

The Progressive Era:

How Progressive Were Progressives?

The period of feverish reform at the local, state and national levels is often referred to as the Progressive Era. While Progressives often had little in common, their main motives seem to have been similar – they believed in solving the problems created by industrialism, and they believed in government action.

Power Point Format

For each Progressive topic your group is assigned you will create THREE PowerPoint slides:

- a. Title slide.
- b. The second slide will contain bullet points to describe your Progressive topic: dates (birth, death and significant era of reform for a person, date law passed), what Progressive reform was intended, and its successes and failures.
- c. The third slide will contain an image that represents your Progressive topic. Your picture could show the problem that needed to be solved, but it could also be an image of it being solved. For any person, I do not simply want a picture of the person – it can be a picture of the person engaged in their reform.
- d. The picture you choose for your power point will be used to make the slide identification portion of the exam.

Finding Images for Your Poster or Power Point

1. The image should be “large” enough to be visible either on a poster or in a power point.
2. The image should not “give away” the reform.
3. You can “doctor” images using Microsoft Paint and/or Microsoft Photo Editor
4. Don’t worry if you pick “similar” pictures as other groups (for example 19th Amendment and Alice Paul might have similar pictures). However, do not use the same image.

Presentations

- o Should be 2-3 minutes in length.
- o You will need to:
 - take notes on your classmates presentations as preparation for the Progressivism Awards Ceremony
 - get ready for the slide portion of your exam.

Political Reform

1. Direct Primary and the 17th Amendment
2. 19th Amendment
3. Initiative, Referendum and Recall

Social Reform

4. Keating-Owen Act and *Muller v. Oregon*
5. 18th Amendment
7. Meat Inspection Act and Pure Food and Drug Act
8. Clayton Anti-Trust Act and Federal Trade Commission Act

Economic Reform

8. Railroad Regulation (Elkins Act, Hepburn Act, Adamson Act)
9. 16th Amendment and Federal Reserve Act

Environmental Reform

10. Antiquities Act
11. Hetch Hetchy Reservoir
12. National Reclamation Act
13. Owens Valley and the Aqueduct

Muckrakers

14. Ida Tarbell
15. Lincoln Steffens

Progressive Personalities

16. Hiram Johnson and John Dewey
17. Alice Paul
18. Margaret Sanger

Grading

- Format (follows 3 slide specifications, neatly done) _____/5
- Description of Progressive Personality / Reform (20 pts.)
- Does PowerPoint contain bullet summary?
- Does your presentation add to the PowerPoint?
- Is it clear and understandable? _____/20
- Picture (10 pts) Does picture relate to topic? _____/10

Your Score _____/35

The 19th Amendment

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

“19th Amendment,” entry in Kutler, ed., Dictionary of American History Vol.8 (Charles Scribner & Son, New York, 2003)

Direct Primary

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

“Direct Primary,” entry in Kutler, ed. Dictionary of American History, Vol 8 (Charles Scribner’s & Sons, New York, 2003)

17th Amendment

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

“The U.S. Constitution Online”. <http://www.usconstitution.net/constamnotes.html>

Initiative, Referendum and Recall

From the California Constitution, Article II: Voting, Initiative, Referendum and Recall

Note: Initiative, recall, and referendum were added to most state constitutions in the early 1900s – in California, they were added in 1911. The following are excerpts of the California Constitution that detail initiative, referendum, and recall:

Article II, Section 8 - Initiative

- (a) The initiative is the power of the electors (California citizens of voting age) to propose statutes and amendments to the Constitution and to adopt or reject them.
- (b) An initiative measure may be proposed by presenting to the Secretary of State a petition that sets forth the text of the proposed statute or amendment to the Constitution and is certified to have been signed by electors equal in number to 5 percent in the case of a statute, and 8 percent in the case of an amendment to the Constitution, of the votes for all candidates for Governor at the last gubernatorial election.

Recent Example: California Proposition #85, November 2006. Waiting Period And Parental Notification Before Termination Of Minor's Pregnancy. Initiative Constitutional Amendment.

1. Amends California Constitution to prohibit abortion for unemancipated minor until 48 hours after physician notifies minor's parent or legal guardian, except in medical emergency or with parental waiver.
2. Permits minor to obtain court order waiving notice based on clear and convincing evidence of minor's maturity or best interests.
3. Mandates various reporting requirements, including reports from physicians regarding abortions performed on minors.
4. Authorizes monetary damages against physicians for violation.
5. Requires minor's consent to abortion, with certain exceptions.
6. Permits judicial relief if minor's consent coerced.

Article II, Section 9 - Referendum

- (a) The referendum is the power of the electors to approve or reject statutes or parts of statutes except urgency statutes, statutes calling elections, and statutes providing for tax levies or appropriations for usual current expenses of the State.
- (b) A referendum measure may be proposed by presenting to the Secretary of State, within 90 days after the enactment date of the statute, a petition certified to have been signed by electors equal in number to 5 percent of the votes for all candidates for Governor at the last gubernatorial election, asking that the statute or part of it be submitted to the electors.

Recent Example: Proposition 1D, November 2006.

Kindergarten–University Public Education Facilities Bond Act Of 2006.

This ten billion four hundred sixteen million dollar (\$10,416,000,000) bond issue will provide needed funding to relieve public school overcrowding and to repair older schools.

It will improve earthquake safety and fund vocational educational facilities in public schools. Bond funds must be spent according to strict accountability measures.

Funds will also be used to repair and upgrade existing public college and university buildings and to build new classrooms to accommodate the growing student enrollment in the California Community Colleges, the University of California, and the California State University.

Article II, Section 13 – Recall

Final Votes Cast By The Legislature On AB 127

(Became Proposition 1d after the requisite number of signatures was collected)

Senate: Ayes 29 Noes 8

Assembly: Ayes 58 Noes 12

- (a) Recall is the power of the electors to remove an elective officer.

Section 14 – Recall Procedures

(a) Recall of a state officer is initiated by delivering to the Secretary of State a petition alleging reason for recall. Sufficiency of reason is not reviewable.

Proponents have 160 days to file signed petitions.

(b) A petition to recall a statewide officer must be signed by electors equal in number to 12 percent of the last vote for the office, with signatures from each of 5 counties equal in number to 1 percent of the last vote for the office in the county. Signatures to recall Senators, members of the Assembly, members of the Board of Equalization, and judges of courts of appeal and trial courts must equal in number 20 percent of the last vote for the office.

Recent California Example: Gray Davis Recall, 2003.

The effort to recall Gray Davis began with Republicans Ted Costa and Howard Kaloogian, who filed the petition with the California Secretary of State and started gathering signatures. The effort was not taken seriously, until Rep. Darrels Issa, who hoped to run as a replacement candidate for governor, donated \$2 million towards the effort. This infusion of money allowed Costa and Kaloogian to step up their efforts. For the 2003 recall elections, recall procedures meant that a minimum of 900,000 signatures, based on the November 2002 statewide elections needed to be collected. Eventually, about 1.6 million signatures were gathered, which was enough to trigger a recall.

Sources:

Legislative Counsel of California, "Official California Legislative Information"
http://www.leginfo.ca.gov/.const/.article_2

California Secretary of State, "Election and Voter Information, Initiative Update"
http://www.ss.ca.gov/elections/elections_j.htm

Muller V. Oregon (1908), 208 U.S. 412.

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Sources:

“Muller v. Oregon,” entry in Kutler, ed., Dictionary of American History, Vol. 5 (Charles Scribner and Sons, New York) 2003.

Wikipedia, “Muller v. Oregon”. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muller_v._Oregon

Keating Owen Act

Similar to *Muller v. Oregon*, the Keating Owen Act revealed the government trying to support business regulations. Where the *Muller* decision sought to support limited working hours for women, the Keating Owen Act sought to limit child labor in the United States.

The 1900 census revealed that approximately 2 million children were working in mills, mines, fields, factories, stores, and on city streets across the United States. The census report helped spark a national movement to end child labor in the United States. In 1908, the National Child Labor Committee hired Lewis Hine as its staff photographer and sent him across the country to photograph and report on child labor. Social reformers began to condemn child labor because of its detrimental effect on the health and welfare of children. Among those helping to incite public opinion against it were Karl Marx and Charles Dickens, who had worked at a factory himself at age 12. One of the most effective attacks came from Dickens's novel *Oliver Twist*, which was widely read in Britain and the United States. Dickens's masterwork portrays an orphan boy, raised in poorhouses and workhouses and by street criminals in industrialized London in the 1850s.

The first child labor bill, the Keating-Owen bill of 1916, was based on Senator Albert J. Beveridge's proposal from 1906 and used the government's ability to regulate interstate commerce to regulate child labor. The act banned the sale of products from any factory, shop, or cannery that employed children under the age of 14, from any mine that employed children under the age of 16, and from any facility that had children under the age of 16 work at night or for more than 8 hours during the day. Although the Keating-Owen Act was passed by Congress and signed into law by President Woodrow Wilson, the Supreme Court ruled that it was unconstitutional because it overstepped the purpose of the government's powers to regulate interstate commerce (*Hammer v. Dagenhart*). The Court reasoned that "The power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce does not extend to curbing the power of the states to regulate local trade."

A constitutional amendment was soon proposed to give Congress the power to regulate child labor. The campaign for ratification of the Child Labor Amendment was stalled in the 1920s by an effective campaign to discredit it. Opponents' charges ranged from traditional states' rights arguments against increases in the power of the Federal Government to accusations that the amendment was a communist-inspired plot to subvert the Constitution. Federal protection of children would not be obtained until passage of the Fair Labor Standards Act in 1938, which was also challenged before the Supreme Court (found constitutional in 1941 in *U.S. v. Darby*; the court stated that Congress should determine the legitimate scope of commerce)

Source:

OurDocuments.gov, "Keating-Owen Child Labor Act of 1916
http://www.ourdocuments.gov/content.php?page=learn_more&doc=59

The 18th Amendment

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

"18th Amendment," entry in Kutler, ed., Dictionary of American History Vol.6 (Charles Scribner & Son, New York, 2003)

The Meat Inspection Act of 1906

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Sources:

"Meat Inspection Act of 1906," entry in Kutler, ed., Dictionary of American History Vol.5 (Charles Scribner & Son, New York, 2003)

US-History.com, "Meat Inspection Act" <http://www.u-s-history.com/pages/h918.html>

Pure Food and Drug Act of 1906

The muckrakers and *The Jungle* had successfully heightened public awareness of safety issues stemming from careless meat packing industry. This led to a battle to regulate food preparation and medicines. In part this was due to the increasing incidence of drug addiction from patent medicines, both accidental and conscious. Public pressure forced a reluctant Congress to consider a Pure Food and Drug bill in 1906. Provisions of the measure included the following:

- Creation of the Food and Drug Administration, which was entrusted with the responsibility of testing all foods and drugs destined for human consumption
- The requirement for prescriptions from licensed physicians before a patient could purchase certain drugs
- The requirement of label warnings on habit-forming drugs (like medicines containing cocaine).

The first casualty of this legislation was the patent medicine industry; few of which gained certification from the FDA. Those that did often advertised their product as "Approved by the Pure Food and Drug Act". The law was strengthened in 1911 when additional provisions were added to combat fraudulent labeling.

Sources:

- Michigan State University, "Pure Food and Drug Act".
<http://coursesa.matrix.msu.edu/~hst203/documents/pure.html>
U.S.-History.com "Pure Food and Drug Act".
<http://www.u-s-history.com/pages/h917.html>

Clayton Anti-Trust Act

By the turn of the twentieth century, the national leadership of the American labor movement had abandoned politics in favor of “pure and simple trade unionism.” But the federal courts, wielding the nation’s antitrust law, soon drove labor back into national politics. The injunction against the Pullman Railway boycott, upheld by the U.S. Supreme Court in *In Re Debs* (1895), was followed by a series of judicial decrees that used the Sherman Antitrust Act to outlaw strikes and boycotts. The unanimous Court in that case seemed to condemn not only secondary boycotts (an off-site strike; one not directly associated with the company), but the very goal of industry wide collective bargaining.

The American Federation of Labor (AFL) campaign for immunity from the antitrust laws and repeal of the federal courts’ equity jurisdiction to issue anti-strike and anti-boycott decrees. In 1912 the election of Woodrow Wilson and of a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives combined with the revolt of insurgent Republicans to open the door to reform. When Wilson signed the Clayton Act in 1914, the AFL chief Samuel Gompers hailed its labor provisions as the “the Magma Carta” of organized labor.

These provisions included

1. Section 6, which declared that labor “is not a commodity or article of commerce” and that “[n]othing contained in the anti-trust laws....forbid[s] the existence and operations of labor organizations”;
2. Section 20, which outlawed injunctions in labor disputes except where necessary “to prevent irreparable injury to property or to a property right.
3. Section 20 also listed ten “peaceful” and “lawful” labor activities (including strikes and boycotts) that injunctions could not forbid;

Due to somewhat vague language with regard to labor, Congress largely left the power to define labor’s freedom with the courts. And given the composition of the Supreme Court then, the outcome was fairly predictable. In 1921, the Court held in *Duplex Printing Press Co. v. Deering* that the act had neither legalized peaceful secondary boycotts nor immunized them from injunctions. Due to these Supreme Court decisions it became clear that labor needed a clearer, stronger pronouncement on the part of Congress. This would come later during the New Deal;

Sources:

International Longshoreman's Association, "Clayton Anti-Trust Act"
http://ilaunion.org/history_clayton.htm

St. Olaf College, "The Clayton Act".
<http://www.stolaf.edu/people/becker/antitrust/statutes/clayton.html>

Federal Trade Commission

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

“Federal Trade Commission,” entry in Kutler, ed., Dictionary of American History Vol.3 (Charles Scribner & Son, New York, 2003)

Federal Reserve Act

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

“Federal Reserve Act,” entry in Kutler, ed., Dictionary of American History Vol.3 (Charles Scribner & Son, New York, 2003)

16th Amendment – Income Tax

During America's first century, the federal government raised the bulk of its revenue from tariffs, excise taxes, and property taxes. (During the Civil War, an income tax was temporarily imposed in the North.) However, great industries had been established and great fortunes had been made by the end of the nineteenth century, and populist reformers were advocating for reform of the monopolies and trusts and for fairer treatment of citizens. These populist sentiments led Congress to enact a highly progressive income tax in 1894, but it was declared unconstitutional the following year (it was seen as a direct tax, which was outlawed by the Constitution). This led eventually to the passage of the Sixteenth Amendment, which empowered Congress to levy an income tax.

Woodrow Wilson signed the modern personal income tax into law in October 1913. The Underwood-Simmons Tariff Act provided for the reinstitution of a federal income tax as a means to compensate for anticipated lost revenue due to the reduction of tariff duties (this same act dramatically lowered tariffs). According to the tax imposed by Underwood-Simmons, the incomes of couples exceeding \$4,000 (this is roughly \$80,000), as well as those of single persons earning \$3,000 (roughly \$60,000) or more, were subject to a one percent federal tax. Further, the measure provided a progressive tax structure, meaning that high income earners were required to pay at higher rates (as much as 7%). With this initial rate, over 90% of the population were exempt from filing. It would require only a few years (the outbreak of WWI and revenues needed to fight the war) for the federal income tax to become the chief source of income for the government, far outdistancing tariff revenues.

Sources:

The Century Foundation, "Tax Reform: History of the Federal Income Tax".
<http://www.tcf.org/Publications/Basics/Tax/History.html>

Railroad Regulation (Interstate Commerce Act, Elkins Act, Hepburn Act, Mann-Elkins Act, and Adamson Act)

In the years following the Civil War, railroads were privately owned and entirely unregulated. Though each company held a natural monopoly as long as it serviced its own destinations, the railroads became fiercely competitive once they started expanding into each other's markets. They were regarded with distrust by much of the public (especially farmers), who charged them with anything from forming monopolies and wielding corrupt political influence to stock manipulations and rate discriminations. None of the accusations were unfounded. Especially galling to farmers was rate discrimination. Railroads often charged different rates to farmers than they charged to large corporations. Publicly, the prices were the same. But, often corporations negotiated secret rebates, that is a cash refund on the published rates. Railroads, desperate for business, often caved to these demands from large corporations. Often, to help fund rebates, they increased their railroad rates. However, the only customers paying the published rates were often farmers who lacked the economic or political influence of large corporations. This issue, in part, led to a growing farmer's movement which culminated in the formation of a third party – the Populist Party.

The Interstate Commerce Act sought to address the problem by setting guidelines for how the railroads could do business. However, the task of establishing specific measures was complex, and regulators lacked a clear mission. The law sought to prevent monopoly by promoting competition, and also to outlaw discriminatory rate-setting. Its most successful provisions were a requirement that railroads submit annual reports to the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC), and a ban on special rates the railroads would arrange among themselves. Determining which rates were discriminatory proved to be technically and politically difficult, though, and in practice the law was not highly effective.

It wasn't until the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt that the government sought to clarify some of the vagueness of the Interstate Commerce Act. In 1903, the Elkins Act ended the common practice of the railroads granting rebates to their most valuable customers. The great oil and livestock companies of the day paid the rates stated by the railroads, but demanded rebates on those payments. The giants paid significantly less for rail service than farmers and other small operators. The railroads had long resented being extorted by the trusts and welcomed the Elkins legislation. In addition, the law stated that rates had to be published and that violations of the law would find both the railroad and the shipper liable for prosecution. This measure brought some improvement, but other abuses needed to be addressed.

The Hepburn Act of 1906 and the Mann-Elkins Act of 1910 strengthened the Interstate Commerce Commission, stating the government's regulatory power more definitively. The Hepburn Act empowered the ICC to change a railroad rate to one it considered "just and reasonable," after a full hearing of a complaint. The Mann-Elkins Act placed the burden of proof on the railroads; for the first time, they would have to actively demonstrate that a rate was reasonable. With these new powers, the ICC gained almost complete control over rail rates, and therefore much of rail competition. (The Mann-Elkins Act also gave the ICC the power to regulate telephone, telegraph, and cable companies) In the following years, the government continued to strip the railroads of their power. One important piece of legislation, the Adamson Act of 1916, enacted an eight-hour workday for railroad workers.

Sources:

- American Experience, "American Experience | Streamliners | People and Events".
http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/streamliners/peopleevents/e_ica.html
- US-History.com, "Railroad Legislation".
<http://www.u-s-history.com/pages/h921.html>

Hetch-Hetchy Reservoir and the Conservation Debate

The confrontation over the valley of Hetch Hetchy began in San Francisco, a city on the end of a dry peninsula, that was in chronic need of fresh water. In 1901 San Francisco Mayor James Phelan proposed damming the valley to create a reservoir for San Francisco. At the time, only a few hundred people had ever seen Hetch Hetchy but it was, not so coincidentally, in Yosemite National Park. The famed preservationist John Muir had spent many years in Yosemite, climbing its mountains, exploring its most remote corners, and Hetch Hetchy was one of his favorite places on Earth. It is "one of Nature's rarest and most precious mountain temples," he wrote. "Dam Hetch Hetchy! As well dam for water- tanks the people's cathedrals and churches, for no holier temple has ever been consecrated by the heart of man."

The debate over Hetch Hetchy concerned the very definition of conservation. At the time conservation was still very new. The conservation movement, sometimes referred to as the "utilitarian" school of conservation believed in "wise use" of the land: husbanding the resources of wilderness to provide the greatest benefit to the greatest number of people. The "preservationist" school believed that wilderness should be left exactly as is, untouched, like a cathedral of god. Which should have priority, the needs of man or those of wilderness itself? The debate began early and persists to this day.

Muir and the Sierra Club raised enough of a protest to have Phelan's proposal turned down. Undaunted, Phelan tried again in 1903, again in 1905, again in 1907. To his way of thinking, a dam in Hetch Hetchy would provide drinking water and electricity, and, crucially, free San Francisco from the monopoly of the spring Valley Water Company. The idea that preserving scenery was more important than saving his city from economic injustice infuriated Phelan. "John Muir loves the Sierras and roams at large, and is hypersensitive on the subject of the invasion of his territory," Phelan wrote. "The 400,000 people of San Francisco are suffering from bad water and ask Mr. Muir to cease his quibbling."

The 1906 earthquake, causing a fire that destroyed much of San Francisco, seemed to underline the city's need for water; and in 1908 a city referendum resulted in a -1 margin in favor of a dam. But in the nation at large Muir and the Sierra Club, using articles, pamphlets and broadsides, successfully whipped up public opinion in favor of preserving the valley. Letters began to pour into Congress by the thousand; most major newspapers published editorials condemning the dam. "The people are now aroused. Tidings from far and near show that almost every good man and woman is with us," Muir wrote in 1913. "Therefore be of good cheer, watch, and pray and fight!"

On December 6, 1913, after 12 years of fighting, the Hetch Hetchy question came to a final vote. The U.S. Senate passed the bill authorizing the dam with a 43-25 vote. The New York Times wrote, "The American people have been whipped in the Hetch Hetchy fight."

"I'll be relieved when it's settled, for it's killing me," Muir has written. In fact, he did become sick not long after the bill's passage, and died of pneumonia in December 1914. But John Muir had his revenge. The Hetch Hetchy defeat did wonders for his cause. The grassroots nature of the anti-dam protest widened preservationist support tremendously; a vague general approval of wilderness hardened into a movement capable of sustained political action. "The conscience of the whole country," as Muir put it, was "aroused from sleep."

In 1913, the time of the Hetch Hetchy decision, only a handful of conservation organizations existed; 40 years later the number was over 300. And in 1954 they all mobilized for war. This time the dam was proposed for Echo Park - part of the Dinosaur National Monument on the Colorado-Utah border. Again the integrity of the National Park

system was at stake. Again the dam's opponents, led by David Brower of the Sierra Club, took their case directly to the public. The wilderness advocates saturated the press with anti-dam advertisements, produced a cautionary film (*Two Yosemites*), and a book *This is Dinosaur*. The public- relations campaign was massive and the public response unparalleled - mail to members of Congress ran 80-1 against the dam.

This time the preservationists won. After five years of public pressure, the project's backers caved in. Ironically, it was the well-honed political skills of the environmentalists - in theory the group *without* political clout that carried the day. A member of the House Committee on Interior and Insular Affairs said the proponents of the dam had "neither the money nor the organization to cope with the resources and mailing lists" of the preservationists. Since the Echo Park controversy, the battle sites change, but the basic problem remains the same: "the very old problem," as Roderick Nash wrote in *Wilderness and the American Mind*, "of whether parks, reserves and wildernesses are for man ... or for nature."

Source:

http://www.sierraclub.org/ca/hetchhetchy/mini_course_by_ken_chowder.html

For further research: <http://www.historymatters.gmu.edu/d/5721/> - contains Congressional debates on Hetch Hetchy (including testimony from Gifford Pinchot)

Owens Valley Aqueduct History

The Owens Valley can be defined, dryly, as a 100-mile long by 6-to-20-mile wide drop in the earth's crust between two large faults at the eastern base of the Sierra Nevada and at the western base of the Inyo. The valley reaches north to the Volcanic Tablelands and south past the Haiwee Reservoir. Before 1900, the Owens River ran through it, starting at the southern tip of the Long Valley Caldera, gathering water from multiple streams that drained the eastern Sierra, and flowing into the Owens Lake, once a navigable body of water (15 miles long, 10 miles wide, and about 30 feet deep) used as a stopover for millions of migratory waterfowl. The valley region hosts more than 2,000 plant species and more than 320 bird species (many migratory). Snowmelt and an approximately 10,000-foot rise in elevation between the valley floor and the Sierra Nevada and White-Inyo mountains have fostered a wealthy thicket of microenvironments.

In 1902, to open more western land to settlement and irrigation, Congress created the United States Reclamation Service. The Owens Valley was one of the first places considered for a government-sponsored irrigation system (the government would have funded a project that would have irrigated the Owens Valley and provided more conservation of water, which in turn would have led to more agriculture in the area). Simultaneously, however, William Mulholland, Los Angeles superintendent of water, and Frederick Eaton, mayor of Los Angeles, took note of the quality, quantity, and proximity of Owens Valley water. Well aware that more water was necessary for Los Angeles' growth, Mulholland and others garnered political and economic support for a Los Angeles water project by implying in speeches, interviews, and articles that Los Angeles teetered on the brink of a water crisis. Letting Owens Valley ranchers and farmers believe they were selling their land to the U.S. Reclamation Service for the Owens Valley irrigation project (this project would have benefited the farmers), Eaton bought vast amounts of land Eaton, a friend of Teddy Roosevelt, got Roosevelt to cancel the Reclamation project. Eaton, then sold his land to the City of Los Angeles, and the Los Angeles Aqueduct was begun.

Over the protests of valley farmers and ranchers, Los Angeles completed the first aqueduct from the valley to Los Angeles in 1913 and filled it with surface water from the Owens River and from reductions in irrigation. LADWP continued to acquire land and water rights as valley farmers gave up their dead and dying crops and orchards and moved. By 1924, Owens Lake and approximately fifty miles of the Owens River were dry. By the 1930s, Los Angeles owned approximately 95 percent of all farm and ranch land in the valley. As time progressed (especially after WWII) the need for water in Los Angeles increased, and therefore the aqueduct needed to pull in water from other sources close to Owens Valley. In 1940, LADWP completed construction on an 11-mile underground tunnel connecting Mono Basin with the Owens River in Long Valley, and in 1963, LADWP approved plans for a second aqueduct with a capacity of 300 cubic feet per second, bringing the total proposed aqueduct capacity to 780 cubic feet per second. To fill the second aqueduct, which was completed in 1970, DWP proposed reducing irrigation in Inyo and Mono counties, diverting more surface water from Inyo and Mono counties (including surface water going to Mono Lake), and pumping groundwater from the Owens Valley.

On December 7, 2006, water began flowing into the Lower Owens Valley River. Owens Valley has experienced not only a loss of water, but also terrible dust storms which have caused significant health problems for its residents. Lawsuits stemming from both the water and health issues led Los Angeles to agree to partially restore water to the Owens River. While this is a victory, it should be noted that the water will rejoin the Los Angeles Aqueduct farther down the river.

Source:

Giving Back the Owens, "History of the Owens Valley"

<http://www.owensriver.org/history.htm>

For pictures go to: <http://www.usc.edu/isd/archives/la/scandals/owens.html>

Antiquities Act

"That the President of the United States is hereby authorized, in his discretion, to declare by public proclamation historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic or scientific interest that are situated upon the lands owned or controlled by the Government of the United States to be national monuments..."

from Antiquities Act, 1906

The Antiquities Act of 1906 resulted from concerns about protecting mostly prehistoric Indian ruins and artifacts-collectively termed "antiquities "-on federal lands in the West. It authorized permits for legitimate archeological investigations and penalties for persons taking or destroying antiquities without permission. And it authorized presidents to proclaim "historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic or scientific interest" as *national monuments*-"the limits of which in all cases shall be confined to the smallest area compatible with the proper care and management of the objects to be protected."

The bill's sponsors originally expected that national monuments would be proclaimed to protect prehistoric cultural features, or antiquities, in the Southwest and that they would be small. Yet the reference in the act to "objects of ... scientific interest" enabled President Theodore Roosevelt to make a natural geological feature, Devils Tower, Wyoming, the first national monument three months later. Among the next three monuments he proclaimed in 1906 was another natural feature, Petrified Forest, Arizona, and two cultural features, El Morro, New Mexico, and Montezuma Castle, Arizona.

President Roosevelt continued to interpret the provisions of the Antiquities Act broadly. In 1908 Roosevelt again used the act to proclaim more than 800,000 acres of the Grand Canyon as a national monument-a very big "object of scientific interest." And in 1918 President Woodrow Wilson proclaimed Katmai National Monument in Alaska, comprising more than a million acres. Katmai was later enlarged to nearly 2.8 million acres by subsequent Antiquities Act proclamations and for many years was the largest national park system unit. Petrified Forest, Grand Canyon, and Katmai were among the many national monuments that Congress later converted to national parks.

There was no significant congressional opposition to this expansive use of the Antiquities Act in Arizona and Alaska. The most substantial use of the proclamation authority since President Theodore Roosevelt's administration came in 1978, when President Jimmy Carter proclaimed 15 new national monuments in Alaska after Congress had adjourned without passing a major Alaska lands bill strongly opposed in that state. Congress passed a revised version of the bill in 1980 incorporating most of these national monuments into national parks and preserves, but the act also curtailed further use of the proclamation authority in Alaska.

Presidents have also used the Antiquities Act's proclamation authority to enlarge existing national monuments. A few examples: Franklin D. Roosevelt significantly enlarged Dinosaur National Monument in 1938, Lyndon B. Johnson added Ellis Island to Statue of Liberty National Monument in 1965, and Jimmy Carter made major additions to Glacier Bay and Katmai national monuments in 1978.

Although the provisions of the Antiquities Act have remained largely unchanged since 1906, they have been broadly interpreted to include both large and small areas, containing a diverse array of cultural and scientific features. The Antiquities Act has become much more than a way to protect antiquities. It has become an effective means for Presidents seeking to protect public lands that faced immediate threats.

Source:

National Park Service History, "Antiquities Act of 1906",
<http://www.cr.nps.gov/history/hisnps/nphistory/antiq.htm>

National Reclamation Act of 1902

The Newlands (named after the Nevada Congressman who sponsored the bill) Reclamation Act was passed in 1902. Few acts of Congress have had such sweeping results. More than nine million acres of arid (dry) land were, in the jargon of the times, "reclaimed" for beneficial use by making available the storage and delivery of irrigation water. The Reclamation Act's origins in many respects were rooted in the many late 19th century irrigation projects that popped up around the West. These were often simple canal diversions from streams (and were typical of early irrigation in the eastern San Joaquin Valley where pioneer farmers and their canal companies tapped into western Sierra rivers and creeks). Many larger projects were attempted. Failures, often due to insufficient capital, were frequent.

John Wesley Powell proposed a broad Reclamation and settlement program in 1878. A decade later, he headed federal surveys of streams and dam sites, and identified 30 million irrigable acres in the West. Reclamation emerged as a national issue in 1900. That year, pro-irrigation planks found their way into both Democratic and Republican platforms (platforms refer to the overall plan proposed by political parties; planks refer to specific parts of a party platform). Still, debate over the concept of a federal role in water continued. Eastern and Midwestern congressmen opposed the notion and the Reclamation movement itself was divided into regional factions. In 1901, a stormy session of Congress took up a national Reclamation bill along with many other irrigation plans, and rivers and harbors legislation. All of the measures failed but by the end of the year eastern support for Western irrigation had grown, hastened by a Midwest drought.

On September 14, 1901, Theodore Roosevelt's ascension into the Presidency upon the assassination of President McKinley gave Reclamation boosters what would turn out to be their biggest boost. President Roosevelt embraced the concept. "Make the streams...of the arid regions useful by irrigation works for water storage," the President argued. "The storage of floods in reservoirs at the headwaters of our rivers is but the enlargement of our present policy of river control.... The government should construct and maintain these reservoirs as it does other public works."

Newlands modified his earlier failed Reclamation bill, proposing a progressive program that employed federal engineering as a tool for social progress, to convert barren lands into productive farms that would support new homes and communities. The measure required that water users repay construction costs from which they received benefits. Debate was again furious but between strong support of the President and public, opposition eroded. Congress passed the Reclamation Act on June 17, 1902. Section one of the act identified the 16 states and territories to be included in the project; Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

In July 1902, in accordance with the Reclamation Act, Secretary of the Interior Ethan Allen Hitchcock established the United States Reclamation Service within the U. S. Geological Survey (USGS). The new Reclamation Service studied potential water development projects in each western state with federal lands. Revenue from sale of federal lands was the initial source of the program's funding.

From 1902-07, Reclamation began about 30 projects in Western states (Hoover Dam, and Grand Coulee Dam were both Reclamation projects). In 1907, the Reclamation Service was separated from the USGS and became an independent Bureau within the Department of the Interior (it is called The Bureau of Reclamation). Much of West could not have been settled without the water provided by the Act. The West became one of the premier agricultural areas in the world. Bureau of Reclamation statistics show that the more than 600 of their dams on waterways throughout the West provide irrigation for 10 million acres (40,000 km²) of farmland, providing 60% of the nation's vegetables and 25% of its fruits and nuts. Currently, the Bureau operates about a 180 projects in the West.

Not envisioned by the act, Bureau of Reclamation dams support 58 power plants producing 40 billion kilowatt hours of electricity annually. Most of the large population centers in the Far West owe their growth to these power sources.

Source:

Bureau of Reclamation, "About Us". <http://www.usbr.gov/main/about/>

Lincoln Steffens

The rise of mass circulation magazines combined with the reform impulses of the early 20th century to create the form of investigative journalism known as “muckraking” (so named by President Theodore Roosevelt after the muckrake in Bunyan’s Pilgrim’s Progress who could “look no way but downward, with a muckrake in his hands”). In the 1890s, changes in printing technology made possible inexpensive magazines that could appeal to a broader and increasingly more literate middle-class audience. In October 1902 McClure’s Magazine published what many consider the first muckraking article, Lincoln Steffens’ “Tweed Days in St. Louis.” The “muckrakers” wrote on many subjects, including child labor, prisons, religion, corporations, and insurance companies. But urban political corruption remained a particularly popular target, perhaps because it was so blatant, and perhaps because the differences between the muckrakers (mostly middle class and of native Protestant stock) and the political bosses (mostly from Catholic and immigrant backgrounds) made the rule of the immigrant machine appear as an alien intrusion, a corruption of American citizenship.

The writings of Steffens have a certain flair. They do not simply lay out the facts, rather, they tell the story of corruption in an emotional way:

“St. Louis, the fourth city in size in the United States, is making two announcements to the world: one that it is the worst-governed city in the land; the other that it wishes all men to come there (for the World’s Fair) and see it. It isn’t our worst-governed city; Philadelphia is that. But St. Louis is worth examining while we have it inside out.”

Later, Steffens spelled out the types of corruption that occurred:

“From the [Municipal] Assembly, bribery spread into other departments. Men empowered to issue peddlers’ licenses and permits to citizens who wished to erect awnings or use a portion of the sidewalk for storage purposes charged an amount in excess of the prices stipulated by law, and pocketed the difference. The city’s money was loaned at interest, and the interest was converted into private bank accounts. City carriages were used by the wives and children of city officials. Supplies for public institutions found their way to private tables; one itemized account of food furnished the poorhouse included California jellies, imported cheeses, and French wines!”

In addition to attacking numerous political machines, Steffens also worked as the managing editor of *McClure’s* from 1901-1906, and thus helped establish it as the best of the muckraking journals in the early 20th century.

Steffens became nationally known with his book, *The Shame of the Cities* which collected and published his writings on urban corruption in St. Louis, Minneapolis, Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, Chicago. In the introduction to this book, Steffens summarized what he saw was wrong with politics: businessmen were politicians.

“The commercial spirit is the spirit of profit, not patriotism; of credit, not honor; of individual gain, not national prosperity; of trade and dickering, not principle. ‘My business is sacred,’ says the business man in his heart. ‘Whatever prospers my business, is good; it must be. Whatever hinders it, is wrong; it must be. A bribe is bad, that is, it is a bad thing to take; but it is not so bad to give one, not

if it is necessary to my business." "Business is business" is not a political sentiment, but our politician has caught it. He takes essentially the same view of the bribe, only he saves his self-respect by piling all his contempt upon the bribe-giver, and he has the great advantage of candor. "It is wrong, maybe," he says, "but if a rich merchant can afford to do business with me for the sake of a convenience or to increase his already great wealth, I can afford, for the sake of a living, to meet him half way. I make no pretensions to virtue, not even on Sunday."

Sources:

History Matters, "Lincoln Steffens Exposes "Tweed Days in St. Louis".

<http://historymatters.gmu.edu/d/5733/>

History Matters, "The Shame of the Cities: Steffens on Urban Blight."

<http://historymatters.gmu.edu/d/5732/>

Ida Tarbell (1857-1944)

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Sources:

Doris Weatherford, American Women's History (New York: Prentice Hall, 1994)

American Experience, "The Rockefellers – People & Events – Ida Tarbell".
http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/rockefellers/peopleevents/p_tarbell.html

Alice Paul (1885-1977)

QUOTATION DELETED FOR COPYRIGHT ISSUES. QUOTATION CAN BE FOUND IN THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE:

Source:

"Alice Paul," entry in Suzanne O'Dea Schenken, From Suffrage to the Senate: An Encyclopedia of American Women in Politics (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, 1999)

John Dewey

John Dewey's focus on education was a unique element of his philosophical thinking and writing. Although he did not coin the phrase progressive education, it has come to be associated with Dewey.

Dewey believed there is an intimate connection between education and social action in a democracy. "Democracy has to be born anew every generation, and education is its midwife," Dewey wrote in *School and Society*, published in 1889. Dewey recognized that schools, particularly elementary and secondary schools, often were repressive institutions that did not promote exploration and growth. He wrote about, and helped to implement, a number of reforms that would allow schools to be "major agencies for the development of free personalities". Dewey's ideas were put into practice in 1896 at the University of Chicago's experimental school.

Dewey believed that school should teach students how to be problem-solvers by helping students learn how to think rather than simply learning rote lessons about large amounts of information. In Dewey's view, schools should focus on judgment rather than knowledge so that school children become adults who can "pass judgments pertinently and discriminately on the problems of human living" (Campbell, 1995, p. 215-216). Dewey also believed that schools should help students learn to live and to work cooperatively with others. In *School and Society* he wrote, "In a complex society, ability to understand and sympathize with the operations and lot of others is a condition of common purpose which only education can procure."

Dewey believed that students should participate in decisions that affect their learning, but he was also very concerned with the rights and academic autonomy of teachers. Dewey was a member of the first teacher's union in New York City, and his interest in and concern with academic freedom in universities led to his role as a founder of the American Association of University Professors.

The journal *Educational Theory* continues to serve as a forum for discussion of ideas about education which were first examined by Dewey and his colleagues.

Source:

Bowling Green State University, "John Dewey and Education".
<http://www.bgsu.edu/departments/acs/1890s/dewey/educ.html>

Hiram Johnson

Sacramento's most celebrated statesman succeeded in politics mainly because he didn't take after his father and because someone shot a deputy district attorney in San Francisco.

After graduating from Sacramento High School and spending two years at the University of California, Berkeley, Hiram became a lawyer in his father's firm. But the two went their separate ways after quarrels over the elder Johnson's ties to the enormously powerful Southern Pacific Co. Hiram moved to San Francisco to practice law and became an assistant district attorney.

He joined Francis Heney in leading the prosecution of corrupt San Francisco city boss Abe Ruef on graft charges [graft was a typical charge against city bosses]. When Heney was shot in open court, Johnson took over the eventually successfully prosecuted Ruef. The victory launched Johnson's political career as the gubernatorial candidate of the reform-minded Progressive Republicans. He was elected governor in 1910, heralding the end of the railroads' political dominance and the beginning of an era of political reforms.

Hard-driving and humorless in public, the florid-faced, barrel-chested Johnson was said to be relaxed and rather pleasant in private. He also had that most rare of political virtues: personal honesty. In turning down a gift of \$5,000 from Sacramento merchant Harris Weinstock when Johnson was having financial problems, he wrote: "I made my choice (to be in politics) knowing the difficulties that lay in my way and that there were many things I could not hope for ... having made my choice, I feel that I must not only take the advantages, but without repining, must accept the disadvantages."

Governor Hiram Johnson (1911-17), the 23rd Governor of California, was known for shaking the grip that railroad companies and other corporations held on California politics. In his first inaugural address in 1911, he recognized the power of the citizens of California in the following statement:

"Matters of material prosperity and advancement, conservation of resources, development of that which lies within our borders, are easy of solution when once the primal question of the people's rule shall have been determined."

Johnson successfully worked to amend the California Constitution to include—the initiative process affords the people of California the power to propose statutes and amendments to the California Constitution. Today, the initiative process has become a widely used tool used to directly initiate ideas for new laws. The referendum provides Californians with the means to prevent any statute passed by the Legislature and signed by the Governor from taking effect. In addition, as governor, Johnson led successful fight to institute recall laws and the direct primary election; the eight-hour work day for women and children; the workers compensation act; pure food and drug acts; free textbooks in public schools; pensions for retired teachers; and more government control of the railroads and utilities. When Theodore Roosevelt decided to be the Progressive Party candidate in the 1912 presidential elections, he selected Johnson as his prospective vice-president. Roosevelt and Johnson won 4,126,020 votes but were defeated by Woodrow Wilson. However, because of Johnson's record as a reforming governor, they won California.

But he also played a leading role in advocating the exclusion of Japanese from the state and country and opposed American participation in both the League of Nations and the United Nations. After six years as governor, Johnson was elected to the U.S. Senate in 1916 and was re-elected four times. He died on Aug. 6, 1945, the day the United States dropped an atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima.

Sources:

Sacramento Bee, "Profile: Hiram Johnson".

http://www.sacbee.com/static/archive/news/projects/people_of_century/century_special/johnson.html
Spartacus Educational, "Hiram Johnson".

<http://www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/USAhiram.htm>

California State Capitol Museum, "Hiram Johnson".

<http://www.capitalmuseum.ca.gov/virtualtours/capitol/html/links/link1.html>

Margaret Sanger

Margaret Louise Higgins was born on September 14, 1879 in Corning, New York to Michael Hennessey Higgins, an Irish-born stonemason with iconoclastic ideas, and Anne Purcell Higgins, a devoutly Catholic Irish-American. When Anne Higgins died from tuberculosis at the age of fifty, Margaret, the sixth of eleven children, pointed to her mother's frequent pregnancy as the underlying cause of her premature death. This helped Margaret see that birth control was a necessity in some women's lives; their very lives might depend on it. In 1900, she entered the nursing program at White Plains Hospital. In 1902, just months before completing the program, she met and married architect William Sanger. Margaret Sanger and her husband had three children and the family settled in Hastings, a Westchester County suburb of New York City.

Margaret Sanger's work as a visiting nurse focused her interest in sex education and women's health. In 1912 she began writing a column on sex education for the New York Call entitled "What Every Girl Should Know." This experience led to her first battle with censors, who suppressed her column on venereal disease, deeming it obscene. Increasingly, it was the issue of family limitation that attracted Sanger's attention as she worked in New York's Lower East Side with poor women suffering the pain of frequent childbirth, miscarriage and abortion. Sanger began to argue for the need for family limitation as a tool by which working-class women would liberate themselves from the economic burden of unwanted pregnancy.

Shocked by the inability of most women to obtain accurate and effective birth control, which she believed was fundamental to securing freedom and independence for working-women, Sanger began challenging the 1873 federal Comstock law and the various "little Comstock" state laws that banned the dissemination of contraceptive information. In March 1914, Sanger published the first issue of *The Woman Rebel*, a radical feminist monthly that advocated militant feminism, including the right to practice birth control. For advocating the use of contraception, three issues of *The Woman Rebel* were banned, and in August 1914 Sanger was eventually indicted for violating postal obscenity laws. Unwilling to risk a lengthy imprisonment for breaking federal laws, Sanger jumped bail in October and, using the alias "Bertha Watson," set sail for England. She eventually returned to America. The death of her five-year-old daughter created public sympathy, and the government agreed to drop the charges against Sanger. Sanger embarked on a nationwide tour to promote birth control. Arrested in several cities, her confrontational style attracted even greater publicity for herself and the cause of birth control.

Although in 1914 Sanger had been promoting woman-controlled contraceptives, such as suppositories or douches, a 1915 visit to a Dutch birth control clinic convinced her that a new, more flexible diaphragm, carefully fitted by medically trained staff, was the most effective contraceptive device. After returning from a national tour in 1916, Sanger opened the nation's first birth control clinic in Brownsville, Brooklyn. On October 24, 1916, after only nine days in operation, the clinic was raided, and Sanger and her staff were arrested. Sanger was convicted and spent thirty days in prison. However, the publicity surrounding the Brownsville Clinic also provided Sanger with a base of wealthy supporters from which she began to build an organized movement for birth control reform. Sanger appealed the Brownsville decision and although her conviction was upheld, the New York State appellate court exempted physicians from the law prohibiting dissemination of contraceptive information to women if prescribed for medical reasons. This loophole allowed Sanger the opportunity to open a legal, doctor-run birth control clinic in 1923. Staffed by female doctors and social workers, the Birth Control Clinical Research Bureau served as a model for the

establishment of other clinics, and became a center for the collection of critical clinical data on the effectiveness of contraceptives.

Sanger tried to increase support for birth control by focusing on the public health aspect. She rationalized birth control as a means of reducing genetically transmitted mental or physical defects, and at times supported sterilization for the mentally incompetent. While she did not advocate efforts to limit population growth solely on the basis of class, ethnicity or race, and refused to encourage positive race-based eugenics, Sanger's reputation was permanently tainted by her association with the reactionary wing of the eugenics movement.

In her later life, Sanger continued to fight for physician prescribed contraceptives, and in 1936, the U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that physicians were exempt from the Comstock Law's ban on the importation of birth control materials. This decision, in effect, gave doctors the right to prescribe or distribute contraceptives (though the ban on importing contraceptive devices for personal use was not lifted until 1971). She then began to focus on worldwide needs for contraception, and help form the International Planned Parenthood Federation in 1952. She also helped find funding that made the birth control pill possible. Margaret Sanger died a few months after the 1965 Supreme Court decision, *Griswold v. Connecticut* made birth control legal for married couples.

Source:

The Margaret Sanger Papers Project, "Margaret Sanger, Biographical Sketch".
<http://www.nyu.edu/projects/sanger/msbio.htm>