

Quiz 6 (Chapters 13 and 14) Answers

Multiple-Choice Answers

1. (B)

The national unemployment rate soared to approximately 25 percent of the workforce in early 1933. This meant that approximately 13 million workers were unemployed. While 25 percent was the national unemployment rate, in some cities the number of unemployed approached 90 percent. This was at a time when there were no welfare benefits or unemployment funds in most areas of the country. What made things worse was the sheer amount of time workers remained unemployed. By early 1937, unemployment had fallen to 14.3 percent, still representing 8 million unemployed workers. Then the recession of 1937 put an additional 2 million workers out of work again. The suffering many of these workers went through in the course of their unemployment is beyond description. Hobo camps and "Hoovervilles" popped up in virtually every American city.

Moreover, even for those who kept their jobs, poverty became widespread. Crop prices for farmers dropped by 60 percent. Wages for workers who still had jobs dropped 40 percent. Banks continued to collapse, taking the personal savings of depositors down with them, leaving depositors with no savings to help them through this period. So, while 25 percent may not sound catastrophic at first, combined with the collapse of wages and crop prices, as well as the collapse of banks and the sheer amount of time many people were out of work, the nation's economy came close to total collapse.

2. (E)

The recession of 1937 stemmed primarily from changes in government policy based upon Roosevelt's mistaken belief that the Depression had been overcome. Although employment, wage, and production figures had shown steady improvement since the enactment of New Deal legislation in 1933, none of those statistics had yet reached 1929 levels, an indication that despite improvements the economy had still not reached former levels of prosperity. Roosevelt became convinced that the trends started by the New Deal could now sustain themselves, and began cutbacks in New Deal spending which would allow him to restore a balanced federal budget. At the same time, the Federal Reserve Board tightened the money supply to curb rising inflation. The double-hit was too much for the nation's still-fragile economy and it began a new collapse. Unemployment rose by another 5 percent, to over 19 percent. Businesses and banks again began to feel the pressure and industrial activity diminished across the nation. Alarmed by the drastic downturn, Roosevelt reversed himself and requested that Congress restore spending cuts in New Deal programs and resume running a federal budget deficit to restore health to the national economy.

3. (C)

Both Harding and Coolidge promoted policies favorable to business. They firmly believed

in an association between business and government that would help the nation prosper. Their policies reflected a repudiation of Progressivism and a philosophy that what is good for business is good for the country. In that sense, they truly felt that “The business of government IS business.” They believed strong business growth would provide jobs and would improve the entire economy. Their policies helped spur the tremendous economic growth that drove the nation forward from 1922 through 1929. Unfortunately, these same anti-regulatory, laissez-faire business policies permitted greed and abuses leading directly to the stock market crash of 1929 and the Great Depression that followed.

4. (B)
The Indian Reorganization Act represented a reversal of previous government policy which had worked against Indian control of their lands and preservation of Indian traditions. Under the new law, Indian lands could not be divided up and parceled off in allotments that effectively broke up tribal reservations and allowed whites to move in and exploit Indian lands. Further allotments were prohibited and Indians were provided funds with which they could purchase new land and regain control of land previously lost to allotments. Indians were also given the right to draw up their own tribal constitutions, as separate tribal “nations,” and establish their own tribal governments. Federal funds were offered to help Indian tribes construct schools, hospitals, and welfare agencies. Finally, the Act ended restrictions on the rights of Indians to practice tribal religions, rituals, and use tribal languages.
5. (C)
Warren Harding’s administration, like that of Ulysses Grant, was plagued by graft and corruption. Both Harding and Grant were betrayed and humiliated by men they appointed to office.
6. (A)
Franklin Roosevelt appointed Frances Perkins to his cabinet as Secretary of Labor. She was the first woman cabinet member and held her post for 12 years (1933–1945).
7. (E)
Events in Europe as well as the United States after World War I convinced many Americans that the Communists and their sympathizers were using the postwar bitterness to secure political power. The apparent success of the Communist revolution in Russia put state and federal law enforcement agencies on their guard against radical uprisings—the Red Scare. In one of the last episodes of the Red Scare, two philosophical anarchists, Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, were arrested for a robbery and murder which many believed they did not commit. Despite impassioned agitation for their release, Sacco and Vanzetti were executed in 1927.
8. (A)
Although Herbert Hoover opposed direct federal assistance to the needy, he sought to

promote the recovery of private business. In January 1932, Congress established, at Hoover's recommendation, a new federal lending agency, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC). The RFC was authorized to make loans to banks, insurance companies, financial institutions, and railroads. Hoover hoped that these loans would combat deflation in industry and agriculture and contribute to increased employment and purchasing power. He also obtained some reform of the Federal Reserve System and the establishment of home loan banks, together with further capital for existing loan banks, to help prevent mortgage foreclosures.

9. (A)

The Atlantic Charter was the end product of a meeting between Winston Churchill and Franklin Roosevelt in August 1941 aboard the U.S. *Augusta* off the coast of Newfoundland, Canada. The document pledged Britain and the United States to mutual cooperation in working for the defeat of Hitler. This was significant because the United States was still officially neutral, but Roosevelt's signature of the Atlantic Charter made the United States and Britain *de facto* allies. Roosevelt was convinced that it was now just a matter of time before the United States would have to fight Hitler's Germany, and he was determined not to let the British fall before the United States could become fully engaged. The Atlantic Charter cemented these beliefs and laid out long-term military and political goals in a combined Anglo-American war effort. The Charter was the foundation of the extremely successful coordination of operations between the two countries for the remainder of the war.

It did not exchange U.S. destroyers for British bases. Nor did it repeal the Neutrality Acts and allow cash-and-carry sales of arms to Britain. The destroyers for bases exchange had taken place in 1940. Cash-and-carry had been supplanted by Lend-Lease five months previously.

10. (A)

Pearl Harbor was the worst defeat ever suffered by the U.S. Navy. To be caught as unprepared as the commanders at Pearl Harbor were was unbelievable to most Americans. American racism against the Japanese led many people to believe that the Japanese could never have pulled off their stunning raid without "inside help" of some sort. Suspicions immediately turned to Washington where Roosevelt's desire to bring America into World War II were well known. To these people, a conspiracy by Washington to let the Japanese get away with the attack, stirring up American anger and bringing America into the war, answered so many questions about the Japanese success that many felt it had to be the real reason Pearl Harbor had succeeded for the Japanese.

Evidence indicates that there was no plot. While U.S. intelligence analysts knew the Japanese were about to attack somewhere, they did not know where. Since Japanese ships had been spotted sailing south it was natural to assume that they were going to attack Southeast Asia or the Philippines, where British and American naval strength were

too weak to effectively deter them. Military leaders sold themselves on this idea to the point that they ignored evidence indicating Pearl Harbor was also a target.

In addition, prejudice against the Japanese played a large role in the base being unprepared. Commanders at the base refused to focus on what the Japanese were capable of doing and instead focused on what seemed to make sense for them to do. To these commanders, a Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor was senseless. The odds against their fleet approaching Hawaii without being detected were slim. The risks involved with attacking the bulk of the American Pacific Fleet, in its home harbor with the hundreds of defensive aircraft and anti-aircraft guns, were so high that to Americans it seemed suicidal for the Japanese to attempt an attack. Americans felt that the Japanese wouldn't dare try it and ignored the fact that they had the capability to pull it off if they got lucky. Based on these assumptions, base commanders prepared only for the immediate threat of sabotage from local Japanese-Americans on Hawaii. They never seriously considered preparation for a full-scale Japanese assault, in spite of repeated war warnings from Washington, until the bombs actually began to fall.

While a message warning Pearl Harbor was sent before the attack, it was sent over commercial telegraph services rather than priority military lines. It did not arrive until after the attack, too late to make a difference. Some historians question if the telegram would have changed the result even if it had arrived on time, so convinced were Pearl's commanders that the Japanese wouldn't dare attack.

Finally, one of the major contributors to the belief in a government conspiracy was the amount of intelligence gathered before the attack which clearly indicated Pearl Harbor was at risk. In hindsight, the failure to effectively use this intelligence was shocking. Unfortunately, the intelligence was gathered in bits and pieces by several different intelligence agencies within the Army and Navy. At the time the two services didn't share their intelligence with each other, due to interservice rivalry and other logistical factors. As a result, each intelligence service had only some of the necessary "bits" of information needed to piece the entire picture together. It was only *after* the attack that all the intelligence was put together and the obviousness of Pearl Harbor as a target became clear.

11. (C)

While the United States was technically neutral in World War II until the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Franklin Roosevelt made no secret of his distaste for Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy, and militaristic Japan. He openly sought repeal of the neutrality laws so the United States could sell weapons and supplies to Britain and France to help them stop Hitler in Europe. Congress finally agreed, in November 1939, to allow cash sales of goods to European belligerents, meaning France and Britain. When France fell to the Nazi *blitzkrieg*, England stood alone and quickly used up its cash reserves trying to replace its war losses and brace for the expected German invasion. Churchill told Roosevelt of the desperate British situation and predicted that without some means of obtaining American weapons Britain would quickly fall. Realizing that the British needed the help but could

not pay for the weapons, Roosevelt proposed Lend-Lease, a policy through which Britain would be allowed to borrow the weapons it needed and would be expected to return the weapons when the war was over. Realizing that there was nothing subtle about this circumvention of the cash-and-carry law, Roosevelt used the analogy of the neighbor's burning house to justify Lend-Lease. Although critics attacked the proposal, it was passed by Congress and was critical in the eventual success of the Allied war effort.

12. (A)

The Farm Security Administration was created to help restore faith in America by sending photojournalists around the country to photograph Americans and American life. The focus of the resulting publications was on how people had survived, rather than succumbed to, the Great Depression. This program was designed as a public relations program, not as a jobs creation program.

13. (B)

The Scopes "Monkey Trial" was instigated when in 1925 a Dayton, Tennessee, biology teacher, John Scopes, challenged a state law prohibiting the teaching of evolution. His trial that summer became a national news story as the state brought in former Secretary of State William Jennings Bryan as an expert witness. The defense was led by well-known trial lawyer Clarence Darrow. The case took on a circus atmosphere with vendors and crowds of reporters milling about the courtroom and the surrounding environs.

Bryan's unswerving defense of the literal truth of the Bible was attacked as foolish and ignorant. He was made a laughingstock in the national press. Despite the fact that Scopes admitted breaking the law and was found guilty, defense attorneys claimed victory in that they had pointed out the intolerance of religious fundamentalism and showed it to be out of place in modern society.

Observers of the trial saw it as a clash between reactionary social elements trying to resist the onslaught of changing values, life-styles, and technology by desperately clinging to antiquated belief systems, and modernists trying to replace traditional thought with newer secular ideas based on individualism and supported by scientific evidence. While the fundamentalists won the verdict, it was a Pyrrhic victory in that the trial painted them in such a bad light that they lost ground in their efforts to sway society from becoming increasingly secular.

14. (D)

The Smoot-Hawley Tariffs were enacted in 1930, a time when the world economy had already been badly weakened and was still collapsing. These protectionist measures protected a few powerful industries but at high cost. Europeans called the measures an "economic declaration of war" and responded with their own retaliatory tariffs. What few jobs the Smoot-Hawley Tariffs initially saved were far outnumbered by the other jobs lost when European tariffs took effect. Additionally, Europeans now could not sell their goods to Americans, because of the high tariffs, and thus could not earn the money they needed

to buy American products. At a time when trading doors needed to be opened wide and international trade needed to be expanded, Smoot-Hawley had the effect of closing those doors and stifling what little was left of international trade between Europe and the United States.

15. (C)

After the Supreme Court overturned several important New Deal measures, President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Congress knew further reform legislation would face additional judicial reprimands. Emboldened by his emphatic victory in the 1936 presidential election, Roosevelt decided to confront the issue. Without consulting with the congressional leaders of his party, the president submitted to Congress a Judiciary Reorganization bill on February 5, 1937. This bill would empower the president to appoint a new federal judge whenever an incumbent failed to retire within six months after reaching the age of 70. The number of additional judges would be limited to 50, and not more than six of them could be named to the Supreme Court.

Roosevelt's "court-packing" scheme encountered unexpected opposition in Congress. He was accused of wanting to destroy the Constitution and to establish a personal dictatorship. Nevertheless, it was not congressional opposition alone that persuaded Roosevelt and his advisors to abandon the fight for the bill. The decisive factor was a change in the opinions being delivered by the Supreme Court. The Court's decisions now validated New Deal legislation. Responding to the opposition and the Supreme Court decisions, Vice President John Garner and Senate Majority Leader Alben Barkley came forward with a new bill that denied the presidential power to enlarge the courts but conceded badly needed procedural reforms. Roosevelt signed the Judicial Procedure Reform Act on August 26, 1937.