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KYLE WARD

U.S. HISTORY / 1865–1904

HISTORY

VS.

HISTORY

Understanding Historical Thinking and Historiography

History vs. History

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U.S. HISTORY / 1865–1904

Kyle Ward

MindSparks®
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TO THE TEACHER

For centuries, in nations around the world, one thing that has seemed to be constant in history classrooms has been the textbook. Typically thick books that lay out national history in a strict chronological way, textbooks have also been a major educational tool to help generations learn what it means to be a citizen of their country. Often, history textbooks demonstrate to students what it means to be a good citizen by highlighting all the positive things that their country's citizens have accomplished and by showing how past struggles have made their country a better nation in their own day. With that in mind, this workbook series was created with the hope that students in a history class would be able to learn, understand, and interpret history and historical events by looking at examples of history textbooks from various nations and throughout U.S. history.

The excerpts from history textbooks in this book demonstrate historiography and historical thinking. These history textbooks come from two different categories. Some are from nations around the world and represent what middle school or high school students in their respective countries would typically use in their history classrooms. Most of these books were found at the Georg Eckert Institute in Braunschweig, Germany. The others are old American history textbooks dating from the 1790s through the 1970s. Many of these American history textbooks come from the Cunningham Library at Indiana State University.

Not every nation will be represented in this book, nor will every historical story about the United States be told. The logistics of finding, reading, editing, and translating textbooks from every nation over time would be impossible. Therefore, this workbook is a small snippet of old textbooks with a glimpse of how students learn about the United States in history classes around the world.

These lessons should make it clear to students that history is not about names, dates, and places, but rather about understanding perspective, interpretation, and bias, and being able to make an informed argument about various events in the past. Studying history this way might be new to some of your students, but taking the time to learn how to interpret how society impacted what was written in the past will help your students get more involved with the topic—and hopefully gain a better appreciation of this field of study.

Each section has a brief introduction, followed by one or more textbook excerpts from different nations or periods. The excerpts are followed by a section titled "Items for Analysis," which will ask students to consider various questions related to the textbook excerpts. Questions will ask students to compare and contrast, organize events or concepts into different times, put stories into specific context, develop arguments through specific evidence, interpret information, and synthesize it all to show that they understand the material.

While many of the questions will relate to the specific textbook selections in that section, at times students are asked to go above and beyond. For those questions, students will probably have to use the internet, the library, or other research materials to help prepare their answers.

The main goal of this series is for students to learn about historiography and historical thinking by looking at textbook excerpts from different nations or periods. This will lead to a lot of discussion, debate, and extra research, and students will need to formulate and defend theories. At the end of the day, these exercises will lead students to become more informed citizens, and will help students develop their self-confidence, allow them to develop their own "voice," while giving them a more in-depth understanding of the field of history.

INTRODUCTION: WHAT IS HISTORIOGRAPHY?

Historiography is the study of how history has been written, studied, researched, and analyzed over time. When historians look at specific historical documents, they want not only to learn what it says about an event or person, but also to understand who wrote it, where they wrote it, and when. Historians want to know this information because they are trying to figure out what may have influenced the author(s) perspective, biases, and interpretation of the specific person or event detailed in the source.

Every historian knows that when authors write something they are not doing so in a perfect vacuum or even being completely objective about their topic. Rather, each document (or source) was produced at a time when certain cultural, political, religious, geographic, economic, and/or social events were swirling around them. Therefore, historians would argue that the time period in which the source was written affected how its author(s) saw the world around them.

It is also important to note that very few historical figures lived their lives with the thought they were living "in history." Rather, most people live day-to-day without considering that in the future their daily actions might be analyzed, researched, written about, and debated. For example, the immigrants who came to the United States in the late 1800s did not sit around saying to one another, "Isn't it great living in this historical time period known as the Gilded Age?" They were much more concerned about surviving and getting set up in their new home and were probably not considering how people in the future would view them either individually or as a larger group. Therefore, when they wrote letters home, kept journals, or communicated with people in their own community, they wrote what they felt and knew at that moment. Now, because of historical research, we know that there were certain political, economic, geographic, religious, social, and cultural things going on at that time, all of which may have had a direct impact on how these new immigrants viewed the world.

What does all this mean for the study of history today? Consider the following scenario. Today, two historians end up researching the same historical event. For arguments sake, let's say they are interested in why the Berlin Wall fell in 1989 and which world leader should get credit for this event. They are researching the same topic and reading many of the same documents, but when they write up their final report they have two very different perspectives on this same event. One discussed how it was U.S. President Ronald Reagan who was the key player in ending the Cold War by forcing Germany to tear down the Berlin Wall, while the other argues that it was obviously Soviet President Mikhail Gorbachev and his policies in the former Soviet Union that ended the Cold War.

These two historians came to completely different interpretations of what caused this major historical event probably because their sources emphasized different perspectives. These historians then based their arguments on what individuals from the past had written about the event at the time the event occurred. Some of the sources could have

been an East German who had just left his country to get into West Germany, a Soviet soldier who was stationed in East Berlin at the end of the 1980s, or even an American diplomat working in the U.S. Embassy in East Berlin at this time. Each participated in the exact same event but may have seen and remembered it differently from the others.

After considering all of this, think about one more thing. You have been assigned to read articles about who should get credit for the Berlin Wall coming down in your history class. And, as any good history student does, you check out the sources and footnotes for the articles in front of you and you notice that one has been written by an American historian, and the other by a Russian historian. This forces you to ask another historiographical question: "Does their nationality impact how they researched and perceived this event?"

This is historiography. It allows the reader to think about history from a larger perspective by forcing them to consider not only what was happening at the time of the historical event, but also what is happening in our own time which might affect how we learn about this event.

This perspective is what makes history so interesting, useful, and significant. Studying history is not just about names, dates, and places; applying historiography forces students and teachers to engage with the material, to consider why sources were written the way they were and when they were, and to ask how they relate to our world today. Because, in the end, students must remember that they too will become a part of history, and that current geography, economics, politics, society, culture, and religion may all affect how they view historical events as well.

This workbook will use eight historiographical time periods from American history to examine the external societal impacts that may have influenced how each textbook was written. Use this handout as a reference to help you understand how historians have categorized the different historiographical periods of American history. This will help you get a better sense of some of the major social, political, economic, religious, and cultural issues that may have influenced how these history textbooks were written. It can also help shed some light on the author(s) own interpretation, bias, and perspectives concerning the historical events they were writing about at these specific times in American history.

Schools of Thought in Historiography

- **Providential (1600s–1700s)**
  Commonly seen during the pre-Revolutionary period, this type of history explained historical events in biblical terms. One can easily see God's hand in American affairs, with justification for things happening due to God's will. Nearly everything was connected to God's master plan. A classic example of this type of history tells the story of how the first Pilgrims came to the New World for religious freedom and established a new colony based on religious ideals. One only has to look at the pictures depicting the Pilgrims in history textbooks of this period to see the religious images typically related to this group.

- **Rationalists (1700s–1800s)**
  Rationalists believed that one should understand history because understanding what had happened in the past would mean a brighter future for people moving forward. They took their main concepts from the Enlightenment era and followed ideas coming from that period, such as the scientific method. In contrast to the Providential period, they felt that the source of progress was natural law. In short, they believed that history should be interpreted through secular and naturalistic interpretations. These historians typically had classical educations, access to personal libraries, and the free time to research and write about history, which was uncommon for most Americans at this time. To explain the world, they typically described men like themselves: free, educated, and ambitious. For them, self-interest, not God's master plan, motivated people. Therefore, it was reason, not faith, that affected history and allowed people to follow their own destiny.

- **Nationalist (late 1800s–early 1900s)**
  Historians during this time promoted concepts such as Anglo-Saxon superiority. Considering much of the historical writing during this time was coming from men who were from wealthier families, college educated, and Anglo-Saxon, it is not hard to see why they felt this group was superior to others. They pushed the idea of spreading American democratic principles both in the U.S., and around the world. They believed that America was actually a triumph of the Anglo-Saxon people over the inferior races, who represented the stoppage of progress. Examples of this would be Manifest Destiny as well as the Spanish-American War (1898) and the Philippine-American War (1899–1913). Each of these events demonstrated America's desire to conquer new territories and to bring American politics, economics, religion, and culture to other groups of people.

- **Progressive (early 1900s–1940s)**
  Progressive historians actively wanted to reform their government and they believed that knowledge of the past would empower people to do this. History was viewed as the story of struggle and conflict. It was this constant struggle and conflict that helped shape America. They also believed that conflict was a consistent part of America's past and could be seen in a polarized history, such as labor vs. business, liberals vs. conservatives, rural vs. city, rich vs. poor, North vs. South, etc. But, while Progressive historians often tried to improve society by highlighting discrepancies between groups, they rarely tackled issues such as race, gender, and ethnicity.

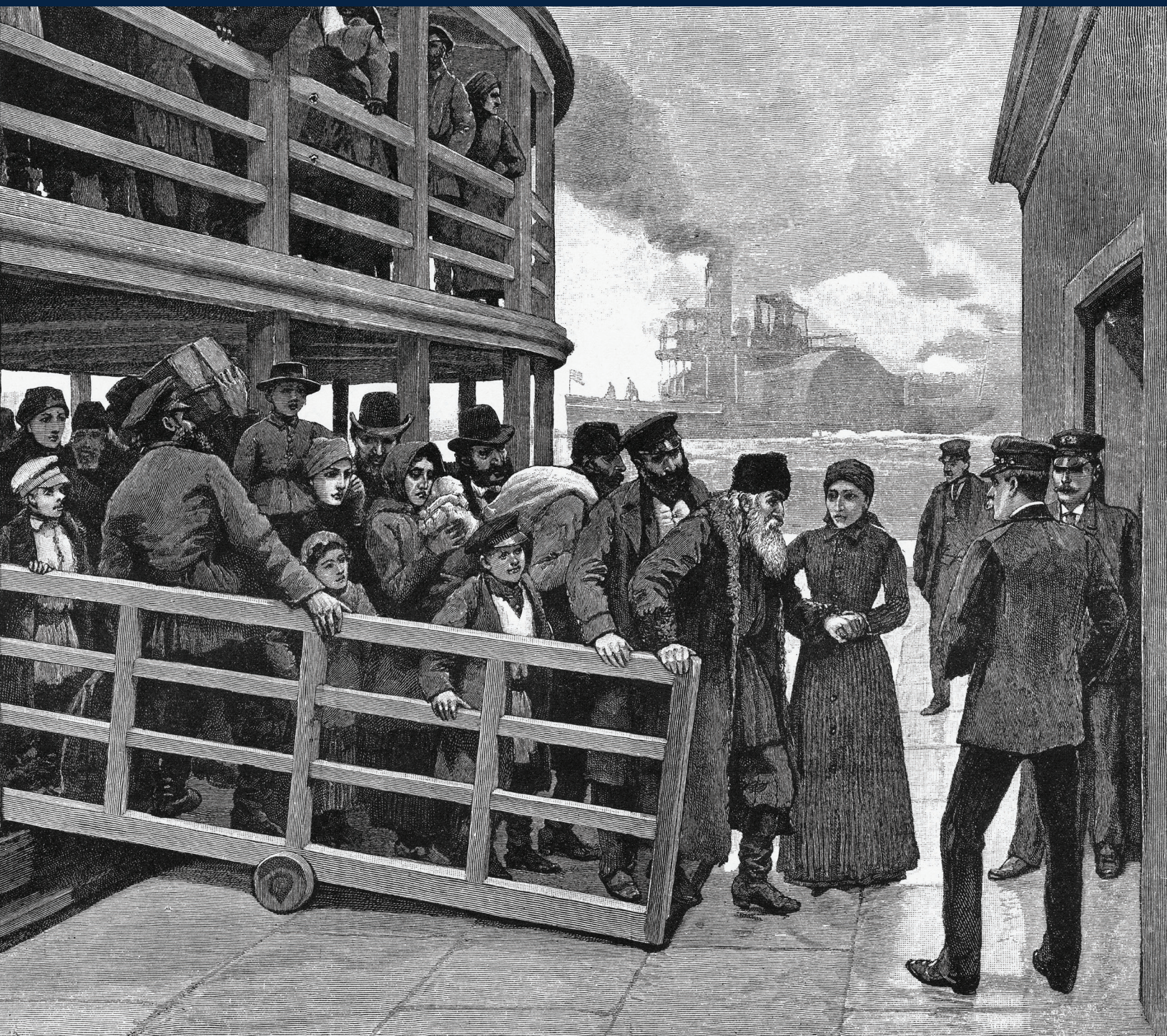
- **Consensus (late 1940s–1980s)**
  By the mid-twentieth century, Consensus historians tried to move the pendulum away from the Progressives and more toward a "middle-of-the-road" philosophy. These historians believed it was the shared ideas that Americans held that was of most importance, and not conflict in historical events. These historians pointed out that Americans tended to find general agreement on most topics and that much of America's struggle had actually happened in the center rather than the extremes of the left and/or right. They typically avoided ideological discord and they often, as a group, found general agreement in terms of how historical events transpired in the past. These historians also focused on traditional American values and often had a strong nationalistic sense. Not surprisingly, following World War II, they believed that America's democratic society should be celebrated and held up as a model to the rest of the world. They did not shy away from celebrating America's accomplishments and achievements, especially when they highlighted America's democratic institutions. This group spread the idea of American exceptionalism (or uniqueness) that many felt carried with it the implications of the U.S. being superior to others.

- **New Left (1960s–1980s)**
  In the wake of the civil rights movement, the Vietnam War protests, and a variety of other organized movements trying to bring about equality for women and minority groups, many historians began to look at U.S. history from the "bottom up." This meant that rather than focusing solely on the history of white men, who often held positions of power throughout American history, these historians wanted to understand history from the perspective of the underrepresented. This included women, minorities, and ethnic groups that had typically been forgotten in historical research. Their argument was that America was not a melting pot, but rather a stew in which one could still see distinct differences that all had to work together for the U.S. to be a great country. The New Left also helped give rise to a social history movement that focused on common people, which again was an underrepresented group in most historical research. This lead to some new forms of research using diaries, letters, and other everyday documents to get a better sense of what life was like in the past. Finally,

this group of historians pushed to put American history within the context of a more global perspective by showing how interconnected the world was.

- **Neoconservative (1960s–present)**
  Sometimes seen as a response to the New Left, Neoconservative historians began to focus their attention on American progress and based much of their research on traditional values and the shared ideas of Americans rather than on conflicts that might force groups of people away from each other. History is seen as a moral guide that should help Americans see the more traditional characteristics of society. History's main job then is to help promote patriotism and build better citizens by understanding the historical events that have made America great. Unity is valued over a multicultural state. Neoconservative historians believe that society needs order and classes, and would argue against any classless society. Furthermore, the idea of leveling the economic playing field should not be considered progress, but as moving America away from its capitalist origins.

IMMIGRATION AND INDUSTRIALIZATION IN AMERICA, 1865–1900



DOMESTIC VIEW OF IMMIGRATION

Starting in the 1870s, the United States saw millions of immigrants coming to its shores. While there were many reasons these people wanted to leave their homelands, one common reason for why they came to the U.S. is that they were looking for more opportunities for themselves and their families.

Looking at the textbook excerpts below, one will quickly see that the debate over allowing immigrants into the U.S. is not a new one, but rather one that has been going on for generations. What is interesting about this is the fact that the story of the immigrant can be seen in one of two different versions. One story tells of the fears Americans had about these immigrants taking jobs, or even worse, destroying American society and culture. The other story tells of the young, ambitious immigrants who want to come to this great land to make something of themselves and their family. By reading the selections below, you will see both historical perspectives laid out in different times of our history.

1905

Albert Bushnell Hart, *Essentials in American History: From the Discovery to the Present Day*

The supply of labor was affected by a wave of immigration of races which, up to 1870, were not much known in America—Italians, French Canadians, Poles, Bohemians, Hungarians, Russian Jews, Slovaks, Armenians, Greeks, and Syrians. The workingmen secured from Congress a series of acts somewhat restricting immigration. (1) Convicts, idiots, and like unfit persons were shut out, and a head tax of fifty cents was laid on all immigrants admitted (1882). (2) Congress excluded "contract laborers" who might come over under an agreement to take a specified job when they arrived (1885). (3) Polygamists, diseased persons, and persons unable to support themselves were shut out (1891). (4) The immigrant head tax was raised to two dollars (1903).

That some foreigners were dangerous to society was shown by an anarchist outbreak in Chicago (May 4, 1886). After weeks of violent speeches, principally by foreigners, urging people to resist the government, a dynamite bomb was thrown in the Haymarket and killed seven policemen.

1916

Emerson David Fite, *History of the United States*

Organized labor, bent on keeping down the supply of labor in order to maintain as high a standard of wages as possible, had long stood consistently opposed to foreign

Source: Albert Bushnell Hart, *Essentials in American History: From the Discovery to the Present Day* (New York: American Book Company, 1905), 536. Available online at https://books.google.com/books?id=fkwrAQAAIAAJ

immigration, but only after the labor unions had become a powerful factor in national life did Congress pay attention to their demands. The first law of the United States for the restriction of immigration, marking the end of the country's traditional policy of welcome to all foreigners, was passed in 1882. Previous to this time there had been some few restrictions on immigration by such states as were directly affected; for example by New York, which had excluded certain classes. By the national law, which was in many respects a copy of existing state laws, lunatics and convicts were excluded, all who were liable to become a public charge, and, by an act of 1885, all contract laborers, that is, all laborers coming into the country under a contract. At this time most of the immigrants were from the countries of Northern Europe.

The presence of thousands of Chinese laborers on the Pacific coast, attracted by the prospects of work in the gold mines and in the construction of railroads, was highly objectionable to the labor unions. The Asiatics worked for low wages, lived in squalid quarters on a few cents a day, and in general competed with the whites on terms which to the latter were intolerable. Their presence, too, threatened to create another race problem, which might some day rival in difficulty the Negro or the Indian problem. President Hayes vetoed a bill passed in his administration to exclude the Chinese altogether, as contrary to the existing treaty with China; but before he went out of office he succeeded in making a new treaty with China, which gave to the United States discretionary power to "regulate, limit, or suspend" but not to "absolutely prohibit" the coming of Chinese laborers into the country. Under this treaty, in the administration of Arthur, Congress passed a law to exclude the Chinese for twenty years, which seemed to the President too long a term, and he refused his approval. A compromise bill, fixing the term of exclusion at ten years, was then passed and received the signature of the President. This was renewed later under another president, and the exclusion is still in force. Though the law seems harsh, every nation undoubtedly possesses the right to expel from its shores any aliens whose presence may be considered dangerous to its interests, and likewise to refuse admission to all whom it may consider undesirable.

1933

Thomas J. Wertenbaker and Donald E. Smith, *The United States of America: A History*

An Influx of Chinese Causes Alarm in California. The westernmost region, the new world facing the old Oriental world across the Pacific, had also its race problem. Chinese laborers came to San Francisco as early as 1849, where the scarcity of labor won them a hearty welcome. Industrious and law-abiding, they occupied themselves with mining, farming, making cigars, and working on the railways. But when they continued to arrive in increasing numbers, sentiment toward them changed. "Are we to convert California into an Oriental region?" men asked. "Are we to permit these Chinese

Source: Emerson David Fite, *History of the United States* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1916), 433–434. Available online at https://books.google.com/books?id=sXIZAAAAYAAJ

to run American laborers out of the West by working long hours for small wages? You cannot make Americans out of these people; they will not become Christians, do not intermarry with other races." Scenes of violence and bloodshed ensued. Everywhere Chinese were persecuted and abused. Legislatures and city councils vied in passing laws denying them citizenship, excluding them from schools, restricting their right to work. In 1882 this movement culminated in a federal act, excluding all Chinese except visiting merchants, travellers *[sic]*, and students. Although this law was frequently defied, the desire of many Chinese to return to their native land brought about a gradual decline in their numbers.

California Discriminates Against Japanese Settlers. With the subsiding of the Chinese problem, the Japanese problem became acute. In 1900 there were 24,000 Japanese in the United States; ten years later there were three times that number. They were mostly unmarried young men, who showed a great willingness to learn the language of the country and adopt its customs. But the readiness with which they acquired land, together with the fact that their marked racial traits made assimilation unlikely, brought them into disfavor. Matters reached a crisis when San Francisco excluded Japanese from the public schools. This brought a protest from the Japanese government. Japan was just emerging as a world power and was jealous of her dignity and the rights of her citizens. While political candidates in California pledged themselves to an anti-Japanese policy and hoodlums attacked Japanese residents without interference, President Roosevelt took up the matter with the government at Tokyo. The exclusion act of 1907 resulted. In 1911 this was superseded by a "gentleman's agreement" whereby Japan herself limited emigration to this country, in return for the removal of the formal restrictions.

1936

Herbert R. Cornish and Thomas H. Hughes, *History of the United States for Schools*

Good types of immigrants. The immigrants before 1880 were largely from Great Britain, Ireland, Germany, and the Scandinavian countries. They were desirable people. Many of the Germans went to the farms in Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin. Most of the Scandinavians—Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians settled in Wisconsin, Minnesota, and the Dakotas. The prosperous country in those regions is a monument today to their thrift, industry, and intelligence.

The Chinese Exclusion Acts. The Chinese were not welcomed when it began to appear that they might fill places in industries which were sought by the American laborer.

The Chinaman's habits of living were such that he could afford to work for much less than our laborers and still prosper. There was a good deal of agitation against the Chinese

Source: Thomas J. Wertenbaker and Donald E. Smith, *The United States of America: A History* (New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1933), 595–596.

in the western states during the '70's. The feeling became so intense that a *Chinese Exclusion Act* was passed in 1902 making the exclusion of Chinese effective for all time.

Immigrants from southern Europe. After 1880 the majority of European immigrants to the United States came from Russia, Austria, Hungary, and Italy. In 1882 nearly 789,000 were admitted. Many of this number were Russians, who left their native country on account of persecution; others were Italians and Austrians, who found it convenient to emigrate to America after direct steamship lines had been opened between the United States and the Mediterranean ports. The southern European countries soon surpassed the northern in number of immigrants because the Irish, Germans, and Scandinavians were unwilling to live as cheaply and to work for as small a wage as the immigrants from southern Europe.

The new type of immigrant creates alarm. The character of the new immigration marked a change not only in habits of living but also in education and readiness to adopt the democratic institutions in the United States. Many had lived so wretchedly in Europe that any conditions of living and working were an improvement over what they had had. There were some among the new immigrants who were quickly Americanized, but a large percentage of them were illiterate and did not soon change their habits of life. They gathered into communities of Italians and Hungarians and "Little Italies," and "Little Hungaries" and the like sprang up in large cities where the customs of Europe, rather than of America, prevailed.

The public schools and compulsory attendance laws made a great change in the second generation of the newcomers. There was, however, such a constantly swelling tide of immigrants to the United States that many feared that democratic America would be flooded with Europeans with all sorts of radical notions about government. The next step was the adoption of some restrictive measures to keep out undesirables, and also to cut down the total number of immigrants. . . .

Japanese immigration. In 1900 there were about twenty-four thousand Japanese laborers in the United States. Most of these people were in the Pacific states, though some were in other Western states, particularly Colorado. About one-half of them were in California. At first the Japanese were welcomed in the salmon-canning factories, on the farms, in the mines, and in domestic service. In 1909 the Immigration Commission discovered that the Japanese owned over sixteen thousand acres of land in California and leased over one hundred thirty-seven thousand acres. After this information was made public, the Californians became very hostile to the Japanese. They feared domination by a race that showed so much ability. The anti-Japanese policy found its way into politics and candidates were pledged to oppose further immigration. Bills were passed which resulted in an agreement by Japan to keep her people out of the United States. In 1924 the law expressly forbade Japanese and Chinese immigration. President Coolidge recommended to Congress while the law was being considered that such harsh measures against Japan should not be adopted. There seemed no necessity for it.

The Japanese government did not wish her people to go where they were not wanted and she particularly did not want them regarded as inferior to other people. There were street riots against Americans in Japan and many threats were made to boycott American, goods. The feeling between the two countries seems to be adjusted now, however.

1950

Howard B. Wilder, Robert P. Ludlum, and Harriett McCune Brown, *This Is America's Story*

Immigrants must work hard. Many immigrants did not have an easy time earning a living. Those who had been farmers at home and became farmers here got along with the least difficulty. Even though they might not own their own farms, at least they were doing familiar work. As we have seen, many immigrants, particularly those who arrived before about 1890, did become farmers. They and their descendants are among the most successful American farmers.

Immigrants seeking other jobs, however, often found that they had to accept the hardest work, with the longest hours, at the lowest pay. This was particularly true in the late 1800's and early 1900's. Unless the newcomer had a special skill which was needed by employers, he had to accept hard labor. Because these immigrants at first were not familiar with American ways, greedy and selfish men were able to cheat them in business and to take advantage of them in general.

Immigrants are disliked by some Americans. It is unfortunate but true that immigrants were often received in an unfriendly way by older Americans. Some people dislike anybody or anything which seems strange to them. Most of the new immigrants, of course, did seem strange. They did not have the speech, the manners, or the customs of Americans. Also, although the people of the United States had much work to do in building the country, immigrants sometimes seemed to cause unemployment. Some of them were willing to take jobs at lower wages than those which people who had been here for some time would accept. Americans feared that this would lead to lower wages for them, too. These things caused some Americans to dislike immigrants. . . .

Should immigration be restricted? Many Americans believe that this policy of limiting immigration is unwise. They point out that progress in the United States has been helped greatly by newcomers to our shores. They also believe it is undemocratic to deny completely the right of some people (from Asia and Africa) to settle in the United States. They believe that immigration should be limited on some other basis than that of birthplace — possibly on education or the ability to earn a living.

Source: Herbert R. Cornish and Thomas H. Hughes, *History of the United States for Schools* (New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldridge, Inc. 1936), 445–448.
Source: Howard B. Wilder, Robert P. Ludlum, and Harriett McCune Brown, *This Is America's Story* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1950), 502–503.

1961

Paul F. Boller Jr. and E. Jean Tilford, *This Is Our Nation*

The immigrants become part of America. During the twentieth century, the immigrant was being successfully assimilated into American society. Because of the immigration restrictions put into effect after World War I, the proportion of foreign-born Americans has decreased. In 1900, approximately 13 per cent of the American population was foreign-born. In 1960, the foreign-born made up approximately 6 per cent of the population. One heard foreign languages spoken in American cities and industrial towns far less often in 1960 than in 1900. The foreign-language press and theater declined steadily and among some groups disappeared entirely. Foreign-language hours on the radio also became less frequent.

Sons and daughters of immigrants attended public schools, tried to live by American standards, and acquired American customs and manners. They discarded the traditions which their parents had brought from the Old World and adopted the traditions of the *Mayflower* and the Declaration of Independence, which they learned in school. Grandchildren of immigrants, with English-speaking parents, considered themselves as American as descendants of seventeenth-century Pilgrims. The public school provided the means by which many different national and racial groups were unified.

Source: Paul F. Boller Jr. and E. Jean Tilford, *This Is Our Nation* (St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1961), 660–661.

Items for Analysis

1. Which schools of history seem most prominent in the textbook selections above? Cite specific examples to make your case.

2. Research the time periods these textbooks were written in and then explain how that era may have influenced each writer(s) interpretation of this event.

   a. Early 1900s

   b. The 1930s

   c. The 1950s and 1960s

ITEMS FOR ANALYSIS

3. Look at recent news media and politicians' comments about immigration today. Do current history textbooks reflect the views of the media and politicians in the U.S. today? What is happening in society today that might have an impact on how we view this historical story?

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON IMMIGRATION

While U.S. history textbooks typically tell about the "pull" factors that brought immigrants to America, they often skim over the "push" factors that forced these people to leave their homeland in the first place. The three selections below explain why some people left and also describe a different view of the "land of opportunity."

Sweden

Lars Nyström, *et al., Perspektiv på historien*

Sweden around the turn of the century. Edvard Pettersson and Amanda Johansdotter were two of many Swedes who immigrated to America. Between 1850 and 1914 more than a million Swedes emigrated. Why did so many choose to leave their home country?

One of the most common reasons for emigrating was because of the economy. Edvard Pettersson, just as many others, came from smaller farms. When the inheritance was divided up only one child could take over the farm. The other siblings had to find other ways to support themselves. Rather than trying out as maids, farm boys or day-workers, they chose to buy a ticket to America with their inheritance. The USA was tempting with land to use and good wages. It was easier to fulfill their dream of their own farm and a good job.

The USA was also tempting in other ways. In Sweden the gap between high and low was deep. In every region there was a pastor and a sheriff looking after "honor and mind"—belonging to a different church than the state church was forbidden until 1858. Most people, especially the poor, missed having a political influence. In comparison, the USA was portrayed as a country of freedom.

Emigration happened in waves. The first came between 1868 and 1870, when the last famine hit Sweden. The next emigration wave happened in the 1880s as it was a bad time for agriculture and as the competition from the US prairies pushed the price of acres down. The third emigration wave started in the beginning of the 1900s. However, this time it was workers from the cities who left the country, and the cause was unemployment and strikes.

But after 1910 more people immigrated than emigrated. Many of those who emigrated returned home.

Source: Lars Nyström, et al., *Perspektiv på historien* (Malmo, Sweden: Gleerups Utbuilding AB, 2011), 131–132. Paraphrased and trans. from the Swedish by Ellen-Marie Pedersen.

Italy

Giuliano Alberton and Luisa Benucci, *Incontro con la storia: L'età contemporanea*

The Phenomenon of Migration

Reduced to hunger and without opportunities for the future, many people of Southern Italy, and also of the Veneto (which was one of the poorest regions of Italy) emigrated in masses from the Italian peninsula to other European countries and especially to the American continent.

Life of the immigrants was very hard: they arrived in countries where they didn't know the language or the customs; usually they were alone, and they couldn't count on the affection and help of their families; often they were illiterate and were taken advantage of, and forced to take on very menial jobs.

The result was that they met with great difficulty inserting themselves into the fabric of society in their new countries, and remained marginalized from the rest of society, which is similar to what happens today to the foreigners who come to reside in Italy.

Boarding the ships . . . in search of fortune
Fleeing from misery

From the beginning of the Italian Kingdom in 1861 [Italy was united for the first time], to the beginning of World War I in 1914, around 15 million people emigrated abroad in search of work. The regions they left from were mostly Southern Italy and the Veneto, and the favorite destinations were the richer European countries, like France, Switzerland, Germany, and Belgium, or those across the ocean, like the United States (at least 8 million) and Canada, Argentina, and Brazil, all of whom offered more work in the sectors of agriculture and industrial expansion.

What urged these masses of Italians to leave their country for uncertain destiny? Certainly hunger, which in the last 20 years of the 19th century, de-populated regions like the Veneto, but also the hope to make their fortunes after every attempt to improve their condition in their native Italian home failed. Their hope was to save up some money in order to return to Italy and buy land and a house.

The myth of "La Merica"

The phenomenon of immigration grew thanks to the propaganda of the first emigrants who wrote home telling of job opportunities and higher wages, often not mentioning their struggles. . . . The myth of America was born (La Merica as many called it) and was strengthened when money started arriving back home (in Italy) to wives, mothers, and relatives who most needed it, which was a sure sign that the emigrant was well off.

In Italy, men who worked for the navigation companies traveled through the countryside and convinced farmers to purchase tickets for the voyage to one of the countries where they could most certainly resolve all of their economic problems and finally live a nice life.

Usually only the men left, so that their loved ones could avoid any discomforts involved with settling into a foreign land. Wives and children would join them as soon as they could guarantee them a suitable living situation.

It is difficult to start a new life

After a long and difficult journey, squeezed into third class cabins on the transatlantic ships, they finally caught a glimpse of the Statue of Liberty: the hope of a better future. But the arrival of the emigrants in this new land was very difficult, also because getting into the United States was by no means easy: you had to get past a series of controls, undergo a medical exam, and if there was any suspicion of a contagious disease, one was put in quarantine (in isolation for 40 days) before receiving the desired entry visa.

When the emigrant had finally obtained the visa, they had to overcome an even larger hurdle, prejudice. It was by no means easy to integrate into the new country, especially with the language barrier. Inevitably, the emigrants (the Italians, just like the others who didn't speak English) frequented only their fellow countrymen and lived together in neighborhoods—such as *Little Italy* (=piccolo Italia) in New York.

Germany

Anton Egner, *et al., Zeit für Geschichte: Herausforderungen der Moderne 11*

A New Way of Life Develops
What Is Migration?

In a current lexicon, migration would be defined as changing from one region or social class to another. Migrants are people who have moved to another place. Their motivations are multifaceted, they range from a voluntary change of workplace within international corporations, to searching for work that pays a living wage, to being forced to flee from persecution and oppression.

Germany is a destination and a departure point of migration. Since the Sixties so called "Guest workers" have come from Southern Europe. Often Turkish and Italian families have lived already for three generations in the Federal Republic. . . . Furthermore there are predictions which assume that Germany could increasingly become the immigration destination of migrants from third world countries. These perceptions reawaken often excessive fears and bring forth a disproportionately defensive demeanor. Those that do not know history will perceive this as a threat. In the past the

Source: Giuliano Alberton and Luisa Benucci, *Incontro con la storia: L'età contemporanea* (Milan, Italy: Principato, 2010), 44. Paraphrased and trans. from the Italian by Sarah Bevelli

movement of people over borders was not the exception, to the contrary it was the rule. Our continent was, according to current scientific understanding, over 100,000 years ago settled by migrants from Africa. 7,000 years ago a new wave of immigration brought agriculture and animal husbandry to Europe. 2,000 years ago the Romans advanced into what is today southern Germany. 500 CE they were repelled by the Germanic mass migration. Migration led inexorably to cultural contact and was often an enrichment to both sides. Boundaries generated conflicts, constriction and impoverishment. Today there is no longer a political discussion about the possibilities of rejecting foreigners, but rather about the scope and way of immigration and integration.

Foreigners are in today's Germany an everyday phenomenon. Gladly does one accept what Greek, Vietnamese and Moroccan restaurants have to offer, and the economy depends on foreign labor. Nevertheless there are often social and political disputes over guest workers, asylum seekers, or economic migrants. This is best put in perspective, if one conversely considers the German migration to the USA and investigates with that perspective. Surely not everything is comparable, but it is worth the effort to look at the motivations and terms under which Germans have lived as foreigners, and to investigate how they themselves reacted to the new neighborhood and how they were received.

The German immigration to America

The picture that the emigrants had created of their destination stemmed from the letters of already immigrated relatives and acquaintances. These "American letters" found great distribution. Often the contents were idyllically painted, in which the USA shone as the fulfillment of all hopes and dreams.

Next to these there were immigrant newspapers, advice books and official brochures, which confirmed these perceptions. But there were also contradictory reports. References to the dark side of migration were printed as warnings, which the public authorities of the home countries amply broadcasted. In general, they had an interest to do so, to keep the population in country. Merely to the outright impoverished, who would otherwise have needed assistance, did they eagerly give permission to leave.

"Here flows more fat in the dish water than in the soup in Germany," quoted from one of many immigrant letters in the 19th century. This utopian image influenced the German perception of America in the 19th century. Often this magnified the contrast to the catastrophic situation of the homeland: Germany found itself in the upheaval of moving from agriculture to industrialization. Population growth, crop failure, nutrition and inflation crises overlapped with the under- and unemployment of the early industrial revolution. Also the political situation was for the lion's share of the population not satisfactory. Time and again, the hope for representative democratic participation was dashed: 1815 after the German campaign in the Napoleonic Wars and 1848 after the

failed revolution. Liberals and other opponents were pursued and arrested, revolutionaries threatened with the death penalty.

Frequently, it became a chain migration: immigrants were drawn where acquaintances and relatives already lived. They often gave advice about travel routes and could do much locally for new arrivals. So developed closed settlements, in which the same dialect would be spoken and the same denomination was predominant.

In the cities, "communities" developed, a network of ethnic Germans, who remained connected. One went to church and school together, read the same paper, and belonged to the same clubs: communities offered support for new arrivals, conferred assistance for the poor and entertainment in their free time gymnastic, shooting, and singing clubs were available. Many immigrants lived in exclusively German households and sought corresponding partners.

Of the 4 million migrants to the USA between 1840 and 1860 1.5 million were German; from 1860 until 1890, they made up the largest group of migrants. Parallel to the German migration there was a strong increase in Irish migration. Many Americans saw this as a threat, because the Irish were exclusively Catholic and the Germans were divided between Catholics and other denominations. Americans assumed that the Catholics (German and Irish) were dependent on the Pope and had altogether unrepublican ideals. It was suggested to limit the influx and restrict the rights of the new migrants. There were also frictions caused by the old way of life. The German ability to be social at Sunday meetings for instance, offended the local customs in multiple ways: the Sunday rest was disturbed and the consumption of alcohol was frowned upon in staunch puritanical communities. The ethnic "communities," so helpful to newcomers, became a hindrance to integration.

The situation itself changed toward the end of the 19th century. Migrants from Southern and Eastern Europe migrated in greater numbers to North American cities. This led to an opportunity for the northern European migrants to set themselves apart in a positive manner, their education and industriousness were idolized. On the other hand this provoked a strong defensive reaction against newcomers, the native community demanding a clear commitment to the American values. Politicians increasingly turned against the "hyphenated culture," one wants "not German-American, but solely American," said Theodore Roosevelt in 1894.

Soon these warnings were meaningless, as from 1900 the social life of the "(ethnic) communities" declined dramatically. The reasons for that were the sinking emigration from Germany, the economic ties in the different occupations and companies and particularly the cultural integration of second generation emigrants. The English language displaced the German increasingly also internally within the family, the German-American perceived themselves no longer as a separate group.

An Experiment

Answer the following questions:

Do you live in the same house in which you were born?

Have you relocated at one time or another to another area or country?

Were your grandparents born in this country?

If you have relocated one or more times, do you remember how you felt about your departure from the old neighborhood?

If you relocated one or more times, remember what you felt about your new neighborhood?

Do you feel at home in your country and why?

Would you see yourself as an immigrant? Why?

Source: Anton Egner, et al., *Zeit für Geschichte: Herausforderungen der Moderne 11* (Braunschweig, Germany: Schroedel, 2010), 168. Paraphrased and trans. from the German by Ania Cramer.

Items for Analysis

1. Do these excerpts from foreign history textbooks portray a positive or negative image of immigration to the U.S. for the students reading them today? Go back through these selections and write down examples of positive and/or negative comments. Then, try to explain what images students in each of these nations might have of the United States.

Country	Negative Images of Immigration	Positive Images of Immigration
Sweden		
Italy		
Germany		

ITEMS FOR ANALYSIS

2. Each nation above discusses the "push factors" that forced their citizens to leave their homeland and move to the United States. Go through the selections above and cite evidence of what some of these push factors were.

Country	Push Factors
Sweden	
Italy	
Germany	

3. In the Italian section they emphasize the idea of the "myth of America." Choose another nation (e.g., Norway, Ireland, Poland, China) that had large numbers of immigrants coming to the U.S. during this time and explain what factors caused these people to leave their homeland to come to the U.S. Overall did these immigrants have a positive or negative experience once they reached America? In your opinion, was the idea of America a "myth," or was it truly the "land of opportunity?"

4. Predict how a U.S. history textbook author in the future might write about immigration happening today in the U.S. Describe some events or situations that might impact how that historian would perceive immigration during this time.

NATION BUILDING IN THE U.S.

In the passage below, Swedish students are given the chance to read about the "Old West" and learn about the winners and losers in the competition for land in the late 1800s.

Sweden: Lars Nyström, *et al., Perspektiv på historien*

Nation building in the U.S happened also during the 1800s. A line of immigrants came from Europe. During that century the number of immigrants in the union increased from 7 to 80 million. This population increase was made possible through a continual western expansion. Western movies tell of this period where caravans of horse-drawn carriages traveled across the prairie, and where the sheriff is barely able to maintain peace. By the outer border of civilization the settlers pooled their land and built their log cabins. Subsequently the wilderness took over. In reality, there were no unpopulated areas the settlers took over. Every advance towards the west was a violation of Native American rights. Already several tribes were forced into reservations in inaccessible areas where they did not want to live.

Source: Lars Nyström, et al., *Perspektiv på historien* (Malmo, Sweden: Gleerups Utbuilding AB, 2011), 80–81. Paraphrased and trans. from the Swedish by Ellen-Marie Pedersen.

Close Reading

1. When was this published?

2. Where was this published?

3. What does the author mean by the phrase "nation building?"

4. According to this textbook, what happened to Native Americans?

5. Does a current U.S. history textbook have the same view of what happened to Native Americans?

EUGENE V. DEBS AND THE PULLMAN STRIKE

Throughout much of America's history, modernization, progress, and industrialization have been major themes in most U.S. history textbooks. American students have typically been taught that a combination of these three things made the U.S. great. While these textbooks usually focused on the positive parts of industry, occasionally some would take a more social perspective, discussing the treatment of immigrants in factories, the living conditions of America's poor, and the development of labor unions as an equalizer to industrialism.

A key player in the early labor movement was Eugene V. Debs, a unionist from Indiana. Debs later converted to socialism and ran for president of the United States five times. Combined with this story of Debs is what took place in 1894 during the Pullman Strike. Led by a Union created by Debs, the Pullman Company workers went out on a "wildcat strike," which came close to completely shutting down the nation's main transportation network. This section considers Eugene Debs, the Pullman Strike, and how history textbooks have treated the issue of laborers who were not pleased with the "Captains of Industry" and their companies.

1912

James A. James and Albert Hart Sanford, *American History*

One of the most notable strikes in our history had its center in Chicago in 1894. Employees of the Pullman Palace Car Company struck for the restoration of wages that had been reduced. These workmen were members of the American Railway Union. Although advising against the strike, the Union supported its members when the Pullman Company refused to arbitrate the questions at issue, or to "recognize" the Union. A sympathetic strike was ordered, in which train men refused to move trains containing Pullman cars. Within a few days there was a general paralysis of commerce centering in Chicago. In spite of the efforts of city officers, state militia, and special United States marshals to maintain order, and to facilitate the movement of trains by non-union men, there was great danger to life and much destruction of property in Chicago. Finally, President Cleveland ordered Federal troops to the scene, for the purpose of preventing the obstruction of mail trains and interstate commerce. This was done against the protest of Governor Altgeld of Illinois. An injunction was issued by a Federal Court against the officers of the American Railway Union, forbidding them to issue further orders in pursuance of the strike. The President of the Union, E. V. Debs, and other officers, were convicted for disobedience of this injunction. The strike was a failure, but a United States Commission of investigation condemned the refusal of the Pullman and railroad to arbitrate.

Source: James A. James and Albert Hart Sanford, *American History* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912), 492–493. Available online at https://books.google.com/books?id=DDNEAQAAMAAJ.

1920

David Saville Muzzey, *An American History*

The Pullman Strike. There was nothing farcical, however, in the conflict between capital and labor which broke out in Chicago that same month of May. The Pullman Palace Car Company, whose business had been seriously injured by the hard times of 1893, discharged a number of employees for whom it had no immediate use and cut the wages of the rest. But in view of the fact that the company was paying 7 per cent dividends, that it had accumulated a surplus of $25,000,000 on a capital of $36,000,000, the workers could not see that the company was suffering, and a committee of the docked men waited on Mr. Pullman to remonstrate. For this "impertinence" three men on the committee were discharged. Then nearly all the employees struck. About 4000 of the Pullman employees were members of the powerful American Railway Union, an organization founded in 1893 under the presidency of Eugene V. Debs. The union took up the matter at its June meeting in 1894 and demanded that the company submit the question of wages to arbitration. This Mr. Pullman refused to do. The union then forbade its men to "handle" the Pullman cars. The boycott extended to 27 states and territories, affecting the railroads from Ohio to California. But the dire conflict came in Chicago. Early in July only 6 of the 23 railroads entering the city were unobstructed. United States mail trains carrying Pullman cars were not allowed to move. President Cleveland ordered troops to the seat of disturbance, and an injunction was issued by the federal court ordering the strikers to cease obstructing the United States mails. The reading of the injunction was received with hoots and jeers. Debs had appealed to the strikers to refrain from violence and the destruction of property, but they could not be restrained. Trains were ditched, freight cars destroyed, buildings burned and looted. At one or two points it became necessary for the federal troops to fire on the mob to protect their own lives. Debs and his chief associates were arrested and imprisoned for contempt of court in not obeying the injunction.

1966

Lewis Paul Todd and Merle Curti, *Rise of the American Nation*

The courts support industry. The courts, no less than governors and Presidents, generally used their powers on behalf of ownership and management in the late 1800's. For example, during the famous Pullman strike of 1894, the owners asked a federal court in Chicago to issue an *injunction*, or court order, forbidding Eugene Debs and other labor leaders from continuing the strike. The court issued the injunction. It justified this action on the ground that the strikers had entered into "a conspiracy in restraint of trade," and that they were therefore violating the Sherman Antitrust Act, passed in 1890, which declared such conspiracies illegal. . . .

Source: David Saville Muzzey, *An American History* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1920), 441–442. Available online at https://books.google.com/books?id=hTNEAQAAMAAJ.

Debs defied the court order. Instead of calling off the strike, he called upon the leaders of other unions to call a general strike as a token of sympathy for the Pullman strikers. Although organized labor was firmly in sympathy with Debs and the American Railway Union, the union leaders refused to respond to Debs' call for a general strike. Debs was promptly arrested for "contempt of court." He was sentenced to six months in jail for his refusal to obey the injunction. Labor denounced this conviction as "government by injunction." But the Supreme Court in 1895 upheld the Federal Circuit Court, Debs was placed behind bars, and the strike was broken.

President Cleveland consistently aroused the opposition of organized labor. Labor had been angered in 1893 when Cleveland appointed as Attorney General a man who had been a corporation lawyer and who was an avowed opponent of the Sherman Antitrust Act. Cleveland's role in the Pullman strike and other strikes further aroused the antagonism of organized labor. Thus organized labor vigorously supported the farmers in the Populist Party during the early 1890's. And they rallied enthusiastically to the support of William Jennings Bryan in the election of 1896.

After 1895 the injunction became a powerful weapon against organized labor since employers were often successful in securing injunctions to prevent or break up strikes. Labor complained bitterly, but the only relief it could hope for was (1) that the Supreme Court would reverse its decision of 1895 or (2) that Congress would modify the Sherman Antitrust Act so that it could not be used against labor unions.

But despite setbacks in its struggle, organized labor continued to fight for its aims and for public recognition and support. By the early 1900's, as you will see there were signs that the lot of American workers was beginning to improve.

1982

Mary Beth Norton, et al., *A People and A Nation: A History of the United States*

In 1894, workers at the Pullman Palace Car Company walked out in protest over exploitative policies at the company town near Chicago. The paternalistic company head George Pullman tried to do everything for the twelve thousand residents of his so-called model town. His company owned and controlled the land and all buildings, the school, the bank, and the water and gas systems. It paid workers' wages, fixed their rents, determined what prices they would pay for the necessities of life, and employed spies to report on disgruntled workers. One laborer grumbled, "We are born in a Pullman house, fed from the Pullman shop, taught in the Pullman school, catechized in the Pullman church, and when we die we shall be buried in the Pullman cemetery and go to the Pullman hell."

One thing Pullman would not do was negotiate with workers. When the depression that began in 1893 threatened his business, Pullman managed to maintain profits and

Source: Lewis Paul Todd and Merle Curti, *Rise of the American Nation*, 2nd Edition (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1966), 499-500.

pay dividends to stockholders by cutting wages 25–40 percent but holding firm on rents and prices in the model town. Workers, squeezed into debt and deprivation, sent a committee to Pullman in May 1894 to protest his policies. Pullman reacted by firing three of the committee. The enraged workers, most of whom had joined the American Railway Union, called a strike. Pullman retaliated by shutting down the plant. When the American Railway Union, led by the charismatic young organizer Eugene V. Debs, voted to aid the strikers by boycotting all Pullman cars, Pullman stood firm and rejected arbitration. The railroad owners' association then enlisted the aid of U.S. Attorney General Richard Olney, who obtained a court injunction to prevent the union from "obstructing the railways and holding up the mails." In response to further worker obstinacy, President Grover Cleveland sent federal troops to Chicago, supposedly to protect the mails but in reality to crush the strike. Within a month the strike was over, and Debs was jailed for six months for contempt of court in defying the injunction. The Supreme Court upheld Debs's sentence on the grounds that the federal government had the power to remove obstacles to interstate commerce.

Source: Mary Beth Norton, et al., *A People & A Nation: A History of the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1982), 489.

ITEMS FOR ANALYSIS

Items for Analysis

1. On October 20, 1926, Eugene V. Debs died in Elmhurst, Illinois. Pretend you are a newspaper reporter who has been asked to write an obituary for him. Along with many of his other achievements, your editor specifically wants you to discuss the Pullman Strike and explain to readers the role Debs played and whether or not this strike was a good or bad thing to happen in this country.

2. Research the time periods these textbooks were written in and then explain how that era may have influenced each writer(s) interpretation of this event.

   a. 1912

   b. 1920

   c. 1966

   d. 1982

3. Predict how history textbooks in the future might discuss the issue of labor unions. Explain what is happening today that might impact how historians write about unions.

AMERICA AS AN IMPERIALIST POWER

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, 1898

Imperialism is the act of one nation spreading its power by taking over other foreign countries or territories. In the United States, history textbook authors usually described other imperialist European nations in a negative way, arguing that freedom and democracy should be universal rights. This holds true until these authors had to discuss times when the United States government approved of the U.S. expanding its power across the continent, and later, around the world.

Arguably, the first time the U.S. began to expand its power over other foreign territories came during the Spanish-American War in 1898. Ironically, what started as a dispute over how the Spanish imperialists were treating their Cuban subjects quickly turned into the U.S. entering the world stage as another imperialist power.

Italy

Giuliano Alberton and Luisa Benucci, *Incontro con la storia: L'età contemporanea*

Economic and Empirical Political Expansion

After the Civil War the economic development of the United States took on a new urgency: entrepreneurs and businessmen convinced the government to sustain its economic expansion by beginning a new era of political imperialism in Central and South America.

Rise in population, natural riches, ways of communicating. Around 1890 the United States completed its conquest of the West, reaching its current geographic limits.

The United States was a country that nature generously granted with riches of every kind (fertile terrain, rivers full of water, forests, mines of iron, coal, oil . . .). This colony had achieved great things: all sectors of the economy were being fully developed; the railroads permitted rapid transport of goods and passengers from one coast to the other; the cities multiplied and grew at an impressive rate. To sum it up, the United States was a country where everything was possible, the promised land where anyone who had the will and capability to work could make a fortune.

Because of that, Europe added large masses of immigrants that provided an abundance of laborers willing to work for low wages. The result was that at the beginning of the 20th century, the United States was the industrial leader of the world. But not only that: thanks to manufacturing they no longer had any rivals, even in the agricultural sector.

The United States asserts itself as an Imperialist power. At the end of the 1800s, the vitality of the economy created the necessity of searching out new markets for the

raw products of industry, which pushed the American government to assume control of a geographical area outside of its borders.

Thus the Monroe Doctrine was abandoned—the anticolonial political doctrine instated by President James Monroe in 1823—that had affirmed that the United States would defend the independence of all of the colonies on the American continents that had liberated themselves from colonial domination.

The Spanish-American War and the uprising in Panama. In 1898 the United States decided to intervene in the defense of Cuba, who had rebelled against Spanish domination. The Spanish-American War lasted little more than two months and was won by the U.S., who forced Spain to give independence to Cuba (transformed into a U.S. protectorate). Spain was also forced to concede Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines, which, together with Hawaii (recently annexed) reinforced the military presence of the U.S. in the Pacific.

In 1903 President Roosevelt organized a revolt in Panama (which at that time was part of Columbian territory) creating an independent republic under American protection. They were then able to tackle the ambitious project of constructing a canal (inaugurated in 1914) to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and further boost the American economy.

The right to intervene in Latin American affairs. The imperialistic intentions of the U.S. were officially announced in 1904 by President Roosevelt. In a speech that became famous, he declared that the USA had the right to intervene in the internal affairs of Latin American countries, in order to eliminate problems that could potentially cause European nations to take military action.

What are the characteristics of American imperialism? Unlike European imperialism, that of the United States was not based on military conquest, but on control and taking economic advantage of its territories by putting pressure on local governments. In some cases, such as Latin America, the U.S. invested large amounts of money in a country's economy, thus becoming "masters" of its economy, and therefore maintaining control of its government, forcing it to favor American interests not only in the economic sector, but also in its political decisions.

Spain

Julio Aróstegui Sanchez, et al., *Historia de España*

U.S. Intervention

The United States had set its initial expansion area in the Caribbean region and, to a lesser extent, in the Pacific, where its influence had already been felt in Hawaii and Japan. The United States' interest in Cuba had led to various purchasing propositions for the island, which Spain had always rejected. The American commitment to the Cuban

Source: Giuliano Alberton and Luisa Benucci, *Incontro con la storia: L'età contemporanea* (Milan, Italy: Principato, 2010), 94–95. Paraphrased and trans. from the Italian by Sarah Bevelli.

cause was evident after 1895, when President McKinley openly showed his support for the rebels, to whom he sent weapons via the seas.

The opportunity to intervene in the war led to the incident with the US ship *Maine*, which exploded in the port of La Habana in April of 1898. The United States falsely blamed the act on Spanish agents and sent Spain an ultimatum demanding its withdrawal from Cuba. The Spanish government denied any connection to the incident with the *Maine* and rejected the United States' ultimatum, threatening to declare war if the US invaded the island. The Spanish political leaders were aware of the Spanish military's inferiority, but considered it humiliating to accept the ultimatum without a fight. Thus began the Spanish-American War.

A fleet ordered by the Admiral Cervera departed for Cuba, but were rapidly defeated in the battle of Santiago, where dilapidated boats clashed against modern ships. The United States also defeated another Spanish fleet in the Philippines, in the Battle of Cavite. In December of 1898, the Peace of Paris was signed, where Spain agreed to abandon Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines, which became a North American holding. The Spanish army returned defeated and in poor shape, while many Spaniards prepared to evacuate the island and repatriate their interests.

Consequences of the Disaster of '98

The defeat and subsequent loss of the colonies was known in Spain as the "disaster of '98". Although the crisis of the political system and, in part, of Spanish society and culture, was already evident, the disaster became a symbol of the first large crisis of the political system of the Restoration.

A Political and Moral Crisis

Despite the breadth of the crisis of 1898 and of the symbolic significance, its immediate repercussions were smaller than expected. Although the war caused notable material losses in the colony, this was not the case in the home country, where the economic crisis was much smaller. The necessity to confront the debt acquired by the Cuban war promoted a reform of la Hacienda, carried out by the minister Fernández Villaverde with the purpose of increasing tax revenue despite increasing fiscal pressure.

Nor did a great political crisis occur as had been predicted and the system of the Restoration survived, assuring the continuity of dynastic shift. However, some of the new leaders tried to apply the ideas of Restoration to politics, a trend very critical of the political system and of Spanish culture. The political crisis also stimulated growth of the nationalist movements, particularly in the Basque and Cataluña regions of Spain, where they denounced the incapability of the dynastic parties to develop reformist politics and decentralization.

In this way, the crisis of '98 was fundamentally a moral and ideological crisis, which caused an important psychological impact among the population. The defeat plunged

society and the Spanish political class into a state of disenchantment and frustration because it signified the destruction of the Spanish imperial myth—at a time in which the European powers were building vast colonial empires in Asia and Africa—and the relegation of Spain to a role of a secondary power in the international context. What's more, the overseas press presented Spain as a "dying nation," with an utterly ineffective army, a corrupt political system and incompetent politicians. This vision caught on in much of Spanish public opinion. . . .

The End of an Era

The disaster of 1898 meant the end of the system of the Restoration, as Cánovas had designed, and the appearance of a new generation of politics, intellectuals, scientists, social activists and business owners, who began to take action in the new kingdom of Alfonso XIII. However, the reformist politics of regenerationist tone that the new governments after the crisis of '98 tried to apply did not accomplish the profound reforms announced, but merely allowed the system to continue with minimal changes.

The military defeat also had consequences in the army, accused by a part of public opinion of having a large responsibility for the disaster. Faced with a growing antimilitarism in certain social sectors, a part of the military leaned towards more authoritarian and inflexible positions, attributing the defeat to the inefficacy and corruption of the politicians. In the heart of the army a corporate feeling was taking shape, and the conviction that the military should have a larger presence and prominence in the political life of the country. This military interference was increasing in the first decades of the 20th century and culminated in the coup of the state of Primo de Rivera, in 1923, which began a seven-years' dictatorship, led by General Franco in 1936, which caused a civil war and plunged Spain into a military dictatorship of nearly 40 years.

Source: Julio Aróstegui Sanchez, et al., *Historia de España* (Madrid, Spain: Vicens Vives Bachillerato, 2010), 259–263. Paraphrased and trans. from the Spanish by Amanda DeBoer.

Items for Analysis

1. After reading the Italian excerpt, explain if you think a student sitting in an Italian history class would have a positive or negative view of the United States during this time. Cite examples from the textbook to back up your argument.

2. Using a current U.S. history textbook and the excerpt from the Spanish textbook above, compare and contrast how each of these history textbooks discusses the Spanish-American War.

3. Compare your current U.S. history textbook to the Spanish selection above and explain how each discusses the long-term impact of the Spanish-American War. Does one have a more positive perspective on this war then the other?

Country	Long-term Impact of the Spanish-American War
United States	
Spain	

4. Research the U.S.S. *Maine* and what happened to it in Havana Harbor on February 15, 1898. Explain what historians and current U.S. history textbooks now believe happened to this ship. Is this a change from the textbook selections used in this section?

DOMESTIC PERSPECTIVES ON THE PHILIPPINE-AMERICAN WAR, 1899–1904

While the Korean War (1950–1953) has often been nicknamed the "Forgotten War," the American war that took place in the Philippines truly deserves that title. The Philippine-American War was one of the longest in U.S. history and made Americans seriously debate the issues of imperialism, colonialism, global economics, race relations, and their role in the world. It was also a war that saw a great many atrocities committed by both sides. In the end, this war either killed or wounded nearly 7,000 U.S. soldiers, while the Filipinos lost nearly 16,000 soldiers and anywhere from 250,000 to 1,000,000 civilians who died due to starvation, famine, war, or disease. Upon "completion" of this war, the U.S. gained its first real colony and found itself becoming a world power.

Nevertheless, the Philippine-American War has been given little attention in history textbooks and is rarely part of American historical memory. It is a rare U.S. history class and textbook that gives this war anything more than a brief overview.

1914

Joel Dorman Steele and Esther Baker Steele, *Barnes's School History of the United States*

The Philippines.—Unlike Porto Rico *[sic]* and Guam, which welcomed American authority, some of the Philippines objected to any sovereignty foreign to themselves. Many of the Filipinos had fought bravely against the tyranny of Spain, and now, under the lead of Aquinaldo (ag e-nahl′do), they looked for absolute independence for themselves and their neighbors.

The war in the Philippines arose when there was no active sovereignty over the islands, during the long interval between the signing and the confirmation of the Paris treaty. General Merritt was succeeded by General Elwell S. Otis, who occupied Manila, while the insurgent Filipinos controlled most of the remainder of Luzon. On February 4, 1899, the Filipinos began the war by attacking the defenses of Manila; they were repulsed, with a loss of 2000 men, and General Otis then directed an aggressive campaign. Malo'los, the Filipino capital, was captured (March 31); the army of the Filipinos was broken up; and within two years most of the insurgents surrendered.

In 1899 a commission appointed by the President visited the Philippines and reported upon their condition. Early in 1900 the President appointed a new commission of five members to control and take charge of all matters connected with the construction of a government, and to appoint all necessary civil officers. This commission, of which Judge William H. Taft of Cincinnati was made president, entered upon

its duties in the Philippines in June. Schools were encouraged, local governments were established, and the Filipinos were given a large share of self-government.

1917

John Bach McMaster, *A School History of the United States*

The War in the Philippines. While the treaty with Spain was under consideration, native troops, under Aguinaldo, on the night of February 4, 1899, made an unsuccessful attack on the Americans at Manila. War now followed; but by the beginning of the year 1900 the main army of the Filipinos had been completely broken up, and the only forces still opposing American authority were small bodies of bandits and guerrillas. These held out persistently, and continued the warfare for more than a year. In 1900 the President sent a commission to the Philippines to organize civil government in such localities and in such degree as it should deem advisable; and in 1902 Congress enacted a plan of government under which the Philippines are constituted a partly self-governing dependency.

1922

Wilbur F. Gordy, *History of the United States*

The Philippines present a new problem. Possession of the Philippines presented a new problem. Some people opposed the annexation to the United States of territory in tropical regions and thousands of miles from American shores. They held that our country should not assume the difficult task of governing a people of a different race, who were only partly civilized and knew nothing of American ideals of government. Others declared that annexation would help us secure trade in China and in other parts of the Far East. They added that after we had driven Spain out of the islands, we should not leave the natives without protection and guidance, because they were not ready to govern themselves and would be helpless if left alone. "Moreover," as these people reasoned, "if we withdraw from the Philippines, other powers seeking new territory will be likely to seize the islands." There was prolonged discussion in the Senate before the necessary two-thirds vote could be secured. Finally on February 6, 1899, the treaty annexing the Philippines was ratified and became effective. . . .

The Philippines come under American control. While the treaty of peace at the end of the Spanish-American War was still under discussion, some of the Filipinos, led by a native chief, Aguinaldo, rebelled against the authority of the United States. Before the war began the natives had tried to drive Spain out of the islands, and at first on the arrival of the Americans they were friendly. When, however, they learned that they were not to receive their independence, but only to change old masters for new ones, they determined to strike again for freedom. They made a desperate struggle, but after prolonged guerilla fighting which lasted for nearly three years they were subdued.

Source: Joel Dorman Steele and Esther Baker Steele, *Barnes's School History of the United States* (New York: American Book Company, 1914), 350–351. Available online at https://books.google.com/books?id=4tApAAAAYAAJ.
Source: John Bach McMaster, *A School History of the United States* (New York: American Book Company, 1917), 477–478. Available online at https://books.google.com/books?id=inUAAAAAYAAJ.

How we have governed and helped the Filipinos. The islands remained under military rule until July 1, 1901, when civil government was established. As soon as practicable the United States gave the natives a share in their government by allowing them to elect the lower house of their legislature (1907), and by the same act Congress allowed Philippine products to come into this country free of duties. The governor and the upper house, however, were to be appointed by the President and the Senate. Great efforts were made to guide the Filipinos to improved methods of administering their affairs. Harbors, highways, and railroads were constructed; better methods of tilling the soil than the islanders had known were introduced; more healthful ways of living were taught; and, perhaps best of all, a free public school system like our own was organized and put into operation. Hundreds of American teachers have been sent over to guide the Filipinos to a more civilized life.

Meanwhile it has remained a debated question with the American people whether it was better to grant the Filipinos independence or to keep them under the control of the United States as their protector, guide, and teacher until they were ready to take care of themselves.

As the Democratic party had all along opposed making the Filipinos a subject people, the Democratic Congress of 1917 passed a law which provided (1) that they should elect the upper as well as the lower house of their legislature, and (2) that they should have their independence as soon as they proved themselves capable of home rule.

1950

Howard B. Wilder, Robert P. Ludlum, and Harriett McCune Brown, *This Is America's Story*

The United States improves conditions in the Philippine Islands. Conditions in the Philippines were not encouraging. In its thousands of islands lived peoples of many tribes and many languages. The largest island, Luzon, with its capital at Manila, was inhabited by Spanish-speaking natives. But on other islands lived tribes of savage people. Most of the Filipinos were poor and lacked education. Moreover, they did not welcome American control, for they had believed that the United States would give them freedom as we had done for the people of Cuba. After the Spanish forces surrendered in the Philippines, it was necessary to put down a revolt of the natives against the American forces. Indeed, it took years of jungle fighting which cost many lives on both sides before the revolt was finally ended.

In spite of these difficulties, the United States was able greatly to improve conditions in the Philippines. A bureau of health did much to stamp out disease and to teach the Filipinos the simple rules of healthful living. To provide education, schools were built and teachers were sent from America. Many Filipino teachers were also trained. By the 1930's, more than 7,000 schools had been set up. Local government was organized in

Source: Wilbur F. Gordy, *History of the United States* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922), 428, 430–433. Available online at https://catalog.hathitrust.org/Record/100397244.

towns and villages. Good roads were built. To provide more farms for the people, the government bought great stretches of land which were divided into small plots. Modern ways of farming and better tools were introduced. All these improvements cost large sums of money, most of which was furnished by the United States. In addition, Americans bought great quantities of Philippine sugar, hemp for making rope, and tobacco. Beginning in 1909, no tariff duties were placed on these products when they entered the United States. The Filipinos were better off than they had ever been before. Most of them no longer feared American rule.

1961

Glenn William Moon and Don C. Cline, *Story of Our Land and People*

The war left many problems. War always brings far-reaching changes. While it may settle a few questions, it almost always raises new and more difficult ones. The Spanish-American War of 1898 was no exception. It involved the United States in problems no one had foreseen.

For one thing, Americans found they had to fight a long, bloody war in the Philippines. Like most other people, the Filipinos wanted to govern themselves. They expected to become independent when Spain was defeated. But President McKinley and his advisers felt the Filipinos lacked education and experience, and therefore the United States decided to keep control for a while.

The Filipinos had a capable determined leader named Emilio Aguinaldo. He had been fighting Spaniards for years. Now he organized resistance against the United States. The Filipinos knew they had no chance of winning a regular battle so they split up into small groups of guerrillas. They hid in the mountains and jungle and struck suddenly when least expected. The guerrilla were savage fighters. The warfare dragged on for two years. It was an ugly struggle, much like the Indian wars of colonial days. Aguinaldo was finally captured and his followers surrendered. But it took years to win the friendship of the Filipinos.

Americans built schools and roads, fought disease and developed industries, but still the Filipinos were dissatisfied. They admitted a government of their own probably would not be so efficient as American rule, but they preferred an inefficient government of their own to foreign control. American leaders promised the Filipinos they would become independent as soon as they proved able to govern themselves. Step by step, the Filipinos were allowed to take more power in running the islands.

Source: Howard B. Wilder, Robert P. Ludlum, and Harriett McCune Brown, *This Is America's Story* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1950), 551.
Source: Glenn William Moon and Don C. Cline, *Story of Our Land and People* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), 586–587.

Items for Analysis

1. Using the selections above, demonstrate if each textbook viewed the United States role in the Philippines as being positive or negative. If possible, use a more recent U.S. history textbook and see what its perspective on this event is.

Excerpt Year	Positive	Negative
1914		
1917		
1922		
1950		
1961		
Current U.S. Textbook		

2. After filling out the graphic organizer above, explain what sort of trend you see in terms of how U.S. history textbooks discuss the U.S. occupation of the Philippines. Explain how you think a Filipino history would deal with this same event?

3. What school or schools of historiography seem most prominent in these textbook selections?

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE PHILIPPINE-AMERICAN WAR, 1899–1904

While American students rarely study the Philippine-American War in any great depth, Spanish students are given a fairly lengthy introduction as to why the war started, how it was fought, and its impact on their nation.

Spain

Roberto Blanco Andrés, et al., *Historia de España: Bachillerato 2*

The War of the Philippines (1896–1898)

Despite their objective value, the Philippines weren't as important to Spain as Cuba was. For more than three centuries, the government on the archipelago rested upon a small peninsular population, a small military force, the presence of various religious orders, a simple administration and a strong central power.

The discontent against the Spanish administration began to grow in the 1870s. After this date the first indications of a national consciousness began to arise, which were expressed in the demands of the Filipinos for rights equal to those of the peninsular Spaniards—demanded by, among others, the Filipinos' secular clergy against the religious orders. One example was the Cavine riot, in 1872, a military riot that was quickly smothered by the Spanish authorities.

After 1880 the protest continued with the movement of La Propaganda [*The Propaganda*], formed by young Filipinos—known as the *ilustrados* [the enlightened]—who studied in Spanish and European universities and who demanded reforms like representation in the courts. Among them was José Rizal, founder of the reformist Philippine League (1892).

Insurrection broke out in August of 1896—the *Cry of Balintawak*—provoked by the *Katipunan*, a secret organization founded by Andrés Bonifacio [a Filipino nationalist and revolutionary] that sought the expulsion of the Spaniards and the confiscation of the lands of religious orders.

The rebellion extended into the Tagalog provinces. Just as had occurred in Cuba, the appeasement policy of Captain General Ramón Blanco was replaced for a more energetic policy from General Polavieja [a Spanish General who served as Governor-General of the Philippines], which was applauded by the most hardline sectors. The new leadership condemned Rizal to death, despite having not cooperated with the insurrection, and unleashed a severe military strategy against the rebels, nearly crushing the uprising.

Polavieja triumphantly returned to Spain and was replaced by Fernando Primo de Rivera. Rivera had to face the outbreak of a new insurrection, although one less widely dispersed and less concentrated, lead now by Emilio Aguinaldo. Primo de Rivera put an end to the uprising with the signing of the Pact of Biac-na-Bató, in 1897. With this pact, the main rebel leaders agreed to go into exile in exchange for a certain amount of money.

But then war broke out with the United States, which had its first operations camp in the Philippines. The Spanish fleet was delayed in Cavite. As a result, the Filipino insurrection resurfaced in a widespread manner, directly aided by the United States. Within a few months, the Spaniards were besieged in Manila, and, isolated by land and sea, surrendered on August 13th, 1898.

The Treaty of Paris

After the Spanish defeat by the United States, on December 10th, 1898, a peace treaty was signed in Paris. Spain recognized Cuban independence, and ceded Puerto Rico, Guam, the West Indies, and the Philippines to the United States. The cession of the Philippines to the United States included $20 million in compensation.

Next year, through the Spanish-German Treaty, the Spanish government sold its last Pacific islands to the German Empire: the Caroline Islands, the northern Mariana islands (except for Guam), and Palau.

The consequences of the disaster of ’98

The loss of the Spanish colonies was not an isolated event: it formed part of a process of colonial redistribution among the great powers at the end of the 19th century and affected other countries. The “Disaster of ’98,” as it was known, had consequences in Spain.

From a demographic point of view, the colonial wars (1895–1898) resulted in a total of 120,000 dead, the majority of which were due to infectious diseases rather than demise in combat.

From an economic point of view, the defeat meant the loss of the colonial market. Going forward this reaffirmed the change in direction towards protectionism which began with the 1891 tariff.

Source: Roberto Blanco Andrés, et al., *Historia de España: Bachillerato 2* (Madrid, Spain: Editex, 2009), 223–225. Paraphrased and trans. from the Spanish by Amanda DeBoer.

Items for Analysis

1. Predict how a Filipino history textbook author might portray these events in their book written for Filipino students.

2. Do you think the authors of this textbook interpretation of this event were influenced by the fact that they were all Spanish writers? Explain.

THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY DISPUTE

Today, when Americans think of their neighbors to the north, one thing they typically highlight is that the United States-Canadian border is the longest and most peaceful border in the world. However, Canadian students learn that the border with the U.S. has not always been so friendly.

Canada

Nick Brune, et al., *Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture*

Alaska Boundary Dispute

The most serious tension occurred in 1903 with the Alaska Boundary dispute. At issue, particularly after the Klondike gold rush, was the location of the international boundary between Canada and Alaska, stretching one thousand kilometres down the coast of Yukon and British Columbia. Exactly where the line was drawn would determine how the Lynn Canal was divided and who would own the valuable port town of Skagway.

American President Theodore (Teddy) Roosevelt, recognizing that Britain wanted to maintain good relations between their two countries, took the offensive. It was decided that resolution would be sought through a six-man joint commission. Three "judges" on the panel would be American, two Canadian, and one, Lord Alverstone [a British barrister, politician, and judge], would be British. Given the fact that the American judges were anything but neutral—they had all in fact come out publicly in favour of the American position—the result was largely a foregone conclusion: four to two for the U.S. claim. Lord Alverstone, not wanting to antagonize Roosevelt, voted with the U.S. secretary of war and two American senators.

Many Canadians were outraged that their national interests had been sacrificed by Britain. Accordingly, Laurier began steps to slowly get control of Canadian foreign policy out of British hands. The 1909 creation of a separate Department of External Affairs was a major move towards Canadian autonomy. Also, recognizing that maintaining good relations with their southern neighbour was important, Laurier joined with the United States in the creation of the International Joint Commission, again in 1909. Its mandate was to serve as a permanent means of resolving Canadian-American border disputes.

Source: Nick Brune, et al., *Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture* (Whitby, Canada: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, 2003), 338.

Items for Analysis

1. Using a more recent U.S. history textbook, see if it discusses the Alaskan boundary dispute. If it does, compare and contrast the two accounts to see how the U.S. story differs from the Canadian version. If it does not, explain why you think a Canadian textbook would take time to discuss this issue while the American one would ignore it.

IMMIGRATION AND INDUSTRIALIZATION

DOMESTIC VIEW OF IMMIGRATION

1. Answers may vary but students should emphasize that the excerpts from 1905, 1916, 1933, and 1936 all seem to fall under the Nationalist School of history in that they all argue the superiority of the Northern Europeans over the other groups that immigrated to the United States. Students will be able to choose a number of overtly racist and anti-immigrant phrases from the selections above. The last two textbooks, 1950 and 1961, seem to resemble the Consensus school in that the authors seem to make the point that, while some Americans were against immigration, the United States also benefitted greatly from these immigrants coming to this country.

2.

   a. Most historians would argue that the late 1800s to the early 1900s was the peak of European migration to the United States. But, many of these immigrants were coming from Eastern European countries and were bringing different cultures and religions, which worried many old-stock Americans.

   b. There were some harsh immigration laws written in the 1920s and with the rise of groups like the KKK many Americans continued to oppose new immigration. Of particular interest was a crackdown on immigrants coming from Asia.

   c. With World War II and the massive immigration coming from Europe over, there were not as many immigrants coming to the United States. Those who did were often refugees from war-torn lands. It is also interesting to note that the students who would have read these textbooks may have been the children of the immigrants who came earlier, which may have impacted how textbook publishers decided to write about these groups.

3. Answers may vary but students may see some similarities in how immigrants were talked about in the twentieth century and how they are today. Textbooks today could possibly come from the New Left School and therefore would emphasize the important impact that immigrants had and discuss how hard life was for these people.

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON IMMIGRATION

1. Answers will vary but students in each of these countries would either hear about how good or how bad the U.S. was to their citizens. Many students would contextualize this and bring this argument into the modern day and either continue to find fault with the U.S. or agree with the positive images and therefore defend the United States.

Country	Negative Images of Immigration	Positive Images of Immigration
Sweden		Land of opportunity. Escaped poverty and famine. Possibility of good jobs.
Italy	Propaganda to bring immigrants in. Many struggles for new immigrants, including prejudices. Families usually did not come with and it was hard to get to, and then into, the United States.	
Germany	Fear of Catholics and the immigrants bringing their old German culture with them.	Letters sent home and newspapers talked about how great the U.S. was. Established their own communities in which people helped one another.

2.

Country	Push Factors
Sweden	Economics, politics, and famine
Italy	Lack of jobs and hunger
Germany	Catastrophic situation in Germany, impoverished people, the political situation

3. Answers will vary but should include a series of push and pull factors, often relating to economic reasons for leaving one's homeland. Students could argue that it was a myth because few recent immigrants became wealthy right away and many were not wanted in the United States. Others might argue that these immigrants escaped from poor conditions and were able to find work and support their families, all the while helping to build the American dream.

4. Answers will vary depending on the topic and depth of the student research. Teachers should try to point out how a student's current political and social views might impact how they view this topic.

NATION BUILDING IN THE U.S.

1. 2011
2. Malmo, Sweden
3. The development of a country's political, economic, and social institutions.
4. They were forced off their land and onto reservations.
5. Answers will vary.

EUGENE V. DEBS AND THE PULLMAN STRIKE

1. Answers will vary depending on the amount of research and the issues students want to highlight in their answer.
2. a. Progressive History: Discussed the struggle between the "power elite" and the people. Conflict helped shape American history.

   b. Progressive History: Discussed the struggle between the "power elite" and the people. Conflict helped shape American history.

   c. Consensus History: Authors point out issues caused by both the labor unions as well as blame President Cleveland and his administration for causing unrest.

   d. Neo-Conservative, Consensus, or New Left: Answers may vary depending on student's perspective.
3. Answer will vary depending on the depth of student research.

AMERICA AS AN IMPERIALIST POWER

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, 1898

1. Answers will vary. Typical responses may include examples which explain how this textbook refers to the Americans becoming "masters" of these other nations. This textbook argues that the U.S. usually took over economically, more than militarily. The authors also stress how Spain was forced to turn over its territories to the United States at the end of the war.

2. Answers will vary depending on which U.S. history textbooks students use. Typically, U.S. textbooks today discuss the oppressive Spanish policies in Cuba, the role of American journalism, and the economics of trade. For the Spanish history textbook, they discuss some of the failed Cuban policies, failed politics at home, the role of the Philippines, and even refer to this event as the "Disaster of '98."

3.

Country	Long-term Impact of the Spanish-American War
United States	U.S. textbooks usually emphasize how this war helped make the U.S. an imperial power and put it on the world stage politically and economically.
Spain	Mentions the "Disaster of '98," the regenerationists, and how this was the end of an era in Spanish history.

4. Answers will vary depending on the depth of student research. One key point would be that U.S. textbooks typically spend a bit more time discussing what actually caused the sinking of the U.S.S. *Maine* and discuss the theory that it may have been an issue inside the ship and not a Spanish torpedo like most people originally believed.

DOMESTIC PERSPECTIVES ON THE PHILIPPINE-AMERICAN WAR, 1899–1904

1.

Excerpt Year	Positive Image of the U.S.	Negative Image of the U.S.
1914	Schools were encouraged, local governments were established, and the Filipinos were given a large share of self-government.	
1917	U.S. helped to organize a civil government and partly made them self-governing.	
1922	U.S. protected and guided them. Helped build harbors, highways, and railroads. Sent teachers.	
1950	U.S. greatly improved the Philippines. Improved health, schools, roads, government, trade, etc.	
1961	Americans built schools and roads, fought disease, and developed industries.	Did recognize that the Filipinos were dissatisfied with American rule.
Current U.S. Textbook	Answers will vary	Answers will vary

2. Answers may vary but typically students should notice that American textbooks tend to portray the U.S. occupation as being a positive thing for the Filipinos. Typically, Filipino historians discuss how their nation never wanted to be ruled by the Americans and had actually hoped the Americans would give military help and then leave. They would probably stress how they were not allowed to rule their own country, teach their own students or trade with other nations without America's permission.

3. Answers may vary but responses could include the following. It is possible that the textbooks from 1914 to 1922 are a combination of Nationalist and Progressive history. All of these textbooks seem to highlight that the Americans seem to be superior to the Filipinos (Nationalist) but they also stressed the importance of having had improved the government, schools, and society in the Philippines (Progressive). The 1950 and 1961 textbooks reflect Consensus history in that, although they both still highlight all the positive aspects of American rule in the Philippines, they also very briefly mention how the Filipinos were dissatisfied with American rule and how they became active participants in all of this.

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE PHILIPPINE-AMERICAN WAR, 1889–1904

1. Filipino authors often try to portray some of this as a proud moment in their history because it demonstrates how individual and small groups of Filipinos stood up against the dominant authority. They also often condemn the United States for "purchasing" their island and replacing one colonial power for another.

2. Answers may vary but typical responses may claim that they were biased because they are also Spaniards and/or that they were writing for an all-Spanish audience. Therefore, they may have wanted to portray their country in a more positive light. Other students may argue that the message being sent to Spanish students is that this war was a mistake due to the loss of soldiers and the economic costs, which led to it being considered a disaster.

THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY DISPUTE

1. Answers will vary depending on what students find in the more recently published U.S. history textbook.