

PERIOD 7 1890–1945

Overview

Between 1890 and 1945, the United States became an international power, while at home issues surrounding industrialization, urbanization, and the demands of an increasingly diverse society came to the fore. As the U.S. economy became more dependent on large corporations and the production of consumer goods, people increasingly moved from rural areas to urban centers where jobs were available. Although these new jobs offered opportunities to many who had been underemployed, cycles of boom and bust created periodic instability. The Great Depression was the most dramatic of these economic downturns, leading to calls for more regulation of the national economy.

Progressive reformers began to call for government intervention in the economy to relieve the suffering of the urban working classes, who faced the greatest hardships. These reformers, often urban middle-class women, targeted reform of both social and political institutions. Another group worked in the area of conservation of natural resources. National, state, and local leaders responded to this call for reform, particularly after the trauma of the Great Depression, and the result was the transformation of the government into a limited welfare state.

Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal built on many of the ideas of earlier Progressive reformers and created government programs to aid the poor and reshape the American economy. Roosevelt faced conservative opposition in Congress and from the Supreme Court, yet he was able to introduce reforms that made many feel more secure. His programs were identified with the Democratic Party and led a number of racial and ethnic groups to switch loyalties from the Republicans.

The years from 1890 to 1945 saw the introduction of many new forms of technology and communication. Although these advances helped many improve their standard of living, others felt their traditional ways of life were being threatened. These years were a time of traumatic change for many, with economic instability, world wars, and the stresses associated with migration. Conflicts emerged on a number of fronts: social, political, economic, and religious.

The xenophobia caused by World War I led the United States to enact a series of restrictive immigration laws in the 1920s. Fears of the spread of socialism and communism also inspired Congress to pass laws restricting citizens' civil liberties, all in the name of national security. A rash of labor strikes fed the fear of a "Red Scare," (called this because red was associated with the new Soviet Union), leading to even stricter overseas immigration controls. The nation opened borders within the Western Hemisphere, however, to allow in a steady supply of cheap labor. Although Mexicans were welcomed in the 1920s, they faced uncertain futures as migrant workers in the 1930s and 1940s.

African Americans also began to move out of the South in significant numbers to urban centers in the North, Midwest, and West Coast, seeking jobs and an escape from Jim Crow. This "Great Migration" had an impact throughout the country, particularly in New York City in the form of the Harlem Renaissance, a rich contribution to the national culture.

At the beginning of this time period, the United States took its first steps into the international arena. There was much disagreement within the United States as to whether such a move

was in keeping with America's traditional position as a defender of the colonized. The War of 1898, or the Spanish-American War, left the country with island territories as well as military and economic interests to defend in the Caribbean and the Pacific. Debates over whether the United States should rightly be an imperialist power would continue for the rest of this century and beyond, although clearly the country was now an international presence.

World War I effectively ended the United States's long-term position as a neutral and isolated power, though debates over the U.S. role in international affairs continued in the 1920s and 1930s. The American Expeditionary Force entered in the last years of the war, which allowed Woodrow Wilson to play a role at the postwar negotiations at Versailles. The resulting Treaty of Versailles and Wilson's League of Nations proved unpopular in the United States, and the country spent the next two decades trying to follow a unilateral foreign policy and retreat back into isolationism, an ultimately unsuccessful effort.

The attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941 ended U.S. isolationism overnight and launched the country into World War II and a position of international political and military prominence that would not change with the end of the war. The mass mobilization required for the war effort effectively ended what was left of the Great Depression. Women and minorities benefitted from these jobs as well. American values came under scrutiny during the course of the war with the Japanese internment, the ongoing civil rights struggle, and the moral and ethical questions surrounding the decision to use atomic weapons on Japan. The United States and the Allies defeated the Axis powers through their combined military, economic, and technological strength. The United States emerged from World War II as the most powerful nation on earth.

Key Terms

Be sure that you understand the meaning of these terms and their relevance in U.S. history.

American exceptionalism	Laissez-faire
Appeasement	Liberalism
Belligerents	Classical liberalism
Chauvinism	Regulatory liberalism
Feminism	Social welfare liberalism
Fundamentalism	Muckrakers
Cronyism	Pan-Africanism
Culture wars	Popular culture and high culture
Dollar diplomacy	Populism
Economic collectivism	Progressivism
Fascism	Red Scare
General strike	Self-determination
Imperial presidency	Social settlements
Industrial unionism	Victorian morality
Internal migration	Welfare state
Internationalism	Welfare capitalism
Isolationism	Yellow journalism
Keynesian economics	Xenophobia

Questions to Consider

As you study Period 7, keep the following thematic questions in mind.

Identity

1890–1917

- ♦ What accounted for increased ethnic and racial tensions in American cities in the early years of the twentieth century?
- ♦ What arguments were voiced by both black and white leaders about the rights and the roles of African Americans in the years leading to World War I?
- ♦ Why and how did the relationships between men and women change between 1890 and 1920?
- ♦ Why were women often in the forefront of Progressive reforms?
- ♦ Why did gay subcultures emerge in American cities in the early twentieth century?

1917–1929

- ♦ How was the United States able to mobilize for war so quickly?
- ♦ What contributions did African Americans, Native Americans, and women make to the war effort?
- ♦ How did World War I influence the debates over the role of women in the decade after this war?
- ♦ Shortly after World War I ended, a journalist said, “The World War has accentuated all our differences.” In what ways was this true in postwar America?

1929–1945

- ♦ How did the depression exacerbate the struggles that Mexican Americans and Native Americans confronted?
- ♦ Despite the fact that women and minorities gained relatively little from New Deal programs, many women and African Americans became part of the Roosevelt coalition. Why did this happen?
- ♦ Wartime work for women “combined new opportunities with old constraints.” What new opportunities did the war bring for women, and in what ways were they still constrained?
- ♦ How did World War II influence debates about race and ethnicity during and after the war?

Work, Exchange, and Technology

1890–1917

- ♦ Why was the coinage issue so controversial in the years leading to the twentieth century and even beyond, into the 1930s?
- ♦ How were class differences reflected in the use of new technologies in the years prior to World War I?
- ♦ What were the milestones in the struggle between American corporations and American workers in the years before World War I?
- ♦ What role did Progressive presidents play in reforming the American economic system?
- ♦ Progressive reforms that protected workers often turned out to be a double-edged sword. Why?

- ♦ In what ways was the Triangle Shirtwaist Company fire a watershed event in American history?
- ♦ What were the successes and failures of the American labor movement in the years prior to World War I? Account for these.

1917–1929

- ♦ Why was the automobile such a significant technological development?
- ♦ What were the most important characteristics of the consumer culture that emerged in the 1920s? Account for the emergence of consumerism in the 1920s, and explain how it differed from the consumer culture of the late nineteenth century.

1929–1945

- ♦ How did urban workers and farmers respond to the challenges they faced after the collapse of the stock market in 1929?
- ♦ How did economic forces affect the American political landscape in the years between the two world wars?
- ♦ What steps did Franklin Roosevelt's administration take to improve the American economy and the lives of workers?
- ♦ How did the American workplace change when the United States went to war in 1941?
- ♦ What impact did the development of the atomic bomb by the United States have on the American economy and on American culture in the decades following World War II?

Peopling

- ♦ As cities grew in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, what new forms of amusement appeared? What functions did these new activities serve?
- ♦ What efforts were made to help the poor as they became increasingly visible in American cities?
- ♦ What demographic changes occurred in the United States as a result of American entry into each of the world wars? How did these demographic shifts affect the economic, political, and social fabric of the nation?

Politics and Power

1890–1917

- ♦ What did the Populists demand of government, and how responsive was government to the needs of rural Americans?
- ♦ Why was it that the Populists garnered so much support in the 1890s only to fade from the national political landscape a decade later?
- ♦ In what ways did the Populist movement of the late nineteenth century pave the way for the Progressive Era of the early twentieth century?
- ♦ What new challenges did American cities face at the turn of the century, and how did government address these problems?
- ♦ Many scholars argue that progressivism was largely a middle-class movement. Do you agree with this assessment? Why or why not?
- ♦ Government intervention was not the only approach used to combat the problems facing urban America. How successful were private individuals and organizations in effecting change in American cities?

- ♦ Your text argues that a major shift in Republican policy occurred when Theodore Roosevelt was in the White House. To what degree were Roosevelt's policies a major departure from those of his nineteenth-century Gilded Age predecessors?
- ♦ In what ways were the policies and actions of Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson similar? Which president better deserves to be called "progressive"?
- ♦ Despite restrictions on the voting rights of blacks and immigrants, government actions in the early twentieth century gave more power to some voters. What changes strengthened democracy in the years prior to World War I?

1917–1929

- ♦ What were the most persuasive arguments in support of and in opposition to women's suffrage?
- ♦ What arguments were made in support of limited government in the 1920s? What specific government actions supported limited government, and which increased the scope of government?
- ♦ In what ways were the presidencies of Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover different from those of Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson? Account for the changes that occurred in the role of the presidency in the years from 1900 to 1929.
- ♦ How did the United States justify limitations placed on individual liberty during World War I?
- ♦ Why did so many Americans oppose President Wilson's plans for the postwar world?

1929–1945

- ♦ What does your textbook present as the two competing visions of government? Compare these visions, and analyze how the battle between them shaped American politics from the 1930s to the present.
- ♦ What personal beliefs were at the heart of Herbert Hoover's response to the Great Depression? Why was his response to the problems confronting the nation considered inadequate?
- ♦ In what ways did the depression and the New Deal alter the structure and power of the federal government?
- ♦ What groups joined the Roosevelt coalition, and why did they feel that their interests were served by the Roosevelt presidency?
- ♦ What new challenges to his leadership did Roosevelt face in his second administration? How did he confront these challenges?
- ♦ How effectively did Franklin Roosevelt and Congress address the crises brought about by the Great Depression?
- ♦ In what ways did the Great Depression and New Deal contribute to a realignment of American political parties?
- ♦ What were the characteristics of the American welfare state that was established during the 1930s, and why was this development so significant?

America in the World

1890–1917

- ♦ What caused Americans to embrace imperialism in the late nineteenth century, only to reject it in the early twentieth century and into the 1930s?
- ♦ Why did the United States go to war against Spain in 1898?

- ♦ How wise do you think it was for the United States to intervene in Cuba and the Philippines?
- ♦ How did Theodore Roosevelt's foreign policy reflect the assertion of masculinity that was so prevalent in American culture?
- ♦ We often think of American intervention in other nations to be primarily military in nature. In what other ways did the United States involve itself in the political and economic life of other countries, especially in the Western Hemisphere, in the years before World War I?

1917–1929

- ♦ How was President Wilson able to reconcile his idealism with his decision to take the United States into war in 1917?
- ♦ To what extent were Wilson's Fourteen Points both idealistic and a reflection of global political and economic realities?
- ♦ How was the United States able to quickly mobilize for war in the years just prior to 1917 and 1941?
- ♦ In what ways did World War I set the stage for the outbreak of war only two decades later, in 1939?

1929–1939

- ♦ Despite the growing threat of fascism, why were so many Americans opposed to intervention in Europe? How did President Roosevelt overcome that opposition?
- ♦ What wartime strategies were most effective in achieving victory for the United States and its allies?
- ♦ In what ways was World War II also fought on the home front?
- ♦ In what ways were both World War I and World War II turning points in American history?
- ♦ In what ways did World War II hasten "profound social change" and expand the scope and authority of the federal government?
- ♦ Despite having other options, why did Harry Truman opt to use the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki?
- ♦ How did actions taken during World War II lay the groundwork for the Cold War?

Environment and Geography

- ♦ How did urban reforms change the landscape of American cities in the years prior to World War I?
- ♦ What milestones in the environmental movement were due to the actions of Progressives?
- ♦ What environmental and geographic features contributed to the demographic changes of the World War II years?

Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

1890–1917

- ♦ In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, America was becoming "modern." What did it mean to become modern, and in what ways did science, religion, literature, art, consumerism, popular culture, and feminism embrace modernity?

- ♦ How were the tensions between science and faith manifested in this period, and how did Americans attempt to reconcile “fact worship” and traditional religious beliefs
- ♦ How did the realist and naturalist writers at the turn of the century portray life in America? What accounts for this change in focus from previous literary portrayals of America?
- ♦ How did the new music of the turn of the century, ragtime and blues, both reflect and shape American culture?
- ♦ What is the difference between popular culture and high culture, and how did urban life in the early twentieth century reflect these differences?
- ♦ How did the emergence of mass culture affect the delivery of the news to Americans in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries?
- ♦ How do you define *progressivism*, and why were Progressives such an important force in the early twentieth century?

1917–1929

- ♦ What were the battlefields of the “culture wars” of the 1920s? How were these conflicts fought, and to what extent were they resolved?
- ♦ The conflicts of the 1920s can also be viewed through the lens of the tension between tradition and change. What caused this tension, and what were some examples?
- ♦ What accounted for the burst of creativity we call the Harlem Renaissance?
- ♦ What are some examples of the ways that critics of modern society in the 1920s challenged the prevailing views of war, technology, corporate power, and conformity?

1929–1945

- ♦ In what ways did New Deal programs facilitate “art for the millions”?
- ♦ How did beliefs held by many Americans before and during World War II influence policies toward Jews in Europe and Japanese Americans in the United States?

America's History Chapter Summaries

(required AP® content in bold)

Chapter 20

Whose Government? Politics, Populists, and Progressives, 1880–1917

From the end of the Civil War to the beginning of World War I, reformers in the United States concentrated on four areas: cleaning up political corruption, limiting the power of big business, reducing poverty, and working for social justice. **These years were known as the Progressive Era, and there were many reformers and reform agendas.**

Key Concept 7.1.II.A

The decades immediately after Reconstruction, known as the **Gilded Age**, were years of **political corruption and enormous industrial profits, while underlying it all were rising poverty, environmental pollution, and little attention paid to workers' rights.** A few reforms managed to win congressional approval: the Pendleton Act, which established the Civil Service Commission; the Interstate Commerce Act, which created the Interstate Commerce Commission; and the Sherman Antitrust Act, which was designed to identify and restrict monopolies. All of these pieces of legislation looked good on the surface but in fact lacked any enforcement power.

Key Concept 6.3.I.A

Frustration with the government to initiate any real reform led to the creation of the Populist Party, an attempt by farmers to force monetary and political reform. Their Omaha Platform in 1892 spelled out an agenda for regulation of monopolies, rate setting for railroads, more popular participation in choosing members of Congress, and currency based on silver rather than gold. The economic depression of 1893 led to the formation of Coxey's Army, hundreds of unemployed men who marched on Washington demanding government action to create jobs and provide relief. Republicans managed to retain power in the upcoming elections, but the problems facing the nation were not solved. The South was a stronghold for the Democrats, although they did not support the Populists because southerners felt that party did not support segregation and Jim Crow. The "Solid South" would remain until well into the next century.

Key Concept 6.1.III.C

Nationally the Democrats tried to make some gains from the Populists' positions and chose William Jennings Bryan as their presidential candidate in 1896. His positions mirrored many of those held by the Populists, including a call for bimetallism, or the use of silver coins as well as gold. The Democrats were not able to muster the votes to deny William McKinley, a Republican, the presidency, and over the next few years, the Populists began to fade from the political scene.

Key Concept 6.3.I.B

The Supreme Court was also a bastion of conservatism and generally hostile to attempts at political reform. The Court rejected attempts to limit workers' hours, **approved "separate but equal" facilities and schools for blacks and whites**, and endorsed monopolies. President McKinley was no friend of reform either, but his life was cut short by an assassin's bullet in 1901. Teddy Roosevelt proved to be a very different kind of president. Roosevelt was a supporter of private enterprise and big business, but he made a distinction between those who operated with the public good in mind and those who did not. He decided cases on their merits rather than simply siding with management. His administration supported the first trust-busting cases in the courts, and he signed the Hepburn Act into law, putting teeth into the Interstate Commerce Commission. He was also a **supporter of conservation, working with John Muir and Gifford Pinchot to identify potential national forest and parkland and creating irrigation projects that changed the face of the American West.** His successor, William Howard Taft,

Key Concept 6.1.III.D

had neither Roosevelt's energy nor his devotion to reform, so he spent his one term in office trying to balance Roosevelt's expectations with his own less determined approach to progressive reform.

Many of the Populist ideals finally became law during the Progressive Era: initiative, recall, and referendum are a few. Changes in the Supreme Court led to decisions favoring limits to working hours, though only for women. Men did benefit from workmen's compensation laws. Little progress was made in the area of child labor, however.

Key Concept 7.1.II

The roots of the modern civil rights movement lay in the Progressive Era. African Americans found themselves divided by the pragmatic, industrial education approach of Booker T. Washington and the call for immediate equality and access to higher education coming from W. E. B. Du Bois. Du Bois would be a member of the Niagara Movement, a gathering that led to the creation of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), which called for a more activist approach to make the promises of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments a reality for African Americans.

Labor movements were still dominated by the American Federation of Labor, though this group was challenged by the new Industrial Workers of the World, a Marxist group that urged more strikes and activism on the part of workers.

The presidential election of 1912 saw the Republicans self-destruct with wrangling between their nominee, Taft, and Teddy Roosevelt, who launched a third-party "Bull Moose" candidacy. There was yet another candidate, Eugene V. Debs, who ran as a Socialist from a prison cell in Atlanta, Georgia, and polled almost 1 million votes. The Republican squabbles paved the way for the Democratic candidate, Woodrow Wilson, to come into office advocating his own brand of progressivism that he called the "New Nationalism." Wilson had the support of labor and farmers, but he did not draw many votes from African Americans. It would be during his term of office that the Great Migration of African Americans out of the South for urban areas in the North, Midwest, and West Coast began in earnest. Progressive promises had failed to make life under Jim Crow much easier, and millions decided to look for better opportunities on their own.

Wilson did initiate a number of landmark economic reforms. The progressive income tax became part of the Constitution with the Federal Reserve Act. The Federal Reserve System was organized. Monopolies were further regulated by the Clayton Antitrust Act in 1914. Wilson did not offer much to the African American community, and even went so far as to offer praise for the movie *Birth of a Nation*, which had a heroic depiction of the Ku Klux Klan.

While progressivism did not accomplish everything its reformers hoped to, there were tremendous economic and administrative improvements. Monopolies were brought under some control, women began to have more of a presence in public life, environmental gains were made with the creation of national parks and forests, conservation efforts were successful, and the lives of millions in the country's growing cities were made more comfortable. All of these reforms would be expanded in the coming decades.

Chapter 21

An Emerging World Power, 1890–1918

Chapter 21 explores the emergence of the United States as a world power and as a participant in world imperialism. The United States had long claimed to be uninterested in overseas expansion, even as the country expanded across the continent with little regard for the American Indians and other inhabitants who were already there. Earlier presidential administrations had seen access to global markets as a key to power, and now expansionists added the concept of "American exceptionalism" to the argument, the idea that the United States had an obligation to foster democracy and higher civilization around the world. Social Darwinism further fueled this belief.

Key Concept 7.3.I.A

Key Concept 7.3

Key Concept 7.3.I.C

Victory in the War of 1898 left the United States with new overseas possessions in both the Caribbean and the Pacific, touching off arguments about how the country should deal with these territories. Some favored independence; **others hoped for annexation or at least military and economic control.** The reelection of President McKinley in 1900 suggested that most of the country was comfortable with overseas acquisitions, though **debates over expansion and annexation would continue in Congress and the Supreme Court for years to come.** The United States also began to play a larger role in international diplomacy, negotiating the Open Door Note concerning China in 1899. Negotiations with Japan over that country's war with Russia further centered the United States on the world stage.

President Theodore Roosevelt also turned his attention to American relations with Latin America, as he thought the time to negotiate a Central American canal had arrived. Through a combination of diplomacy and devious tactics, he was able to secure rights to a canal and set in motion many years of U.S. involvement in Latin American affairs.

When World War I broke out in Europe, the United States hoped to remain neutral, though American businesses hoped to benefit from trade with the warring nations. Unfortunately American shipping and passenger lines came under attack, particularly from German U-boats. The Germans made the claim that anyone who traded with a country involved in the war was, in fact, no longer neutral. **President Woodrow Wilson spent his first term keeping the country out of the war, but soon after his reelection in 1916, a combination of unwarranted attacks on U.S. ships and angry diplomatic communications led him to ask Congress for a declaration of war on Germany and the Central Powers.**

Key Concept 7.3.II.A

Many Americans eagerly went to war, hoping their efforts would "make the world safe for democracy." General John Pershing led the American Expeditionary Force, which arrived at the Western Front in Europe in early 1918. America sent a multinational force that reflected the country's population, though African Americans served in segregated units. American Indians served in integrated units, but they were often given extremely hazardous jobs as scouts and snipers. American troops missed the misery of that war's prolonged trench warfare, but they still suffered from the war's efficient mechanized slaughter, as well as the great flu pandemic of 1918. Most on the home front supported the war, answering the call to ration, economize, and sacrifice consumer goods for the war effort. Labor unions agreed to postpone strikes, and housewives collected scrap metal and followed government requests to give up certain foods on certain days in order to send more supplies to the troops at the front. The government sought to stifle any criticism of the war effort through the work of the Committee on Public Information, a propaganda agency whose charge was to stir up patriotism. Congress went further, passing the Sedition Act of 1918, which **prohibited anything that would discourage dedication to the government and the war.**

Key Concept 7.2.II.A

Key Concept 7.2.III.A

Many African Americans took advantage of wartime jobs opening up in northern and midwestern cities and began to leave the Deep South and its Jim Crow system of segregation. **This movement became known as the Great Migration,** and even though African Americans often encountered discrimination in other parts of the country, most felt they had made progress for themselves and their families. **Mexicans were also encouraged to take vacant jobs, particularly as farmworkers.** Though some found a better chance here, many still faced harsh discrimination.

Key Concept 7.2.II.C

Women found many wartime job opportunities, working in both the service and industrial sectors of the economy. Though most realized their jobs would evaporate when the war ended and the men returned, they were glad to have the chance to work outside the home, and many felt their contribution might aid the cause of women's suffrage. The National American Women's Suffrage Association (NAWSA) wholeheartedly supported the war effort, volunteering for relief organizations and encouraging women to take industrial jobs. The National Women's Party (NWP), led by Alice Paul, was more confrontational, picketing the White House and demanding that women's efforts for the war should be translated into political equality. Some were arrested and treated badly in prison when they staged hunger strikes. President Wilson, perhaps in response to the publicity these women were generating, an-

nounced in January 1918 that he would support women's suffrage as a "war measure." In fewer than two years, the Constitution included the Nineteenth Amendment, guaranteeing women the vote.

The end of the war in Europe brought President Wilson to the peace conference held at the palace of Versailles outside Paris. **He arrived with his idealistic blueprint of the postwar world, the Fourteen Points**, unaware that his partners in peace—Lloyd George of Great Britain, Clemenceau of France, and Orlando of Italy—already had plans for a more punitive treaty. He saw many of his proposals collapse, but he held out for the creation of a League of Nations, an organization he felt would maintain world peace in the future through collective security. The Allies' determination to punish the Germans for the war, and the haphazard way they carved up the Ottoman Empire to satisfy their own imperialist aims, set the stage for the next war that would come in two more decades. **Wilson, however, remained optimistic that his cherished League would provide a way to sort out future conflicts without bloodshed.**

Key Concept 7.3.II.B

Key Concept 7.3.II.C

Wilson was disillusioned to find strong congressional opposition to both the treaty and his League when he returned to the United States. Many worried that the United States would be drawn into wars that were not in the country's best interests if they accepted membership in the League of Nations. Others simply did not want to be involved with the rest of the world on any terms other than trade. Wilson rejected all attempts to amend the treaty, and ultimately Congress rejected both the treaty and the League. Wilson suffered a stroke during his tireless campaigns to win the American people over to his plans for the postwar world, and he never fully recovered. The country quickly forgot about European problems as the 1920s ushered in an era of apparent prosperity and exuberant consumerism.

Chapter 22

Cultural Conflict, Bubble, and Bust, 1919–1932

Chapter 22 explores the 1920s and the early years of the Great Depression. The 1920s saw both expanding prosperity and growing cultural divides, as the country juggled the security of traditionalism with the allure and demands of modernism. The so-called Roaring Twenties came to a screeching halt with the onset of the Great Depression in 1929. The work of the earlier Progressives seemed to have evaporated.

Americans emerged from World War I to find a very different world. African Americans were no longer content to live under the Jim Crow system. **Those who left the South during the Great Migration found jobs in other parts of the country** but not the acceptance as equal citizens that they wanted. Race riots occurred in many parts of the country, showing racial prejudice to be a national problem rather than one limited to the South. Labor unions were also criticized for striking for higher pay at the war's end, but they received little sympathy from either the government or the courts. A few companies, including Ford, General Electric, and U.S. Steel, did offer workers' benefits, a form of welfare capitalism, but most workers had no safety net.

Key Concept 7.2.III.A

Tensions were also increased by the coming of a national "Red Scare," a fear of immigrants who might bring ideas of anarchy or communism (because the Bolsheviks, the leaders of the Russian Revolution, were known as "Reds"). The government authorized the attorney general, A. Mitchell Palmer, to investigate and arrest anyone under suspicion of sedition. The infamous Palmer raids led to the arrest and detainment of many innocent people. Suspicion of foreigners played a role in many arrests, even for offenses that did not pose issues of national security.

Key Concept 7.2.II.B

Republicans regained control of the White House in the 1920s, in part by arguing that strong businesses would guarantee the nation could remain secure. Women played a greater role in politics beginning in this decade, as they now had the vote and more experience working outside the home. Republican president Warren Harding personified the emphasis on business skills that many felt the country needed. His work as head of the U.S. Food Administration during the war had been exemplary. Unfortunately his proved to be a corrupt and ineffective term of

office, and he was replaced at his death by Vice President Calvin Coolidge. Coolidge believed the “the business of America is business,” and he supported bills that gave industries a freer hand. Foreign policy also reflected business interests during these years, with “dollar diplomacy” being the slogan of the day. Government policies were expected to support U.S. access to foreign resources and markets, even if they meant occasional military deployments. This policy lost steam with the coming of the Great Depression, as the “dollars” began to dry up.

Key Concept 7.2.I.B

The 1920s was also a decade of intense culture wars. Prohibition of alcohol was put in place by the Eighteenth Amendment at the end of the war. Organized crime flourished through black market sales of alcohol, while state and federal governments lost tax revenue. Public schools argued over Darwin’s theory of evolution, with some feeling that science was launching an attack on Christian beliefs. **The government moved to limit foreign immigration even more with a series of acts designed to reduce the number of immigrants allowed into this country to a tiny fraction of what it had been in the 1890s.** Such measures were supported by nativist groups like the Ku Klux Klan, which saw a resurgence in the 1920s, picking up members throughout the nation rather than just in the South.

Key Concept 7.2.II.C

New York’s Harlem proved to be a magnet for African Americans escaping life in the segregated South. **The flowering of art, music, and literature there in the 1920s became known as the Harlem Renaissance.** The jazz musicians showcased there influenced the development of music throughout the country. Marcus Garvey introduced pan-Africanism to American culture, an idea that would continue to resonate in the mid-twentieth century.

Key Concept 7.2.I.C

Many American writers took issue with what they saw as the superficiality of life in the United States in the 1920s. Some left for Europe, gaining the name the “Lost Generation.” **Others stayed and wrote about what they saw as the narrowness and hypocrisy of small town and rural life.** Still others criticized what they felt was a slavish devotion to pleasure and material wealth.

Key Concept 7.2.I.B

Although the American economy seemed to be wildly successful in the 1920s, ominous signs were already visible in the agriculture sector. American farmers flooded the world markets with agricultural products, causing prices to drop. Those living in towns and cities, oblivious to the plight of farmers, rushed to buy consumer goods on readily available credit. Automobiles, also available on credit, became common. Movies reinforced longing for the luxurious life, and Hollywood introduced the figure of the “flapper” to young women. The flapper represented sexual and social emancipation, something that worried the older generation.

The party came to an end in October 1929, when the stock market dropped, taking most segments of the American economy with it. Unemployment meant a drop in consumer spending, bank failures, slowing industrial production—in short, tighter times for all and devastation for many. The destitute had to depend on family members and local private charities for what help there was. Those who looked to the federal government for relief found nothing. President Hoover and the Republican government hoped the market would correct itself if given sufficient time, but the American people were not willing to wait, and in 1932 they voted in Franklin D. Roosevelt, a Democrat who seemed to offer hope for a recovery.

Chapter 23

Managing the Great Depression, Forging the New Deal, 1929–1939

Chapter 23 focuses on the attempts of the United States to bring the country out of the Great Depression. In his first inaugural address in March 1933, **President Franklin Roosevelt pledged to ask Congress for the power to make war on the Great Depression.** The New Deal, as it was called, was a program of federal activism unprecedented in American history. FDR’s brand of liberalism saw government as the guarantor of economic security for its citizens, something

Key Concept 7.1.I.C

conservatives decried as a dangerous role for “big government.” The American depression was part of an economic downturn that affected the entire world. Herbert Hoover had hoped to let it run its course and self-correct. His approach was to urge belt tightening and stick to traditional ways of operating, including continuing to tie the nation's currency to gold even when some European countries chose otherwise. High tariffs hindered international trade, something that might have helped the economy recover. The depression's grip on the United States remained strong, and Hoover became increasingly unpopular. The “Bonus Army” of unemployed veterans marched on Washington in the summer of 1932, demanding some sort of government relief. Fearing an outbreak of disease in their sprawling camp on the National Mall, Hoover had the men evicted using troops and tear gas, actions that proved to be a public relations nightmare. Franklin Roosevelt defeated him easily in the 1932 presidential election.

Roosevelt brought personal charm, political savvy, and willingness to experiment to the White House, all assets Hoover was lacking. He gained the confidence of the nation by holding weekly radio addresses, “fireside chats,” which made people feel they were a part of solving the nation's problems. He greatly expanded presidential power, something a Democratic Congress was willing to let him do. His first “Hundred Days” in office saw fifteen sweeping **bills designed to focus on banking failures, farm overproduction, failing businesses, and rampant unemployment**. If he took liberties with the powers of his office, people were willing to accept this in the hope that his programs might turn the economy around. Landmark programs reorganized the banks, placed quotas on farm production while offering government subsidies, regulated private businesses, and provided government jobs. Other programs addressed the needs for housing, the plight of the elderly, and the need for jobs for the nation's youth. Roosevelt also proposed a regulatory agency for the nation's stock market, something designed to rein in the speculation that helped lead to the 1929 crash.

Key Concept 7.1.III.A

Roosevelt's New Deal was not without its critics. **Some on the right accused him of being a socialist; others accused him of destroying capitalism. Most of the justice on the Supreme Court had been appointed by Republicans in the 1920s, and they overturned several of Roosevelt's landmark programs, ruling them unconstitutional.** He also had critics who thought he had not gone far enough—people who felt the country would be best served by an open redistribution of wealth.

Key Concept 7.1.III.B

Roosevelt took on all these critics in his run for reelection in 1936, which he won in a landslide, gaining clear majorities in both houses of Congress as well. He launched his “Second New Deal” in an effort to address the both his critics and those who hoped for even more. Labor was pleased with his support of collective bargaining. The elderly poor were guaranteed government assistance when they were no longer able to work. Roosevelt was the creator of what became known as “New Deal Liberalism,” the belief that the government should play a role in preserving individual economic well-being through assistance if it was required. This belief differed from “classical liberalism,” which looked for individual welfare to come as the result of free-market policies and a weak government. These two different views of the proper role of government are still at play in American politics almost a century later.

Roosevelt's second term saw more employment programs initiated. He also began to attract large numbers of **African American voters, who saw the New Deal programs as offering more to them than traditional Republican policies**. After a brief struggle to realign the Supreme Court, Roosevelt dropped that effort when he realized that time and momentum were on his side as elderly justices began to retire and he could make his own appointments. A brief return of recession in 1937–1938 led Roosevelt to authorize more government spending, a Keynesian approach to economics that seemed to have some effect.

Key Concept 7.1.III.C

Roosevelt's New Deal not only fundamentally changed the relationship between American citizens and the government; it also encouraged other reforms. A labor union for unskilled as well as skilled workers, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, gained great popularity and took dominance away from the more exclusive AFL. Women played a greater role in public life, inspired by the work of Eleanor Roosevelt. African Americans saw some improvement in their situation, though **segregation and Jim Crow still remained in force in many parts of the country**.

Key Concept 7.2.III.A

Key Concept 7.2.III.C

American Indians saw the return of tribal ownership of land when Roosevelt signed the Indian Reorganization Act in 1934, ending many of the restrictions of the hated Dawes Act of 1887. **For Mexican Americans the New Deal was a mix of positive and negative.** Many who came during World War I as agricultural workers were deported. Yet many others were able to find jobs with New Deal agencies. Immigrants from Asia did not fare as well, laboring under exclusionary legislation from earlier years.

Roosevelt also faced enormous environmental issues, primarily the development of the Dust Bowl in the Great Plains. The New Deal developed soil conservation measures, including the planting of millions of trees to act as a continental windbreak through the middle of the country. Most important was the passage of the Tennessee Valley Authority, which established a system of dams and reservoirs throughout the Tennessee River Valley. This program brought erosion control, flood protection, and inexpensive electricity to millions of people in the Southeast. Even writers and artists found work through the New Deal's Federal Writers' project.

Though Roosevelt's New Deal was criticized for doing both too much and too little, no one could deny that his programs fundamentally changed the relationship between citizens and the government.

Chapter 24

The World at War, 1937–1945

Chapter 24 explores the outbreak and course of World War II. This war was truly a world conflict in every sense, involving six continents, killing more than 50 million people, and wounding hundreds of millions more. Much of the world lay in ruins at the war's end, and all were threatened from that point on by the specter of nuclear war. **The war changed not only U.S. history but also global history and relationships.**

Key Concept 7.3.III

When the war began in Asia and Europe, the United States hoped to remain neutral, though it was clear that Roosevelt suspected the country might be drawn in despite a neutral stance. Americans watched the rise of fascism and authoritarianism in Germany, Italy, and Japan with alarm, while congressmen like Gerald Nye worked to remind Americans that Europe's troubles were not their concern. Congress responded with a series of Neutrality Acts in the mid-1930s aimed at putting the world on notice that the United States would not be drawn into their war as had happened in World War I. Other groups felt the United States needed to be involved, particularly during the Spanish Civil War in the late 1930s. Some went to fight against the fascists as volunteers, though the majority of the country was content to leave European disputes alone.

Roosevelt watched with concern as Britain and France failed to appease Hitler's demands for more and more of Europe, but neither Congress nor the American public was ready to become involved. Roosevelt used public speeches as opportunities to remind Americans of what freedom meant here and how those values were threatened by events abroad, but isolationism remained strong. When Britain and France became involved in war with Germany, Roosevelt looked for creative ways to aid the Allied cause, lending ships and supplies when money began to run short. Congress went along, hoping such measures would allow the United States to remain on the sidelines.

Key Concept 7.3.III.A

Isolationism came to an end with the Japanese attack on the American naval base and airfield at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. Congress passed the War Powers Act in 1941 that gave Roosevelt unprecedented control over the war effort. **The U.S. economy immediately mobilized for war**, with all needed civilian production directed to supplying troops. Steel mills and shipyards turned to war production, as did many of the country's largest corporations. Tens of millions of Americans joined the armed forces or the war industries workforces, or they became part of the civilian support team. The army still operated on a segregated basis, leading

some civil rights groups to call for a “Double V”—victory against the Nazis abroad and racism at home. Roosevelt was able to shape some federal legislation in ways that furthered civil rights, demanding that any company receiving a government contract had to demonstrate fairness in hiring. American Indians served as communications liaisons with troops in both Germany and the Pacific, operating radios while speaking American Indian languages that neither German nor Japanese code breakers were able to understand. **Women served in the military in the war. Though barred from combat, many served in front units as nurses, and some flew transport and resupply planes. Labor leaders pledged to hold off strikes until the war was won.**

Key Concept 7.3.III.A

Roosevelt won unprecedented third and fourth terms of office in 1940 and 1944. Voters preferred political continuity while the nation was involved in this world conflict. Families endured rationing, planted “victory gardens,” and collected scrap metal. Hollywood produced patriotic films, and people sang patriotic songs. Once again, wartime jobs led to internal migration as people relocated to places where work was available. Racial tensions increased, with attacks on African Americans in Detroit in 1943, and the “zoot suit” riots of Los Angeles aimed at Hispanic teenagers in Los Angeles that same year. Wartime migration gave an unexpected boost to gay and lesbian communities in a number of urban centers, though the military still tried to screen out homosexuals.

Japanese Americans came in for especially harsh treatment during the war. Though many had lived in the United States for generations, **entire communities were forced to relocate to detention centers for the duration of the war because of fears that they might harbor loyalties to Japan.** Many lost everything: they had to abandon their homes and businesses with mortgages and give up pets, belongings, and the treasures of a lifetime. At the end of the war, many found they had no homes to return to, and some tried to seek restitution from the courts. The case of *Korematsu v. United States* was not decided in their favor until 1988, but this restitution represented only a fraction of what was lost.

Key Concept 7.3.III.B

The alliance of the United States, Great Britain, Free France, and the Soviet Union gradually began to get the upper hand in both Europe and the Pacific. By 1944, the tide had turned in favor of the Allies on both fronts. With the invasion of northern France on D-Day, on June 6, 1944, the Germans began a steady retreat back toward their own borders. With the Russians closing in from the east, Hitler committed suicide in April 1945, and the war in Europe ended one week later. The liberation of Europe also uncovered the German efforts to exterminate Jews, Poles, Slavs, Gypsies, political dissidents, and other “undesirables.”

The war in the Pacific took some months longer to win. Island hopping had brought the Allies back to the Philippines and islands close to the Japanese archipelago. Military plans called for an invasion of Japan, an action that might cost up to 1 million lives. President Truman, who became president on Roosevelt’s death from a stroke in early January 1945, made the decision to try to force a Japanese surrender by **dropping the newly developed atomic bombs on two Japanese cities.** The bombs were the result of the supersecret Manhattan Project and had been completed only that summer. The first was dropped on Hiroshima in early August 1945 and the second on Nagasaki several days later, resulting in more than 160,000 deaths in the two cities. The Japanese offered surrender on August 10, and the formal papers were signed on September 2, 1945. World War II was at an end, and **the United States emerged as the most powerful nation on earth.**

Key Concept 7.3.III.B

Key Concept 7.3.III.D