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The term reflected the combination of outward wealth and dazzle with inner corruption and poverty. They stress greed, scandals, and corruption of the Gilded Age. They set in motion developments that would shape the country for generations—the reunification of the South and North, the integration of four million newly freed African Americans, westward expansion, immigration, industrialization, urbanization. It was also a period of reform, in which many Americans sought to regulate corporations and shape the changes taking place all around them. A compromise gave Hayes the presidency in return for the end of Reconstruction and the removal of federal military support for the remaining biracial Republican governments that had emerged in the former Confederacy. With that agreement, Congress abandoned one of the greatest reforms in American history: The United States thus accepted a developing system of repression and segregation in the South that would take the name Jim Crow and persist for nearly a century. The freed people in the South found their choices largely confined to sharecropping and low-paying wage labor, especially as domestic servants. Although attempts at interracial politics would prove briefly successful in Virginia and North Carolina, African American efforts to preserve the citizenship and rights promised to black men in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution failed. The West Congress continued to pursue a version of reform in the West, however, as part of a Greater Reconstruction. The federal government sought to integrate the West into the country as a social and economic replica of the North. Land redistribution on a massive scale formed the centerpiece of reform. Through such measures as the Homestead and Railroad Acts of , the government redistributed the vast majority of communal lands possessed by American Indian tribes to railroad corporations and white farmers. To redistribute that land, the government had to subdue American Indians, and the winter of saw the culmination of the wars that had been raging on the Great Plains and elsewhere in the West since the end of the Civil War. Following the American defeat at the Battle of the Little Bighorn the previous fall, American soldiers drove the Lakota civil and spiritual leader Sitting Bull and his followers into Canada. They forced the war leader Crazy Horse to surrender and later killed him while he was held prisoner. Sitting Bull would eventually return to the United States, but he died in at the hands of the Indian police during the Wounded Knee crisis. The defeat of the Lakotas and the utterly unnecessary Nez Perce War of ended the long era of Indian wars. There would be other small-scale conflicts in the West such as the Bannock War and the subjugation of the Apaches, which culminated with the surrender of Geronimo in , but these were largely police actions. The slaughter of Lakota Ghost Dancers at Wounded Knee in did bring a major mobilization of American troops, but it was a kind of coda to the American conquest since the federal government had already effectively extended its power from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The treaty system had officially ended in , but Americans continued to negotiate agreements with the Indians. The goal of these agreements, and American land policy in general, was to create millions of new farms and ranches across the West. Not satisfied with already ceded lands, reformers—the so-called "Friends of the Indians" whose champion in Congress was Senator Henry Dawes—sought to divide reservations into individual farms for Indians and then open up most or all of the remaining land to whites. The Dawes Act of became their major tool, but the work of the Dawes Commission in extended allotment to the Creeks, Cherokees, Seminoles, Chickasaws, and Choctaws in Indian Territory, which became the core of the state of Oklahoma. Land allotment joined with the establishment of Indian schools and the suppression of native religions in a sweeping attempt to individualize Indians and integrate them one by one into American society. The policy would fail miserably. Indian population declined precipitously; the tribes lost much of their remaining land, and Indians became the poorest group in American society. Immigration Between and immigrants prompted much more concern among native-born white Americans than did either black people or Indian peoples. During these

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years there was a net immigration of approximately 7 million people into the United States. During roughly the same period, the population of the country increased by about 27 million people, from about 49 million in 1870 to 76 million in 1920. Before the immigrants came largely from Western Europe and China. Taking the period between 1870 and 1920 as a whole, Germans comprised 28 percent of American immigrants; the British comprised 18 percent, the Irish 15 percent, and Scandinavians 11 percent. Together they made up 72 percent of the total immigration. At the end of the century, the so-called "New Immigration" signaled the rise of southern and eastern Europe as the source of most immigrants to America. The influx worried many native-born Americans who still thought of the United States as a white Protestant republic. Many of the new immigrants did not, in the racial classifications of the day, count as white. As the century wore on, they were increasingly Catholic and Jewish. Immigrants entered every section of the country in large numbers except for the South. They settled in northeastern and midwestern cities and on western and midwestern farms. The Pacific and mountain West contained the highest percentage of immigrants of any region in the United States. The immigrants forged networks that shaped how and where they migrated and the kinds of communities they established. Chain migrations linked migrants to prior migrants. Early arrivals wrote home to bring family, friends, and neighbors to the United States. Over large swaths of Minnesota, the Dakotas, and elsewhere German was the primary language of daily life. Tensions between immigrants and the native born over the language to be spoken in public schools, Sunday closures of businesses, sabbatarianism, and temperance reform often put cultural issues and practices at the center of local and state politics. Taken together, immigration and the end of Reconstruction triggered an anti-democratic movement to restrict access to the ballot box. They advocated restrictions on voting as a way to check corruption, elevate political culture, and marginalize those whom they had in mind immigrants and blacks whom they thought incapable of meeting the obligations of republican politics. They sought political changes that would make it far more difficult for the poor and immigrants to vote. Over time, through poll taxes, residence requirements, literacy requirements, and more, they would succeed. The mass politics and high voting rates characteristic of late nineteenth-century America would not outlive the era. Attempts to restrict suffrage were part of a strong political and social backlash against immigrants that developed over the course of the century. The United States welcomed immigrants because they were essential to its growing economy, but nativists opposed immigrants as antithetical to American culture and society. They thought of immigrants as exotic and inassimilable. In certain situations, however, nativists had allies who were immigrants or the children of immigrants. Workers, both immigrant and native born, often feared that corporations were using contract labor—workers recruited abroad at lower wages than those paid American workers—to undermine American working conditions and the American family, which they defined as a working man whose wife maintained the home. They opposed certain kinds of immigration. One of the forgotten reforms of the period, the Foran Act of 1885, outlawed contract labor, but the law proved difficult to enforce. Alliances of some native-born Americans with some immigrants against other immigrants proved most effective in the case of the Chinese. Roughly 100,000 Chinese immigrated to the United States between 1850 and 1880, and they became the personification of both the inassimilable immigrant and the contract worker. Although the Chinese came as free laborers, they were often branded as coolies: Racists had previously claimed that superior Anglo-Saxons would inevitably replace "inferior" races. But in the West, while Sinophobes saw the Chinese as exotic and inferior, they also thought the Chinese would triumph over the supposedly superior white men because they were efficient workers. Immigrants and the native born formed mobs that attacked the Chinese at Rock Springs, Wyoming, in 1879 and expelled them from Tacoma, Washington, in 1885 and Seattle in 1886. Congress passed ten-year restrictions on Chinese immigration in 1882 and a permanent exclusion act in 1894. Late in the nineteenth century, those who opposed immigration from Italy, Hungary, and elsewhere compared those groups to the Chinese. Some immigrants could wrap themselves in the mantle of Americanism if they were "white" and Protestant. Protestant immigrants, particularly Scandinavians and Scots-Irish, joined the American Protective Association in 1889 to restrict Catholic immigration as it rode a larger wave of anti-Catholicism that swept over the country. Aimed initially at Irish and Catholic schools, anti-Catholicism increased its range as

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new Catholic immigrants began to arrive. Agricultural, Commercial, and Industrial Development Although not all of them intended to stay, most immigrants came to the United States for economic opportunity. Cheap land and relatively high wages, compared to their home countries, were available regardless of citizenship. The Homestead Act did not require that settlers filing for land be American citizens, and the railroads not only sold their land grants cheaply, they advertised widely in Europe. The results of this distribution of fertile and largely accessible land were astonishing. Everything in the late nineteenth century seemed to move faster than ever before. Americans brought more land under cultivation between and million acres than they had since the English first appeared at Jamestown in million acres. Farmers abandoned small, worn-out farms in the East and developed new, larger, and more fertile farms in the Midwest and West. They developed so much land because they farmed extensively, not intensively. In terms of yields per acre, American farmers ranked far below Europe. Maintaining fertility demanded labor, which was precisely what American farmers were bent on reducing. They invested not in labor but in technology, particularly improved plows, reapers, and threshers. With westward expansion onto the prairies, a single family with a reaper could increase acreage and thus production without large amounts of hired labor. Arable free lands grew scarcer during the s, forcing more and more land seekers west into arid lands beyond the 98th meridian. In many years these lands lacked adequate rainfall to produce crops. The expansion of agricultural lands led to what superficially seems a paradox: During the same period, the percentage of workers employed in agriculture fell. Such statistics seemed to reflect a decline in the importance of farming, but in fact, they reflected its significance and efficiency. Farmers produced more than the country could consume with smaller and smaller percentages of its available labor. They exported the excess, and the children of farmers migrated to cities and towns. Where at the beginning of the century exports composed about 10 percent of farm income, they amounted to between 20 and 25 percent by the end of the century. Migration from rural to urban areas dwarfed both foreign migration and westward migration. The rise of industrial America, the dominance of wage labor, and the growth of cities represented perhaps the greatest changes of the period. Few Americans at the end of the Civil War had anticipated the rapid rise of American industry. As the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics and Labor declared in , wage labor was universal: The relatively high wages for skilled workers led employers to seek ways to replace skilled with unskilled or semi-skilled workers. Mechanization provided the best tactic for deskilling work and lowering wages. Many of the bitterest strikes of the period were attempts to control working rules and to maintain rather than raise wages. Beginning with the Great Railroad Strike of , through the Great Upheaval of that culminated in the slaughter at Haymarket Square, then through the Homestead Strike , Pullman Strike , and more, the largest confrontations often involved violence and the intervention by state or federal governments to repress the strikes. Railroads Many of these strikes involved the railroads; the whole economy seemed to revolve around the railroads. At the end of the s the railroads renewed their expansion. With a brief break in the s, expansion continued at a reckless pace until

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Chapter 2 : Maury Klein | Open Library

The Genesis of Industrial America, by Maury Klein. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, xii, pp. \$ US (cloth), \$ US (paper). The latest addition to the Cambridge Essential Series, Maury Klein's *The Genesis of Industrial America*, will appeal to the non-specialist and specialist alike.

In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: University of Cambridge Press, This is a short, synthetic text by the prolific railway and business historian Maury Klein. It chronicles the rise of big business during the half-century following the Civil War and asserts the centrality of business to the broader narratives of American history. Klein tells his story in a tidy pages. The prose is brisk, lively, and readable, leavened with quotations from novels and vivid profiles of business leaders like Cornelius Vanderbilt and Jay Gould. But as a synthesis of business history literature likely to reach an audience beyond the field, the book is disappointing. The majority of sources listed date from the s or earlier—much earlier in many cases—and an old-fashioned determinism suffuses the text. *The Genesis of Industrial America* describes the rise of big business as inevitable and unalterable. Few choices are made, no alternative paths of development are available, and contingencies are rarely discussed. Though Klein rightly puts technology at the center of his story, his treatment of technological change pays little heed to a generation of scholarly pushback against determinism. Inventions appear and create change. They are not meaningfully shaped by their context, and they are neither socially nor politically constructed. The only sustained conflict in this narrative is a preordained fight between courageous entrepreneurs who correctly intuit the direction of history and nameless others who cling timidly to the past. There are no women to speak of. Consumers are acted upon but never actors. There is no discussion of race or religion or section in the development of American capitalism, and little of politics and law. The labor movement gets one page. A [End Page] hothouse is, after all, an artificial environment designed to produce rapid growth. One might use this idea to talk about the political economy of the Gilded Age, and the key role of governmental institutions and public policies like tariffs, the gold standard, or the federal courts in shaping both technological and economic change. In *The Genesis of Industrial America*, government is passive and reactive. Its primary contribution to economic development is to get out of the way. Business and technology ought to be more central to the teaching and writing of American history. There ought to be slim paperbacks suitable for adoption in survey courses that explain the rationalization of the railroad industry or the distinction between alternating and direct current as clearly and readably as Klein does here. But as a synthesis, his book does no justice to the best work in the histories of technology and business over the last thirty years. One reason that American historians have been slow to integrate business history is a misapprehension that the subfield is overly deferential to business, insensitive to contingency, and uninterested in questions of power, politics, and culture. MacDougall, assistant professor of history at the University of Western You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

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A brief, clear, and cohesive summary of American industrialization, The Genesis of Industrial America chronicles the rapid economic growth at the end of the 19th century, characterized by innovations in power, transportation, and communication, which allowed industry and capital to become the defining American business.

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the genesis of industrial america, This book offers a bold new interpretation of American business history during the formative years, which mark the dawn of modern big business.

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The Genesis of Industrial America, by Klein, Maury available in Hardcover on www.nxgvision.com, also read synopsis and reviews. This book offers a bold new interpretation of American business history during the formative years.

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The Genesis of Industrial America is designed for adoption in undergraduate surveys, and by that genre's standards of concision and narrative drive it succeeds in its aims. Klein tells his story in a tidy pages.

Chapter 9 : Editions of The Genesis of Industrial America, by Maury Klein

The Genesis of Industrial America, By Maury Klein. New York: Cambridge University Press, Pp. xii, \$, paper.