

Industrialization and urbanization permanently influenced American life.
- The United States continues to be a magnet for immigrants seeking a better way of life.
- The cities of the United States continue to draw new residents in search of opportunity.

The American Republic Since 1877 Video  The Chapter 10 video, “Huddled Masses in the City,” depicts one of the problems the nation faced during its urbanization period.

- **1865**
  - Indian National Congress organizes for independence from Great Britain

- **1865–1869**
  - A. Johnson

- **1869–1877**
  - Grant

- **1877**
  - Electoral Commission decides disputed presidential election between Rutherford Hayes and Samuel Tilden

- **1878**
  - Independent Serbia recognized

- **1879**
  - Chile engages in war with Bolivia and Peru

- **1880**
  - Chinese Exclusion Act passed by Congress

- **1881**
  - Garfield

- **1881–1885**
  - Arthur

- **1885–1889**
  - Cleveland

- **1882**
  - Brooklyn Bridge completed

- **1883**
  - Chinese Exclusion Act passed by Congress

- **1885**
  - Indian National Congress organizes for independence from Great Britain
1888
- First electric trolley line opened in Richmond, Virginia

1891
- James Naismith invents basketball

1895
- National Association of Colored Women founded

1899
- Scott Joplin's "Maple Leaf Rag" published

1886
- Gold discovered in Transvaal region of South Africa

1901
- Victorian era ends with death of Britain's Queen Victoria
Main Idea
After the Civil War, millions of immigrants from Europe and Asia settled in the United States.

Key Terms and Names
steerage, Ellis Island, Jacob Riis, Angel Island, nativism, Chinese Exclusion Act

Reading Strategy
Categorizing Complete a graphic organizer similar to the one below by filling in the reasons people left their homelands to immigrate to the United States.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for Immigration</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Push Factors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pull Factors</td>
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</tbody>
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Reading Objectives
- Analyze the circumstances surrounding the great wave of immigration after the Civil War.
- Evaluate how nativism affected immigration policies.

Section Theme
Geography and History Immigrants from all over the world enriched the cultural life of the United States.

An American Story

Samuel Goldwyn was born in Warsaw, Poland, in 1879. His family lived in a tiny two-room apartment. As Jews they feared the pogroms—anti-Jewish riots—that often erupted in the city. At age 16, Goldwyn set out for America, first walking 500 miles to the port of Hamburg, Germany. When he arrived in the United States, Goldwyn worked first as a floor sweeper and then as a cutter in a glove factory, putting in 13-hour days. At night, he went to school. Within two years he was a foreman, and soon after he became a successful glove salesman.

In 1913 Goldwyn visited a nickelodeon, an early movie theater. As he watched the film, he became convinced that this new industry would grow into something big. He used his savings to set up a film company, and in 1914 he released his first movie. The film was an instant success. During his career, Goldwyn helped found three film companies: Paramount Studios, Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer (MGM), and United Artists. All three still make movies today. Looking back on his rise from poverty to wealth, Goldwyn commented:

“When I was a kid . . . the only place I wanted to go was America. I had heard them talking about America, about how free people were in America . . . . Even then America, actually only the name of a faraway country, was a vision of paradise.”

—an adapted from Goldwyn: A Biography

Europeans Flood Into the United States
By 1900, more than half of all immigrants in the United States were eastern and southern Europeans, including Italians, Greeks, Poles, Slavs, Slovaks, Russians, and Armenians. Like Samuel Goldwyn, many of the 14 million immigrants who came to the United States between 1860 and 1900 were eastern European Jews.
Europeans abandoned their homelands and headed to the United States for many reasons. Many poor rural farmers came simply because the United States had plenty of jobs available and few immigration restrictions. Yet Europe in the late 1800s offered plenty of jobs in its booming industrial cities, so economic factors were not the only reason people migrated. Many moved to avoid forced military service, which in some nations could last for many years. Others, especially Jews living in Poland and Russia, fled to avoid religious persecution.

By the late 1800s, most European states had made moving to the United States easy. Immigrants were allowed to take their savings with them, and most countries had repealed old laws that had forced peasants to stay in their villages and had banned skilled workers from leaving the country. At the same time, moving to the United States offered a chance to break away from Europe’s class system and move to a democratic nation where they had a chance to move up the social ladder.

**The Atlantic Voyage** Getting to the United States was often very difficult. Most immigrants booked passage in *steerage*, the most basic and cheapest accommodations on a steamship. Edward Steiner, an Iowa clergyman who posed as an immigrant in order to write a book on immigration, described the miserable quarters:

- Narrow, steep and slippery stairways lead to it.
- Crowds everywhere, ill-smelling bunks, uninviting washrooms—this is steerage. The odors of scattered orange peelings, tobacco, garlic and disinfectants meeting but not blending. No lounge or chairs for...
comfort, and a continual babble of tongues—this is steerage. The food, which is miserable, is dealt out of huge kettles into the dinner pails provided by the steamship company. When it is distributed, the stronger push and crowd.

"—quoted in World of Our Fathers"

At the end of a 14-day journey, the passengers usually disembarked at Ellis Island, a tiny island in New York Harbor. There, a huge three-story building served as the processing center for many of the immigrants arriving on the East Coast after 1892.

Ellis Island Most immigrants passed through Ellis Island in about a day. They would not soon forget their hectic introduction to the United States. A medical examiner who worked there later described how “hour after hour, ship load after ship load . . . the stream of human beings with its kaleidoscopic variations was . . . hurried through Ellis Island by the equivalent of ‘step lively’ in every language of the earth.”

In Ellis Island’s enormous hall, crowds of immigrants filed past the doctor for an initial inspection. “Whenever a case aroused suspicion,” an inspector wrote, “the alien was set aside in a cage apart from the rest . . . and his coat lapel or shirt marked with colored chalk” to indicate the reason for the isolation. About one out of five newcomers was marked with an “H” for heart problems, “K” for hernias, “Sc” for scalp problems, or “X” for mental disability. Newcomers who failed the inspection might be separated from their families and returned to Europe.

GEOGRAPHY

Ethnic Cities Many of those who passed the Ellis Island inspections settled in the nation’s cities. By the 1890s, immigrants made up significant percentages of
some of the country’s largest cities, including New York, Chicago, Milwaukee, and Detroit. Jacob Riis, a Danish-born journalist, observed in 1890 that a map of New York City, “colored to designate nationalities, would show more stripes than on the skin of a zebra.”

In the cities, immigrants lived in neighborhoods that were often separated into ethnic groups, such as “Little Italy” or the Jewish “Lower East Side” in New York City. There they spoke their native languages and re-created the churches, synagogues, clubs, and newspapers of their homelands.

How well immigrants adjusted depended partly on how quickly they learned English and adapted to American culture. Immigrants also tended to adjust well if they had marketable skills or money, or if they settled among members of their own ethnic group.

As many as one in three immigrants returned to Europe shortly after coming to the United States. Some had never planned to stay and had come simply to make a little money before returning home.

Asian Immigration to America

Many Chinese immigrants began crossing the Pacific to arrive in the United States in the mid-1800s. By that time, China’s population had reached about 430 million, and the country was suffering from severe unemployment, poverty, and famine.

The 1848 discovery of gold in California began to lure Chinese immigrants to the United States. Then, in 1850, the Taiping Rebellion erupted in their homeland. This insurrection against the Chinese government took some 20 million lives and caused such suffering that thousands of Chinese left for the United States. In the early 1860s, as the Central Pacific Railroad began construction of its portion of the transcontinental railroad, the demand for railroad workers further increased Chinese immigration.

Chinese immigrants mainly settled in western cities, where they often worked as laborers or servants or in skilled trades. Others worked as merchants. Because native-born Americans kept them out of many businesses, some Chinese immigrants opened their own. To save enough to buy his own laundry, one immigrant, Lee Chew, had to work for two years as a servant:

“I did not know how to do anything, and I did not understand what the lady said to me, but she showed me how to cook, wash, iron, sweep, dust, make beds, wash dishes, clean windows, paint and brass, polish the knives and forks, etc., by doing the things herself and then overseeing my efforts to imitate her.”

—quoted in A Sunday Between Wars

Another group of Asians, the Japanese, also immigrated to the United States. Until 1900, however, their numbers remained small. Between 1900 and 1908, large numbers of Japanese migrated to the United States as Japan began building both an industrial economy and an empire. Both developments disrupted the economy of Japan and caused hardships for its people, thus stimulating emigration.

Until 1910 Asian immigrants arriving in San Francisco first stopped at a two-story shed at the wharf. As many as 500 people at a time were often squeezed into this structure, which Chinese immigrants from Canton called muk uk, or “wooden house.”

In January 1910, California opened a barracks on Angel Island to accommodate the Asian immigrants. Most of the immigrants were young males in their teens or twenties, who nervously awaited the results of their immigration hearings in dormitories packed with double or triple tiers of bunks. This unpleasant delay could last for months. On the walls of the detention barracks, the immigrants wrote anonymous poems in pencil or ink. Some even carved their verse into the wood.

Angel Island

Over 200,000 immigrants from Japan and China arrived on the West Coast during the late 1800s.
The Resurgence of Nativism

Eventually the wave of immigration led to increased feelings of nativism on the part of many Americans. Nativism is a preference for native-born people and a desire to limit immigration. It had surfaced earlier in the 1800s during another large wave of immigration. In the 1840s and 1850s, it had focused primarily on Irish immigrants. Now anti-immigrant feelings focused on Asians, Jews, and eastern Europeans.

Nativists opposed immigration for many reasons. Some feared that the influx of Catholics from Ireland and southern and eastern Europe would swamp the mostly Protestant United States, giving the Catholic Church too much power in the American government. Many labor unions also opposed immigration, arguing that immigrants would work for low wages or accept work as strikebreakers, thus undermining American-born workers.

Nativists Organize In the Northeast and Midwest, increased feelings of nativism led to the founding of two major anti-immigrant organizations. One, called the American Protective Association, was founded in 1887. The organization’s founder, Henry Bowers, despised Catholicism and committed his group to stopping Catholic immigration. Membership of the organization peaked at about one million but declined rapidly after the economic recession of 1893 ended.

In the West, where sentiment against the Chinese was very strong, widespread racial violence erupted. Denis Kearney, himself an Irish immigrant, organized the Workingman’s Party of California in the 1870s to fight Chinese immigration. The party won seats in California’s legislature and made opposition to Chinese immigration a national issue.

Congress Passes New Immigration Laws Even though several presidents vetoed other laws that would have stemmed the steady flow of new immigrants, concern over unchecked immigration stimulated the passage of a new federal law. Enacted in 1882, the law banned convicts, paupers, and the mentally disabled from immigrating to the United States. The new law also placed a 50¢ head tax on each newcomer.

That same year, Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act. The law barred Chinese immigration for 10 years and prevented the Chinese already in the country from becoming citizens. The Chinese in the United States did not accept the new law quietly. They protested that white Americans did not oppose immigration by Italians, Irish, or Germans. Some Chinese organized letter-writing campaigns, petitioned the president, and even filed suit in federal court.

These efforts, however, proved fruitless. Congress renewed the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1892 and then made it permanent in 1902. In 1890 the number of Chinese living in the United States totaled 105,000. By 1900 that total had dropped to just above 74,000. In the 40 years after the passage of the act, the Chinese population in the United States continued to decrease. The act was not repealed until 1943.

Reading Check Explaining Why did the federal government pass the Chinese Exclusion Act?
Main Idea
During the three decades following the Civil War, the United States transformed rapidly from a rural nation to a more urban one.

Key Terms and Names
skyscraper, Louis Sullivan, tenement, political machine, party boss, George Plunkitt, graft, William M. “Boss” Tweed

Reading Strategy
Organizing As you read about urbanization in the United States in the late 1800s, complete a graphic organizer similar to the one below by filling in the problems the nation’s urban areas faced.

Main Idea
During the three decades following the Civil War, the United States transformed rapidly from a rural nation to a more urban one.

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Reading Strategy
Organizing As you read about urbanization in the United States in the late 1800s, complete a graphic organizer similar to the one below by filling in the problems the nation’s urban areas faced.

Reading Objectives
• Explain the technological developments that made the growth of cities possible.
• Evaluate the role that political machines played in urban politics in the late 1800s.

Section Theme
Government and Democracy Political bosses grew powerful in urban areas by helping immigrants find work and necessities.

An American Story
With just $3.10 in his pocket, a young man from Wisconsin named Frank Lloyd Wright wandered the streets of Chicago in the late spring of 1887. Sixteen years earlier, almost four square miles of the city had burned in the Chicago Fire of 1871. Now the rebuilt city’s towering new buildings beckoned the young visitor who, within a few decades, would become one of the most famous architects in the world.

In Chicago, Wright saw electric lights and cable cars for the first time. What surprised him most about the big city, however, were the signs that seemed to be everywhere:

"There were glaring signs on the glass shop-fronts against the lights inside, ... HURRAH signs. STOP signs. COME ON IN signs. HELLO signs set out before the blazing windows on the sidewalks ... food shops, barber shops, eating houses, saloons, restaurants, groceries, laundries—and [they all] became chaos in a wilderness of Italian, German, Irish, [Polish], Greek, English, Swedish, French, Chinese and Spanish names. ..."

—quoted in Eyewitness to America

Americans Migrate to the Cities
During the three decades after the Civil War, the urban population of the United States—those living in towns with a population of 2,500 or more—grew from around 10 million in 1870 to over 30 million in 1900. New York City alone, which had over 800,000 inhabitants in 1860, grew to almost 3.5 million by 1900. Frank Lloyd Wright observed Chicago during an even faster growth period. The Midwestern city swelled from 109,000 residents in 1860 to more than 1.6 million by 1900. The United States had only 131 cities in 1840; by 1900 that number had risen to over 1,700.
Most of the immigrants who poured into the United States in the late 1800s lacked the money to buy farms and the education to obtain higher-paying jobs. They therefore remained in the nation’s growing cities, where they toiled long hours for little pay in the rapidly expanding factories of the United States. Despite the harshness of their new lives, most immigrants found that the move had still improved their standard of living.

The United States offered immigrants a chance at social mobility, or moving upward in society. Although only a few immigrants rose from poverty to great wealth, many seized the opportunities the American system offered and rose from the working class to the middle class. In much of Europe, on the other hand, people born into a particular social class were expected to stay there. Although some immigrants faced prejudice, most Americans accepted the idea that people in the lower classes could rise in society. The lack of a rigid class system in the United States gave immigrants a degree of freedom they had never known before.

Many rural Americans also began moving to the cities at this time. Farmers moved to the cities because urban areas offered more and better-paying jobs than did rural areas. Cities had much to offer, too—bright lights, running water, and modern plumbing, plus many things to do and see, including museums, libraries, and theaters.

**Reading Check**

Explaining Why did rural Americans move to the cities in the late 1800s?

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**The Technology of Urbanization**

Before the mid-1800s, few buildings exceeded four or five stories. To make wooden and stone structures taller required enormously thick walls in the lower levels.

By the late 1800s, steel companies were making girders capable of bearing a building's weight. Walls no longer had to support the building—a steel frame skeleton was all that was needed. Meanwhile, Elisha Otis invented the safety elevator in 1852, and by the late 1880s, the first electric elevators had been installed, making tall buildings practical.

Steel also changed the way bridges were built. New technology enabled engineers to suspend bridges from steel towers using cables also made of steel. Using this technique, John A. Roebling, a German American engineer, designed New York’s Brooklyn Bridge—the largest suspension bridge in the world at the time it was completed in 1883.

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**Skyscrapers**

As city populations grew, demand raised the price of land, giving owners greater incentive to grow upward rather than outward. Soon, tall steel frame buildings called skyscrapers began to appear on American skylines. Chicago’s ten-story Home Insurance Building, built in 1885, was the first skyscraper, but other buildings quickly dwarfed it. New York City boasted more skyscrapers than any other city in the world. With limited land, New Yorkers had to build up, not out.

No one contributed more to the design of skyscrapers than Chicago’s Louis Sullivan, whose students included Frank Lloyd Wright. Sullivan’s lofty structures featured simple lines and spacious windows using new durable plate glass.
Mass Transit Various kinds of mass transit developed in the late 1800s to move huge numbers of people around cities quickly. At first, almost all cities relied on the horsecar—a railroad car pulled by horses. In 1890 horsecars moved about 70 percent of urban traffic in the United States.

More than 20 cities, beginning with San Francisco in 1873, installed cable cars, which were pulled along tracks by underground cables. Then, in 1887, engineer Frank J. Sprague developed the electric trolley car. The following year, Richmond, Virginia, opened the country’s first electric trolley line.

In the largest cities, congestion became so bad that engineers began looking for ways to move mass transit off the streets. Chicago responded by building an elevated railroad, while Boston, followed by New York, built America’s first subway systems.

Separation by Class

In the growing cities, wealthy people and the working class lived in different parts of town. So too did the middle class. The boundaries between neighborhoods can still be seen in many cities today.

High Society During the last half of the 1800s, the wealthiest families established fashionable districts in the hearts of cities. Americans with enough money could choose to construct a feudal castle, an English manor house, a French château, a Tuscan villa, or a Persian pavilion. In Chicago, merchant and real estate developer Potter Palmer chose a castle. In New York, Cornelius Vanderbilt’s grandson commissioned a $3 million French château equipped with a two-story dining room, a gymnasium, and a marble bathroom.

Middle-Class Gentility American industrialization not only made the wealth of people like Potter Palmer possible; it also helped create a growing middle class. The nation’s rising middle class included doctors, lawyers, engineers, managers, social workers, architects, and teachers. It was typical for many people in the emerging middle class to move away from the central city. Some took advantage of the new commuter rail lines to move to “streetcar suburbs.”

Reading Check Summarizing What new technologies helped people in the late 1800s get to and from work?

Reading Check Explaining What social class grew as a result of industrialization in the late 1800s?

Profiling in History

Michael Pupin 1858–1935

Many immigrants came to America seeking freedom. One example was inventor Michael Pupin. As a young boy in Hungary, Pupin became fascinated with electricity after reading about Ben Franklin’s experiments. He tried to study in Prague, but anti-Jewish prejudice made it impossible. He decided that only in America would he be free to study what he wanted.

At age 16, Pupin headed to New York. Once there he took odd jobs, including chopping wood and mowing hay, to pay for his education. Five years later, he won a scholarship to Columbia University. In 1889 Pupin became a professor of electrical engineering at Columbia University, and he went on to invent several important devices. He improved the x-ray machine, making it much more useful for doctors. He invented one device that improved long-distance telephone transmissions and another device that helped tune radio transmissions. In addition, his autobiography, From Immigrant to Inventor, won the Pulitzer Prize in 1924.

During this period, middle-class salaries were about twice that of the average factory worker. In 1905 a college professor earned a middle-class salary of $1,100.

The Working Class The majority of American city dwellers at the turn of the century would have considered an eight-room house an absolute luxury. In New York, three out of four residents squeezed into tenements, dark and crowded multi-family apartments. To supplement the average industrial worker’s annual income of $490, many families sent their young children to work in factories or rented precious space to a boarder. Zalmen Yoffeh, a journalist, lived in a New York tenement as a child. He recalled:

“With . . . one dollar a day [our mother] fed and clothed an ever-growing family. She took in boarders. Sometimes this helped; at other times it added to the burden of living. Boarders were often out of work and penniless; how could one turn a hungry man out? She made all our clothes. She walked blocks to reach a place where meat was a penny cheaper, where bread was a half cent less. She collected boxes and old wood to burn in the stove. . . .”

—quoted in How We Lived

CHAPTER 10 Urban America
Urban Problems

City living posed threats such as crime, violence, fire, disease, and pollution, especially for the working poor like Yoffeh and his family. The rapid growth of cities only made these problems worse. Minor criminals, such as pickpockets, swindlers, and thieves, thrived in crowded urban living conditions. Major crimes multiplied as well. From 1880 to 1900, the murder rate jumped sharply from 25 per million people to more than 100 per million people. In comparison, the murder rate in 1999 was 57 per million people.

Native-born Americans often blamed immigrants for the increase in crime and violence. In reality, the crime rate for immigrants was not significantly higher than that for other Americans.

Alcohol did contribute to violent crime, both inside and outside the home. Danish immigrant Jacob Riis, who documented slum life in his 1890 book *How the Other Half Lives*, accused saloons of “breeding poverty,” corrupting politics, bringing suffering to the wives and children of drunkards, and fostering “the corruption of the child” by selling beer to minors.

Disease and pollution posed even bigger threats. Improper sewage disposal contaminated city drinking water and triggered epidemics of typhoid fever and cholera. Though flush toilets and sewer systems existed in the 1870s, pollution remained a severe problem as horse waste was left in the streets, smoke belched from chimneys, and soot and ash accumulated from coal and wood fires.

Drawing Conclusions Why were diseases and pollution big problems in American cities in the late 1800s?

Urban Politics

A new kind of political system developed to meet these urban problems. This system provided essential city services in return for political power.
The Political Machine and the Party Boss The political machine, an informal political group designed to gain and keep power, came about partly because cities had grown much faster than their governments. New city dwellers needed jobs, housing, food, heat, and police protection. In exchange for votes, political machines and the party bosses who ran them eagerly provided these necessities.

George Plunkitt, an Irish immigrant who rose to be one of New York City’s most powerful party bosses, explained how the system worked when a fire burned a neighborhood:

"I just get [housing] for them, buy clothes for them if their clothes were burned up, and fix them up till they get things runnin’ again. It’s philanthropy, but it’s politics too—mighty good politics. Who can tell how many votes one of these fires bring me? The poor are the most grateful people in the world, and, let me tell you, they have more friends in their neighborhoods than the rich have in theirs."

—quoted in In Search of America

As Plunkitt observed, the payoff for party bosses came on Election Day. Urban immigrant groups, which wielded tremendous voting strength, voted in overwhelming numbers for the political machines.

Graft and Fraud The party bosses who ran the political machines also controlled the city’s finances. Many machine politicians grew rich as the result of fraud or graft—getting money through dishonest or questionable means. Plunkitt defended what he called “honest graft.” For example, a politician might find out in advance where a new park was to be built and buy the land near the site. The politician would then sell the land to the city for a profit. As Plunkitt stated, “I see my opportunity and I take it.”

Outright fraud occurred when party bosses accepted bribes from contractors, who were supposed to compete fairly to win contracts to build streets, sewers, and buildings. Corrupt bosses also sold permits to their friends to operate public utilities, such as railroads, waterworks, and power systems.

Tammany Hall Tammany Hall, the New York Democratic political machine for which George Plunkitt performed his labors, was the most famous such organization. William M. “Boss” Tweed was its corrupt leader during the 1860s and 1870s. Tweed’s corruption led him to prison in 1874.

Other cities’ machines controlled all the city services, including the police department. For example, St. Louis’s boss never feared arrest when he called out to his supporters at the police-supervised voting booth, “Are there any more repeaters out here that want to vote again?” Based in Kansas City, Missouri, the Pendergast brothers, James and Thomas, ran state and city politics from the 1890s until the 1930s.

Opponents of political machines, such as political cartoonist Thomas Nast, blasted bosses for their corruption. Defenders, though, argued that machines provided necessary services and helped to assimilate the masses of new city dwellers.

Reading Check Evaluating Why did political machines help city dwellers in the late 1800s?

### Checking for Understanding

1. Define: skyscraper, tenement, political machine, party boss, graft.
3. Explain what two technologies made the building of skyscrapers possible in the late 1800s.

### Reviewing Themes

4. Government and Democracy How did political machines respond to the needs of the people?

### Critical Thinking

5. Comparing Compare the conditions under which the wealthy class, the middle class, and the working class lived in the United States in the late 1800s.

6. Organizing Complete a graphic organizer similar to the one below by listing the effects of many Americans moving from rural to urban areas in the late 1800s.

   - Effects

   - Migration

### Analyzing Visuals

7. Examining Photographs Study the photographs on page 342 of the Brooklyn Bridge and the Flatiron Building. Why was it advantageous to construct taller buildings rather than purchase more land?

### Writing About History

8. Persuasive Writing Take on the role of an urban planner living in one of the nation’s major cities in the late 1800s. Write a letter to members of the city government listing specific reasons for the importance of setting aside city land for a park and recreational area.
Chicago’s apartment buildings, or tenements, were squeezed onto lots that measured 25 by 125 feet (7.6 by 38.1 m). These lots typically held three families and their boarders. Unlike New York City’s tenements, most were only two or three stories tall.
Immigrants Arrive In Chicago

A major port and a conduit for the nation’s east-west rail travel, Chicago was a booming industrial center for the lumber, grain, meatpacking, and mail-order businesses at the end of the 1800s. Since the early 1870s, more ships had been docking in Chicago than in New York, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Charleston, and San Francisco combined. The city’s expansion was phenomenal. In 50 years, it grew from a modest frontier town to the second-largest city in the country.

Immigrants swarmed into Chicago seeking jobs. Poles found work slaughtering livestock; Irish laying railroads; Russian and Polish Jews making clothes; Swedes constructing buildings and Italians forging steel. Women established boardinghouses, took in sewing to do at home, and worked in factories. In most factories, the hours were long and the working conditions difficult: noisy, hot, grimy, and overcrowded. By the beginning of the 1900s, three-fourths of the people in this teeming metropolis were European immigrants and their American-born children.

Ethnic neighborhoods dotted the city, as did blocks of tenements thrown up to house the flood of newcomers. The inset map at left—an enlargement of the highlighted rectangle on the lithograph—shows the Hull House neighborhood in Chicago’s West Side in 1893. Hull House was established by social reformer Jane Addams to “investigate and improve the conditions in the industrial districts of Chicago.” The neighborhood was one of the city’s poorest. Its tenement buildings were disease-ridden and dangerous, crowding about 270 residents into each acre. Jane Addams wrote: “The streets are inexpressibly dirty, the number of schools inadequate, sanitary legislation unenforced, the street lighting bad, the paving miserable and altogether lacking in the alleys.”

The neighborhood was also one of the most ethnically diverse. As the inset shows, the bewildered new immigrants tended to settle in enclaves that had already been established by others from their homeland. They banded together as they learned about the ways of the new land. Many immigrants found comfort in social life centered on the church or synagogue. Younger immigrants were more eager to abandon their old customs. Many of them quickly adopted American clothes and manners, learned to speak English, and tried to make American friends.

LEARNING FROM GEOGRAPHY

1. How did the location of Chicago influence its development?

2. Pose and answer five questions about the geographic distribution and patterns shown on this model.
The Cincinnati Red Stockings become the first salaried baseball team. In 1873 Mark Twain and Charles Warner wrote a novel together entitled The Gilded Age. Historians later adopted the term and applied it to the era in American history that begins about 1870 and ends around 1900.

William Graham Sumner became a professor of political and social science at Yale College. Sumner’s classes were very popular. One of his students, William Lyon Phelps, illustrated Sumner’s tough, no-nonsense approach with this example of a class discussion:

Student: “Professor, don’t you believe in any government aid to industries?”  
Sumner: “No! It’s root, hog, or die.”  
Student: “Yes, but hasn’t the hog got a right to root?”  
Sumner: “There are no rights. The world owes nobody a living.”  
Student: “You believe then, Professor, in only one system, the contract-competitive system?”  
Sumner: “That’s the only sound economic system. All others are fallacies.”  
Student: “Well, suppose some professor of political economy came along and took your job away from you. Wouldn’t you be sore?”  
Sumner: “Any other professor is welcome to try. If he gets my job, it is my fault. My business is to teach the subject so well that no one can take the job away from me.”

—adapted from Social Darwinism in American Thought

A Changing Culture

In 1873 Mark Twain and Charles Warner wrote a novel together entitled The Gilded Age. Historians later adopted the term and applied it to the era in American history that begins about 1870 and ends around 1900.
This era was in many ways a time of marvels. Amazing new inventions led to rapid industrial growth. Cities expanded to sizes never seen before. Masses of workers thronged the streets. Skyscrapers reached to the sky, and electric lights banished the darkness. Newly wealthy entrepreneurs built spectacular mansions.

By calling this era the Gilded Age, Twain and Warner were sounding an alarm. Something is gilded if it is covered with gold on the outside but made of cheaper material inside. A gilded age might appear to sparkle, but Twain, Warner, and other writers tried to point out that beneath the surface lay corruption, poverty, crime, and great disparities in wealth between the rich and the poor.

Whether the era was golden or merely gilded, it was certainly a time of great cultural activity. Industrialism and urbanization altered the way Americans looked at themselves and their society, and these changes gave rise to new values, new art, and new forms of entertainment.

The Idea of Individualism One of the strongest beliefs of the era—and one that remains strong today—was the idea of individualism. Many Americans firmly believed that no matter how humble their origins, they could rise in society and go as far as their talents and commitment would take them. In 1885 the wealthy cotton manufacturer Edward Atkinson gave a speech to a group of workers at a textile factory in Rhode Island. He told them they had no reason to complain:

“There is always plenty of room on the front seats in every profession, every trade, every art, every industry. . . . There are men in this audience who will fill some of those seats, but they won’t be boosted into them from behind.”

—quoted in America’s History

Social Darwinism Another powerful idea of the era was Social Darwinism, which strongly reinforced the idea of individualism. English philosopher Herbert Spencer first proposed this idea. Historian John Fiske, political scientist William Graham Sumner, and the magazine Popular Science Monthly all popularized it in the United States.

Herbert Spencer Philosopher Herbert Spencer applied Charles Darwin’s theory of evolution and natural selection to human society. In his 1859 book, On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection, Darwin argued that plant and animal life had evolved over the years by a process he called natural selection. In this process, those species that cannot adapt to the environment in which they live gradually die out, while those that do adapt thrive and live on.

Spencer took this biological theory, intended to explain developments over millions of years, and argued that human society also evolved through competition and natural selection. He argued that society progressed and became better because only the fittest people survived.

Spencer and others who shared his views became known as Social Darwinists, and their ideas were known as Social Darwinism. “Survival of the fittest” became the catchphrase of their philosophy. By 1902 over 350,000 copies of Spencer’s books had been sold in the United States.

Horatio Alger No one expressed the idea of individualism better than Horatio Alger. A minister from Massachusetts, Alger eventually left the clergy and moved to New York. There he wrote more than 100 “rags-to-riches” novels, in which a poor person goes to the big city and becomes successful. Many young people loved reading these tales. Inspired by Alger’s novels they concluded that no matter how many obstacles they faced, success was possible.

✔️ Reading Check Describing What was the main idea behind individualism?
Social Darwinism also paralleled the economic doctrine of laissez-faire that opposed any government programs that interfered with business. Not surprisingly, industrial leaders like John D. Rockefeller heartily embraced the theory. Rockefeller maintained that survival of the fittest, as demonstrated by the growth of huge businesses like his own Standard Oil, was “merely the working out of the law of nature and the law of God.”

**Darwinism and the Church** Rockefeller may have appreciated Spencer’s interpretation of evolution, but Charles Darwin’s conclusions about the origin of new species frightened and outraged many devout Christians as well as some leading scientists. They rejected the theory of evolution because they believed it contradicted the Bible’s account of creation. Some American scholars and ministers, however, concluded that evolution may have been God’s way of creating the world. Henry Ward Beecher of Plymouth Church in Brooklyn called himself a “cordial Christian evolutionist.” Beecher accepted Spencer’s ideas of Social Darwinism and championed the success of American business.

**Carnegie’s Gospel of Wealth** A wealthy and prominent business leader of the time, Andrew Carnegie believed wholeheartedly in Social Darwinism and laissez-faire. Speaking of the law of unregulated competition, he wrote:

> “It ensures the survival of the fittest in every department. We accept and welcome, therefore, as conditions to which we must accommodate ourselves, great inequality of environment, the concentration of business, . . . in the hands of a few, and the laws of competition . . . as being not only beneficial, but essential for the future progress of the race.”

—quoted in *Voices from America’s Past*

Believing that those who profited from society owed it something in return, Carnegie attempted to extend and soften the harsh philosophy of Social Darwinism with the **Gospel of Wealth**. This philosophy held that wealthy Americans bore the responsibility of engaging in philanthropy—using their great fortunes to further social progress. Carnegie himself, for example, donated millions of dollars as the “trustee and agent for his poorer brethren.” Other industrialists also contributed to social causes. (See page 933 for more information on the Gospel of Wealth.)

**Realism**

Just as Darwin had looked at the natural world scientifically, a new movement in art and literature known as **realism** attempted to portray people realistically instead of idealizing them as romantic artists had done.

**Realism in Art** Realist painters rejected the idealistic depictions of the world of the earlier 1800s. One such painter, **Thomas Eakins** of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, considered no day-to-day
subject beneath his interest and careful observation. On his canvases, with their realistic detail and precise lighting, young men swam, surgeons operated, and scientists experimented. Eakins even dared to paint President Hayes working in shirtsleeves instead of in more traditional formal dress.

**Realism in Literature** Writers also attempted to capture the world as they saw it. In several novels, William Dean Howells presented realistic descriptions of American life. For example, his 1885 novel *The Rise of Silas Lapham* described the attempts of a self-made businessperson to enter Boston society. Also an influential literary critic, Howells was the first to claim Mark Twain to be an American genius and hailed him as “incomparable, the Lincoln of our literature.”

Twain, a Missouri native whose real name was Samuel Clemens, wrote his masterpiece, *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, in 1884. In this novel, the title character and his friend Jim, an escaped slave, float down the Mississippi River on a raft. Through their innocent eyes, readers gain a piercing view of American society in the pre–Civil War era. Twain wrote in local dialect with a lively sense of humor. Nevertheless, Howells realized that Twain was more than a humorist. He had written a true American novel, in which the setting, subject matter, characters, and style were unmistakably American.

Howells also recognized talent in the work of a very different writer, Henry James, who lived most of his adult life in England. In novels such as *Portrait of a Lady* (1881), James realistically characterized the inner lives of the upper class. Isabel Archer, the lady of the title, reflects one of the prime values of her class—the concern to maintain social position by marrying well. Ultimately Isabel’s wealth interferes with her ability to pursue her own happiness.

Edith Wharton, who also concerned herself with the upper class she knew, modeled her realistic writing after those of James. She won a Pulitzer Prize for her novel *The Age of Innocence*, a stark portrait of upper-class New York society in the 1870s.

**Reading Check** Explaining What was the significance of Mark Twain’s *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*?

**Popular Culture**

Popular culture changed considerably in the late 1800s. Industrialization improved the standard of living for many people, enabling them to spend money on entertainment and recreation. Increasingly, urban Americans, unlike rural people, divided their lives into separate units—that of work and that of home. Furthermore, people began looking for things to do outside the home and began “going out” to public entertainment.

**The Saloon** As Frank Lloyd Wright had noted when he arrived in Chicago, the city’s saloons far outnumbered its groceries and meat markets. Functioning like community centers, saloons played a major role in the life of male workers in the 1800s. They also served as political centers. Saloonkeepers often served as key figures in political machines.

Saloons offered free toilets, water for horses, and free newspapers for customers. They even offered the first “free lunch”: salty food that made patrons thirsty and eager to drink more. Saloons developed loyal customers. The first workers from the night shift would stream in at 5:00 A.M., and the last would stay until late at night.

**Amusement Parks and Sports** While saloons catered mostly to men, working-class families or single adults who sought excitement and escape could go to amusement parks such as New York’s *Coney Island*. Amusements there such as water slides and railroad rides cost only a nickel or dime.

Watching professionals box or play baseball also first became popular during the late 1800s. A game much like baseball, known as rounders and derived from the game of cricket, had enjoyed limited popularity in Great Britain in the early 1800s. Versions of the modern game of baseball began to appear in
the United States in the early 1800s. As the game grew in popularity, it became a source of profit. The first salaried team, the Cincinnati Red Stockings, was formed in 1869. Other cities soon fielded professional teams, and in 1903 the first modern World Series was played between the Boston Red Sox and the Pittsburgh Pirates.

The second most popular game, football, appealed first to the upper classes, in part because it began in private colleges and universities that the middle and working classes could not afford. By the late 1800s, the game had spread to public universities.

As work became less physically strenuous, many people looked for leisure activities that involved physical exercise. Lawn tennis, golf, and croquet became popular. James Naismith, a Canadian working as an athletic director for a college in Springfield, Massachusetts, invented the game of basketball in 1891.

**Vaudeville and Ragtime**

The many people living in the cities provided large and eager markets for other types of entertainment. Adapted from French theater, *vaudeville* took on an American flavor in the early 1880s with its hodgepodge of animal acts, acrobats, gymnasts, and dancers. The fast-moving acts, like the tempo of big-city life, went on in continuous shows all day and night.

Like vaudeville, *ragtime* music echoed the hectic pace of city life. Its syncopated rhythms grew out of the music of riverside honky-tonk, saloon pianists, and banjo players, using the patterns of African American music. Scott Joplin, one of the most important African American ragtime composers, became known as the “King of Ragtime.” He published his signature piece, “The Maple Leaf Rag,” in 1899.

**Reading Check**

Describing What importance did the saloon have in nineteenth-century life?
On a drizzly March morning in 1893, a nursing student named Lillian Wald was teaching a public health class to residents of New York’s poor Lower East Side. Suddenly a girl broke in, disrupting the lesson. The child’s mother desperately needed a nurse. The interruption changed Wald’s life. She followed the girl to a squalid tenement, where she found a family of seven sharing their two rooms with boarders. The sick woman lay on a dirty bed. Wald later wrote:

That morning’s experience was a baptism of fire. Deserted were the laboratory and the academic work of the college. I never returned to them. . . . To my inexperience it seemed certain that conditions such as these were allowed because people did not know, and for me there was a challenge to know and to tell. . . . If people knew things,—and “things” meant everything implied in the condition of this family,—such horrors would cease to exist. . . .

—quoted in *The House on Henry Street*

In 1895 Wald and her friend Mary Brewster established the Henry Street Settlement. The young nurses offered medical care, education, labor organization, and social and cultural programs to the neighborhood residents.

**Social Criticism**

The tremendous changes brought about by industrialism and urbanization triggered a debate among Americans as to how best to address society’s problems. While many Americans embraced the ideas of individualism and Social Darwinism, others disagreed,
arguing that society’s problems could be fixed only if Americans and their government began to take a more active role in regulating the economy and helping those in need.

**Henry George on Progress and Poverty** In 1879 journalist Henry George published *Progress and Poverty*. His book quickly became a national best-seller. “The present century has been marked by a prodigious increase in wealth-producing power,” George observed, which should have made poverty “a thing of the past.” Instead, he argued:

> “It becomes no easier for the masses of our people to make a living. On the contrary it becomes harder. . . . The gulf between the employed and the employer is growing wider; social contrasts are becoming sharper; as liveried carriages appear, so do barefoot children.”

— from *Progress and Poverty*

Most economists now argue that George’s analysis was flawed. Industrialism did make some Americans very wealthy, but it also improved the standard of living for most other Americans as well. At the time, however, in the midst of the poverty, crime, and harsh working conditions, many Americans did not believe things were improving.

George offered a simple solution. Land, he argued, was the basis of wealth, and people could grow wealthy just by waiting for land prices to rise. George proposed a “single tax” on this unearned wealth to replace all other taxes. He believed it would help make society more equal and also provide the government with enough money to help the poor.

Economists have since rejected George’s economic theory. His real importance to American history is that he raised questions about American society and led the way in challenging the ideas of Social Darwinism and laissez-faire economics. Many future reform leaders first became interested in reform because of George’s book.

**Reform Darwinism** Four years after Henry George challenged the ideas of Social Darwinism, Lester Frank Ward published *Dynamic Sociology*. Ward took the ideas of Darwinism and used them to reach a very different conclusion than Spencer had. He argued that human beings were different from other animals in nature because they
had the ability to think ahead and make plans to produce the future outcomes they desired.

Ward’s ideas came to be known as Reform Darwinism. People, he insisted, had succeeded in the world not because of their ability to compete but because of their ability to cooperate. Ward believed that competition was wasteful and time consuming. Government, he argued, could regulate the economy, cure poverty, and promote education more efficiently than could competition in the marketplace. While some disagreed with Ward’s conclusions, others did think that government should do more to solve society’s problems. Among these were the people who became reformers in the late 1800s.

**Looking Backward** By the late 1880s, some critics of Social Darwinism and laissez-faire economics had moved to the opposite extreme. In 1888 Edward Bellamy published *Looking Backward, 2000–1887*, a novel about a young Bostonian who falls asleep in 1887 and awakens in the year 2000 to find that the United States has become a perfect society with no crime, poverty, or politics. In this fictional society, the government owns all industry and shares the wealth equally with all Americans. Bellamy’s ideas were essentially a form of socialism. His book quickly became a bestseller, and although few people were willing to go as far as Bellamy suggested, his ideas, like those of George and Ward, helped to shape the thinking of American reformers in the late 1800s.

### Naturalism in Literature

Criticism of industrial society also appeared in literature in a new style of writing known as naturalism. Social Darwinists and realists argued that people could control their lives and make choices to improve their situation. Naturalists challenged this idea by suggesting that some people failed in life simply because they were caught up in circumstances they could not control. In other words, leaving society and the economy unregulated did not always lead to the best result. Sometimes people’s lives were destroyed through no fault of their own.

Among the most prominent naturalist writers were Stephen Crane, Frank Norris, Jack London, and Theodore Dreiser. Stephen Crane’s novel, *Maggie, A Girl of the Streets* (1893), told the story of a girl’s descent into prostitution and death. Frank Norris’s work, *McTeague* (1899), described how a dentist and his wife are driven mad by greed and violence. Jack London’s tales of the Alaskan wilderness demonstrated the power of the natural environment over civilization. Theodore Dreiser’s stories, such as *Sister Carrie* (1900), painted a world where people sinned without punishment and where the pursuit of wealth and power often destroyed their character.

### Helping the Urban Poor

While naturalist writers expressed pessimism about the individual’s life in an industrialized world, some critics of industrial society were working for reform. Their reform efforts gave rise to the Social Gospel movement, the Salvation Army and the YMCA, women’s clubs, settlement houses, and temperance movements.

**The Social Gospel** From about 1870 until 1920, reformers in the Social Gospel movement worked to better conditions in cities according to the biblical ideals of charity and justice. An early advocate of the Social Gospel, Washington Gladden, a minister from Columbus, Ohio, tried to apply what he called “Christian law” to social problems. During a coal strike in 1884, for example, Gladden preached about
the “right and necessity of labor organizations,” despite the fact that his congregation included top officers of the coal company.

**Walter Rauschenbusch**, a Baptist minister who spent nine years serving in a church in one of New York City’s poorest neighborhoods, later led the Social Gospel movement. As he put it, “The Church must either condemn the world and seek to change it, or tolerate the world and conform to it.” Unlike Social Darwinists, Rauschenbusch believed that competition was the cause of many social problems, causing good people to behave badly.

The efforts of leaders like Gladden and Rauschenbusch inspired many organized churches to expand their missions. These churches began to take on community functions designed to improve society. Some of their projects included building gyms and providing social programs and day care. Others focused exclusively on helping the poor.

**The Salvation Army and the YMCA** The combination of religious faith and interest in reform nourished the growth of the Christian Mission, a social welfare organization first organized in England by a minister named William Booth. Adopting a military-style organization, the group became known as the Salvation Army in 1878. It offered practical aid and religious counseling to the urban poor.

Like the Salvation Army, the Young Men’s Christian Association (YMCA) also began in England. The YMCA tried to help industrial workers and the urban poor by organizing Bible studies, prayer meetings, citizenship training, and group activities. In the United States, YMCAs, or “Ys,” quickly spread from Boston throughout the country. YMCA facilities included libraries, gymnasiums, swimming pools, auditoriums, and low-cost hotel rooms available on a temporary basis to those in need.

**Revivalism and Dwight L. Moody** One prominent organizer of the American YMCA was **Dwight L. Moody**, who was president of the Chicago YMCA in the late 1860s. A gifted preacher and organizer, Moody founded his own church in Chicago, today known as Moody Memorial Church. By 1867 Moody had begun to organize revival meetings in other
American cities. In 1870 Moody met Ira Sankey, a hymn writer and singer. Together they introduced the gospel hymn into worship services in the United States and Great Britain. Moody’s preaching and Sankey’s hymns drew thousands of people to revival meetings in the 1870s and 1880s.

Moody strongly supported charities that helped the poor, but he rejected both the Social Gospel and Social Darwinism. He believed the way to help the poor was not by providing them with services but by redeeming their souls and reforming their character.

**The Settlement House Movement** In a way, the settlement house movement was an offshoot of the Social Gospel movement. It attracted idealistic reformers who believed it was their Christian duty to improve living conditions for the poor. During the late 1800s, reformers such as Jane Addams established settlement houses in poor neighborhoods. In these establishments, middle-class residents lived and helped poor residents, mostly immigrants.

Addams, who opened the famous Hull House in Chicago in 1889, inspired many more such settlements across the country, including the Henry Street Settlement run by Lillian Wald in New York City. The women who ran settlement houses provided everything from medical care, recreation programs, and English classes to hot lunches for factory workers. Their efforts helped shape the social work profession, in which women came to play a major role.

**Reading Check** **Summarizing** What were the beliefs of Dwight L. Moody?

**Public Education**

As the United States became increasingly industrialized and urbanized, it needed more workers who were trained and educated. The demand for skilled workers led to a much greater focus on building schools and colleges in the late 1800s.

**The Spread of Schools** The number of public schools increased quickly after the Civil War. In 1870 around 6,500,000 children attended school. By 1900 that number had risen to over 17,300,000. Public schools were often crucial to the success of immigrant children. It was there the children usually became knowledgeable about American culture, a process known as Americanization. To assimilate immigrants into American culture, schools taught immigrant children English, American history, and the responsibilities of citizenship. They also tried to instill discipline and a strong work ethic, values considered important to the nation’s progress.
Americanization could also pose a problem for immigrant children, however, because sometimes parents worried that it would make the children forget their own cultural traditions.

Not everyone had access to school. In the rush to fund education, cities were way ahead of rural areas. Many African Americans, also, did not have equal educational opportunities. To combat this discrimination, some African Americans started their own schools. The leader of this movement was Booker T. Washington, who founded the Tuskegee Institute in Alabama in 1881.

**Education for the Workplace** City schools helped immigrants assimilate, and they also helped future workers prepare for the jobs they hoped would lift their families out of poverty. The grammar school system in city schools divided students into eight grades and drilled them in timely attendance, neatness, and efficiency—necessary habits for success in the workplace. At the same time, vocational and technical education in the high schools provided students with skills required in specific trades.

**Expanding Higher Education** Colleges also multiplied in the late 1800s, helped by the Morrill Land Grant Act. This Civil War-era law gave federal land grants to states for the purpose of establishing agricultural and mechanical colleges. By 1900 land-grant colleges were established across the Midwest. The number of students enrolled expanded rapidly in this period. In 1870 around 50,000 students attended college, but by 1890 the number had more than tripled to 157,000.

Traditionally, women’s educational opportunities lagged behind men’s. Around this time, however, things began to change. The opening of private women’s colleges such as Vassar, Wellesley, and Smith, along with new women’s colleges on the campuses of Harvard and Columbia Universities, served to increase the number of women attending college.

**Public Libraries** Like public schools, free libraries also made education available to city dwellers. One of the strongest supporters of the public library movement was industrialist Andrew Carnegie, who believed access to knowledge was the key to getting ahead in life. Carnegie donated millions of dollars toward the construction of libraries all across the United States. These libraries, as well as the various educational and social reform movements that arose in the late 1800s, helped people cope with the harsher aspects of a newly industrialized society.
Critical Thinking

**Why Learn This Skill?**

When you are reading new material, you may often encounter ideas and events that you do not immediately understand. One way to overcome this difficulty is to make educated guesses about what happened.

**Learning the Skill**

When you read things that you do not understand, you probably make guesses about what the material means. You may or may not have been able to prove these guesses, but you have taken a step toward deciphering the information. This step is called **hypothesizing**. When you hypothesize, you form one or more hypotheses, which are guesses that offer possible answers to a problem or provide possible explanations for an observation. When hypothesizing, follow these steps.

1. Read the material carefully.
2. Ask yourself what the material is actually saying. To do this, try to put the material in your own words.
3. Determine what you might logically assume from your guesses. Then form one or more hypotheses.
4. Test each hypothesis to determine whether or not it is correct. You can usually do this by asking yourself questions that relate to your hypothesis and then researching the answers.
5. Based on your research, determine which hypothesis, if any, provides an explanation for the information that you originally read.

Hypotheses are only preliminary explanations. They must be accepted, rejected, or modified as the problem is investigated. Each hypothesis must be tested against the information gathered. Hypotheses that are supported by evidence can be accepted as explanations of the problem.

**Practicing the Skill**

Using the steps just discussed and what you have read in the chapter, test the following hypotheses and determine if they can be supported.

1. Most immigrants who came to the United States came in search of work.
2. Improved transportation led people to move to urban areas from rural areas.
3. The general laissez-faire approach taken by the government toward growing cities was beneficial to businesses and citizens.

**Skills Assessment**

Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 361 and the Chapter 10 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.

**Applying the Skill**

**Hypothesizing** Reread the passage titled “The Resurgence of Nativism” in Section 1. Using the facts that you are given in these paragraphs, form at least two hypotheses that may explain what is being described. Test each hypothesis, then select the best one. Which hypothesis did you choose? Why?

Glencoe’s **Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook CD-ROM, Level 2**, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Reviewing Key Facts


16. How did the Chinese in the United States react to the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882?

17. What attempts did nativist groups make to decrease immigration to the United States in the late 1800s?

18. What problems did cities in the United States face in the late 1800s?

19. What did realist authors such as Mark Twain and Henry James write about?

20. What movements in the late 1800s addressed urban problems?

Critical Thinking

21. **Analyzing Themes: Geography and History** What factors led so many people to immigrate to the United States in the late 1800s?

22. **Analyzing** What methods did political machines use to build support in the late 1800s?

23. **Evaluating** Recall the problems facing city dwellers in the late 1800s. What do you think is the biggest problem facing people living in large cities today? How do you think the problem should be solved?

24. **Interpreting Primary Sources** Reaction in the United States to “old” immigration was generally more favorable than reaction to “new” immigration. Some people, however, still favored all immigration. The following excerpt from an 1882 editorial in the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* addresses the effects of immigration on the nation.

> "In the very act of coming and traveling to reach his destination, he [the immigrant] adds... to the immediate prosperity and success of certain lines of business. ... Not only do the ocean steamers... get very large returns in carrying passengers of this description, but in forwarding them to the places chosen by the immigrants as their future homes the railroad companies also derive great benefit and their passenger traffic is greatly swelled. ..."

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Reviewing Key Terms

- steerage
- nativism
- skyscraper
- tenement
- political machine
- party boss
- graft
- philanthropy
- realism
- vaudeville
- ragtime
- naturalism
- settlement house
- Americanization

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**Chapter Summary**

- **Immigration and Internal Migration**
- **Rapid Growth of Cities**
- **Urban Problems of Poverty, Crime, and Disease**

Nativism leads to immigration restrictions and violence against immigrants.

Political machines develop to offer services to city dwellers in exchange for votes.
These immigrants not only produce largely, but, having wants which they cannot supply themselves, create a demand for outside supplies. Thus it is that the Eastern manufacturer finds the call upon him for his wares and goods growing more urgent all the time, thus the consumption of coal keeps on expanding notwithstanding the check to new railroad enterprises, and thus there is a more active and larger interchange of all commodities.

a. According to the editorial, what kind of effect did immigration have on the nation’s economy?

b. How is the editorial’s view of the effects of immigration different from that of the nativists?

25. Organizing Complete a graphic organizer similar to the one below by listing the new technologies that contributed to urban growth in the late 1800s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Technologies</th>
<th>Urban Growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Practicing Skills

26. Hypothesizing Reread the passage titled “The Spread of Schools” from Section 4. Using the information in this passage, form a hypothesis that describes the availability of education to people during this time. Write your hypothesis down and research the topic. Then state whether or not your hypothesis was correct.

Writing Activity

27. Descriptive Writing Find out about an individual in the 1800s who experienced a “rags-to-riches” success story. You might use one of the business leaders or other individuals discussed in the chapter. Write a brief sketch of the person, describing how he or she became a success.

Chapter Activity

28. American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM Read the article “The Need for Public Parks” by Frederick Law Olmsted, under Reshaping the Nation. Then work with a partner and create a design for a park that you think would meet the recreational needs of people in your community.

Geography and History

29. The graph above shows how much immigration contributed to population growth in the United States between 1860 and 1900. Study the graph and answer the questions below.

a. Interpreting Graphs By about how much did the population of the United States increase between 1861 and 1900?

b. Understanding Cause and Effect What is the relationship between immigration and population increase?