Chapter 19 An Industrial and Urban Nation (1876–1900)

The late 1800s was a time of great change in the United States in terms of technology, workers’ movements, immigration, and politics. As you study this chapter, consider why changes in technology might lead to problems for workers, why people might be afraid of immigration, and why people might form political organizations to improve their conditions.
Chapter 19

Section 1: The Second Industrial Revolution

In this section you will learn how the late 1800s were marked by advances in technology and great growth in manufacturing. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

- Bessemer process
- patent
- Second Industrial Revolution
- free enterprise
- entrepreneurs
- corporations
- vertical integration
- horizontal integration
- trust
- Sherman Antitrust Act

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

- How did the Second Industrial Revolution affect the U.S. economy?
• What changes occurred in the way businesses were organized?
• Why did some Americans oppose monopolies, and what actions did they take?
Chapter 19.1 Section Summary

Technology changed in the mid- to late 1800s. The invention of the Bessemer process in the 1850s allowed steel to be produced more quickly and cheaply than before. Cheaper steel helped railroads build thousands of miles of new tracks. Cities grew where major rail lines met, and manufacturers and farmers could get their products to market quickly.

In the late 1850s people began to find new uses for oil. Kerosene [ker-uh-seen], which came from oil, was used for cooking and heating, and gasoline powered machinery. Using a gasoline engine, Orville and Wilbur Wright flew the first airplane in 1903. Three years later they received a patent—an exclusive right to make or sell their plane. Other important inventions included Thomas Edison’s electric lightbulb and Alexander Graham Bell’s telephone.

These advances in technology helped bring about the Second Industrial Revolution, a period in the late 1800s when industry grew rapidly. The U.S. government promoted free enterprise—business that is free from government involvement. Many entrepreneurs, or people who build new companies, organized businesses known as corporations, which sold shares of ownership called stocks. By
selling stocks, entrepreneurs raised large amounts of money for modern factories and machinery.

Entrepreneurs found new ways to build their businesses. Andrew Carnegie, who owned a steel-making company, used **vertical integration**. This means that Carnegie also owned other businesses involved in every step of making steel, which made his business more profitable. John D. Rockefeller owned Standard Oil, a company that used **horizontal integration**. This means he owned almost all the nation’s oil-refining businesses. Rockefeller also formed a **trust**, a legal arrangement in which several companies work together under one board of directors. Trusts often tried to eliminate competition and regulate production to keep prices high.

Many business leaders believed in social Darwinism. They believed that Charles Darwin’s idea of “survival of the fittest” also applied to business. Some businesspeople used social Darwinism to justify using child labor, paying low wages, and maintaining unsafe working conditions. Others believed they had an obligation to take care of the poor by making large donations to charity.

Some critics believed it was unfair business practices—not social Darwinism—that allowed many entrepreneurs to make their money. These critics believed that monopolies and trusts reduced
competition and kept prices high. In 1890 Congress passed the

**Sherman Antitrust Act**, which made it illegal to control trade in one
industry.
Chapter 19

Section 2: Industrial Workers

In this section you will learn how workers in the late 1800s organized to fight for better working conditions, but with little success. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

collective bargaining
anarchists
Knights of Labor
Haymarket Riot
American Federation of Labor
Homestead strike
Pullman strike

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

- How did the Second Industrial Revolution affect U.S. workers?
- Why did workers form labor unions, and how were they organized?
- How did major labor strikes affect workers?
Chapter 19.2 Section Summary

During the Second Industrial Revolution many factories began to replace skilled workers with machines. Factories also used specialization—having workers perform one task over and over—to become more productive. Working conditions, however, got worse.

Some workers began to form labor unions. Employers preferred dealing with individuals, but union leaders tried to use collective bargaining. This means that union leaders tried to negotiate for better conditions for all workers in a factory or an industry.

In 1879 the Knights of Labor became the first national labor union in the United States. Its goals included an eight-hour workday and an end to child labor. Membership in the Knights of Labor reached over 700,000 by 1886.

In 1886, workers from another union in Chicago, Illinois, went on strike to fight for an eight-hour workday. Workers gathered in Haymarket Square, where one of the workers threw a bomb and killed eight police officers. The police then fired into the crowd, killing several more people and wounding 100 others. This event became known as the Haymarket Riot. An investigation led to the arrest and conviction of eight anarchists—people who oppose all forms of government. One of those convicted had a Knights of Labor
membership card. Although the Knights of Labor did not support the strike, people began to link them with the Haymarket Riot, and membership soon dropped.

The **American Federation of Labor**, or AFL, was more successful. The AFL organized skilled workers into national unions based on particular jobs. By 1900 the AFL had more than 500,000 members.

In the 1890s two strikes showed that the government sided with business. In 1892 the Homestead Steel Works, one of Andrew Carnegie’s factories in Pennsylvania, announced plans to cut its workforce. Workers went on a strike, known as the **Homestead strike**, and the company hired private detectives to break the union. A deadly gun battle took place between the strikers and the detectives, and Pennsylvania sent its state militia to restore order. Although the strike lasted four more months, the union was eventually defeated.

The **Pullman strike** began in May 1894, when workers for the Pullman Train Car Company protested a large cut in pay. Many railroad workers supported the strike and refused to work on trains carrying Pullman cars. By July, traffic on some rail lines had been stopped because of the strike. The federal government agreed to help the railroad companies by sending troops to Chicago, the center of
the strike. The government also said that the workers were interfering with trade, and the courts ordered the workers to end their strike.
Chapter 19

Section 3: Immigrants and the Cities

In this section you will learn how millions of immigrants came to the United States and contributed to the growth of cities in the late 1800s. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

old immigrants
new immigrants
steerage
benevolent societies
Chinese Exclusion Act
Immigration Restriction League
suburbs
settlement houses
Hull House

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

- Why did immigrants come to the United States, and what countries did they emigrate from during the late 1800s?
- What was life like for new immigrants?
• Why did cities grow rapidly, and what problems resulted from this growth?
Chapter 19.3 Section Summary

In the 1800s millions of immigrants came to the United States in search of economic opportunity. People who arrived before the 1880s were called old immigrants. They usually came from northern Europe, spoke English, were Protestants, and had work skills. Immigrants who came after 1880 were called new immigrants. They came from southern and eastern Europe and Asia and brought different cultures and religions with them.

On the long, difficult sea journey to the United States, most immigrants traveled in steerage, an area below deck on the ship's lower levels. Many immigrants got sick or died during the voyage. Once in the United States, they had to pass a medical examination, and people with diseases were sent back to their home countries.

Most immigrants lived in cities and found low-paying jobs. Some immigrants formed benevolent societies to help each other. The societies helped pay for medical care, provided for unemployed workers, and paid for funerals. Although most immigrants wanted to preserve their own customs, many encouraged their children to adopt American customs and culture.

Nativists—people who opposed immigration—feared that the new immigrants' poverty and lack of education would harm
American society. In 1882 Congress passed the **Chinese Exclusion Act**, which banned Chinese people from immigrating to the United States for the next 10 years. The **Immigration Restriction League**, formed in 1894, wanted all immigrants to prove they could read and write before they were allowed to enter the United States. Despite the fears of nativists, immigrants played a positive role in keeping the Second Industrial Revolution going and in building the cities of the late 1800s.

Urban populations exploded as immigrants and native-born Americans moved to cities in record numbers. City residents created religious and social groups to improve their communities. Buildings grew taller, department stores replaced local shops, and parks provided refreshing green spaces for city residents. Many sections of cities suffered because of the rapid growth, however, and poor people often lived in overcrowded, unhealthful houses. As cities grew larger, many middle-class Americans wanted to live in quieter areas. They moved to outlying residential neighborhoods called **suburbs**.

In the cities, many poor people were helped by private aid organizations. Reformers built **settlement houses**—neighborhood centers that offered education, recreation, and social activities to poor
people. The most famous settlement house was **Hull House**, founded in Chicago in 1889 by Jane Addams and Ellen Gates Starr. Hull House served as a model for other settlement houses.
Chapter 19

Section 4: Populism

In this section you will learn that in the late 1800s U.S. farmers had economic problems, which they tried to solve by becoming more involved in politics. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

National Grange
Interstate Commerce Act
Interstate Commerce Commission
free coinage
gold standard
Sherman Silver Purchase Act
Farmers’ Alliance
Populist Party

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

- What effects did industrialization have on farmers, and what actions did they take to fight for change?

- How did farmers want to change the money supply?
• What issues did the Populist Party support?
Chapter 19.4 Section Summary

In the late 1800s the number of farms in the United States grew, and farming became mechanized. More farms and greater productivity led to overproduction, and crop prices declined so much that many farmers lost their farms and homes.

The National Grange was formed in 1868 to help farmers. The National Grange fought for laws to limit the prices charged by railroads and grain elevators. Although five states passed such laws, the Supreme Court said the government could set prices only for trade that crossed state lines. In 1887 Congress passed the Interstate Commerce Act to regulate this trade between states. The act created the Interstate Commerce Commission, which tried to make railroads charge fair rates, but it did not have the power to enforce its regulations.

Many farmers believed that changing the money supply would help them. Since 1792 the United States had allowed free coinage, making large amounts of coins and paper money as long as it had a specific value in gold or silver. In 1873 the United States went on a gold standard, which meant that money had a fixed value in gold alone. Under the gold standard, the money supply in the United States grew slowly, which kept prices low. Farmers wanted the
government to back its money with silver, which they believed would cause prices to rise. In 1880 Congress passed the Sherman Silver Purchase Act, which allowed the government to buy more silver to coin money, but this did little to help the farmers.

Many farmers formed the Farmers’ Alliance, a group of political organizations that won many local and state elections in the 1890s. The alliance joined with labor and reform groups to form the Populist Party in 1891. Populists wanted the government to own the railroads, as well as the telephone and telegraph systems. They also supported the eight-hour workday and immigration restrictions. In the presidential election of 1892, the Populists nominated James B. Weaver, who won 10 percent of the popular vote.

Soon the United States experienced an economic depression called the Panic of 1893. Many people blamed the money system and called for reform. In the presidential election of 1896, the Democratic candidate William Jennings Bryan hoped to win Democratic and Populist support by standing for the free coinage of silver. His Republican opponent, William McKinley, opposed free coinage. Although Bryan won support from both parties, McKinley won the election, and the Populist Party and the Farmers’ Alliance came to an end.