

In the generally affluent decades from 1950 through the end of the century, commercialized leisure, increasingly controlled by multinational media conglomerates, expanded its reach. *Television viewing exploded; the film and recording industries and professional *sports thrived; computer video games diverted the young; and the travel industry flourished. With the introduction of jet aircraft, foreign travel, once an elite activity, became accessible to a broader range of Americans. The nation's first theme park, Disneyland, opened in Anaheim, California, in 1955, followed by scores of others, including Hersheypark in Pennsylvania, Nashville's Opryland, Cedar Point in Ohio, and the Six Flags chain. Thousands flocked to Branson, Missouri, to see aging pop stars perform one last time. Walt *Disney World in Orlando, Florida (1971), became enormously popular. By the 1990s, leisure was very big business in America.

Not all leisure was commercialized, however. Late-twentieth-century Americans continued to find more small-scale diversions, from camping, hiking, and biking to such age-old pursuits as reading, gardening, and picnicking with family and friends. They joined in community- and church-based recreational events; visited local parks, public gardens, and zoos; and engaged in such recreational activities as bowling, skiing, and competing in amateur baseball or soccer leagues. Despite its mass-culture aspects and commercial trappings, leisure in America as the twentieth century ended remained highly diverse and resisted easy generalization.

[See also Amusement Parks and Theme Parks; Automobile Racing; Automotive Industry; Basketball; Bicycles and Bicycling; Boxing; Chautauqua Movement; Dance; Football; Immigration; Minstrelsy; Music; Musical Theater; Popular Culture; Puritanism; Quilts and Quilting; Shopping Centers and Malls; Theater; Worlds Fairs and Expositions.]

* Carl Bode, *The Anatomy of American Popular Culture, 1840-1861*, 1959. Foster R. Dulles, *A History of Recreation: America Learns to Play*, 1965. John F. Kasson, *Amusing the Million: Coney Island at the Turn of the Century*, 1978. Warren James Belasco, *Americans on the Road: From Autocamp to Motel, 1910-1945*, 1979. Judith A. Adams, *The American Amusement Park Industry*, 1991. Peter G. Buckley, "Popular Entertainment Before the Civil War"; Richard V. Smith, "Travel and Vacations"; and Don B. Wilmeth, "Amusement and Theme Parks," in Mary Kupiec Cayton, Elliott J. Gorn, and Peter W. Williams, eds., *Encyclopedia of American Social History*, III (1993), pp. 1611-25, 1677-88, 1705-11.

—Paul S. Boyer

LEOPOLD, ALDO (1887-1948), conservation scientist, writer, and philosopher. Following graduation from Yale University's Forest School in 1909, Leopold joined the U.S. Forest Service, where he became a leading innovator in soil conservation, range management, recreation planning, game management, and wilderness protection. Concerned by the accelerating loss of the nation's wild lands, he led efforts that in 1924 resulted in the designation of the nation's first wilderness area within the Gila National Forest in New Mexico. After 1928, Leopold devoted himself to the development of wildlife management as a distinct field, first as an independent researcher (1928-1933), then as professor at the University of Wisconsin (1933-1948). His fundamental contribution in these years was to apply concepts from the science of ecology to the management of wildlife populations and habitats. His text *Game Management* (1933) was the first in the field.

Through his many nontechnical writings, including policy statements, editorials, and nature essays, Leopold defined a new approach to conservation, one that sought to blend elements of older utilitarian and preservationist traditions within the broader context of contemporary ecological understanding. In the final years of his life, Leopold compiled many of his essays into a collection published posthumously as *A Sand County Almanac* (1949). *Sand County* became, along with Rachel *Carson's *Silent Spring* (1962), a basic text for the later envi-

ronmental movement. Especially influential was its capstone essay, "The Land Ethic," in which Leopold argued for an expansion of the sphere of human ethical concern to include the natural world. Leopold's writings provided important foundations for such emerging interdisciplinary fields as environmental history, ecological economics, environmental ethics, restoration ecology, and conservation biology.

[See also Conservation Movement; Environmentalism; Forests and Forestry; Muir, John.]

* Susan Flader, *Thinking Like a Mountain: Aldo Leopold and the Evolution of an Ecological Attitude toward Deer, Wolves, and Forest*, 1974. Curt Meine, *Aldo Leopold: His Life and Work*, 1988. —Curt Meine

LESBIANISM. See Gay and Lesbian Rights Movement.

LEWIS, JOHN L. (1880-1969), labor leader. Born in Lucas, Iowa, to Welsh immigrant parents. Lewis as a young man wandered the *West and attempted to establish several businesses. He became a coal miner and in 1908 moved to Panama, Illinois. A year later, Lewis became president of the United Mine Workers (UMW) local. Thereafter, he rose rapidly in the labor movement, becoming in 1917 a UMW vice president. Lewis's political ability and his adroit handling of the 1919 coal strike won him the union's presidency in 1920.

The union over which Lewis assumed command soon entered an era of decline. Ironically, as the power of the UMW eroded in the 1920s, Lewis's personal power in the union grew. With Franklin Delano *Roosevelt's election in 1932, Lewis rebuilt the UMW. In 1933, he launched a spectacular organizing drive that brought over 90 percent of the nation's coal miners into the UMW. Lewis emerged as the dominant labor leader of the 1930s and an effective advocate of aggressive organizing. In 1935, with the passage of the pro-labor *National Labor Relations Act, he created the Committee for Industrial Organization (CIO) within the *American Federation of Labor (AFL) to unionize workers in the *mass production industries. As president of the CIO (which was expelled from the AFL in 1938 and changed its name to the *Congress of Industrial Organizations), Lewis helped unionize the *automotive industry, the *iron and steel industry, and others.

At first allied with Roosevelt and the New Deal, Lewis broke with the president during the 1940 election. Roosevelt's reelection caused Lewis to resign as president of the CIO and in 1942 to withdraw the UMW from the CIO.

During *World War II, Lewis played the militant loner. In 1943, he led a series of unpopular strikes. After the war, Lewis led more massive coal strikes that spurred the passage of the 1947 *Taft-Hartley Act. In the 1950s, he shifted from militancy to accommodation with mine owners. He transformed himself into an industrial statesman, urging trade policies that would increase coal exports, building a string of union hospitals, and seeking the passage of the first Federal Mine Safety Law. When he retired from his union presidency in 1960, Lewis left an ailing industry and a debilitated, corrupt union.

[See also Labor Movements; Mining; New Deal Era, The; Strikes and Industrial Conflict.]

* Melvyn Dubofsky and Warren Van Tine, *John L. Lewis: A Biography*, 1977. —Warren Van Tine

LEWIS, SINCLAIR (1885-1951), novelist. Although he attended Yale, Harry Sinclair Lewis, a native of Sauk Centre, Minnesota, always remained something of a provincial midwesterner. Deeply insecure about his personal appearance, ill at ease among intellectuals, prone to alcoholic binges, and in and out of well-publicized marriages, he remains a perennial critical problem, an uncouth realist in an age of uncertain modernism. Perhaps the most gifted mimic in American letters, he was best at seeming to caricature small-town businessmen and religious hucksters.

Although cosmopolitan eastern critics *Mencken assumed that he shared their scorn, wasteland west of the Hudson River, Lewis is sympathetic to those he only appeared to satirize (1920), loosely based on Sauk Centre, and about a Republican real-estate broker in the frontier city of Zenith, entered the language as a symbol of the aridity of American culture and the empty values. Both novels became best-sellers, securing Lewis's reputation as epitomizing the post-*World War I cynicism and condescension toward rural and provincial America. Almost as popular were *Arrowsmith* (1925), that constricted a career devoted to medicine, and *Gantry* (1927), featuring a flamboyantly hypocritical evangelist; and *Dodsworth* (1929), about the peevish values and behavior patterns on a seemingly successful business couple.

Awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1930, Lewis followed abroad, as foreigners saw the essence of capitalist democracy. His later work, on social problems, included *Ann Vickers* (1933), *It Can't Happen Here* (1935), on fascism; and *Not for Money* (1947), on race and miscegenation. Sinclair, somewhat ambiguous observer of American bourgeois life who was deeply implicated in it and *advertising techniques.

[See also Literature: Since World War I; Urbanization.]

* Mark Schorer, *Sinclair Lewis*, 1961. Christopher P. Clark, *Class and Social Representation in American Fiction, 1925, 1992.*

LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION (1804-1806). 1803 message to Congress, President Thomas Jefferson for an expedition up the Missouri River and to the Pacific. With the *Louisiana Purchase later that year, the expedition's significance. Jefferson chose Meriwether Lewis (1774-1809) to lead the expedition, selected as his partner a fellow officer, William Clark (1780-1838). More than forty men, including York, composed the Corps of Discovery as it started in a keelboat and three canoes on 14 May 1804. By the time the expedition had reached present-day Montana where the members established their winter camp at Mandan.

In April 1805, Lewis and Clark sent the keelboat back to St. Louis, before resuming their journey west, accompanied by a Shoshone woman, Sacagawea (1786-1812), a nadian husband. They reached the source of the Missouri River, advanced up a tributary, the Jefferson, before descending their boats. Using horses obtained from the Spaniards, the expedition crossed the Continental Divide and surmounted the Bitterroot Mountains. At the Clearwater River they entrusted the keelboat to Nez Percés, built canoes, and floated down the Snake and Columbia Rivers to the Pacific, where they arrived on 18 November 1805. They named their winter camp Clatsop.

In late March 1806, the corps started home. On the Lolo Creek the expedition split, Clark's company went to the falls and Lewis's group advanced to the Falls of the Missouri, where the units reunited on 23 September 1806, after an absence of two months. The Corps of Discovery arrived at St. Louis.

The Lewis and Clark Expedition, which produced published records and journals, was one of the most important in the annals of world exploration. It destroyed the myth of an all-water route to the Pacific and helped to open the vast extent of the Louisiana Purchase to settlement and the Pacific Northwest.