

Satire vs. The State: Political Comedy and State Censorship in the United States, 1776-Present

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Abstract

This paper explores how the boundaries of permissible satirical content are constrained during periods of restricted speech and heightened ideological divides in American history, and what legal and societal repercussions satirists face as a result. It argues that in such periods, the boundaries of acceptable satire contract sharply, transforming criticism into punishable offense. Through case studies of the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798, the Espionage and Sedition Acts during World War I, and the anti-communist fervor of McCarthyism, the paper illustrates how political climates have shaped the limits of satire and led to consequences ranging from imprisonment and censorship to reputational harm and self-censorship. Addressing a gap in existing scholarship, the manuscript offers a focused and comparative historical analysis of satire's vulnerability under censorship. It reveals recurring patterns of state suppression and highlights the blurred line between protected speech and subversion during ideological crises. The findings deepen our understanding of the historical relationship between satire and free expression, underscoring satire's enduring role as a tool of social critique and democratic accountability.

Keywords: Satire, Censorship, Freedom of speech, Alien act, Sedition act, McCarthyism

1. Introduction

Satire provides a powerful tool for social commentary. Satire in the United States (U.S.) has historically appeared in both graphic and written form, regularly tackling complex matters across a broad range of topics. Satirists have consistently targeted the blind spots of traditional media, exposing issues that were either overlooked or deliberately avoided. Under the guise of humor or irony, satirists have challenged cultural norms, daring to articulate the unspoken and taboo. Satire's often humorous nature makes it enjoyable and accessible to a wide audience. Pushing boundaries, satire exposes societal hypocrisies, encourages critical thinking, and challenges conventional wisdom through laughter and absurdity.

Theorists such as Linda Hutcheon and Jonathan Gray describe satire as a form that derives its power from exaggeration and irony, which are tools that provoke reflection by unsettling dominant narratives. Hutcheon emphasizes irony as a politically charged semantic event, dependent on both intent and audience interpretation (Hutcheon, 1994). Gray, writing on modern media, argues that satire serves not only as a tool of critique but also as a form of cultural participation, capable of shaping public opinion and media discourse (Gray, Jones, & Thompson, 2009). Scholars in media effects similarly note that satire can both reinforce and subvert public attitudes, depending on its framing and the ideological context in which it circulates.

Across time, satirists have offered a subversive mirror to society, reflecting its most uncomfortable truths with a comedic twist. Although satire has been generally well-respected in the U.S., its controversial nature has posed risks for the publications, writers, and artists behind it. During periods of heightened political tensions, the U.S. government has frequently curtailed freedom of speech in the name of national interest.

This paper examines the complex interaction between government power and satire across three critical periods in American history: the early Republic, marked by the Sedition Act of 1798; World War I, marked by the Espionage Act; and the Cold War, marked by McCarthyism. Three case studies were selected involving the work of James Callender, Robert Minor, and Herbert Block (Herblock) based on their prominence, the severity of the state responses they provoked, and their relevance to distinct periods of heightened ideological conflict and restricted speech in U.S. history. Each figure exemplifies a different form of satirical expression (pamphlet, cartoon, editorial) and encountered tangible consequences ranging from imprisonment to reputational attacks. Primary sources, including satirical texts and political cartoons, were analyzed alongside legal and historical records to evaluate how shifting political climates shaped the boundaries of permissible satire. Secondary scholarship provided additional context and interpretive frameworks to support a comparative historical analysis. This methodology allowed for the identification of recurring patterns in state-satire dynamics while highlighting the vulnerability of dissenting voices under censorship.

Grounded in these historical case studies, this manuscript explores how permissible satirical content is constrained and what consequences satirists have historically encountered during moments of restricted speech and heightened ideological division in the U.S. It contends that periods of limited free speech coincide with a dramatic narrowing of acceptable satirical content. As a consequence, satirists with seemingly dissenting or unsanctioned beliefs have faced repercussions for speech that would otherwise have been protected.

This paper addresses a gap in existing scholarship by offering a focused and comparative historical analysis of how satire becomes vulnerable under censorship through its attention to both the evolving limits of acceptable content and the tangible repercussions for satirists.

2. Satire vs. Free Speech: Historical Regulation of Satirical Content in the United States

The foundation for free speech was laid with the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution in 1791. In *American Theory of Satire*, Roth (1958) cites several early examples of satire in colonial U.S., such as “satirists of education condemn the ignorant teachers...those concerned with religion take part in current American controversies over revivalism and sectarianism...those condemning the law feel that its priesthood, mystery, and cant are un-American” (p. 399). However, the freedom to profess one’s criticism was not absolute. During John Adams’s presidency, the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798 made it illegal to publish false or malicious content against the government or its officials, resulting in the prosecution of several satirists who criticized the government.

The 1798 Sedition Act, which purported to defend the nation from internal conflicts during the quasi-war with France, was in reality a tool wielded by the Federalist Party to silence its political opponents, primarily the Democratic-Republicans. It was weaponized in several ways. For example, the Act used overly vague language that left the definition of “false, scandalous, and malicious” intentionally ambiguous, meaning it could be selectively enforced against the Democratic-Republican press. Opposition leaders such as Jefferson and Madison were targeted (*The Sedition Act, 1798* | *Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History*, n.d.). Then-Secretary of State Timothy Pickens was quoted as saying that the Sedition Act was not a threat to free speech but an essential measure to “exterminate the pests of society and disturbers of order and tranquility” (Stone, 2004, p. 46) This effectively silenced opposition voices, including satirical commentary.

After the expiration of the Alien and Sedition Acts, regulations relaxed in the 19th century. Satirical works targeting politicians became more common, reflecting a broader acceptance of political criticism. However, during the Civil War, the government attempted to exercise more control over the press, particularly in the Confederacy. Even then satire continued to thrive as a tool for political commentary (Asp, 2024). Satirical cartoons focused on the politics of the time such as those by Thomas Nast, a cartoonist for *Harper’s Weekly* in New York who first illustrated the Democratic Donkey and the Republican Elephant together, are believed to have influenced the outcome of several late 19th-century political elections (Sherman, n.d.).

In the early 20th century, political cartoons and satirical magazines continued as powerful tools for pushing the boundaries of free speech. However, during World War I, the Espionage Act and its 1918 amendments, commonly referred to as the Sedition Act as well, were employed to suppress anti-war speech, including satire. The government prosecuted individuals for satirical content deemed unpatriotic or subversive. This had a similar impact as the earlier

Sedition Acts, significantly infringing upon First Amendment rights and curbing overt criticism of the government and its war efforts. The Espionage Act expanded censorship to include any anti-war sentiment, and the amendments were used to prosecute thousands of individuals, creating a climate of fear and suspicion for several years. The Sedition Act amendments were repealed in 1921, and courts later invalidated convictions under the act (*INTEL - The Espionage Act of 1917*, n.d.).

In *Mirroring the Political Climate: Satire in History*, Dagnes (2012) explores the evolution of political satire in the U.S., emphasizing how it adapts to shifts in the political environment. Dagnes points out that satire often becomes more prominent during periods of heightened political tension, serving both as a form of commentary and resistance (Dagnes, 2012). A key example is the 1950s, when the “Red Scare” (a period of intense fear and suspicion in the U.S. about the possible spread of communism) and McCarthyism led to heightened scrutiny of satirical content, especially if it was perceived as communist or anti-American.

The McCarthy-era anti-Soviet frenzy fostered a culture of mistrust towards those suspected of communist sympathies. Contrary to earlier war times, this period produced little actual free speech legislation. Nonetheless, it had a stifling effect on free speech by creating an environment where questioning the status quo—a core element of satire—was seen as dangerous and subversive. Satirists, like many others in the entertainment industry, lived in fear of being labeled communist sympathizers. Consequently, the scope of satirical targets narrowed, and satire became subtler and more indirect to avoid accusations of siding with the enemy (Pufong, 2024). Despite this, satirical media like *Mad Magazine* emerged in the early 50s, “irreverently satirizing and parodying advertising, consumerism, politics, popular culture, and social mores” (Vaughan, 2024, Sensibility and Legacy section).

A significant shift occurred in 1964 with the Supreme Court case *New York Times Co. v. Sullivan*, which reinforced protections for satire under the First Amendment. This ruling established that public figures could not sue for defamation unless they could prove “actual malice,” greatly expanding the freedom of satirists (Barbas, n.d.).

The late 20th century saw an explosion of satirical content in television, film, and print, with shows like *Saturday Night Live* and *The Simpsons* pushing the boundaries of acceptable satire. The Federal Communications Commission (FCC) occasionally regulates broadcast satire, particularly concerning obscenity, indecency, and profanity, but satire largely remained protected under the First Amendment (*The FCC and Speech | Federal Communications Commission*, 2022).

The rise of social media and digital content has amplified both the reach and the impact of satirical works. Platforms like X, Instagram, and TikTok have become fertile ground for satirists to quickly respond to current events, often blurring the lines between satire, commentary, and misinformation. The algorithms that drive social media can amplify certain satirical content, sometimes without context, which can further complicate its interpretation and impact. While this democratization of satire allows for broader participation and more diverse voices, it also raises concerns about the potential for satire to be misconstrued or weaponized, opening doors to censorship and debates over free speech.

Restrictions on free speech can profoundly affect satire, narrowing its reach and weakening its influence. Satire depends on the freedom to critique and mock social or political issues, yet in restrictive environments, satirists risk censorship or punishment. Such conditions often sap creative energy, erode the sharpness of satirical commentary, and deter engagement with contentious subjects. In climates where control is heavy, satire tends to retreat into more guarded or symbolic forms, which can blunt its force as a vehicle for political and social critique. Critical examples of how satire has been evaluated, as protected or unprotected, objectively or subjectively, and how satirists have been subjected to these evaluations are discussed ahead.

3. Impact of Sedition Act on Satire: The Case of James Callender

The late 1790s was a tumultuous period in American history, marked by intense domestic and international tensions, including the quasi-war with France. This climate of fear and uncertainty provided the backdrop against which the Sedition Act was wielded to suppress dissent. The Act, which outlawed the publication of “false, scandalous, and malicious” criticisms of the government, was overtly used as a tool to silence opposition (Stone, 2004). Its profound

effect on political satire and free expression is best understood through the experiences of Scottish-American journalist and satirist, James T. Callender, who became a prominent target of this legislation.

Callender gained notoriety in Scotland as a satirist and political pamphleteer, most notably writing *The Political Progress of Britain*, a scathing exposition of government corruption that led to his indictment for sedition (Durey, 2013). Callender fled to Philadelphia, PA, and later to Richmond, VA, where he continued his work in political journalism. There, he quickly earned a similar reputation. He integrated himself into Democratic-Republican circles, authoring a series of pamphlets attacking key Federalist figures.

Thomas Jefferson acted as a mentor to Callender, supporting him both politically and financially. With Jefferson's backing, Callender published a two-part pamphlet, *The Prospect Before Us*, which attacked the Adams administration, revealing "the multiplied corruptions of the federal government, and more especially the misconduct of the president" (Callender, 1800). *The Prospect* was not an entirely satiric work, instead wielding satire as one of many tools to discredit Adams. However, Callender's work violated the Sedition Act, resulting in his imprisonment.

Callender blamed Adams for many of the nation's shortcomings, often expressing this in less-than-flattering terms. Adams was, in Callender's words, a "hideous hermaphroditical character, which has neither the force and firmness of a man, nor the gentleness and the sensibility of a woman" (Callender, 1800, p. 57). This characterization of Adams was emblematic of Callender's broader strategy: to undermine Adams by attacking his integrity and fitness for office. This extreme language not only fueled political discord but also highlighted the dangerous tensions between satirical speech and governmental power in the early republic.

In *The Prospect Before Us*, Callender accomplished two important things. First, he criticized Adams' and the Federalists' attitudes toward domestic issues. Second, he blamed Adams for the conflict with France, going so far as to conclude that Adams was looking for a reason to expand the military as a means of ensuring his own reelection.

Amidst his criticisms of the President's handling of external affairs with France, Callender included the satirical observation illustrated in Figure 1. He presented readers with a series of absurd "queries" designed to mock Adams's policies. The first query, "whether it is most commendable to knock down an independent and honest newsprinter, or to knock down his son," humorously critiques the Sedition Act. In Callender's eyes, the act was a tool wielded by Adams to "knock down...honest newsprinters" who expressed disagreement with him. Callender's second query rebuked the Federalists' mob-like behavior, sarcastically suggesting it was no "proof of bravery." Throughout this passage, Callender uses words like "honour," "heroism," "bravery," and "manhood" with biting sarcasm to signal that he viewed the Federalists' actions as anything but.

Callender particularly mocked Adams's bravado in dealing with France. He characterized Adams as boastful, irrational, and overly concerned with "national honour," suggesting that Adams's antagonistic rhetoric and poor diplomacy escalated tensions unnecessarily. Callender sarcastically emphasized the absurdity of Adams's dedication to military expansion under the guise of protecting national honor, while also implying that Adams was manipulating the situation to secure political loyalty and influence the upcoming presidential election.

Callender was imprisoned and fined under the Sedition Act. Upon his release, he fell deeper into alcoholism and further out of Republican favor. His wife died and he began to struggle financially. After criticizing key Republican victories, he lost the party's trust and was passed up for government positions. This led to feelings of animosity towards Jefferson, his former mentor. Callender's disillusionment ultimately culminated in his public betrayal of Jefferson, which further isolated him politically and personally. Callender tragically drowned on July 17, 1803, in the James River, reportedly too intoxicated to save himself (Ridgway, n.d.).

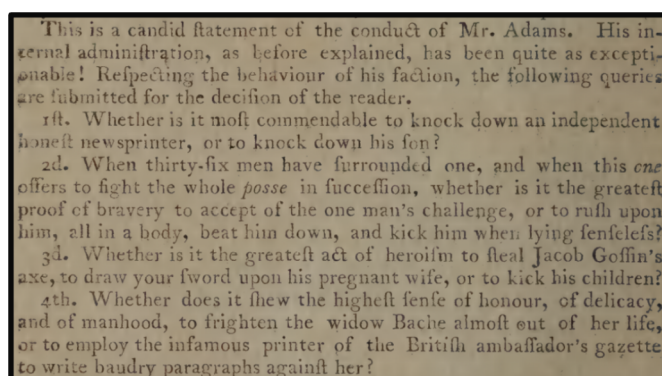


Figure 1. James Callender. (1800). *The Prospect Before Us*, Page 86

4. Impact of Espionage Act on Satire: The Case of Robert Minor

The 1910s saw a period of social and political transformation in the U.S. Immigration altered the demographic makeup of urban centers, leading to increased cultural diversity and economic growth, but also sparking fears of foreign influence and competition for jobs. Concurrently, the successful Bolshevik revolution in Russia galvanized American communists, lending them increased prominence in political spaces. The country experienced its first – but not last – Red Scare (Murray, 1955).

During this tumultuous period, the government sought greater societal control. The 1917 Espionage Act, as its name suggests, was passed to protect national secrets during World War I (and remains in effect today). Similar to the Sedition Act, the Espionage Act was intended to safeguard domestic interests. Subsequent amendments and extensions to the Espionage Act made it illegal to express contempt for the government. The Sedition Act of 1918 expanded upon the 1917 Espionage Act and, like its predecessor, was used to suppress satirists and other dissenting voices.

Robert Minor, a political cartoonist who later joined the Communist Party, was one such artist targeted by this legislation. A vocal anti-war advocate, Minor used his cartoons to push for an end to World War I and to highlight issues of social equality. His work, however, made him a target under the Sedition Act, illustrating the government's intolerance for anti-war sentiment during this period.

Minor was born in San Antonio, TX, where he faced financial hardship that prevented him from completing high school. He found work in the publishing business where he quickly developed an eye for cartooning. Despite his lack of formal education, he eventually gained recognition at the *New York World*, where he is said to have been one of the highest-paid cartoonists in the country (*Labor Arts*, n.d.).

Later, Minor began making anti-war cartoons for *The Masses* while also continuing to work as a cartoonist for *The New York Call*. His anti-war cartoons were deemed to violate the Sedition Act, and were cited by the government as justification for shutting down *The Masses* in 1917. The following examples illustrate Minor's use of satire to shine a spotlight on the grave problems he saw in the political environment of that time.



Figure 2. Robert Minor. (1916). *At Last A Perfect Soldier!* [grease crayon on paper]. Pritzker Military Museum and Library, Chicago, IL, United States.

participation in the war. While he is perfectly suited for battle, he is completely unfit for anything else, highlighting the dehumanizing effects of war.

In Figure 3, Minor's communist sympathies become more evident. An evil-robot-like machine tagged "capitalism" beats coal-shoveling "labor" on the head. Labor provides the capitalist machine with the necessary fuel to function. Capitalism uses this hard-fought energy to do one thing: beat Labor. Minor presents viewers with a question: "Well, who's to blame?". Surely, it is not the machine's fault; it spends its time doing what it was built to do. However, it cannot be the laborer's fault; he is constantly threatened with violence and forced to support the machine.

The perceived violation of the Sedition Act by *The Masses* due to its publication of anti-war and anti-government materials led to its closure in 1917. Robert Minor, along with several other contributors, was charged under the Act, although no one was convicted as the trials never took place. Following this period, Minor began shifting his focus from cartoons to politics, making

This cartoon from Minor's time at *The Masses* (Figure 2) depicts "The Perfect Soldier," a figure who is muscular and physically ideal for combat but headless, symbolizing his lack of emotion and critical thought. This headlessness makes him an efficient killer, free from guilt or remorse, but also renders him unable to question the reasons behind his

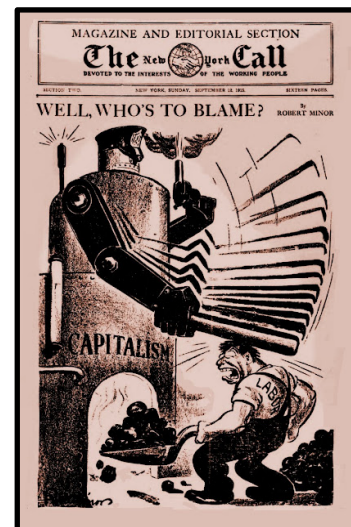


Figure 3. Robert Minor. (1915). *Well, Who's to Blame?* [grease crayon on paper]. New York Public Library, New York City, NY, United States.

several unsuccessful attempts to run for state office. Despite his lack of success in politics, Minor's work left a lasting impact on the art of political satire, influencing future generations of political cartoonists who saw in his bold critique a powerful model for resistance against censorship and oppression. Eventually, he became an active member of the Communist Party, illustrating how his political convictions continued to shape his career and legacy (*Yesterday's Papers: Robert Minor in the New York Call*, n.d.).

5. Impact of McCarthyism on Satire: The Case of Herbert Block

McCarthyism emerged in the U.S. during the late 1940s and early 1950s, amid intense fear of communism and political paranoia. The Cold War between the U.S. and the Soviet Union heightened fears of communist infiltration both abroad and at home, leading to a ubiquitous climate of suspicion. The U.S. government, under Presidents Truman and Eisenhower, adopted aggressive anti-communist policies, and organizations like the House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC) investigated alleged communist ties, often based on weak evidence or hearsay (*What Led to McCarthyism?*, n.d.).

Society was also deeply affected by these fears. Many Americans believed that communists had infiltrated key institutions, including the government, the entertainment industry, and education. This led to a culture of accusation, where even a mere suggestion of communist affiliation could ruin careers and lives. Senator Joseph McCarthy capitalized on this environment, claiming to have lists of communists in the government and using these allegations to gain power and influence. His tactics, which included aggressive questioning and baseless accusations, contributed to a broader culture of fear, censorship, and conformity that characterized this era (Durlinger, 2017).

Herbert Block, known as Herblock, was a prolific cartoonist whose work was particularly important in that time. Beginning his career in the 1920s and continuing for over seven decades, Herblock witnessed and commented on a series of transformative events, including the Great Depression, World War II, the Cold War, the Civil Rights Movement, the Vietnam War, Watergate, and the rise of both conservative and liberal movements in American politics. His cartoons reflected the country's struggles with issues of civil liberties, economic inequality, government corruption, and ideological conflicts between democracy and authoritarianism. Herblock used his platform to criticize politicians, advocate for social justice, and promote democratic values (Billington, n.d.).

During the McCarthyism era, Herblock's work was significantly impacted by the heightened restrictions on free speech and the pervasive atmosphere of fear and censorship. However, he remained resolute in his commitment to free expression and his role as a political satirist. He used his platform at *The Washington Post* to challenge McCarthyism and expose its dangers to American democracy. Through his cartoons, he sharply criticized McCarthy's tactics, portraying him as a reckless demagogue threatening civil liberties and democratic norms.

Examples of his satirical work at the time include:

The cartoon in Figure 4 is commonly referenced as the one in which the term "McCarthyism" was coined. Here, Republicans push the elephant – their party's mascot – towards a precarious tower of tar buckets emblazoned with the word "McCarthyism." The original caption, "You mean I'm supposed to stand on that?" underscores the message: steering the Republican Party toward anti-communist smear campaigns would completely undermine its stability. Further, because tar leaves a stubborn stain, the damage to the party's reputation could be long-lasting.



Figure 4. Herbert Block. (1950). *You Mean I'm Supposed to Stand on That?* [Graphite, ink, and opaque white over graphite underdrawing]. *Washington Post*, Washington DC, United States.

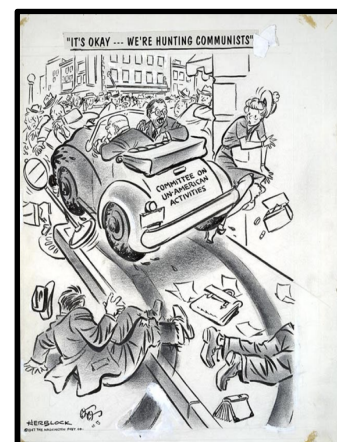


Figure 5. Herbert Block. (1947). *It's OK - We're Hunting Communists.* [Graphite, ink, and opaque white over graphite underdrawing]. *Washington Post*, Washington DC, United States.

Figure 5 depicts a swerving car, labeled “Committee on Un-American Activities,” wreaking havoc on an otherwise peaceful city street. People have fallen on the floor, or have been pushed into walls. The car’s drivers claim it’s all right because they are “hunting communists.” However, it is clearly not acceptable to endanger lives through reckless driving. This comparison to reckless driving allows Herblock to make a point about McCarthyism: HUAC – and its investigation into Hollywood stars, producers, and anybody else with suspected communist sympathies – acted recklessly and endangered innocent Americans.

The cartoon in Figure 6, although lacking labels that might signal its true subject to the reader, also tackles the



Figure 6. Herbert Block. (1949). *Fire!* [Graphite, ink, and opaque white over graphite underdrawing]. Washington Post, Washington DC, United States.

issue of anti-communist madness in 1950s America. The fire depicted in the sketch represents the torch held by the Statue of Liberty, a well-known symbol of American freedom. The torch's light is a longstanding feature and should not cause alarm. This is where Block reminds viewers of his mastery of satire. The figure holding a bucket of water running up the ladder to douse the flames of liberty is labeled “hysteria.” Through this simple yet powerful image, Herblock conveys his message: the hysteria of McCarthyism is extinguishing liberty in the U.S.

Unlike Callender and Minor, Herblock did not face legal trouble for his cartoons. However, his reputation suffered: Nixon famously referred to his negative public image as his “Herblock Image” and publicly canceled his subscription to *The Washington Post*, the publication that allowed Block to rise to prominence (Kercher, 2010). Unlike Callender and Minor, however, Herblock continued his career in satire, ultimately winning several Pulitzer Prizes for his work (Billington, n.d.). A foundation was later opened in his name, which grants scholarships and awards the Herblock Prize for Excellence in Editorial Cartooning. Although he faced pushback from the government, Block was not silenced, showing progress for political satirists in the U.S.

6. Discussion

The cases of James Callender, Robert Minor, and Herbert Block reveal a consistent yet evolving pattern in how the U.S. has responded to satirical critiques during periods of heightened political tension. In each era, domestic and international pressures blurred the boundary between what was considered acceptable satire and what crossed into offensive or dangerous territory. Government officials frequently defended speech restrictions as necessary for national security, producing two related effects: satirists felt compelled to temper their work, and they faced outside efforts to silence them. Although satire is inherently subversive and should, in principle, be insulated from such constraints, these case studies demonstrate how quickly that protection can erode in times of crisis.

A comparison of government responses across the three periods shows a shift in tactics. In the early Republic, under President John Adams, the Sedition Act of 1798 was deliberately used to silence political opponents. The act’s vague language allowed selective enforcement, leading to Callender’s imprisonment and a fine for his political attacks. During World War I, the Espionage Act and its 1918 amendments similarly targeted dissenters. Minor’s anti-war cartoons in *The Masses* were cited as justification for shutting down the magazine, and he was charged along with other contributors for content deemed unpatriotic. Both Callender and Minor were prosecuted for their work, illustrating how legal tools were employed to suppress satire directly. By contrast, in the McCarthy era, little new speech legislation was enacted, yet the climate of suspicion and the culture of accusation created powerful informal pressures. Herbert Block, though never charged, faced reputational attacks; President Nixon even canceled his *Washington Post* subscription and used the term “Herblock Image” as a political insult. This reflects a transition from overt criminal prosecution to suppression through public condemnation and political isolation.

Societal attitudes toward satire also shifted over these periods. In Callender’s time, fear of foreign influence and instability fueled support for silencing dissent, with the Sedition Act seen by some as a necessary measure to preserve order. During World War I, the first so-called Red Scare reinforced a climate where anti-war expression was widely

regarded as a threat to national unity. By the 1950s, McCarthyism amplified public suspicion to the point where even indirect challenges to the political status quo could damage reputations. The scope of permissible satire narrowed, pushing satirists to adopt subtler approaches. Yet the rise of publications such as *Mad Magazine* during this era shows that a limited, cautious space for satire could still exist, hinting at gradual change. Legal developments such as the Supreme Court's decision in *New York Times Co. v. Sullivan* in 1964 would later strengthen protections by requiring proof of actual malice in defamation cases involving public figures.

The professional outcomes for the three satirists illustrate both the risks and the resilience of the craft. Callender suffered the harshest fate: imprisonment, political alienation, financial hardship, and eventual death under tragic circumstances. Minor's career as a cartoonist was disrupted; the closure of *The Masses* and the charges against him contributed to his shift toward direct political activism, including joining the Communist Party. Herblock, while enduring targeted criticism and political hostility, managed to continue producing influential work for decades, earning multiple Pulitzer Prizes and leaving a lasting legacy through a foundation in his name. This trajectory, from ruin, to redirection, to resilience, suggests that although suppression remained a reality, later eras allowed for greater survival and recognition of satirical voices.

Taken together, these comparisons highlight a gradual, though uneven, shift from direct legal punishment toward more indirect pressures, and an incremental expansion of space for satirical expression. The enduring tension between free expression and state control remains evident, yet the capacity for satirists to persist and even thrive has grown. In the present day, the rise of digital platforms has transformed the landscape. Satirical content can now reach vast audiences rapidly, but it also faces new challenges, including the potential for misinterpretation, the amplification of divisive material by algorithms, and calls for content regulation. The contemporary debates over "cancel culture," online censorship, and the criminalization of certain types of speech echo earlier conflicts over satire's limits. The historical examples of Callender, Minor, and Herblock provide a lens for understanding how these tensions might be navigated, underscoring satire's continuing importance in shaping political discourse and in challenging those who hold power.

7. Conclusion

This study has examined how permissible satirical content contracts during periods of restricted speech and heightened ideological divides in U.S. history. Through the cases of James Callender, Robert Minor, and Herbert Block, it has shown that when political tensions rise, satire that challenges prevailing narratives becomes more vulnerable not only to censorship but also to legal action and social backlash. These examples reveal a recurring pattern in which the boundaries of acceptable satire shift with the political climate, and works tolerated in calmer times can be condemned or punished during crises. This dynamic blurs the line between protected expression and perceived subversion, compelling satirists to adapt their methods. Some use coded language, others adopt a subtler tone, and still others take calculated risks. By tracing this interplay across three eras, the paper reaffirms its central argument that the freedom to create and share satire is both a measure and a casualty of political freedom, making its protection an essential element of democratic discourse.

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