#69 - 7.1 Contextualizing Period	7
APUSH	

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7.1 Contextualizing Period 7

Learning Objective 7.A: Explain the context in which America grew into its role as a world power.

Growth and Reform

KC-7.1: Growth expanded opportunity, while economic instability led to new efforts to reform U.S. society and its economic
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•	Fx		
	s varied		
•		acy - direct election of senators (17th Am.),	(19th Am.)
•		(16th Am.)	, ,
•	Moral	(18th Am.)	
		Urbanization	
-7.1.1: The Uni	ited States continu	Urbanization ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ	omy to an urban, industrial economy led by la
	ited States continu	Urbanization ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ	omy to an urban, industrial economy led by la
npanies.		ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ	omy to an urban, industrial economy led by la
npanies.	showe	ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ d more people lived in cities than rural areas	
npanies.	showe	ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ d more people lived in cities than rural areas inued to expand ex. Standard Oil,	
npanies. Trusts a	showe and monopolies cont Joined by new con	ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ d more people lived in cities than rural areas	
• Trusts a	showe and monopolies cont Joined by new con	ed its transition from a rural, agricultural econ d more people lived in cities than rural areas inued to expand ex. Standard Oil, panies and industries like	

- New momentum in regulation
 - _____ created Interstate Commerce Commision active in regulating RRs
 - defined trusts and monopolistic activity
 - Broke up Standard Oil, General Electric, AT&T (1982)
- Calls for safer working conditions, 8 hour work day, end of child labor

APUSH	Name:
	The Great Depression and New Deal
	During the 1930s, policymakers responded to the mass unemployment and social upheavals of the Great Depression by ing the U.S. into a limited welfare state, redefining the goals and ideas of modern American liberalism.
•	The was sparked by the stock market crash of 1929
	•% unemployment, exacerbated by in the West
	Pres. Hoover administration's limited Response
•	DR's puts in place dozens of relief and recovery programs
	Creates foundation of social safety net, ex
	Innovation and Migration
KC-7.2: Ir	novations in communications and technology contributed to the growth of mass culture, while significant changes occurred in
internal a	nd international migration patterns.
•	elephones, automobiles more widespread and accessible
	• created a transportation revolution starts US funding of
	highways
•	African Americans move to cities in the north in the
	New communities responsible for movements like the
	Popular Culture
KC-7.2.I:	Popular culture grew in influence in U.S. society, even as debates increased over the effects of culture on public values,
morals, a	nd American national identity
•	continued to grow
	Popular fashion, music changed, seen as deviant or promiscuous ex
•	Backlash against change
	• Ex, high school science teacher tried over teaching evolution in school.
	Push and Pull Factors for Migration
KC-7.2.II:	Economic pressures, global events, and political developments caused sharp variations in the numbers, sources, and
experienc	es of both international and internal migrants.
•	nternal Migrants
	Resurgence of the
	Continuity of from previous period

• Segregation still prevalent, _____ in war

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•	International Migrants	
	 Backlash against immigrants after WWI and WWII, fear of communications 	sts ()
	Further restriction of immigration,	
	War and Diplomacy	
KC-7.3: I	Participation in a series of global conflicts propelled the United States into	o a position of international power while renewing
domesti	c debates over the nation's proper role in the world.	
•	Spanish-American War	
	 US criticizing Spain over treatment of Cuba 	
	Began over sinking of the	
•	World War I	
	 Avoided war until 1917, entrance proved decisive 	
	Choose at conclusion	
•	World War II	
	Declared war after attack on	
	Emerges as preeminent world power	
	American Imperialism	
KC-7.3.I:	In the late 19th century and early 20th century, new U.S. territorial ambi	tions and acquisitions in the Western Hemisphere and
the Paci	ific accompanied heightened public debates over America's role in the wor	ld.
•	annexed by Pres. McKinley	
•	Victory in Spanish-American War yielded new territories	
	•, Guam, Cuba,	
	Achieved with new naval fleet, commissioned by	_, then-Assistant Secretary of the Navy
	Influence by The Influence of Sea.	
	World War I and Isolationism	1
KC-7.3.II	I: World War I and its aftermath intensified ongoing debates about the nat	
	security and pursue American interests.	
•	US enters over and	
•	US chooses isolationism after WWI	
•	Pres(D) leads negotiations in	
	Republicans reject treaty, do not join	

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•	US absence in world stage slows recovery in Europe, conditions for Hitler to rise to power
	World War II and Global Leadership
KC-7.3.II	I: U.S. participation in World War II transformed American society, while the victory of the United States and its allies over the
Axis pow	ers vaulted the U.S. into a position of global, political, and military leadership.
•	and brought US out of depression
•	Brought on new era of, world's strongest power
	Women in the workplace
	• for equality
•	Ended war with eye towards collective security
	• Ex membership, UN creation,
	Recap
•	The United States economy continued to experience boom and bust cycles, though beginning to implement reforms in Progressive era Internal migration fueled by discrimination and Great Depression International migration further restricted by Quota Acts New Deal attempts to curb unemployment, creates social safety net Spanish American War proves America's place as a world power Entered WWI reluctantly, revert to isolationism at conclusion Entered WWII over Pearl Harbor, accepts role of world leader at conclusion
	Short Answer Questions
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Answer t	the following in AT LEAST three sentences.
1.	Explain the context in which America grew into its role as a world power.

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Secondary Source Document Analysis

Read the essay and fill in the chart below. Identify one claim for each subsection of the essay and provide a piece of evidence that corresponds to the claim.

Corresponds to the ordini.			
Title:			
Author:			
Historical Period and Topic:			
Thesis:			
Claims	Evidence		
Identify an alternative viewpoint to the author's thesis.			
Does the author address this viewpoint by refuting or conceding to it?			

The Politics of Reform

At the turn of the twentieth century there was a resurging impulse toward social and political reform. In some ways it continued tendencies already apparent since the industrial revolution of the early nineteenth century, in which white, Protestant, middle-class Americans organized to improve the lives of the urban poor. After the Civil War, industrialization, urbanization, and immigration intensified the inequalities between industrialist and worker, white and non-white, man and woman to such an extent that Americans believed government itself should become an instrument of reform. Particularly after the Depression of 1893 and the influx of more Asians and southern and eastern Europeans into American cities, the only solution appeared to be the systematic legislating of social justice, the curbing of political corruption, and the regulating of corporate forces to keep social strife at bay.

While the focus on government as the agent of change was a hallmark of this early twentieth-century reforming spirit, there was never a singular ideology underpinning the reform activities. Activists were evangelical Christians, or Socialists, or, in the case of Emma Goldman, even anarchists. Populists fought for social justice in rural America, while municipal reformers focused their efforts on ameliorating the living and work conditions of the urban poor. Some reformers believed in the superiority of the white race, while others fought for racial equality. Some favored the vote for women, while others thought it detrimental to American society. The reform sensibilities of the turn of the century were too varied to be described in sweeping terms.

The Progressive agenda was the most comprehensive in the end. Progressives were politicians, philosophers, historians, Supreme Court justices, and social critics. There were Republican Progressives, such as Theodore Roosevelt, and Democratic Progressives, such as Woodrow Wilson. For all their differences in politics and outlook, they tended as a whole to reject the laissez-faire social and economic policies that had prevailed since the Civil War. They generally believed, too, that modern science, methods of efficiency, and social planning could be forces of positive social change, if wielded with the right intentions and not left in the hands of a plutocratic few. Progressives tended to distrust the corporate monopolies and political interests that had come to power and wanted to keep their ability to exploit and dominate the rest of society in check.

Recognizing the social ills that came with growing disparities of wealth in the industrial world, Progressives approached the variety of problems with a wide range of solutions. Some tried to clean up municipal streets or build parks and playgrounds for the urban poor. Jacob Riis, a pioneer of photojournalism, compiled photographic images of New York City's slums in How the Other Half Lives. The book helped stir enough public sentiment to convince New York legislators to pass the Tenement House Act (1901), which banned the building of poorly ventilated structures. In 1911, a lack of safeguards at the Triangle Shirtwaist Company in Manhattan led to a fire that killed 146 employees, most of them poor, immigrant women who were powerless against the speed-ups and cramped conditions imposed by their employers. Social worker Frances Perkins, who headed up a Committee on Public Safety, used the tragedy to press for legislation mandating the regulation of maximum work hours, better fireproofing, cleaner conditions, and better methods of egress from workspaces. Legislators passed similar measures in major cities throughout the United States.

Progressives believed that politicians, too, had succumbed to corruption. In the name of efficiency and fairness, Wisconsin legislator Robert La Follette established the Legislative Reference Bureau, a non-partisan body of 'experts' in state government, created to minimize the influence of special interests. After 1901 Theodore Roosevelt brought this same proactive spirit to federal government. Touting himself as the president who wielded a "big stick" against corporations (1901–1908), he enforced antitrust laws and arbitrated between owners and miners in the Coal Strike of 1902. Woodrow Wilson continued in this interventionist vein after becoming president in 1913, trust busting, lowering tariffs, and reforming the national banking system in a program he called the "New Freedom."

There was popular support for regulation and reform because in these years investigative journalists, often referred to as muckrakers, exposed corruption and exploitation at every turn. They went undercover as industrial workers or government employees. Lincoln Steffens, for instance, exposed municipal corruption in a column in McClure's titled "Shame of the Cities." Upton Sinclair's novel The Jungle provoked so much public outrage about the quality of processed meat that Roosevelt saw to the passing of the Pure Food and Drug Act in 1906.

Name:

Women were integrally involved in the social and political reform of this period, despite not having the franchise. Fellow muckraker Ida Tarbell helped Steffens along, and Sinclair's efforts were supported by the research of social scientist Florence Kelley. Union leader Mother Jones was arrested in her efforts for industrial laborers, and settlement workers such as Jane Addams of Hull House worked "in the trenches" of immigrant neighborhoods to teach vocational skills and offer health clinics and recreational activities. Many female settlement workers came from the ranks of first- and second-generation college-educated women, who rejected Victorian expectations of motherhood and domesticity. Reform gave them a sense of purpose at a time when there were few professional outlets for independent, educated women.

The movement that attracted the most women, however, was the one that least challenged their identities as society's mothers and moral guardians: temperance. Like settlement work, diet, education, or playground reform, temperance was yet another way for women to protect children and family values, and thus it seemed appropriately feminine in its intentions. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) was foremost of the national organizations in the twentieth century, though women had campaigned against the evils of alcohol for decades. Coupled with the lobbying efforts of anti-alcohol political interests, the temperance movement succeeded in its ultimate goal of a Constitutional amendment prohibiting intoxicating beverages, which was ratified in early 1919. The Volstead Act, or the National Prohibition Act of 1919, gave the government the means to actually enforce the Eighteenth Amendment.

As conservative as many temperance workers seemed, they made up the largest contingent of yet another reform movement that picked up steam in the twentieth century: the fight for women's suffrage. Elizabeth Cady Stanton had ushered in the movement at the Seneca Falls Convention back in 1848, but only after the National American Women Suffrage Association (NAWSA) was organized in 1890 and under the leadership of Carrie Chapman Catt (1900–1904, 1915–1920) did political parties begin to entertain the vote for women. In 1915, a more radical group gathered in the NAWSA's Congressional Union under Alice Paul and formed the National Woman's Party (NWP), hoping a campaign of civil disobedience would quicken the passing of a federal amendment.

By 1920 suffragists did indeed succeed in winning formal political rights for women, just as other reformers had regulated monopolies, improved living conditions of immigrants, and checked the exploitative practices of industrialists. But their efforts were not nearly enough to alleviate all the social ills in modern American life. In the name of efficiency, Progressives centralized political and economic power into the hands of a bureaucratic few. Most corporate profits, too, continued to fall into the hands of a small elite at the expense of the working poor, which was increasingly also made up of African Americans coming to northern cities from the rural South. A revitalized Ku Klux Klan continued to intimidate and victimize African Americans in the South, but also included anyone they perceived as foreign—immigrants, Catholics, and Jews—in their campaign of violence. And the success of the women's suffrage movement did not carry over into an expanded feminist agenda for equality in other spheres. Social and economic policy continued to reflect the glaring differences between Americans—whether based on race, class, gender, ethnicity, region, or culture—making social justice an elusive dream.

Nevertheless, the idealism of that era has had lasting impact, seen in the perpetuation of regulating bodies like the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), minimum wage and maximum hour legislation, worker's compensation, and sanitation laws. Women remembered lessons learned in the suffrage movement when they picked up the torch of Women's Liberation in the 1960s. Civil rights activists, too, summoned the lessons of Ida B. Wells's anti-lynching campaign and the racial theories of W. E. B. Du Bois in fighting against segregation. Many of our notions about modern democracy and the welfare state have grown directly out of the Progressive era, which shaped how Americans view government's role in protecting the human welfare.

Julie Des Jardins is associate professor of history at Baruch College, City University of New York, and the author of Women and the Historical Enterprise in America: Gender, Race, and the Politics of Memory, 1880–1945 (2003), and The Madame Curie Complex: The Hidden History of Women in Science (2010).