REVIEW TEXT IN AMERICAN HISTORY

(Revised, 1969)

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CONTENTS

UNIT I. A NEW WORLD IS FOUND AND A NEW NATION BORN

UNIT II. THE CONSTITUTION IS THE BASIS OF AMERICAN GOVERNMENT

UNIT III. THE YOUNG NATION TACKLES ITS MANY PROBLEMS

UNIT IV. THE NATION IS TORN BETWEEN NATIONALISM AND SECTIONALISM

workmen, (*c*) the lack of adequate inland transportation facilities for the distribution of goods, and (*d*) opposition from England.

England passed laws in accordance with the mercantile theory: that colonies should produce raw materials and exchange them for manufactured goods from the mother country. The *Woolen Act* (1699) and the *Hat Act* (1732) prohibited any colony from exporting these manufactured goods to any other colony or overseas. The *Iron Act* (1750) encouraged the shipment of crude iron to England but prohibited the colonists from making finished iron products.

COLONIAL SOCIAL AND CULTURAL PRACTICES

COLONIAL POPULATION

1. Rapid Growth. In 1700 the English colonies contained 250,000 people. By 1750, only 50 years later, the population had increased sixfold to 1,500,000. This rapid growth was due both to a considerable immigration and to a high native birth rate.

2. Variety of Peoples. The English colonies admitted persons of many diverse nationalities and cultures. Thus began the American tradition of the *melting pot.* From the British Isles came the English, Welsh, Scotch, Scotch-Irish (of Ulster in northern Ireland), and the Irish. Since the colonies accepted non-British immigrants too, many settlers came from Continental Europe, especially from France and Germany. In Delaware and New York, both formerly part of New Netherland, the original settlers were Swedish and Dutch.

3. Social Classes and Mobility. The colonial peoples were divided into three broad classes: (*a*) the aristocracy of wealth (planters and merchants) and of education (clergymen and lawyers), (*b*) the middle class of small farmers and skilled workers, and (*c*) the bottom group of indentured servants and slaves. However, colonial classes were not hereditary except for the slaves, and colonists moved easily up and down the social ladder.

COLONIAL EDUCATION

1. Elementary Education. The colonists were better educated than the people of England and Continental Europe. Nevertheless, colonial schooling varied, depending upon colony and social status. In general, upper-class children were educated by costly private tutors or in private schools. They learned both practical and classical subjects. Children of frontiersmen had the least formal education but were often taught the three R's—reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic—by their parents at home.

to cancel the 1778 treaty of alliance. Adams lost popularity with pro-war Federalists at home, but he restored the peace.

ALIEN AND SEDITION ACTS (1798)

While the crisis with France was at its height, Federalist partisans in Congress secured the passage of four laws, known as the *Alien and Sedition Acts*. Some Federalists claimed that the laws were meant to protect the United States from alien agitators. However, the chief purpose of the laws was to weaken the Democratic-Republican party.

1. The **Naturalization Act** increased from 5 to 14 years the time required for immigrants to become American citizens. The Federalists wanted to lengthen the naturalization process since most immigrants, upon becoming citizens, voted for Democratic-Republican candidates.

2. Two **Alien Acts** gave the President power to deport any alien whom he considered dangerous to the United States. Although never used, these two laws caused a number of aliens to leave the country and frightened others to refrain from speaking out against the Federalists.

3. The **Sedition Act** provided fines and imprisonment for any person who uttered or wrote "false, scandalous, and malicious" statements against Congress or the President. Even Hamilton disapproved this law, and many people considered it a violation of the First Amendment. Nevertheless, the Sedition Act remained in effect and was used to bring to trial and convict ten Democratic-Republican printers and editors.

VIRGINIA AND KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS (1798–1799)

Instead of weakening the Democratic-Republican party, the Alien and Sedition Acts actually strengthened it. Many people felt that the Federalist party threatened their civil liberties. Democratic-Republican leaders took advantage of the situation to gain votes for their party.

At the urging of Madison and Jefferson, the state legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky passed resolutions condemning these acts as unconstitutional. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions presented the states' rights doctrine, claiming that (1) the federal government was created by the states to serve as their agent, (2) state legislatures could declare laws of Congress unconstitutional, and (3) states had the right to declare such unconstitutional laws null and void.

Madison and Jefferson intended these resolutions primarily as campaign documents for the 1800 Presidential election. Nevertheless, the idea of *nullification* was to plague the United States until the supremacy of the federal government was conclusively established by the Civil War.

factory owners turned to new labor-saving machines. Labor was also scarce in the West. Farmers eagerly turned to new farm machinery to increase their productivity.

8. **Wasteful Agriculture.** Since land was so easily available, frontiersmen were not mindful of the need for conservation of soil and forests. They cut down trees senselessly and cultivated the land unwisely, destroying its fertility.

EFFECTS OF THE CLOSE OF THE FRONTIER

Turner stated that the close of the frontier, ending the era of cheap or free land, caused many of the problems that face us today.

1. **Labor.** Discontented factory workers no longer had the "safety valve" of easily available land in the West. These workers therefore remained in the industrial East and turned to labor unions to improve their conditions. The struggle between capital and labor now intensified.

2. **Immigration.** Immigrants could no longer easily acquire farms. More of them now crowded into the cities and competed for jobs in the factories. Americans began to demand restrictions upon immigration.

3. **Conservation.** With the close of the frontier, the American people awakened to the need for conservation. Farmers realized that they had to take better care of their land. Timber and mining companies came to the same realization about their resources. Federal and state agencies started projects to conserve the nation's soil, water, timber, and other natural resources.

4. **Imperialism.** American capitalists, who had looked to the frontier for raw materials, markets, and investment opportunities, now began to look elsewhere. As a result, the United States embarked on a program of economic and political imperialism in the Caribbean, Central and South America, and the Far East.

CRITICISM OF TURNER'S FRONTIER THEORY

Many historians believe that Turner exaggerated the importance of the frontier. They claim that Turner ignored the following facts: (1) American democracy was fostered by our democratic heritage from England and by the demands of workers in the industrial East for a voice in government. (2) England developed a democratic form of government without the existence of a frontier. (3) The Southwestern frontier, settled by cotton planters, developed neither democracy nor nationalism. (4) The frontier did not serve as a "safety valve" for many Eastern factory workers, since they lacked

foodstuffs and fibers at lower prices. (*d*) Taxpayers would gain relief, since direct subsidies were expected to cost less than higher price supports.

3. Problem of the Poor in Rural Areas

a. Impoverished Farmers. Two million farmers are unable to earn a decent living in agriculture. Their average income, including home-grown food and government benefits, is less than $3000 per year. Eventually, some will achieve profitable farm operations. Others will combine farming with part-time employment in industry. Most will leave the soil.

The government has assisted these farmers by two laws: (1) The *Rural Areas Development Act* (1961) provided loans for low-income farmers to expand their landholdings to an adequate size; created new rural jobs by community projects, such as home repairs and water-system construction; encouraged new industry in rural areas; and granted funds for occupational retraining of farmers. (2) The *Economic Opportunity Act* (1964), the major law in President Johnson's "war on poverty," dealt with rural as well as urban areas. It encouraged rural communities to undertake job-creating anti-poverty projects and offered farm youths further education, new work experience, and vocational training. (For a discussion of the "war on poverty," see pages 357–358.)

b. Migratory Workers. These workers total possibly a half million. They travel from region to region and find employment chiefly on large commercial farms at peak periods such as harvest-time. Working about 140 days a year and earning about $1000 a year, they live in extreme poverty. Until the 1960's their plight evoked little government concern, and their efforts to form unions were blocked by the commercial farmers.

In 1964 the migratory workers benefited when Congress prohibited the importation of temporary Mexican farm laborers. In 1966 grape pickers in California went on strike and, rallying widespread public support, forced their employers to recognize their union.

4. Rising Farm Income. Farm income in 1965 reached a record of over $4000 per farm, a gain of nearly 40 percent in five years. The farmers remaining in agriculture have shared in the nation's prosperity and are catching up with nonfarm workers. In 1966 Secretary of Agriculture *Orville Freeman* confidently stated, "The farm economy is healthier today than at any other time for more than a decade, and it will continue to improve."

UNIT VI. THE AMERICAN PEOPLE DEVELOP A DISTINCTIVE WAY OF LIFE

Part 1. The American People Come From Many Lands

UNITED STATES, A NATION OF IMMIGRANTS

Except for the Indians, all Americans are immigrants or the descendants of immigrants. During the colonial period, settlers came by the thousands. From the end of the American Revolution to today, some 45 million people have migrated to our shores.

REASONS FOR IMMIGRATION

1. **Economic.** European farmers were discouraged as they tried to reap an adequate crop from small and worn-out lands. Farmers were driven from the soil as the Agricultural Revolution brought about a change from subsistence to large-scale commercial farming. European city workers were disheartened by low wages, and many workers faced unemployment as the Industrial Revolution hastened the use of machines. Immigrants looked to America as a land of opportunity, where fertile lands could be acquired at little or no cost and where the expanding economy provided steady employment at decent wages.

2. **Political.** Most European governments were controlled by the upper classes, and the common people had little or no say in political matters. Immigrants looked to democratic America, where the ordinary citizen had a strong voice in the government.

3. **Social.** European society was characterized by rigid class distinctions, few educational opportunities for the lower classes, and discrimination against religious minorities. As World War I approached, most governments required young men to serve terms of compulsory military service. Immigrants looked to America as a land of equality, where they could rise in social status, provide an education for their children, practice their religion without fear, and be free of compulsory military service.

HARDSHIPS OF IMMIGRATION

Immigrants were the *uprooted*, having left their friends, relatives, and native lands. Being poor, most immigrants came in the most undesirable sections of ships, where conditions were often crowded and unsanitary. In the

United States, they faced the hardships of having to adjust to a new language and culture. Nevertheless, they were eager to seek their new homeland.

IMMIGRATION FROM THE END OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR TO THE CLOSE OF THE FRONTIER (1783–1890)

1. Major Periods of Immigration

a. To the Age of Jackson (1783–1830). At first, immigrants came in a slow but steady stream. Immigration increased as travel became easier with the close of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815. During the years 1821–1830, 143,000 immigrants came to the United States.

b. To the Beginning of the Civil War (1831–1860). In the next three decades, immigrants came in rapidly rising numbers: 1831–1840: 600,000; 1841–1850: 1,700,000; 1851–1860: 2,600,000. Most of these immigrants came from Ireland and Germany. The Irish, long denied self-government by England, received their main stimulus to migrate in the 1840's, when they were afflicted by a potato famine. Germans who had migrated for economic reasons were joined, after the failure of the Revolution of 1848, by German liberals and intellectuals, who came to escape political persecution.

c. To the Close of the Frontier (1861–1890). After being temporarily slowed by the Civil War, immigration again began rising, from 2,800,000 in the years 1871–1880 to 5,200,000 in the years 1881–1890. Immigrants after the Civil War were attracted by the claims of agents and by advertisements of steamship companies and land-grant railroads, and by "America letters" of praise sent by earlier immigrants.

Immigrants continued coming from England, Ireland, and Germany. Farmers came from the Scandinavian countries of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark to look for abundant and fertile soil.

2. Americans Welcomed Immigration. Most Americans considered immigrants an asset to our growing nation. Immigrants represented (*a*) workers for factories, mines, and railroads, (*b*) farmers for Western lands, (*c*) consumers for the products of agriculture and industry, (*d*) men of special abilities, talents, and skills, and (*e*) military strength for the nation.

Americans took pride in their country's tradition as a haven for the oppressed. *Emma Lazarus* expressed the feelings of most Americans in her poem "The New Colossus," which is inscribed on the base of the Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor: "Give me your tired, your poor, your huddled masses yearning to breathe free."

3. Early Opposition to Immigration: The "Know-Nothings." Some Americans disapproved of the Irish and German immigrants for taking jobs away

from native Americans, for failing to assimilate into American society, and mostly just for being Catholic. By the 1850's nativist (anti-foreign) and anti-Catholic groups had formed a number of societies, the most influential being the *Know-Nothings*. This society was so called because its members, pledged to secrecy, answered "I know nothing" when asked about the society. The Know-Nothings purported to defend Protestantism against Catholicism and sought to restrict immigration. To further their goals, they ran candidates for political office. Despite initial political gains, the society soon died out, as Americans rejected religious intolerance and concentrated upon the problems of slavery and sectionalism.

4. **"Old Immigrants": Characteristics.** Historians have traditionally referred to the people coming before 1890 as "old immigrants." The "old immigrants" originated chiefly from northern and western Europe: Great Britain, Ireland, Germany, Holland, France, and the Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. They arrived while the frontier was still open, and many settled on farms in the West. It has been claimed that, since these "old immigrants" possessed customs and traditions similar to those of Americans, they adjusted easily to American ways of life.

IMMIGRATION FROM THE CLOSE OF THE FRONTIER TO THE BEGINNING OF WORLD WAR I (1890–1914)

1. **"New Immigrants": Characteristics.** Historians have traditionally referred to the people coming after 1890 as the "new immigrants." They came in greater numbers than immigrants had ever come before. From 1901 to 1910 some 8,800,000 persons entered the United States. Unlike the "old immigrants," the "new immigrants" originated chiefly in southern and eastern Europe: Italy, Greece, Austria-Hungary, Serbia, Rumania, Russian Poland, and Russia. They arrived when the frontier was closed and therefore settled chiefly in the cities as factory workers. It has been claimed that, since the "new immigrants" possessed customs and traditions different from those of Americans, they experienced difficulty in adjusting to American ways of life.

2. **Typical Migratory Groups.** Italians, Serbs, and Greeks fled poverty. Peoples in the despotic Austro-Hungarian and Russian Empires fled heavy taxes and, as World War I approached, compulsory military service. Jews in Russia and in Russian-controlled Poland had long been forced to live in special districts, called the *Pale of Settlement*, and had been subjected to educational restrictions and to legal and economic discrimination. They now fled Czarist-inspired outbreaks of anti-Semitic violence, called *pogroms*.

3. **Opposition to Immigration.** Many Americans disapproved of the "new immigrants," arguing as follows: (*a*) With the frontier closed, there was no more free or cheap land for immigrants. (*b*) American industry had suffi-

cient workers, and "new immigrants" competed with and took jobs away from native Americans. This argument was emphasized by labor unions. (*c*) The "new immigrants" were difficult to Americanize. They had little education. They settled in large cities, creating their own ghettos, and felt no need to learn American ways. Their ghettos were becoming breeding places of disease and crime. (*d*) Some people argued that the "new immigrants" were physically and mentally inferior to the "old immigrants." This was known as the "theory of Nordic supremacy."

4. In Defense of the "New Immigrants." (*a*) The "new immigrants" assimilated as well as had the Irish and German "old immigrants." Critics of the "new immigrants" forgot that the Germans, too, had clung to their native tongue and that the Irish had been impoverished and uneducated. The Irish and the Germans had also been accused of being clannish and of not assimilating quickly into the American Protestant society. (*b*) The "new immigrants" who flocked to the cities were joined by native Americans who moved in from the farms. Both groups contributed to the urban problems of slums, disease, and crime. Again, critics of the "new immigrants" forgot that the Irish, too, had settled in the cities. (*c*) The "new immigrants" provided the additional workers needed by our growing industry. Furthermore, they stimulated industrial growth by enlarging the domestic market for goods. (*d*) Reputable scientists rejected the theory of Nordic supremacy as false. (*e*) The "new immigrants" contributed greatly to American life.

EARLY STEPS RESTRICTING IMMIGRATION

1. The Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) began the prohibition of the immigration of Chinese. The law was passed following agitation and riots on the West Coast against cheap "coolie" labor. The prohibition lasted until World War II.

2. The Gentlemen's Agreement (1907) contained a promise by the Japanese government to deny passports to Japanese laborers seeking to migrate to the United States. Negotiated by President Theodore Roosevelt, it followed anti-Japanese race riots in California, and local and state laws discriminating against Japanese immigrants. In 1924 Congress unilaterally ended the Gentlemen's Agreement by prohibiting all Japanese immigration to the United States.

3. The Literacy Test Act (1917) required immigrants to be able to read English or their own language before entering the United States. This act was passed over a veto by President Wilson, who insisted that literacy indicated not mental ability, but merely that an immigrant had received the opportunity to go to school.

RESTRICTIVE IMMIGRATION LAWS FOLLOWING WORLD WAR I

When World War I ended, Americans withdrew emotionally from world affairs, and their isolationist sentiments reinforced their opposition to immigration. At the same time, Americans experienced a "Red scare," occasioned by the Communist seizure of the Russian government in 1917. Americans feared that foreign radicals would infiltrate the United States. The Ku Klux Klan added its voice to demand protection of "white Protestant America." Congress passed the following restrictive immigration laws:

1. **The Emergency Quota Act of 1921** limited the annual number of immigrants from each nation to 3 percent of the foreign-born persons from that nation residing in the United States according to the 1910 census. This limitation set a ceiling on total immigration from outside the Western Hemisphere of 350,000 annually.

2. **The Immigration Act of 1924** reduced immigration quotas to 2 percent and shifted the base date to 1890, thereby favoring the admission of persons coming from lands from which the "old immigrants" had come. This act also contained more permanent regulations, which became the National Origins Plan.

3. **National Origins Plan of 1929**

a. Provisions. This plan (1) permitted no more than 150,000 immigrants from outside the Western Hemisphere to enter the United States per year, (2) allotted each country a quota in proportion to the number of persons in the United States having that national origin according to the census of 1920, (3) granted each eligible nation at least 100 immigrants per year, (4) placed no restrictions on immigration from the Western Hemisphere, and (5) prohibited all immigration from Asian countries. (Following World War II, Asian countries were included in the quota plan, most receiving a quota of 100 immigrants per year.)

b. Effects. The National Origins Plan, coupled with the Depression of 1929, sharply curtailed immigration. From 1931 to 1940, a total of only 530,000 immigrants arrived at our shores. Most quotas remained unfilled, especially those for northern and western Europe, and annual immigration remained far below the quota limit.

DISPLACED PERSONS PROBLEM

After World War II, Europe contained many millions of *refugees*, or *displaced persons*, including (1) survivors of the German concentration camps, especially Jews, anti-Nazi Germans, and anti-Nazis of nations overrun by Germany who wanted to start life anew, far from Europe, (2) slave laborers,

chiefly eastern Europeans, who had been forced to work in Germany during the war and who refused to return home to Communist rule, and (3) escapees from Communist rule in eastern Europe. The plight of the refugees touched American sympathies. Congress passed several Displaced Persons Acts which by 1956 allowed into the United States some 600,000 refugees above the yearly immigration quotas.

McCARRAN-WALTER ACT OF 1952

This comprehensive *Immigration and Nationality Act* revised and codified our previous laws regarding immigration and naturalization.

1. Provisions. The new law (*a*) restated the National Origins Plan by setting a limit of 154,000 immigrants per year and by granting each country a quota based on the 1920 census, (*b*) allowed each Asian country a quota, usually 100 immigrants per year, (*c*) required the careful screening of immigrants to keep out subversives and other security risks, and (*d*) eased the procedures for revoking the citizenship of recently naturalized citizens who joined Communist or Communist-front organizations and for deporting undesirable aliens.

2. Arguments for the Act. (*a*) The total of 154,000 admissions per year from outside the Western Hemisphere prevented the flooding of the United States with immigrants. (*b*) The use of the national origins system preserved the "nationality make-up" of our population. (*c*) The law rejected any racial bias by admitting immigrants from Asian countries. (*d*) The danger of Communism made necessary the provisions for tighter screening, for revoking citizenship, and for deporting undesirable aliens.

3. Arguments Against the Act. (*a*) The United States, with its relatively low population density, could absorb a larger number of immigrants per year. (*b*) The use of national origins quotas discriminated against immigrants from eastern and southern Europe and from Asia. The law assigned a quota of 109,000 out of a total of 154,000 to three countries: Great Britain, Germany, and Ireland. Unused quotas could not be transferred to nations that had already filled their quotas. (*c*) The census of 1960, not of 1920, should have been used. (*d*) The screening provisions were so strict that they might serve to exclude immigrants worthy of admission. (*e*) The law made recently naturalized citizens into "second-class citizens," since they could be denaturalized and deported for committing certain acts for which natural-born citizens could not be similarly punished.

President Truman vetoed the McCarran-Walter Bill as "repressive and inhumane." Congress overrode the President's veto. Subsequently, Presidents Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson all requested a revision of our immigration laws.

IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1965

At President Johnson's urging, Congress in 1965 passed a law considerably changing our immigration policies. To symbolize the significance of the new law, President Johnson signed it at the foot of the Statue of Liberty.

1. **Provisions.** (*a*) Effective in 1968, the law abolished the national origins system. (*b*) For countries outside the Western Hemisphere, it established a quota of 170,000 immigrants per year. (*c*) For countries within the Western Hemisphere, the law established a quota for the first time. This quota was set at 120,000 immigrants per year. (*d*) The law set a limit of 20,000 immigrants per year from any one nation. (*e*) It provided standards for admitting immigrants according to the following priorities: (1) close relatives of United States residents, (2) scientists, artists, professional people, and skilled and unskilled workers needed to fill labor shortages, and (3) refugees from Communist rule or from natural calamity. (*f*) The law permitted up to 60,000 close relatives of American citizens to immigrate to the United States each year without counting against the quota of 170,000.

2. **Significant Changes.** (*a*) The new law replaced the national origins system, with its stress upon race and nationality, by a priority system emphasizing family relationship, value to the United States, and motive for migrating. (*b*) It cut down the number of immigrants from within the Western Hemisphere from about 150,000 in 1965 to a maximum of 120,000. (*c*) It ended the preference given north and west European nations, and placed them on an equal footing with other countries. (*d*) It permitted an increase in the number of immigrants from Asia, Africa, and southern and eastern Europe.

IMMIGRANTS AND DISCRIMINATION

Each group of immigrants faced discrimination at the hands of native Americans—themselves descendants of earlier immigrants. Those immigrants who settled in cities and sought factory work were particularly affected. (1) ***Economically.*** They were the last to be hired, kept at the poorest jobs, and the first to be fired. (2) ***Socially.*** They were confined to ghettos and slums; excluded from the better hotels, restaurants, and clubs; and often refused admission to institutions of higher learning. Nevertheless, by displaying natural ability and determination, these immigrants achieved success and acceptance. Irishman and German, Italian and Slav, Jew and Catholic—all suffered from discrimination, all strove valiantly, and all entered the mainstream of American life.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF IMMIGRANT GROUPS TO AMERICA

1. Cultural. The immigrants brought the cultural heritages of their native lands to America. With time, certain features of these heritages died out while other features survived. The surviving features can still be seen in such aspects of American life as our foods, music, literature, sports, and language, all of which reflect a variety of contributions by immigrants. Perhaps most important, the cultural and religious diversity of immigrants promoted a spirit of toleration among most Americans. Because the United States successfully absorbed different peoples and heritages to form a new American nationality, typified by its own culture, the United States has been called a *melting pot.*

2. Economic. The immigrants were eager for honest, useful work. Immigrants from each nation found employment in many industries. Nevertheless, many groups have become identified with specific industries. Scandinavians farmed the land. Irishmen and Italians built canals, railroads, and bridges. Jews worked in the garment industry. Poles and other Slavs, as well as Hungarians, mined coal and iron ore, and labored in the steel mills.

The immigrants increased the demand for the products of agriculture and industry, thereby further encouraging American economic growth. Also, by coming to the United States in especially great numbers during times of business expansion, immigrants served to prevent any shortage of labor.

Finally, many immigrants brought special talents and became prominent in such varied fields as science, education, medicine, and the arts.

SOME OUTSTANDING IMMIGRANTS

1. British. *Alexander Graham Bell,* inventor of the telephone; steel magnate and philanthropist *Andrew Carnegie;* physician and surgeon *William W. Mayo;* labor leader *Philip Murray;* chemist *Joseph Priestley.*

2. Chinese. Architect *Ieoh Ming Pei;* theoretical physicists *Chen Ning Yang* and *Tsung Dao Lee;* writer *Lin Yutang.*

3. French. Gunpowder manufacturer *Eleuthère Irénée DuPont,* whose company evolved into today's giant chemical concern; architect *Pierre Charles L'Enfant,* who provided the basic design for the city of Washington, D.C.; opera star *Lily Pons.*

4. German. Governor *John Peter Altgeld* of Illinois; optical equipment manufacturers *John J. Bausch* and *Henry Lomb;* engineer and designer of the Brooklyn Bridge, *John Roebling;* civil service reformer *Carl Schurz;* electrical engineer *Charles Steinmetz.*

5. **Irish.** Magazine publisher *Peter F. Collier;* light opera composer *Victor Herbert;* educator *Thomas Hunter;* sculptor *Augustus Saint-Gaudens.*

6. **Italian.** *Mother Frances X. Cabrini* (later sainted), founder of orphanages and hospitals; atomic scientist *Enrico Fermi;* opera composer and lyricist *Gian-Carlo Menotti;* symphony orchestra conductor *Arturo Toscanini.*

7. **Jewish.** From ***Austria***—Supreme Court Justice *Felix Frankfurter;* musical comedy composer *Frederick Loewe.* From ***England***—labor leader *Samuel Gompers.* From ***Germany***—physician *Simon Baruch;* theoretical physicist *Albert Einstein.* From ***Hungary***—pediatric physician *Bela Schick;* atomic scientist *Edward Teller.* From ***Russia***—musical comedy composer *Irving Berlin;* radio and television executive *David Sarnoff;* microbiologist *Selman Waksman,* discoverer of antibiotics; motion picture producer *Harry Warner.*

8. **Russian.** Choreographer *George Balanchine,* director of the New York City Ballet; airplane designer and manufacturer *Igor Sikorsky,* inventor of the helicopter; composer *Igor Stravinsky.*

9. **Scandinavian.** From ***Denmark***—automobile magnate *William Knudsen,* President of General Motors; writer and social reformer *Jacob Riis.* From ***Norway***—football coach *Knute Rockne.* From ***Sweden***—engineer *John Ericsson,* designer of the ironclad warship *Monitor.*

10. **Yugoslavian.** Scientist and inventor *Michael Pupin;* symphony orchestra conductor *Artur Rodzinski.*

MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Which was an important cause of immigration to the United States in the 1840's? (1) the Napoleonic Wars (2) changes in our immigration policy (3) revolutions in Europe (4) completion of the first transcontinental railroad.

2. Which event had the most immediate effect upon immigration to the United States? (1) the defeat of France by Prussia in 1870–1871 (2) the potato famine in Ireland (3) the Crimean War (4) the gaining of independence by Belgium.

3. In which period did the largest number of immigrants enter the United States? (1) 1789–1810 (2) 1840–1860 (3) 1870–1890 (4) 1890–1910.

4. The United States had a liberal immigration policy during most of the 19th century because (1) many Congressmen were foreign-born (2) the population of the United States remained constant (3) there was a shortage of labor in the United States (4) prosperous times in Europe discouraged immigration to the United States.

5. In the latter part of the 19th century, a liberal immigration policy was generally opposed by (1) Eastern manufacturers (2) land speculators (3) labor unions (4) railroad companies.

6. Where can an expression of the philosophy of the United States concerning immigration be found? (1) in Washington's Farewell Address (2) on the base of the Statue of Liberty (3) in the Clayton Act (4) in the Gettysburg Address.

of their population still living in rural areas, were North Dakota, Mississippi, West Virginia, Vermont, South Dakota, and North Carolina.

Our five most populous cities were New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, and Detroit.

REASONS FOR THE GROWTH OF CITIES

1. **Industrial Revolution.** As industries arose, workers congregated about the factories. These workers added to existing city populations or created new cities. Because urban dwellers needed food, clothing, entertainment, and professional services, still more people came to the cities.

2. **Social and Cultural Attractions.** Many people were attracted to cities by social and cultural facilities: colleges and universities, theaters and movies, symphonies, libraries, and lecture forums.

3. **Improved Transportation and Communication.** The railroads, telegraph lines, and telephones that served the cities enabled the city dwellers to (*a*) obtain foodstuffs and other essentials, (*b*) distribute the products of city factories throughout the land, and (*c*) conduct business transactions quickly and efficiently from a central office.

4. **Decreasing Farm Population.** Farmers and farm laborers were driven from the countryside by the (*a*) drabness and hardships of farm life, (*b*) low agricultural prices and difficult times, especially following the Civil War and again following World War I, and (*c*) increased mechanization and growth of commercial farming.

5. **Immigration From Europe.** During most of the 19th century, some "old immigrants," including many Germans and Irishmen, settled in cities. After the close of the frontier in 1890, the "new immigrants" overwhelmingly settled in cities. These urban settlers found jobs in city factories and other business establishments. As newcomers unfamiliar with American culture, they preferred to live among fellow immigrants who spoke their native tongue. National groups tended to congregate in special sections of a city, thereby forming ghettos.

6. **Migrations of Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Mexicans**

a. Negroes. In the 20th century, Negro migrants left the rural areas of the South for urban centers. Some Negroes moved to cities in the South, but more moved to cities in the West and North. By 1960 only half of our Negro population remained in the South, and these lived chiefly in cities. The other half lived in the West and North, overwhelmingly concentrated in major urban centers. Negroes constituted large minorities in America's five most populous cities, all Western and Northern.

tion for cities and suburbs in both houses of state legislatures and in the federal House of Representatives. City officials hope that this change will mean greater attention by legislatures to urban problems.

POVERTY AMONG RURAL AND URBAN PEOPLES

PROBLEMS OF POVERTY

1. Extent of Poverty. In 1960, despite our post-World War II affluence, 10 million American families lived in poverty. They struggled to secure the necessities of life with yearly incomes of less than $3000. These 10 million impoverished families, about 4 million being rural and 6 million urban, totaled 35 million individuals, or about 20 percent of our total population.

2. Causes of Poverty

a. Lack of Training. Millions of Americans have never received vocational or professional training. Filling only low-skill or no-skill jobs, they receive little pay and face frequent unemployment.

b. Worn-Out Farms. Many small farmers, working a few acres of exhausted land, eke out a difficult living. They lack the capital to acquire sizable fertile lands and to buy expensive machines. They live in areas that do not afford adequate health and educational facilities. A number of rural poor have abandoned their farms and moved to the cities, but, lacking education and skills, they remain impoverished.

c. Old Age. With medical science prolonging life, the number of aged has steadily increased. Unable to find work, many old persons find their incomes reduced to the poverty level.

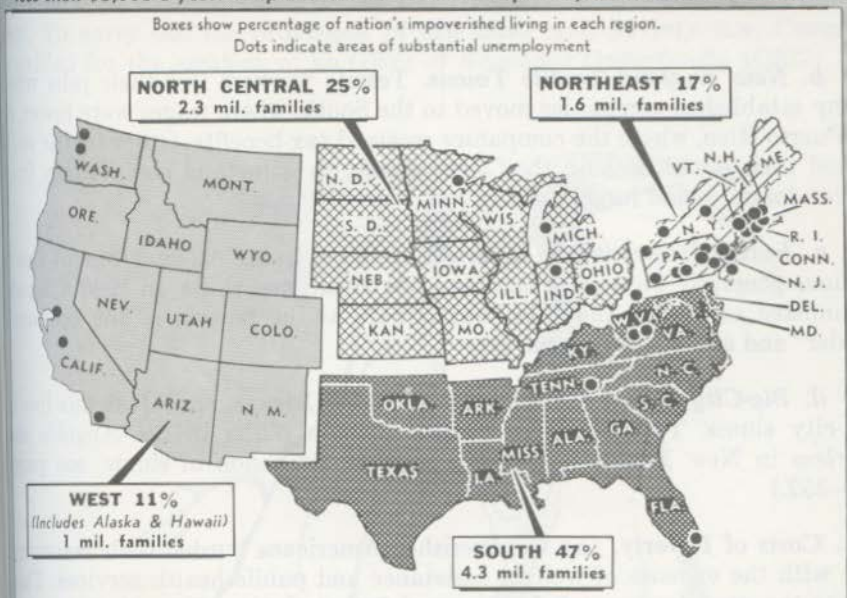
d. Death or Desertion of the Father. Many families are plunged into poverty when the father dies or deserts his family. The mother, lacking job skills and burdened by young children, is unable to support a family by herself.

e. Discrimination. Minority groups, including Puerto Ricans, Mexicans, and Negroes, have suffered discrimination in education, housing, and jobs. They suffer poverty both because of discrimination in hiring and because of their lack of skills.

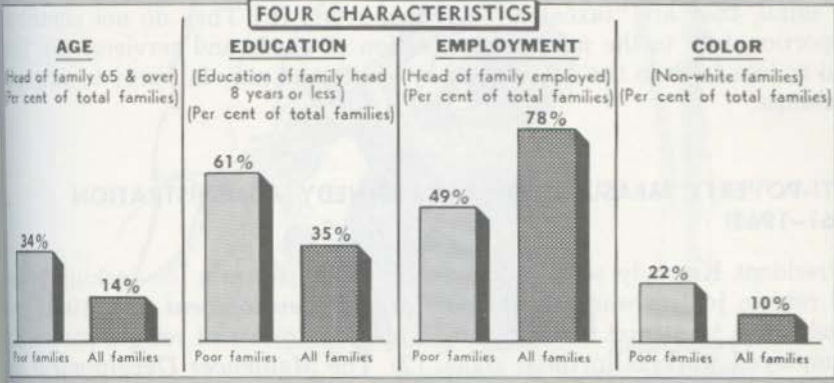
Children of impoverished families are often born into an environment of despair and hopelessness, and do not receive the training necessary to rise out of poverty. From generation to generation, they remain chained to a *cycle of poverty.*

POVERTY IN THE UNITED STATES —A PROFILE

Families living in poverty are defined by the U. S. Government as those having less than $3,000 a year. Map and charts show where poverty is and whom it affects.



FOUR CHARACTERISTICS



2. **Beginnings of Civil Service Reform.** Hayes antagonized the regular, or "Stalwart," Republicans by trying to curtail political patronage: dismissing unneeded and incompetent employees; forbidding officeholders from being assessed political contributions; and naming as his Secretary of the Interior the Liberal Republican advocate of civil service reform, *Carl Schurz*.

3. **Hayes' Anti-Labor Acts.** (*a*) Hayes employed federal troops in 1877 against the railroad strikers. (*b*) Hayes vetoed a Chinese exclusion bill, claiming that it violated our treaty with China. He was condemned as favoring cheap "coolie" labor.

IMPORTANT DOMESTIC LEGISLATION: SILVER COINAGE

The ***Bland-Allison Act*** (1878), passed over Hayes' veto, provided that the government purchase and coin a limited quantity of silver.

GARFIELD-ARTHUR ADMINISTRATION: 1881–1885 (REPUBLICAN)

MAJOR POLITICAL ASPECTS

1. **Election of 1880.** The Republican convention, split between rival factions, turned on the 36th ballot to a compromise candidate, Ohio Congressman *James A. Garfield*. The Democrats nominated a former Union general, *Winfield S. Hancock*. The campaign was undistinguished as to issues, but the Republicans were well organized and expended heavy funds. Despite a very slim lead in popular votes, Garfield won easily in the electoral college.

2. **Assassination of Garfield (1881).** In office less than four months, Garfield was fatally shot by a disappointed officeseeker. He was succeeded by his Vice President, *Chester A. Arthur*.

3. **Arthur as President (1881–1885): The Office Makes the Man.** Though he had been a machine politician, Arthur rose to the responsibilities of his office by maintaining an able and honest administration. He began modernization of the American navy by constructing steel warships; fought corruption; and strongly supported civil service reform.

IMPORTANT DOMESTIC LEGISLATION

(1) The ***Chinese Exclusion Act*** (1882), passed after revision of our treaty obligations with China, suspended the immigration of Chinese laborers. (2) The ***Pendleton Act*** (1883) set the basis of our present federal civil service system.

naval power unless for aggression. No agreement was reached; soon afterwards Japan started a new naval race.

3. The United States Joins in International Pacts

a. Nine-Power Treaty at the Washington Conference (1921–1922). The United States, Japan, Britain, France, and five smaller nations agreed to support equal trading rights in China and to respect China's independence, thus reaffirming the Open Door Policy.

b. Kellogg-Briand Pact (1928). *Frank Kellogg*, American Secretary of State, and *Aristide Briand*, French Foreign Minister, proposed a pact to settle all disputes peacefully and to outlaw war "as an instrument of national policy." Most nations, including Germany, Japan, and Italy, signed this idealistic statement, also called the *Pact of Paris*.

c. Failure of International Pacts. In the 1930's militarist Japan, Fascist Italy, and Nazi Germany all violated the Kellogg-Briand Pact. Japan also violated the Nine-Power Treaty. Without provision for enforcement and without restraining action by the other signatories, these agreements proved worthless.

FURTHER EVIDENCES OF ISOLATION BY THE UNITED STATES

1. Refusal to Join the World Court. The World Court was established by the League to settle disputes between nations according to international law. Despite the requests of four successive Presidents—Harding, Coolidge, Hoover, and Roosevelt—Senate isolationists managed to keep the United States from membership in the World Court. They insisted that the World Court was a "back door" into the League.

2. Immigration Restrictions. Congress passed a series of immigration laws reversing our "open house" policy and drastically limiting admissions. Congress thus expressed American sentiment for fewer world contacts—an aspect of isolationism.

3. High Tariff Policy. Congress restored high import duties and in 1930 passed the highest rates ever. By such protectionism, Congress reflected the isolationist view in economic matters.

4. Insistence Upon Repayment of War Debts. During World War I the European Allies—mainly Britain, France, and Italy—had borrowed $10 billion from the United States. Thereafter, the Allies suggested that the United States cancel the war debts because they (*a*) had spent the money, chiefly for American war materials, to secure victory for the United States as well as for themselves, (*b*) could not repay as long as America's high tariffs made it difficult for them to secure dollars, and (*c*) could not repay unless they