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ABSTRACT

This resource guide provides a model unit in American history with ethnic content and a multiethnic perspective. The main focus is on the experience of blacks, Jews, Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, Italian Americans, Asian Americans, and native Americans from 1880 to 1920. Four themes characteristic of the period are studied: immigration and minority groups, industrialization, urbanization, and imperialism and the rise of the United States to world power. In developing each theme, the unit suggests an outline of the subject, discussion questions, student activities, and appropriate audiovisual materials. Students perform comparative analyses of famous novels of the period, do research on stereotypes in the media, visit local city or state museums, and identify class ancestry on a world map as "new" and "old" immigrants. A selected annotated bibliography for teachers lists 14 books and journals. Another annotated bibliography for students contains over 200 references in categories of Ethnic Groups and Ethnic History, General History, and Social and Behavioral Science Reference. A glossary defines concepts or terms relating to social sciences or particular ethnic groups. (AV)

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AN ETHNIC DIMENSION IN AMERICAN HISTORY:

A Unit on Immigration, Industrialization, Urbanization, and Imperialism, 1880 - 1920

RESOURCE GUIDE

So 009 521

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Preface

The essentials of good teaching are twofold: knowledge of one's subject and the ability to communicate it; and knowledge of one's students and the ability to reach them. This publication is concerned with both points. It is designed to provide information about the ethnic dimension in American history and to help the teacher impart this information to students by way of highlighting the role that each group played in American society and the significant contributions they have made to our cultural diversity. Hopefully, this resource guide will help to achieve this goal.

The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith wishes to express its deepest appreciation to the contributors from the Union County Regional High School District No. 1, Springfield, N.J., as well as to the Office of Education of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, which provided support for this project.

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INTRODUCTION

While the issue of ethnic studies is not new to American educators, having been a matter of concern even in the earliest schools, the current accelerated interest in the subject is probably due to the emergence in the 1950's of an ethnic spirit among black Americans.[1] Apparently, this ethnic consciousness has stimulated self-awareness in other groups. And today the proper role of ethnicity in American life is a public issue and a matter of concern to educators.

This concern has affected education in multiple ways including requests from minority groups for the inclusion of ethnic material in the curriculum and legislation ranging from state laws requiring attention to various ethnic groups in the curriculum to the Federal Ethnic Heritage Studies Program Act, Title IX of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1972. How should social studies educators in general and teachers of American history in particular respond to these growing demands for ethnic content in the curriculum? The solutions to this problem range from the extreme of courses directed toward a single ethnic group--Black Studies, Hispanic Studies, and so on--to the other extreme of incorporating a litany of ethnic heroes into an otherwise unchanged American history program. If the decision is made to introduce ethnic content into an existing American history curriculum, a decision upon which this resource unit is based, the issues are narrowed considerably. It remains to determine what views of ethnicity in American life have historical validity, intellectual honesty, and contemporary relevance.

Two views of ethnicity, representing opposite ends of a separatist-assimilationist spectrum, dominate discussions of the subject today. On one hand is the belief in the "melting pot," which has been a part of American mythology since the 18th century and has been predominant in American thinking well into this century. Proponents of the "melting pot" view have been divided into two groups: those who view assimilation as a process involving largely Northern and Western Europeans and those who envision an urban melting pot that includes immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe as well.[2] But the historical accuracy of these conceptions of the melting pot is questionable. Milton Gordon has concluded that historically the melting pot concept really meant forcing new groups to adapt to the pre-existing Anglo-American culture, and thus should more properly be called a "transmuting pot."[3]

Indeed, the melting pot notion has not been an unchallenged conception of American society. In the early twentieth century the idea of a homogeneous America was questioned by those who offered a culturally pluralistic conception as an antidote to the melting pot.[4/5] Cultural pluralism maintains the view that enough separation among American sub-cultures exists to guarantee preservation of the traditions of these groups, while at the same time sufficient social, political, and economic interaction occurs across ethnic group lines to permit the continuance of a general American life.

But neither polarity seems to be an accurate representation of American society. It is clear that strict adherence to any single concept of the "melting pot" of cultural pluralism could distort history and do an injustice to one or more ethnic groups. Certainly the "melting pot" concept never applied to blacks nor to an appreciable extent to Spanish-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Native Americans. And the notion could result in invalid conclusions about immigrants: the

assumption that all immigrants merged and created one new identity does not square well with the fact that many immigrants were not welcomed to these shores.[6]

It may be equally invalid to place too much reliance on the concept of cultural pluralism. If, as Thomas F. Pettigrew believes, the "new myth of complete pluralism does not do justice to the complexity and subtlety of intergroup relations in the United States in the last third of the twentieth century," is the concept any more valid than the notion of the "melting pot"?[7] While it may be fashionable to emphasize ethnic differences, there is a danger that doing so may exaggerate the importance of ethnic identity beyond its real significance. It might be better to view ethnic groups as they exist as a part of American culture rather than as separate entities.[8]

What then is the proper place and emphasis of ethnic content in the social studies curriculum? Ethnic content is now limited; an examination of indexes in most textbooks reveals few references to ethnic groups except blacks.[9] There are many views as to what corrective action should be taken. Some of these proposals are quite sweeping, suggesting wholesale changes in teacher training and the total school curriculum. Larry Cuban has written that the main thrust in ethnic studies to date has been to catch up on knowledge and "truth." But filling students with information will not eliminate racism in the society in his view.[10] For Cuban, ethnic content has great value because it "contains the conflicts and dilemmas of the human condition that inherently interest youngsters" and at the same time raises issues of power, identity, and values.[11] Therefore, Cuban concludes, teachers must be sensitive and skilled: "In the hands of a craftsman, it (ethnic content) can get youngsters to explore knowledge, develop skills, and clarify values."[12]

Many social studies educators believe that American history must be taught in a multi-ethnic perspective. An historical event should be examined from the perspective and perception of not only the majority but also of the minorities. Ethnic minority groups should be viewed not only as objects on which societal forces operate, but also as human participants with emotions and perceptions that may differ substantially from those of the majority.[13] A multi-ethnic perspective would provide a view of history with much greater richness and texture.

Giving due consideration to the problems, pitfalls, and positions briefly mentioned, this resource guide is an attempt to provide one model unit in American history with ethnic content and a multi-ethnic perspective. The unit was developed within a framework of the American history curriculum and includes the period from 1880 to 1920. While a study of contemporary events might more easily have offered readily defined issues and provided an abundance of material, the earlier period offered better opportunities to demonstrate how history can be studied from a multi-ethnic perspective. The unit does not focus on individual ethnic groups as a basis for organization; rather ethnic content is introduced when it is relevant to developing a theme or concept. It was the intent of the developers of the unit to draw primarily upon the experience of blacks, Jews, Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, Italian-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Native-Americans. While the major emphasis is on these groups, other ethnic groups are used frequently.

The unit is organized around four themes that are characteristic of the period: immigration and minority groups, industrialization, urbanization, and imperialism and the rise of the United States to world power. In developing each theme, the outline examines the situation at the beginning of the period, 1880, the changes that occurred during the period, and the situation at the end of the period, 1920. Concepts drawn from the social and behavioral sciences are introduced where they are appropriate throughout the unit.

The unit provides an outline of the subject together with suggested teaching activities which range from appropriate readings in standard textbooks to more extensive research in multiple sources. A selected annotated bibliography for teachers and students is provided. Since concepts from the social sciences and terminology applying to particular ethnic groups may be unfamiliar to many readers, a glossary of such terms is also included; in some cases more than one definition is offered. Although many sources were not included in the bibliography because they were less than satisfactory, tending to reinforce ethnic stereotypes, many other materials simply were not available for examination. Therefore, the bibliography and suggested audio-visual materials should be considered much more selective than exhaustive.

It is hoped that this attempt to demonstrate how ethnic content may be introduced into American history can be used with profit by social studies educators who wish to add an ethnic dimension to their instruction.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Lawrence P. Crouchett, "The Development of the Sentiment for Ethnic Studies in American Education," The Journal of Ethnic Studies, II (Winter, 1975), 81.

[2]Milton M. Gordon, Assimilation in American Life, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1974), 117-119.

[3]Gordon, 124-129.

[4]Horace M. Kallen, "Democracy Versus the Melting Pot," The Nation, (1915), 219-220.

[5]Crouchett, 82.

[6]Mark M. Krug, "Teaching the Experience of White Ethnic Groups," in James A. Banks, ed., Teaching Ethnic Studies: Concepts and Strategies, 43rd Yearbook (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1973) 258-259, and John Hope Franklin, Thomas F. Pettigrew and Raymond W. Mack, Ethnicity in American Life, (New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1971) 7.

[7]Franklin, et al, 22-23.

[8]Franklin, et al, 7.

[9]Banks, Teaching Ethnic Studies, 268.

[10]Larry Cuban, "Ethnic Content and 'White' Instruction," in Banks, Teaching Ethnic Studies, 103.

[11]Banks, Teaching Ethnic Studies, 111.

[12]Banks, Teaching Ethnic Studies, 111.

[13]Lowell K. Y. Chun-Hoon, "Teaching the Asian-American Experience," in Banks, Teaching Ethnic Studies, 122 and James A. Banks, Cultural Pluralism: Implications for Curriculum Reform, a paper presented at the conference, "Pluralism in a Democratic Society," held in New York City, April 4-6, 1975, sponsored by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith.

RESOURCE GUIDE GOALS

This Resource Guide was prepared to

1. Demonstrate how ethnic content can be integrated into an American history program.

2. Provide teachers with suggested activities and printed and audio-visual resources related to ethnic content.

3. Help teachers further the preparation of students for life in a society composed of many different cultural, racial, and ethnic groups.

GENERAL GOALS OF THE UNIT

As a result of studying this unit, the student should

1. Improve his understanding of his own heritage and the heritage of others.

2. Know the richness and diversity of contributions of numerous ethnic groups to American development.

3. Understand the processes of immigration, industrialization, urbanization, and imperialism -- and how these processes are interrelated.

I. IMMIGRATION AND MINORITY GROUPS

A. The "Old" Immigrants

1. Old immigrants left their homelands fleeing religious persecution or seeking political freedom and economic opportunities.

2. As early as 1750, a definite American culture and identity existed with the English-American or Anglo-Saxon at its cultural core. Other ethnic groups, such as the Italians, Germans, and Poles, had immigrated with the Anglo-Saxons and were assimilated; their cultures were compared to the majority culture.

3. "American" was defined by several prevailing ideologies.

a. One of the most popular ideologies was the "melting pot" concept, first expressed by St. Jean de Crevecoeur, who saw a "new race" emerging. The concept was periodically reasserted by others such as Ralph W. Emerson, who made a plea for a "smelting pot." One of the assimilationist's views was that new arrivals should conform to the Anglo-culture.

b. The Separatists and Cultural Pluralists supported both conformity to the dominant culture and maintenance to a degree of one's ethnic heritage and behavior.

c. Racism characterized the thoughts and actions of many. "The term (race) was used loosely and broadly during 1880-1920 to describe any group of people who were regarded and treated in actual life as a distinctive biological group with a common ancestry as well as psychological national characteristics." (George Sinkler) A contradiction existed between the American ideal of equality on the one hand, and inferiority and hatred directed toward certain racial groups on the other.

B. The "New" Immigrants

1. What values and skills did the new immigrants bring with them?

a. The ITALIANS associated with regional and local characteristics: they had no feeling of national unity. Catholicism and a sense of family were of the utmost importance. The individual was dominated by "l'ordine della famiglia," an "unwritten but all demanding and complex system of rules governing one's relationships within and responsibilities to his own family, and his posture toward those outside the family." (Richard Gambino) Much of the individual's strength came from "sangu du me sangu," "blood of my blood." Many of the contadini, or peasant farmers, were illiterate and impoverished and consequently brought few skills with them.

b. The MEXICAN-AMERICANS are of two, historically distinguished, types: the mestizo who is a mixture of Spanish and the indigenous cultures; and some 100% Spanish. Both types were bound by family ties rather than outside ties and were devoted to the Catholic Church. The mestizos were unskilled laborers and illiterate, whereas the Spanish Mexican-Americans were educated and involved in several occupations.

c. The PUERTO RICAN is a combination of Borinquen, Spanish, and Black. In Puerto Rico there is no difference in opportunity available to an individual because of his skin color or other physical characteristics. The compadre or coparent, cousin or brother, was vital to the Puerto Rican; marriage was a union of two families rather than two people. The Puerto Ricans were characteristically Catholic and came from predominantly illiterate peasant environments.

d. The JEWS brought with them very middle class values and an urban mentality which enabled them to adjust to city life. The family and religion were the vital institutions in Jewish life, and strict adherence to religious laws and familial obligations were stressed. Their urban experience and literacy provided Jews with a greater potential for employment.

e. Most of the CHINESE came from southern China, and the district of origin was important. They brought with them strong cultural norms, an extended family unit, and a religious tradition of ancestor worship and filial piety which minimized the importance of the individual. Most Chinese were illiterate. The "K'u-li," meaning muscle for hire, characterized the Chinese laborers.

f. The JAPANESE had a set of group values--"on," a sense of pride and obligation; "giri," the contractual obligation; "chu," loyalty to one's superior; and "enryo," modesty in the presence of one's superior--that provided built-in survival tactics. The sense of family extended not only to one's filial obligation but also to strict adherence to rules and regulations and to loyalty to one's employer. Shintoism emphasized animism, the values of nature. The Japanese were skilled agriculturists.

2. What were the experiences of the immigrants in the new land?

a. SETTLEMENT PATTERNS: Upon arrival in the U.S. most immigrant groups tended to settle in ghettoes; immigrants from specific regions lived in close proximity, while groups from other regions stayed together. The Chinese and Italians felt that region and district of origin should be the basis for residence patterns and social integration.

b. OCCUPATIONAL PATTERNS: The majority of immigrants were unskilled and illiterate, and thus limited in the type of employment they could get. The Italians, Japanese, Chinese, and other groups were glad to get the most unglamorous and lowest paying jobs at one time or another. Very few immigrants tried to go back to the land; most settled in cities.

c. SOCIALIZATION PROCESS: Even though learning English was an important part of the socialization process, many immigrants continued to speak their native tongue because their home and job were located in or controlled by their ethnic area. The "campanilisma" of the Italians was the reluctance to extend social, cultural, or economic interests beyond points where the parish church bells could be heard. Most of the immigrants at this time were involved with strong family ties and the extended family; the Chinese, Puerto Ricans, Italians and Jews especially all stressed the importance of the family. Many ethnic groups formed societies, such as the Polish National Alliance and the Chinese Tongs, to help their people adjust to the new life in America. An important factor in socialization was the ability of ethnic groups to organize effectively to protect and promote their interests as did the Greeks and Jews.

d. RELIGIOUS BELIEFS: With both Christians and Jews religion was a big part of the life experience. Often it hindered acceptance into American society; the Italians, Poles, and Puerto Ricans sometimes found their Catholicism was reason for prejudice on the part of Americans.

e. EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES: Most immigrants with the exception of the Jews were entirely illiterate, but when an immigrant had a good job his son could afford to stay in school. Some families faced a problem when the children learned English and American ways through the public schools and rebelled against old world ways. Some groups such as the Jews and Japanese thoroughly utilized the educational opportunities available in the U.S. and placed high value on the importance of education. In contrast, the majority of Italians in this period did not attend college because the group emphasized material improvement.

3. What was the reaction of older Americans to the new immigrants?

a. POLITICAL REACTION: Immigration by certain groups was prohibited or restricted.
   (1) The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 prohibited the entrance of Chinese laborers into the U.S.
   (2) The Scott Act of 1888 barred the re-entry of Chinese laborers even though they might have had re-entry permits. Consequently 20,000 Chinese were trapped outside the U.S.
   (3) The Emergency Quota Act of 1921 established the first quota system.

(4) The Immigration Exclusion Act of 1924 modified the quota Act, permitting only 2% of a group residing in the U.S. in 1890 to immigrate (thus favoring Northern Europeans) and excluding all immigrants from Japan.

b. ECONOMIC REACTION: Immigrants were relegated to the lowest paying jobs and denied the right to own land. "Coolies" were disliked because they did work others would not do and for less money. Many Jews stayed in New York and worked as cigar makers, pushcart peddlers, and garment or other sweatshop workers. The Japanese occupational experience often resulted in acculturation incongruities; housework and gardening created a servant-employer relationship which exposed the Japanese to the dominant culture but did not allow for full participation in it. And many states in the West passed Alien Land Laws which denied ownership of land to aliens.

c. SOCIAL REACTION: Immigrants were segregated and forcibly Americanized, and attempts were made to reinforce American organizations. Japanese and Chinese children were segregated in the schools in San Francisco, and Mexican-Americans were segregated in public parks and playgrounds in the Southwest. The American governor of Puerto Rico decreed that English was the language to be used in the schools, and Indians were punished for speaking their native tongues in Indian schools run by the government. Organizations such as the Daughters of the American Revolution, American Protective League, Immigration Restriction League, and the American Defense Society were strengthened.

d. PSYCHOLOGICAL REACTION: Consciously or unconsciously, the defense mechanisms of individual Americans were manipulated against the immigrants.
   (1) Aggression against particular ethnic groups has often been the result of mounting frustration whether or not that frustration was caused by these groups. Physical characteristics and various types of behavior displayed by immigrants often result in the use of false generalizations about an entire group. And stereotypes or preconceived ideas about ethnic groups have often been the foundation of aggressive behavior.
   (2) Displaced aggression on a rational level is referred to as scapegoating, a practice which has biblical origins and has been used by many nations. A minority group almost always serves as a scapegoat. "Perceptual accentuation" made certain groups more vulnerable to the practice. According to G.W.Allport, the objects of scapegoating display physical traits such as color that make them easily identifiable and live in ethnic clusters that make them more accessible. They are generally unable to retaliate and have usually been scapegoats before.

C. The Older Minorities

1. ECONOMICALLY all three groups (Mexicans, Indians, Blacks) did poorly. Mestizos were considered unskilled laborers and were forced to accept low paying jobs. Indians existed on a subsistence level on most reservations, and if work was available it was low paying. Blacks also struggled to get by and received low pay for their labor. The older minorities felt some resentment toward the newer groups who took jobs away from them.

2. POLITICALLY these groups were either totally ignored or discriminated against. Land grant courts conspired to strip Mexican-Americans of their land in the Southwest. Indians were forced from areas that were desired by white settlers and confined to reservations. The Allotment Act attempted to assimilate Indians through individual ownership of land as opposed to traditional collective land use. "There is no question of National dignity, be it remembered, involved in the treatment of savages by civilized powers. With wild men, as with wild beasts, the question of whether in a given situation one shall fight, coax, or run is a question merely of what is easiest and safest...the Indians should be made as comfortable on and as uncomfortable off their reservations as possible. (General Frances Walker, Commissioner of Indian Affairs) Jim Crow laws and segregated schools in the South affected the blacks.

3. SOCIALLY the experiences of the three groups were largely negative. Indians faced major changes in their life styles: all men were forced to have their hair cut and wear "decent" clothing, and the U.S. government tried to systematically wipe out their languages, customs, and religions. The black experience varied with the region: some Northern and old free blacks had become almost middle class; Southern blacks with slave or sharecropping backgrounds found it hard to survive economically, let alone struggle for social acceptance. Mexican-Americans were also divided according to class. The upper class or Spanish had no trouble co-existing with Anglos; the mestizo, however, was not socially acceptable. He was considered an inferior person and often had to shop during certain hours to avoid contact with Anglos.

D. The Return to Normalcy

1. By the second decade of the 20th century, the status of the "new" immigrants was somewhat improved. Many had assimilated, and incidents of upward social mobility were more common. Many Italians who had returned to the land found success in growing wine industries, and many Jews had successfully moved into the middle class. Politically immigrants had come to be a more powerful group. The Progressive Era had brought about several direct forms of democracy. And as literacy improved, individuals became more politically aware of their rights and potential. Members of assimilated groups maintained their settlements in urban areas, for the city remained a "hub" of political, economic, social, and cultural activities. Opportunities for improving

one's socio-economic position were still more substantial in urban areas than in other environments.

2. However, attitudes toward immigrants were affected negatively as a consequence of the Palmer Raids. Policies intended to suppress radicalism actually endangered traditional American freedoms. National fear and panic led to en masse arrests, trials, and deportation or several innocent individuals, many of whom represented immigrant groups. In addition, record-breaking numbers of immigrants entering the U.S. in the war years, the mass hysteria of the Red Scare, and the desire to "restore" America to its "norm" resulted in the adoption of federal restrictions on immigration.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS &
STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Find out what countries your ancestors immigrated from and when. On a world map, place an "x" in each of the countries from which ancestors of class members came. Are they predominately "old" or "new" immigrants? "Anglo cultures?" "minority cultures?" Color the countries from which "old" immigrants came green and those from which "new" immigrants came yellow (colors arbitrary). These maps can be used later to indicate the rationale behind the Immigration Acts of 1921 and 1924.

2. Prepare a chart to compare and contrast the old and new immigrants with respect to regions from which they emigrated, reasons for emigration, key factors in the process of assimilation such as education, type of occupation, etc., and reactions of society as a whole. A good source for this information is "Old Immigrants and New" in Oscar Handlin's Race and Nationality in American Life.

3. Visit the Museum of the City of New York, and look at the Jacob A. Riis Collection and the Byron Collection. List your impressions of life in the city 1880-1920. (Or visit your own local city or state historical museum or society.)

4. Have a group of students read The Jungle by Upton Sinclair and report to the class on the background of Jurgin Rudkus and his family, their experiences upon arrival in the U. S., the reaction of "old" immigrants toward them. If the class has seen The Immigrant Experience: The Long, Long Journey, students can compare the account of the Polish-American in the two sources.

5. View one or several filmstrips about the experience of specific minority groups. What is universal about the immigrant experience? How were all of the groups similar? How did the experience of this particular group differ from that of the others?

6. The cultural background of the various ethnic and immigrant groups had an important effect on their experiences in the U. S. Examine the cultures of the groups and compare their experiences. The teacher may divide the class into sections or have students voluntarily select ethnographic studies on particular groups. Organize panel discussions around one group or comparative discussion, depending on the students' selections. The discussion should include the groups' reasons for emigration and several of their cultural norms (and possible reasons for the existence of these norms in the U. S.). Students might also prepare a food dish associated with the group and share this with the class. The teacher may provide a bibliography from which students are required to make selections. For discussion of cultural norms, any of the Ethnic Groups in American Life Series is good for average or above average groups. The In America Series is good for slower groups. (Other sources of information on specific groups are given in the unit bibliography.)

7. Discuss and decide upon a working definition of these terms: prejudice, stereotype, discrimination, bigotry, racism, intolerance. Discuss the relation of these terms to the various minority groups and give examples of them.

8. Examine the development and applicability of the "melting pot" myth in American history. The teacher can use Chapter 6, "What Can Be Done With Myths?", pages 113-146 in Kownslar, Teaching American History: The Quest for Relevancy, which consists of three lessons that form a continuous teaching unit. The pattern of the lessons is inductive: the first two present a case study of the formation of the "melting pot" myth and the application of the myth to blacks as a means of testing its validity. The third lesson provides an opportunity for students to move from the case study of the specific myth to larger generalizations. The lessons contain specific objectives and directions. Student materials are also provided.

9. Have one or two students summarize the prevailing ideologies about "American" in the 19th century. In particular, they should consider melting pot theories, assimilationist theories, separatism, and racism. Good sources are "One Blood or Many" and "The Linnaean Web" in Oscar Handlin's Race and Nationality in American Life.

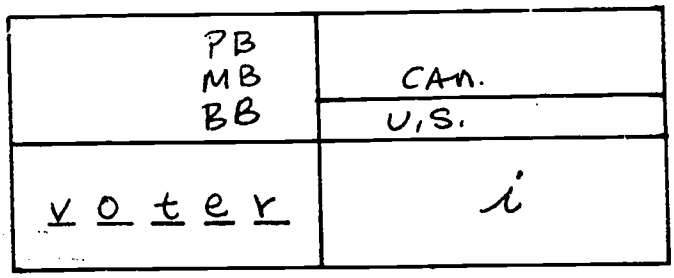
10. In a class discussion, select groups that represent minorities in terms of language, national background, religion, political ideology, physical appearance, social customs, sex, occupation, and age. What different kinds of minority situations can one be involved in?

11. Learn to recognize attitudes, stereotypes, or biases about different types of people by finding examples from movies, literature, or personal experience that reinforce such attitudes. Sources include -- any John Wayne cowboy movie; Little Black Sambo; Peter B. Kyne, author, anti-Asian; Zane Grey; anti-Mexican literature; Lone Ranger comics; Sax Rohmer, Fu Manchu; Charley Chan movies; Bowery Boys; Little Rascals; Zorro; Tarzan; Cisco Kid; Spaghetti westerns.

12. Examine the way various media perpetuate stereotypes. You can read news articles about minority groups written during this period: are there any stereotypes that you recognize? how does the press affect stereotypes and public opinion? A good source for news articles is The Poisoned Tongue by Stanley Feldstein. Or you can examine cartoons and/or posters of the period and write a description of the caricatures--physical, social, economic, etc. Two good sources for this material are A History of the Comic Strip by Pierre Couperie and Maurice Horn and "The Distorted Image--Stereotype and Caricature in American Popular Graphics," a set of slides produced by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. In conjunction with this assignment, the class might view the film Geronimo Jones and discuss the stereotypes of Native Americans that can be identified in the film.

13. Take the "literacy test" that was actually given to some blacks in the Jim Crow Era in some southern states. An example of a "correct answer" is given below. The teacher should give each student a blank sheet of paper and tell them they are going to take a test. They may not talk

nor may they ask questions. Directions will be given only one time.



The key to this exercise is confusion; that is, the more confused the directions, the more confused the students will be. A suggested "strategy" is given below:

- Draw a rectangle covering most of your paper.
- Divide this rectangle in half with a horizontal line. Do the same thing with a vertical line.
- In the upper right hand corner of the upper left hand box, place the following abbreviations: PB, MB, BB.
- In the lower right hand box, in the center of this box, write a small letter "i."
- In the upper right hand box, draw a horizontal line cutting the box in two.
- At this point the teacher might go back and review or repeat in hurried fashion what has been stated so far.
- In the lower left hand box, place five dashes in the middle of the box.
- Go back to the upper left hand box. I am going to tell you a story and I want you to circle the appropriate answer. Baby Bull fell down and hurt his leg. To whom did he run--Mama Bull or Papa Bull? (Answer - Obviously, no female bull but students often circle MB.)
- In the lower left hand box you have five dashes where I want you to write the word "voter." (Answer - The tendency is to print the word instead of writing it.)
- In the upper right hand box you have drawn a horizontal line. I am going to tell you another story and I want you to mark your paper accordingly. This line represents the U. S. and Canada border. Place the abbreviations for these countries on the center of the line. There has been a plane crash. Put an "X" where they would bury the survivors. (Answer - Survivors aren't buried.)
- In the lower right hand box you have written a small letter "i." Put a dot over the "i." (Answer - an additional dot over the "I.")

The teacher should go back and read through directions as they were given and, at the same time, draw the test on the board so students can see the correct answers. How did the class do on the test? How many got all right? one wrong? two wrong? What does the test measure? Does it evaluate an individual's intelligence? Do you think this would be a fair test to determine whether or not someone had the ability to vote? At this point, students should be told the origins of the test, but not before.

14. Read "Jensenism" in Prejudice and Race Relations by Raymond Mack. Why do you think IQ tests were used on Ellis Island in 1912? Were the findings valid? How were these findings used in federal policies? How were they reflected in social attitudes and behavior? How is the use of IQ tests related to the concept of racism?

15. "The rock-thrower thumps, and gets it off with his hatred. The rock-throwee is thumped, and turns his hatred wildly in all directions, and sometimes figures that the safest procedure, in a difficult world full of rocks, is to hate himself. Alas, the self-hating Jew."

Kike - Michael Selzer

How is this Jewish reaction typical of all humans? of other immigrants? How can you relate this to the pattern of immigration in U. S. history?

16. Reenact the "buying" of land from Native Americans by whites. What was the Indian conception of land ownership? What is the origin of the term "Indian giver"? Any recent book on the history of Native Americans like Stan Steiner's The New Indians is a good source for this information.

17. Role-play a meeting between three Spanish-Americans and three Mestizos to discuss a "mixed" marriage. Have two students portray the young couple who want to marry and have four students portray the pure Spanish parents and the Indian parents. Good sources of background material are Mexican American Heritage by Garcia and Shaftel, Mexican Americans by J. Moore, and La Raza by Stan Steiner.

18. Become familiar with Spanish words like Tio Taco, La Raza, La Causa, Chicano, Huelga, Mestizo, Machismo, Mi Tierra, Barrio, Gringo used by present-day Mexican-Americans. La Raza by Stan Steiner or any current book on Mexican-Americans is a good source of this information. You might also note the Spanish influence on American vocabulary, especially in the place names in Southwestern and Western states.

19. Have several students discuss the meaning of normalcy in a panel. Good sources on the mood of the U. S. in 1920 are Only Yesterday by Frederick L. Allen and Perils of Prosperity by William Leuchtenberg.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

The Distorted Image: Stereotype and Caricature in American Popular Graphics 1850-1922, slides produced by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y. , 10016. 60 slides with cassette narration and detailed discussion guide with lecture notes. The set provides an excellent commentary on American attitudes toward immigration and the universality of prejudice and stereotyping. All or parts of the set may be shown. It is recommended that two periods be allowed as there are many examples and much content. Or the teacher might scatter the slides throughout the course of the unit, as they chronologically appear.

Geronimo Jones, a film produced by Learning Corporation of America, 711 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y., 10022. Color, 21 minutes. Geronimo Jones is a descendant of the great Apache chief Geronimo, living on a Papago reservation

in Arizona. The film illustrates several subtleties such as stereotyping, the vulnerable Native American in a "trade" situation, and the effects of the media. Discussion of the film can include these questions: What stereotypes about Native Americans can you identify in the film? How do the media perpetuate stereotypes? What conflicts does Geronimo face? How does he meet them?

Immigrant America; part I: "The Immigrants Arrive: 1903-1913," a film-strip produced in 1974 by Sunburst Communications, Pound Ridge, New York 10576. 11½ minutes with cassette. Using the photographs of Lewis Hine, this film-strip documents the life of immigrants to America between 1903-1913. It follows them from Ellis Island into ghetto neighborhoods, homes, jobs, etc. Hine's photographs record the dignity, tenacity, and courage of the immigrants. Especially good are the photographs of children at work. The teacher's guide is very good; it contains ample background information, discussion questions, and script.

The Immigrant Experience: The Long, Long Journey, a film produced in 1972 by Learning Corporation of America, 711 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y., 10022. Color, 31 minutes. This film is a dramatization of the experiences of members of one turn of the century Polish family attempting to get jobs, stay in school, and struggling with "old" Americans. Discussion of the film can include these questions: In what manner was Janek treated by the "old" immigrants? What does the banana symbolize? What evidence can you cite about a generation gap(s) in the film? How did Janek's family attempt to assimilate?

Italians in America, Part I: "The Untold Story," Part II: "Children of Columbus," filmstrips with record or cassette produced by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y., 10016, in cooperation with the Columbian Coalition. It is suggested that the first five minutes of this filmstrip be shown without soundtrack to illustrate the universal qualities these pictures convey about the immigrant experience. This could evoke discussion about all the groups that came, how they were similar and different. After the discussion, the film can be shown in its entirety.

Jews in America, Part I: "The Ingathering," Part II: "Inside the Golden Door," filmstrips with record or cassette produced by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10016. Part II, in particular, traces the great waves of immigration, the rise of an industrial nation, and discrimination and social reform. The two filmstrips cover 300 years of Jewish life in the United States and are illustrated with photographs, engravings and paintings. The filmstrips are accompanied by discussion guides.

Jewish Immigrants to America, two filmstrips with cassettes produced in 1974 by Sunburst Communications, Pound Ridge, New York, 10576. 13 minutes each. This filmstrip traces the three waves of Jewish immigration and examines the nature and motivation of each. There is a considerable amount of material on the 1880-1920 period. The filmstrip effectively explores the contributions of Jewish-Americans to our society, especially the early labor movement. The teacher's guide contains discussion questions, summaries, activities, and the scripts of the filmstrips.

The Other American Minorities, four filmstrips with two cassettes produced in 1973 by Teaching Resources Films (New York Times).

"The Mexican-American" This filmstrip presents an effective blend of past and present information about the Mexican-American experience. The lack of economic and social assimilation is graphically discernable in this study of the life, work, and problems of Mexican-Americans. The absence of economic mobility, poor education, language and citizenship difficulties, and their fragmented political voice have combined to shortstop the acculturation of this minority. While the emphasis is on today, many of the points made are relevant to the past. The teacher's guide to the filmstrip provides discussion questions. (An alternate source for the same overview is "The Mexican-American" in Minorities Have Made America Great, set two.)

"The Puerto Rican and the Cuban" This filmstrip concentrates on recent material. The cultural shock experienced by the Puerto Rican migrant is demonstrated. The Cuban experience is in marked contrast since the reception they received and the backgrounds they brought were very different from the Puerto Ricans'. The teacher's guide contains discussion questions. (An alternate source for information on the Puerto Rican is "The Puerto Ricans, parts 1 & 2" in Minorities Have Made America Great, set two.)

"The Oriental American" This filmstrip is an effective mixture of contemporary and historical information. The immigration and subsequent experiences of both the Chinese and Japanese are examined. The two groups have fared quite differently. In spite of the World War II injustices, the Japanese have been remarkably successful both economically and socially. At the same time, the opportunities for and the attainments of the Chinese have been considerably less. The teacher's guide provides discussion questions. (An alternative source of information on the two groups is "The Japanese and Chinese" in Minorities Have Made America Great, set two.)

They Chose America: Conversations with Immigrants, Set One, produced by Baker and Taylor, Audio-Visual Services. 6 cassettes, approximately 40-50 minutes each. In this ethnic heritage program, 23 people from six countries talk about their lives and experiences before and after immigrating to America. The emphasis is on the period 1900 to the present. Representing a wide range of ages, backgrounds, and cultural traditions, these people tell how they struggled to achieve their goals. The groups covered include Chinese, Irish, Italians, Jews, Mexicans, and Poles. The tapes are appropriate for students in grades 7-12.

II. INDUSTRIALIZATION

A. The Situation Prior to 1880

1. BUSINESS had changed from household production to the factory system, but confusion in organization, office techniques, and lack of communications within industries hindered the growth of efficient corporations. Many industries remained localized and resistant to change. Foreign investment provided the bulk of capital used for expansion.

2. The position of the WORKER was unsettled due to the shift from skilled artisans to semi-skilled tenders of machines. The worker was urged by both precept and example to identify not with his peers but with the successful businessman in whose steps he or his children might one day walk. The first labor organizations to appear after the Civil War, the National Labor Union and the Knights of Labor, were concerned more with escaping from industrialization than with coming to grips with it. Strikes and "come outers" were ineffective means of protest, serving only to reinforce negative public attitudes toward workingmen.

3. The INTELLECTUAL MILIEU at the time of industrial change was a mixture of agrarian and industrial ideas. The Horatio Alger sucess myth appealed to the spirit of self help and individual initiative associated with success in a small community setting. Social Darwinism offered a vision of progress to a society built on the foundations of "survival of the fittest" and a new laissez faire.

4. TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS and COMMUNICATIONS were not evenly distributed throughout the country. Most magazines and newspapers were relatively small operations, aimed at specialized, often elite, audiences, disseminating opinions on crucial public issues. The gaslight still illuminated many communities, and even though railroads had been heavily developed by 1881, many areas did not have standardized rail systems. Moreover, roads continued to be little more than a pair of ruts where horses pulled farmers' wagons.

B. The Effects of Industrialization on Business

1. The giant industrial CORPORATION emerged as the most striking institutional innovation associated with industrialization. Electricity had replaced steam in industry. Immigrants and native-born laborers provided cheap, abundant sources of manpower. Managerial and mechanical changes such as the "time and motion studies" of Frederick Taylor allowed for growth of production and industrial discipline. Exploitation of natural resources such as timber, iron, oil, and coal furnished materials to create other industries. Markets for products were developed in the new domestic urban centers. Limited government interference or outright government support through such things as the tariff helped develop private industrial capacity. Various economic

groupings emerged to promote a sense of specialization and professionalism among businessmen.

2. CONSOLIDATION became the watchword for industry after a period of intense competition. Firms dealing in staple products were characterized by horizontal integration, the corporation controlling one step in the production process. Industries trading in urban consumer goods were characterized by vertical integration, the major economic processes of purchasing, production, distribution, and finance contained in one organization.

3. NEW INDUSTRIES were developed to supplement the growth of consumer industries. To interest consumers in the bewildering and expanding array of available products, manufacturers and advertising agencies expanded their promotional activities. Finance capitalism allowed domestic bankers to preserve "bigness" by creating new investment opportunities. Railroad consolidation, bicycling, and automobiles improved transportation and seemed to promise other benefits to the nation. The spread of telephones, typewriters, and phonographs heightened American notions of speed and truth, particularly with regard to news. Even though the flow of public information dramatically increased in the late 19th century, Americans clamored for more.

4. AGRICULTURE was also revolutionized by mechanization. The number of tractors grew from 1,000 in 1910 to 246,000 in 1920. Farmers turned from the manufacture of their own needs and implements to store-bought merchandise, thus becoming a part of consumer America.

C. The Effects of Industrialization on the Workingman

Between 1880-1920, the workingman's perception of the world and his position in it changed profoundly. The term "workingman," which was once applied to all honest men, became a category of industrial wage earners. An old way of life was being painfully discarded for a new one. Since so much was new, the treatment of labor varied from group to group, city to city, industry to industry. The rules and commands of the new order fit no one set pattern.

1. OLDER MINORITIES continued to bear the brunt of racial prejudice. Chicano labor was concentrated in mining, railroad operations, and farming in the Southwest. A legacy of the Mexican War, peonage was quickly domesticated; often it was linked to the institution of sharecropping in the South. Although the Chinese were at first fairly well received because of a desperate shortage of unskilled labor, they found themselves less and less welcome as more white workers became available. Black populations were still only concentrated in the South, although larger numbers of them were migrating to northern cities in search of job opportunities. Because of its continued subservient role, the black community turned in on itself. The symbol of self-help, Booker T. Washington urged segregation and industrial education for blacks. Opposition to Washington's position was stimulated

by W. E. B. Dubois who urged training in the professions and integration as the ultimate goals for Negroes.

2. Only 3% of the "NEW" IMMIGRANTS in 1890 (290,000 of 9,200,000) had come from eastern and southern Europe. In 1910 that figure stood at 30%, overwhelmingly Catholics and Jews who came to an organized and developed industrial economy. Italians concentrated their labor in excavation work in the northern cities. Others found family stability by adapting to employment in the canneries of the agricultural Northeast. Eastern European Jews already familiar with urban complexities created their own trades in the face of the hostility they encountered in America. Slavic and Hungarian workers labored 12 hours a day, 7 days a week in huge factories. Reaction to the "new" immigrants took the form of cycles of bigotry. In times of fear, organized hate mounted, but periods of confidence returned the nation to an acceptance of the eastern and southern European immigrants.

3. WAGES, WORKING CONDITIONS, and LIVING STANDARDS varied greatly throughout the country. Heavy industries such as steel applied the cold logic of economizing to their workers, leaving skilled and unskilled workers in a tenuous position. Some of the worst conditions were found in the tenement sweatshops which exploited the unskilled workers of the city. Mineworkers were continually subjected to long hours, uncertain employment, and an average salary of $400 a year. The tenant farmer and migrant laborer continued to be exploited.

4. LABOR UNIONS were consistently viewed as threats to the social order of the nation. Corporations saw them as threats to efficiency and the owner's authority. Government saw organized labor as a threat to individual liberty and choice. Since many trade unions only accepted skilled workers, thousands of unorganized workers viewed craft unions with contempt. But gradually labor unions gained some degree of power and became a controversial issue in American life. The Knights of Labor conducted massive strikes but declined rapidly after the Haymarket Square Incident turned the press against unions. In 1886 the American Federation of Labor was created for skilled workers with Samuel Gompers as President. In 1905 the Industrial Workers of the World or "Wobblies" was formed for unskilled workers. Its method was direct action through strikes, sabotage, and demonstrations, but it declined during World War I due to charges of subversion. Strikes occurred frequently; some of the major ones were the Homestead steel strike, the Pullman strike, the Colorado miners strike, and the anthracite coal miners strike.

5. The GOVERNMENT became increasingly involved in the regulation and control of working conditions. The Keating-Owen Child Labor Act prohibited the employment of children under fourteen in factories producing goods for interstate commerce. The Adamson Act established an 8-hour day for railroad workers. The Seaman's Act of 1915 required decent wages, treatment, and food for common

sailors. Labor Day was made a legal holiday in 1894, and forty-two states had workmen's compensation laws by 1921. President Theodore Roosevelt intervened and helped labor in the coal miners' strike in Pennsylvania.

6. The SUPREME COURT made several important rulings bout labor. In Muller vs. Oregon in 1908, the court upheld an Oregon law limiting the number of hours women might be employed, and in 1917 it upheld a ten hour Oregon law for factory workers. The court also ruled child labor laws unconstitutional.

D. The Effects of Industrialization on Social Institutions

1. Traditional RELIGIOUS IDEAS had to come to terms with new ideas.

2. Although the FAMILY was still unquestionably the important social unit, it was beginning to lose the dominance it had earlier enjoyed. The sources of the change were variable and complex but much depended on the widening gap between generations, changing patterns of leisure time activity, and strains in American family life (hinted at by rising divorce rates) as roles changed and an older sense of sexual sharing was lost.

3. The EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM became more complex. Traditional courses of study were made more relevant, both socially and vocationally. John Dewey was prominent in emphasizing a child-centered curriculum. By 1900 the U.S. for the first time had the outlines of an educational system with an ordered curriculum of grades increasing in difficulty. The school absorbed some of the functions of the family; reformers of the early 20th century studied the possibility of shaping the habits of future generations. Teachers were directed by a growing sense of professionalism. Universities reflected a rising interest in a more precise, utilitarian college education by adopting a more diversified undergraduate curriculum and elective system.

4. A new SCIENTIFIC FORM OF GOVERNMENT was expected to result in progress, order, and community. By the end of World War I, an emerging bureaucratic system had actually ordered American government. The 20th century executive became the dominant force in national government; at the same time, the government became the most important single force in national affairs. Specialists became important contributors to governmental policy. By 1920 the political base of power was shifting from country to town, and reliable lobbyists had become indispensable intermediaries in representative government.

E. National Restoration and Reform - 1900-1920

1. The Roots of Reform

a. THIRD PARTY MOVEMENTS, although unsuccessful, provided a fund of ideas for later reformers. Greenbackers said the currency system was so crucial that the people, not private banks,

should control it through the elected government. The Granges, initially providing social and cultural activities to relieve the isolation of farmers, became a militant anti-railroad movement. Farmers' alliances in the South and the Northeast hoped to get legislation favoring the coinage of free silver and to unite all farmers into a national political force. The farmers' movement, organized politically as the Populist Party, made rapid progress in the South and West in the depressed economic conditions of the 1890's with its demands for the nationalization of railroads, a graduated income tax, a recovery of unused railroad land grants, an end to alien ownership of land, free coinage of silver, and other reforms.

b. INDIVIDUAL REFORMERS opened new ways of thinking concerning the nature of society and government. Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr. attacked the conception of fixed, mechanical modes of thinking in law. Lester Frank Ward developed a philosophy of "reform Darwinism" which called for planning rather than haphazard social movement. Edward Bellamy proposed to re-arrange society to resemble a well-organized army. Henry George advocated the use of a "single tax" to break up the land monopolies which he identified as the root of urban industrial problems. Thomas Nast believed America could create a better society through its public institutions.

2. The "ENGINEERING" of roles and institutions was the basis of certain progressive solutions. Margaret Sanger and others called for family planning based on knowledge of birth control techniques. The drive for more political participation for women culminated in the 19th Amendment. The WCTU revived the earlier temperance ideal of a sober, democratic Christian nation. Anti-vice organizations operated at several levels of society to purify the morality of America.

3. REFORMS in government and the economy: various schemes to insure popular control of government were seized upon. By 1900 a growing number of people were demanding and receiving an expansion of the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Mild regulation for pure food and drugs was begun by an assortment of doctors, women, and manufacturers. Some progress was made in the area of laws affecting women and child labor and those regulating conditions in dangerous and unhealthy occupations, but the impact of the legislation was not everywhere the same. The first great surge of the American Conservation Movement occurred during this period when the nation sensed a diminishing of the material abundance that had created its prosperity. The income tax was adopted in hopes of redistributing the nation's wealth more equitably. The Federal Reserve Act made currency a function of commercial and industrial credit, providing a rough unity to national finance.

F. American Life in 1920 - Contrasts and Continuities with the Past

1. NEW IDEAS mixed with the values of the genteel culture of the late 19th century. Laissez faire as an economic philosophy had been dealt a severe blow by the mobilization for World War I. Progressivism with its emphasis on rational management, predictability, and specialization filtered into both governmental and business bureaucracies. Through state and federal prosecution and government censorship, socialism as an alternative to industrialism was seriously undermined. As small town moral leadership declined, the older fundamentalism in religious belief clashed with more liberal dogmas. Increased and more efficient production of consumer goods heightened American attachment to material possessions. By treating knowledge as the continual testing of hypotheses against the facts of life, pragmatism spread the adaptability required by the new orientation of American life.

2. DOMESTIC LIFE was beginning to be transformed by the introduction into millions of households of the electrical appliances that have become a part of modern American life.

3. ORGANIZED LABOR emerged from the war shaken and unpopular. A nationwide open shop movement was pushing for an end to craft union control in industry by 1920.

4. The CONSOLIDATION MOVEMENT IN INDUSTRY proceeded at a steady rate in spite of anti-trust crusades. The two hundred largest corporations in the U.S. doubled their capital wealth between 1909 and 1919. The need for new methods and increased use of advertising grew because of changes in the American social and industrial structure during World War I. The threads of centralization had been sewn into the banking structure, but strict accountability was not yet the nationwide rule. National and international markets had become an important reality for the business community.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS &
STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Read "Life and Work in the New World," pages 117-129 in Novotny, Strangers at the Door, for an overview of the economic opportunities open to immigrants in the 19th century. Compare farm opportunities with jobs available during the early phases of industrialization.

2. Read "Lobsters and Squids" in The Financier by Theodore Dreiser. What did the boy learn from watching the lobster and the squid? What did he want to do with his life? Why? After reading this story, can you define Social Darwinism?

3. Find examples of advertising from 1880-1920. Choose ads such as Coke, Ivory, and autos, and compare these ads with those for the same products today. What similarities and changes are there? Find some examples of ads that would indicate a need for reform, such as the medicine ads. What was dangerous or wrong with these ads? (Good sources for ads are copies of early magazines such as Leslie's, McClure's, and Colliers; This Fabulous Century (Time-Life Books, Volumes 1 and 2, New York, 1969); and Album of American History (Charles Scribner & Sons. Volume IV, New York, 1948)

4. Prepare an oral or written report on someone such as Edison, Carnegie, Rockefeller, DuPont, Hill, Morgan, etc. Show their methods of gaining wealth and the degree of power and influence they wielded.

5. Research the working man and his life in the early 1900's. Good sources of this information are the articles in The Cry for Justice, edited by Upton Sinclair, especially "The Fertilizer Man," "A Department Store Clerk," "The Octopus" (on the contrast between rich and poor), "Settlement Work," "A Living Wage" (on depersonalization), "The Hunt for the Job" (on the psychological effect), "For the Other 365 Days" (on materialism), and "The Soul of Man Under Socialism" (on man and machinery).

6. Great conflicts existed between employer and employee during this period. To illustrate, role-play a meeting of Henry Ford and one or two of his advisors with a delegation of several unionists to discuss working demands. For background information on Henry Ford, The Potentates, by Ben B. Seligman, is a good source. Any text on unions which includes 1900-1920 will provide background for the unionists.

7. Sketch typical examples of problems faced by "new" immigrants or working men during this period. What working reforms were needed? Good examples of cartoons of the period that deal with the problems of workers can be found in The Art and Politics of Thomas Nast, by Morton Keller.

8. Choose an ethnic group and prepare a report, oral or written, on that group's adjustment to urban industrial life and its working life and problems from 1880-1920. Topic 7 in America's People (Levy and Renaldo) contains readings about a Slav, a Pole, and Italians. Topic 8 contains a Jewish girl's comparison of life in the U.S. with life in Russia and selections from letters to the editor of a Yiddish newspaper. Pages 93-98

in Italian-Americans (Joseph Lopreato) discusses the relationship between the padrone system and the unionization of Italians.

9. Consider the following facts. Job opportunities for Mexican advancement were limited. They were given no supervisory work on railroads even though 90% of the working force in the Southwest on railroads was Mexican in 1907. In 1903 the Mexicans went on strike in the mines to be paid the same as whites. They were 60% of the work force. The strike failed when the Rangers, National Guard, and Federal troops came in. In 1917 they struck again in Bisbee, Arizona. The sheriff carted 1,200 miners in boxcars to New Mexico and freed them in the desert. Mexican-Americans were 80% of the work force on farms. Whole families had to work to earn enough. They lived in tarpaper shacks. The wages in 1908 for 85% of the Mexicans were less than $1.25 a day, whereas most Greeks, Italians, and Japanese earned more than $1.25 a day. White farmers in the Imperial Valley after 1900 actively recruited Mexican laborers. Prepare a report to consider why Mexican-Americans came to America between 1880 and 1920; why they were discriminated against in jobs and paid less wages; how stereotypes of them were perpetuated in American society; and what effect this had on them. For further information, you can use A Documentary History of the Mexican-American edited by Wayne Moquin or any other resource book on Mexican-Americans.

10. Contrast the views of Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. DuBois on how blacks could adjust to a discriminatory industrial society. The relevant sections of America's People, Levy and Renaldo, are good sources of this information.

11. A social scientist tested school children in 1920 with the following story. "Laddin was the son of a poor tailor. He lived in Peking, the capital city of China. He was always lazy and liked to play better than to work." The teacher should read the story to the class and ask students what kind of boy Laddin was: Indian, Negro, Chinese, French, or Dutch. Why did they answer as they did? Most children in the study replied "Negro" because of the term "lazy." With this stereotype, the black was hindered in achieving his rightful place in industrial America. Discuss how a stereotype can be so imprinted on a person's mind that judgment is clouded.

12. The quotations below provide good introductions to a review of attitudes toward ethnic groups and their problems between 1880 and 1920.

    a. "It is believed that if any Indian vernacular is allowed to be taught by missionaries in schools on Indian reservations, it will prejudice the pupil as well as his parents against the English language. This language, which is good enough for a white man or a black man, ought to be good enough for the red man. It is also believed that teaching an Indian youth in his own barbarous dialect is a positive detriment to him. The impracticability if not the impossibility of civilizing the Indians of this country in any other tongue than our own would seem obvious."

    -- Commissioner of Indian Affairs

b. "As with Samson of old, the Indians' wildness lay in their long hair --The Indian Office, at my request, issued a preemptory order for all to cut their hair and adopt civilized attire; and in six weeks from the start every male Indian had been changed into the semblance of a decent man, with the warning that confinement at hard labor awaited any backsliders."

-- Lt. V.E. Slottler
Apache Commission, 1896

c. "Little Indian, Sioux or Crow,
Little Frosty Eskimo,
Little Turk or Japanese,
O! Don't you wish that you were me?"

-- Verse by Robert L. Stevenson chanted by white American Schoolchildren in mid-1890's.

d. "It is probably true that the majority of our wild Indians have no inherited tendencies whatever toward morality or chastity, according to an enlightened standard. Chastity and morality among them must come from education and contact with the better element of whites."

-- Commissioner of Indian Affairs, W.A. Jones, 1903

e. "Southern Italians - excitable, impulsive, highly imaginative, impractical, given to crimes, especially violent crimes.
Northern Italians - cool, deliberate, patient, practical.
Serbo-Croatians - have savage manners.
Poles - high-strung."

-- From 1910 Dictionary of Races presented by the U.S.Immigration Commission

f. "Japanese Women a Menace to American Women"
"Brown Asiatics Steal Brains of Whites"
"Brown Men are an Evil in the Public Schools"

-- San Francisco newspaper headlines, 1900

g. "A presumptuous Jap" who had a "lecherous mouth whose utterances show this mongrel's perverseness, ignorance, and maliciousness."

-- Samuel Gompers, President of American Federation of Labor, 1904, describing a Japanese socialist visiting the U.S.

h. Huck reported to Aunt Sally on a steamboat accident. Her response was, "Good gracious! Anybody hurt?"
"No'm. Killed a nigger."
"Well, it's lucky because sometimes people do get hurt."

-- Huckleberry Finn, Mark Twain, 1882

i. "I don't go so far as to think that the only good Indians are dead Indians, but I believe that nine out of ten are, and I shouldn't inquire too closely into the tenth."

-- Theodore Roosevelt, around 1900

j. "It's a long, long way to capture Villa,
It's a long way to go.
It's a long way across the border
Where the dirty greasers grow."

-- song sung by Pershing's soldiers in 1916 during the "War" against Pancho Villa

k. Common labor, white $1.30 to $1.50.
Common labor, colored $1.25 to $1.40.
Common labor, Italian $1.15 to $1.25.

-- Public Notice by New York City to recruit workers to build the Croton Reservoir in 1895

l. Question: "What is a man to do who is starving and cannot find work?
Answer: " God knows."

-- William Howard Taft, ex-President, around 1915

m. "American law, American order, American civilization, and the American flag will plant themselves on shores hitherto bloody and benighted, but by these agencies of God henceforth to be made beautiful and bright."

-- Sen. Albert J. Beveridge,1895

n. "Hawaii, whether it will or not, shall, so far as in my power lies, be kept for the small, white land-owners."

-- Theodore Roosevelt, 1900

o. "We could not give (the Philippines) back to Spain - we could not leave them to themselves - they were unfit for self-government - there was nothing left for us to do but to take them all, and to educate the Filipinos, and uplift and civilize and Christianize them."

-- President McKinley, 1898

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

America, 12 filmstrips and 12 cassettes produced by Time-Life Films, Multi-Media Division,1973.

No. 8 "The Huddled Masses" This filmstrip is a survey of immigration covering the various waves of immigration, immigrant motives, the experience upon arrival, relations with politicians, and the experiences in the industrial system. The teacher's guide indicates the source of each picture and includes suggested activities.

No. 9 "Money on the Land" This filmstrip examines the technology, the men, and the accumulation of wealth associated with the growth of business and industry in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The teacher's guide lists the sources of and narration for each frame of the strip. It also has suggestions for class discussion.

American Adventure: A Filmstrip History of the United States, Unit III, "Between Two Wars," filmstrips and records produced by Scholastic Book Services, 904 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, N. J. 07632, 1974. Each filmstrip includes a teacher's guide containing suggested questions, activities, and a script. This series can be used to best advantage with slower students.

No. 2 "Rise of Industry and Labor" This filmstrip focuses on three aspects of the growth of industry: the rapid urbanization stimulated by industrialization, the role played by inventors and businessmen, and the conditions of industrial work which fueled the labor union movement.

No. 3 "The New Pioneers" This filmstrip examines the major waves of immigration; the early wave that began in the 1840's, the wave from Southern and Eastern Europe that began in the 1880's, and the continuing stream up to the Puerto Ricans of today.

No. 4 "Segregation and the Racial Awakening" The first half of this filmstrip explains the development of "Jim Crow" laws in the late 1800's, the different approaches of Washington and DuBois to the problems of discrimination, and the upsurge of black pride and influence after World War I. The filmstrip also covers developments during the depression of the 1930's and the Civil Rights Movement.

The American Experience, 20 portfolios produced by The Smithsonian Institution and Scholastic Book Services, 1975. Each portfolio contains 50 reproductions (most are 11" x 14") of posters, photographs, documents, paintings, sculptures, etc. that can be used as starting points for discussion, research, etc. Each also contains a teaching guide with instructional ideas and a background text on the topic.

"Industrialization, 1867-1910" This portfolio covers the growth of industry, business, and labor. It illustrates the importance of coal, steel, and chemical industries, the rise of the corporation and management, and the importance of electricity.
"The New Immigrants" This portfolio contains reproductions showing immigrants in typical work and family situations. It also illustrates the lure of America, the process of assimilation, and the anti-immigrant reaction of some Americans.

The Inheritance, a film produced by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. Black and white, 45 minutes, distributed for sales and rental by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016. This film makes excellent use of historic film footage and still photographs, with good songs and narration. Excellent for discussion of labor in the early 1900's.

The Life History of the United States, "The Sounds of History," produced by Time-Life, Volumes 7, 8, and 9 contain speeches about Andrew Carnegie, Knights of Labor, Grange, Edison, Sherman Anti-Trust Act, Rockefeller, Populists, Railroad Rebates, Orville Wright, and Jane Addams and the songs "Eight Hours" and "Down in the Licensed Saloon" which illustrate attitudes about industrialization and its effects on society from many viewpoints--inventors, laborers, social workers, industrialists, reformers.

III. URBANIZATION

A. City and Country Before 1880

1. In 1880, approximately 70% of the population lived in rural areas.

2. RURAL DWELLERS

a. The independent farmer who owned his own land was the most common rural dweller. He was fiercely democratic, convinced of the superiority of agrarian life, and suspicious of the city, perceiving it as the source of evil and all the problems afflicting American society. "American" to him meant white, Protestant, and having Anglo-Saxon characteristics. The farmer suffered depressed economic conditions as a result of overproduction and declining farm prices. In his daily life, the rural American behaved according to traditional principles. He was generally religious and worked hard. The seasons of the year determined the amount of work and leisure time. Travel over the poor rural roads was slow, so most farmers depended on small-town stores for supplies, and most had a sense of isolation because of the distances between neighbors.

b. Many rural dwellers existed in a state of economic dependency as either sharecroppers or tenant farmers. Some white and many black Americans became tenants, paying for use of the land in cash or in a share of the crop, a practice known as sharecropping. Most were able to subsist on their income with poor living standards, but were unable to improve their position. The peonage system often resulted in increasing dependency.

c. Mexican-Americans, whose land had been expropriated by Anglo-Americans, worked as migratory farm labor in a state of peonage in the Southwest.

d. Native-Americans were for the most part on reservations by 1880. Their view of the value of land and property contrasted sharply with the value structure of the Anglo culture. The belief was growing that the Native-American should be acculturated through fixed settlement, land ownership, and education.

3. URBAN DWELLERS

a. Cities in 1880 were located in geographically strategic positions, often on some waterway, and their size was largely determined by walking distances.

b. Cities in 1880 served several vital functions; they were centers of commercials and financial activities and hubs for rail and water transportation, and coastal cities were points of entry for immigrants or places of transit for migrants. Universities, libraries, and other cultural amenities made some larger cities cosmopolitan in character while others remained in a raw, unsophisticated state.

c. The people in urban places were diverse ethnically, socially, and economically. While the bulk of the urban population in 1880 was of Anglo-Saxon background, there was a rich mixture of ethnic groups. Germans and Irish were dominant minorities in most great cities. In Boston and Detroit, Canadians were the second most numerous, and in Minneapolis, the Swedes were second. Blacks were a larger minority in Southern cities, and and the Chinese were a significant minority in Western cities. Social life in urban centers frequently centered around organizations based on religious or nationality affiliations. Economic differences based on income and living standards were readily visible in urban centers that had acquired substantial or significant new immigration by 1880. And urban politics were frequently dominated by political rings with a municipal focus. Urban places were not a source of national political power in 1880.

d. The municipal services available in cities in 1880 were generally inadequate and primitive. Protection against fire and crime was usually provided by volunteer services, and care of the poor, elderly, and orphaned was a concern of private organizations. Water supply systems lagged behind the demand and were often dependent on private initiative. Street paving failed to keep pace with the extension of streets, which often resembled rural roads. Public health and sanitation measures were generally lacking, causing disease to be a common urban problem. Horse car lines existed by 1880 in all large cities over 50,000 and had begun an outward expansion of the city. Education in urban areas was free and attendance was usually compulsory, although attendance lagged behind enrollment.

B. The Growth and Population of Cities After 1880

1. NEWCOMERS

a. Rural Migrants: Jim Crow laws, black codes, and economic conditions in the South pressured over two million blacks to migrate to northern cities where they were excluded from craft unions, skilled jobs, and segregated into ghettos. Many rural dwellers moved to cities to seek economic opportunities no longer available on the farms or in small towns.

b. Eastern and Southern Europeans: The background of an individual determined his alternatives upon arrival. Immigrants moved to areas where job opportunities matched their skills, but moving from a rural to an urban environment created problems of adjustment. Immigrant newcomers often "adapted" to the economic needs of the larger society by providing necessary subsidiary services in servile jobs. Italians in New York and Louisiana turned to "muck farming" in undesirable lowland areas producing high yield crops such as onions. The Irish were sought after as domestics on the east coast. Poles, Hungarians, and Slavs gravitated to Pennsylvania for the opportunities in the iron, steel, and coal industries.

c. Asians: Chinese entrepreneurs turned to low initial capital investment businesses such as restaurants and laundries. The Japanese in California became experts in contract gardening on local estates. The two groups increased the population of western cities.

d. Puerto Ricans acquired citizenship rights in 1917, gaining a new impetus for immigration.

e. Mexicans increased their migration to the U. S. as a result of political upheavals and revolution in Mexico.

2. RESIDENTIAL PATTERNS

a. Ethnic Enclaves: Language, customs, and cultural identity were preserved in these homelands in microcosm. "Little Italies" developed in major U.S. cities such as Chicago and New York. Harlem developed as a black ghetto by 1910. The Chicano barrio was a haven for Mexican-Americans in California, and unique Chinese and Japanese communities developed in California and New York. Ethnic communities also met the occupational and economic needs of their people. The development of the padrone system in Italian communities was based on economics and politics in New York and Louisiana. The Japanese communities developed a paternalistic form of employment which was generally non-acculturative. Jewish immigrants settled in voluntary ghettoes where they could rely on their community institutions. And immigrant groups promoted community affairs by forming social organizations and clubs. The Japanese formed social groups and organizations to police the community and to provide youth services. Italian Americans developed many local mutual benefit associations such as in New York where there were 2000 such associations. And Black self-help groups developed in New York neighborhoods.

b. Socio-economic status and choice of residence: Because they could not afford to commute, lower class people tended to reside in or near their place of employment in industrial areas which were not considered desirable. Upper and middle class urban dwellers sought to live in suburbs or fashionable city neighborhoods which not only were more attractive but also were protected from many of the problems of lower class areas. Within these areas, they were able to associate with people whose backgrounds were similar to their own.

3. SOCIAL AND MUNICIPAL SERVICES

a. An increase in educational services was needed with equality of treatment and opportunity for all groups. However, Indians were forced to acculturate by being punished for speaking their native tongue in Indian schools run by the U. S. government. Japanese and Chinese children were segregated in the schools of San Francisco. Mexican-Americas were refused education with whites, and Southern states passed laws segregating private as well as public education. Only Northern urban schools were under constant pressure to expand, and thus the adoption of reform and improvement was facilitated.

b. Utilities and transportation: Improvements in transportation such as cable cars, trolleys, bridges, elevated railroads and subways made it possible to transport large numbers of workers and shoppers in and out of formerly restricted factory and retail districts. Rapid transit systems introduced in Boston in 1897 and in New York in 1904 greatly relieved congestion in their respective business districts. Bridge construction proceeded rapidly in cities near river sites, with 365 bridges that exceeded 500 feet in length constructed by 1909, thus providing many new access routes to and from city metropolises. Improved transit stimulated the erection of taller buildings, the consolidation of stores and factories, and the provision of great administrative hubs. Local telephone systems, extending their lines to over two million subscribers in 1902, spurred urban expansion by facilitating communications.

c. Welfare Programs: Many new institutions were developed to aid the disadvantaged because programs to meet the needs of a rapidly expanding and complex urban society were generally lacking. Municipal government innovations included provident loan societies, coffee and soup depots, community agricultural plots for planting, public stores to make relief payment, and work-relief projects. Reformers such as Jane Addams (Hull House) tried new social innovations in major urban areas to meet the needs of the cities' poor. Settlement houses provided a variety of services including schools for citizenship, music halls, art galleries, playgrounds, and regular visiting nurse services. The spirit of warm friendliness that characterized most of these settlement houses helped to restore a sense of neighborliness in many depressed urban districts. Ethnic clubs responded to the unexpected hospitality of these centers and learned a new sense of comradeship with those of different backgrounds and aspirations. Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant organizations provided additional facilities for their own dependents in urban areas. The St. Vincent de Paul Society took a lead in this work among Catholic charities. The Baron de Hirsch fund trustees provided aid and inspiration to the Jews by providing diverse programs such as over 60 foreign-language libraries, several housekeeper-training centers, and organized classes for immigrants. Protestant church groups established several rescue missions in urban communities. The rural background of many church groups resulted in a vigorous temperance drive and concerted efforts to reform city "vices." The Salvation Army, introduced from England in 1880, grew rapidly, numbering 2000 officers and 25,000 soldiers and maintaining 17 rescue missions, 24 lodging houses, and 3 farm colonies by 1896.

d. Sanitation Facilities: Sanitation engineers began to devise filters and to build treatment plants that incorporated new chemical and biological discoveries. Health authorities began to relate typhoid and other diseases to contaminated water supplies, thus spurring the need for improvement in plumbing facilities. New York provided sanitation men with

"white uniforms" in 1896, while other cities instituted a series of incineration processing plants to control waste products.

e. Police and Fire Protection: New developments in crime detection such as specialized detective forces, the use of mounted police in crowd control, and the introduction of the Bertillon measurements for aid in identification created the need for a better trained police officer. Fire departments became full-time companies while improvements in fire-fighting techniques such as fire boats for waterfront towns, the alarm telegraph, the water tower, and chemical engines enabled firemen to better control fires in urban areas.

C. Technology and Its Effect on City Life

1. CONSTRUCTION: As steel-frame construction and elevators were developed, multi-story construction increased the population density of cities. The tenement, a four or five story building containing many small apartments, was developed by speculators who were seeking a high return on their investment. Tenements encouraged overcrowding in poor neighborhoods, and sanitary facilities and poor living conditions led to high mortality rates in these areas.

2. TRANSPORTATION: The development of the streetcar, the elevated railway, and the subway allowed the city to increase in area. Previous expansion had been limited by slow transportation and communication. Suburbs providing pleasant homes for upper and middle class people who were employed in cities began to develop in response to the new transportation improvements. Boston led the way in suburban development with 55% of its population living in suburban areas by 1910. As suburbs developed, older well-to-do neighborhoods were allowed to decay. The South end and West end sections of Boston deteriorated as immigrants moved into the area deserted by upper and middle class residents in favor of the new suburbs. Harlem, a genteel residence for older and wealthier New Yorkers in 1890, began to change as the entrance of blacks initiated the movement of older residents, primarily Germans, German-Jews, and Irish, to the suburbs. Services to the community diminished as the wealthier residents left and this, combined with the overcrowded conditions, created the substandard living conditions which are called "slums."

3. PUBLIC UTILITIES: Electric lights, which allowed greater flexibility of night-time activity, and electricity for powering machinery, changed the character of industry in the cities. In addition, elevators made multi-story construction feasible and practical.

D. Political Bossism, New Forms of Municipal Government, and Demands for Reform

1. BOSSISM

a. Political Bosses: Businessmen supported politicians in exchange for government contracts. Jobs on construction projects and in government administration were provided for immigrants who voted the party line. Bossism operated through the ward system. Neighborhood leaders, normally members of the ethnic group, were regarded as friends by the immigrants since they were willing to help with daily problems in exchange for support, and a hierarchy existed above the neighborhood heads. Bossism enabled Irish, Italian, and Jewish immigrants to gain political power, on the favor-for-a-vote concept.

b. Black-Americans: Before 1920, black political power was limited: there were a small number of blacks living in cities, and the black population always voted Republican. As numbers grew and a two-party system developed, there were signs of black recognition among political leaders: blacks were granted offices that they were denied earlier, and leaders developed who could deliver votes in exchange for patronage. But blacks were slow to develop an effective political power base.

2. NEW FORMS OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

a. Mayor-Council: This form of government provided for a separation of legislative and administrative authority. The mayor was elected by the people for a fixed number of years. The council was the law-making body that granted power to the mayor. But this arrangement often led to corruption, so some cities replaced it with a commission or council-manager arrangement.

b. Commission: This form of government was a partial answer to the problem of corruption in city government. A commission of 3 to 5 men who had the power to make and administer laws was elected by the people.

c. City-Manager: This attempt to reform city government included a city council which was elected by the people to make policy. It then hired a skilled manager to deal with the technical aspects of running the city.

3. HUMANITARIANS AND SOCIAL REFORMERS: Wealthy industrialists set up foundations which attempted to aid the poor in the cities. Settlement houses and church organizations were established by private interests to aid poor residents of urban slums. And schools tried to help alleviate poverty by teaching English and skills.

4. MINORITIES' SOCIAL and POLITICAL ORGANIZATIONS: Blacks initiated organizations such as the NAACP and the National Urban League, which sought to end discrimination through community action and lobbying for national legislation. The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith was founded in 1913 to fight discrimination against Jews and other ethnic groups in the United States. However, the shifting population of wetbacks and braceros discouraged the formation of political organizations among Mexican-Americans.

E. City and Country in 1920

1. The 1920 census showed for the first time that the urban population exceeded the rural population.

2. RURAL AMERICA

a. The independent farmer's status had suffered a relative decline. The farmer still often viewed the city as a source of the social, political and economic ills of society, but the city provided an attraction to rural youth. The illusion of farm prosperity covered structural weaknesses that were to operate to the disadvantage of the farmer. The prosperity they achieved in a war economy was not to be maintained in peacetime. A lack of scientific knowledge in soil use would result in erosion problems in the 1920's. Innovations in farm equipment were a boon to farming, increasing crop yield and lessening the amount of labor, but they also caused inherent problems of adjustment by creating an increasing specialization in farming and causing labor displacement for a servile work force. Rural fundamentalists were not accepting change wholeheartedly, and in the Scopes trial new scientific assertions were doggedly challenged.

b. The social and economic status of migrant workers and sharecroppers remained relatively unchanged.

c. Native-Americans were in a state of subjugation and control on reservations. Reservations had been created as a temporary measure to control a defeated population, but became the permanent residence of the majority of Native Americans, although reservation land was generally not suited to supporting a self-sufficient agrarian culture.

d. The concept of unlimited "open land" was no longer a valid proposition (the Turner thesis). Government homesteading acts and large-scale land giveaways had ended with the Oklahoma Land Rush of 1889. And the railroads' function as a dispenser of land tracts for settlement was near an end.

3. URBAN LIFE

a. Geography: Cities were much larger in size and population, and their physical features had changed. The instituion of

building codes, tenement housing laws, and the formation of commissions to supervise violations provided for order in rapidly growing urban areas. Architects were experimenting in several building motifs, including Corinthian styles, European plazas, Gothic forms, and adaptations of French Renaissance styles. City planning developed, with New York and Boston each attempting comprehensive street and park development. Transportation improvements such as elevated railways had far-reaching implications in building locations, population distribution, and the market economy. Streets and highways were paved and extended.

b. Functions: Cities were dominant centers of commercial and financial power. Banking institutions had grown in strength and new business activity. Urban shopping areas increased in size and sophistication. The city remained a transportation hub. Railroads remained the most important inter-urban arteries. The automobile had begun to affect internal city traffic and to stimulate new and different kinds of dispersion. Cities were now centers for political activity. Urban centers were focal points for acculturation. John Dewey's concept of the public school as a social center had caused changes in techniques of instruction and the development of a more flexible curriculum which was child-centered. Vocational education programs had developed in school systems to meet the needs of industrial systems seeking skilled labor. And cities as well as philanthropic groups were developing junior or senior colleges to meet the rising expectations of urban children seeking opportunities in the emerging white collar working class. Finally, cities were in a position to influence national culture. The developing fields of graphic and audio-visual arts emanated from urban areas and had profound effects on the attitudes of the nation's people. Political innovations such as the direct primary, the voting machine and recall of local officials developed in urban settings. Gifted American writers such as Theodore Dreiser, Edgar Lee Masters, and O. Henry were sampling the urban experience, and their works helped shape rural American attitudes toward city life. Publishing companies, centrally located in urban areas, were marketing magazines and newspapers in great profusion, effecting changes in the national character. Jazz, a black musical innovation, became the dominant force in American music, controlling stage, phonograph records, and sheet music in 1920. And athletics developed a broad-based audience while providing opportunities for ethnic minorities to show their skills and achieve economic gains normally not available to them.

c. Lives of Urban Dwellers: The ethnic composition and distribution of population had changed. Major black neighborhoods now existed in major U. S. cities as a result of mass migration from rural areas. The last and greatest wave of immigration, which brought 15 million people to the U. S. from 1890-1920, increased the proportion of recent immigrants in

the cities but not in the nation as a whole. And foreign born groups remained segregated in ethnic enclaves. Urban residents developed an increasing consciousness of socio-economic class and tended to associate with their own group. An expanding middle class resulted from industrialization and populated the developing suburbs. The "urban poor" were recognized as a distinct group in American society. As an outgrowth of the Progressive period, the middle class regained political and economic influence at the expense of the political boss with an immigrant power base.

d. Municipal Services: Typical services such as sanitation, mass transportation, public health, utilities, and police and fire protection were provided directly by the government or through franchising to private corporations. By 1920, it was no more hazardous to live in the city than to live in the countryside, although congestion and insufficient services still plagued lower class neighborhoods.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS &
STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Research the life of the independent farmer in the early years of this period. What event destroyed any hope that the Native American might resist the white man's attack? Describe the life of settlers in different sections of the West. What effect did the opening of the urban market have on the independent farmer? Why did the independent farmer begin to lose status in this period? Bragdon and McCutcheon, History of a Free People, pages 412-24, is a good source for this information.

2. Research the situation of the tenant farmer during this period. In what way was the tenant farmer subordinate to the landowner? What effect did his dependent position have on his life? Sandler, The People Make a Nation, pages 424-27, is a good source for this information.

3. The Chicano, edited by Edward Simmer, is a collection of short stories by many American authors, dealing with Mexican-Americans. The stories are diverse but contain one obvious similarity--conflict. Read several selections (three are suggested below) and discuss the way Mexican-Americans were depicted during this period. Consider to what extent "ethnic groups" must adjust to Anglo-American customs and tradition and whether these groups should preserve their cultural traditions, including language, in a different society. Jack London's "The Mexican" (1911) is an interesting account of sacrifices of Mexican-Americans for their revolution. Page 19 in the introduction provides relevant background for the story. "Senor Payroll" (1943) is an amusing account of "one-up-manship" in employee (Mexican) - employer (Anglo) relationships. How might this story help support basic stereotypes of Mexican-Americans? How do the Mexicans view this "game"? "El Patron" deals with "wetbacks" and the patron system American farm owners used to exploit them.

4. Examine the problems of adjustment to Anglo-American culture experienced by the Mexican immigrant. The readings in "The Mexicans: New World Immigrants" (Levy and Renaldo, America's People) cover the Anglo-American reaction to Mexican immigrants at the turn of the century, a contemporary anthropological comparison of Anglo-Americans and Chicanos in Texas, cultural conflicts as seen by a Chicano schoolgirl, and a contemporary analysis of the role of the school in cultural adjustment.

5. "The enemies of the country and of freedom of the people have always denounced as bandits those who sacrifice themselves for the noble causes of the people." --Emiliano Zapata
It has been suggested that "machismo" figures became a way of expressing dissent and a tradition among Mexican-Americans because political and economic protest were closed to them. Read "Murietta, Vasquez, and Cortez: Legends, Bandits, or Revolutionaries?" in To Serve The Devil, Part I (Jacobs, Landau, and Pell). In what ways do Murietta, Vasquez, and Cortez represent "machismo" figures? Why did Mexican-Americans look at these men as folk heroes? Are there any similarities between the Mexican view of Murietta and the American view of Jesse James as a folk hero? For further research, students might want to look into the lives of Mexican Revolutionaries seeking reform such as Emiliano Zapata, who sought agrarian reform,

or Pancho Villa. Were these men simply bandits or actually revolutionaries seeking an end to injustices and a change in the agrarian system of Mexico? The Time-Life book Mexico, edited by William W. Johnson, contains information on both these men. Or Elizabeth Martinez and Enriqueta Vasquez's book Viva La Raza, chapter 5, may be used.

6. Have one or two students read pages 112-16 in The Indian in America's Past, Jack D. Forbes, and report to the class on the government's official position regarding Native Americans at this time. The report should include the "individualization" of the Indian, cultural change, haircuts at gunpoint, and Supreme Court decisions regarding Native Americans.

7. Students interested in further research on the Indian-White conflict from the "defeated peoples'" viewpoint will find the following sources useful. Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee, Dee Brown: Chapter 13, "The Flight of the Nez Pierce" provides a stirring account of Chief Joseph and his people's attempted flight to Canada after being forced out of their homelands in Washington state and Oregon; Chapter 17, "The Last of the Apache Chiefs" provides an interesting account of Geronimo's last days as a free man; and Chapter 19, "Wounded Knee," gives a first-hand account of the last major "battle" between Native Americans and whites. Chapters 3 and 6 in Custer Died for Your Sins, Vine DeLoria, Jr., are useful in seeing government policy toward a conquered people. Massacre at Sand Creek, Irving Werstein, or Battle of Sand Creek, Michael Straight (fiction) concern the "massacre" or "attack" on a village of Indians by Col. Chivington, who was brought to trial for this military action. The works are interesting because they provide evidence of unprovoked brutality toward the Indian, contrary to most of the stereotypes acquired through the media. Though slightly before 1880, the incident still provides an excellent insight into Indian-White relationships. The films "Chivington's Raid" and "Soldier Blue" also chronicle this event.

8. Read "Blood on the Little Big Horn," "The Killing of Crazy Horse," and "The Butchering at Wounded Knee" in N. Scott Momaday's American Indian Authors. The three articles are first-hand Indian accounts of the last Indian-White "wars." From these three episodes, what conclusions can you draw about the Indians' feeling for life? What was the Indian attitude concerning the white man's honesty and integrity? The engagement at Wounded Knee has been called a "battle" by most historians; the Indians usually refer to it as the "Massacre of the Big Foot Band." Which title do you think is more apt? Why? What differences are there in the Indian account of the Little Big Horn compared to other versions you've seen in the media or in your textbooks? Crazy Horse was in large part responsible for the Indian victory at Little Big Horn. Was his death a display of vindictiveness or revenge?

9. Media stereotypes of the Indians during the 1950's and early 1960's usually presented Indians in narrow one-dimensional terms. Study the lives of one or more Indians who stand out as great statesmen in the history of their nations and thus do not fit the popular stereotypes. Leaders during the period between 1877 and 1896 who deserve some recognition and study include the following: Geronimo, sub-leader of Apache groups; Sitting Bull, Medicine Man of the Hunkpapa Sioux; Crazy Horse, chief of the Oglalla Sioux and chiefly responsible for Custer's defeat at Little Big Horn; Cochise, respected leader of the Chiricahua Apache

who waged a 12-year war against the U. S.; Chief Joseph of the Nez Pierce, whose famous speech "I am tired; my heart is sick and sad..." perhaps best summarizes the Native American's final plight. These leaders may be studied individually or collectively for class presentation in oral report form.

10. Students interested in the plight of Native Americans today can do further research for class oral reports or visual presentations. Chronicles of Indian Protest provides information on Indian attempts at civil rights movements through 1970 ("Indians in Revolt 1969-1970") and on racism in the U. S. military and stereotypes of Native Americans in textbooks ("An End to Effigies"). "This Country Was A Lot Better Off When The Indians Were Running It" by Vine DeLoria (in N. Scott Momaday's American Indian Authors) provides some excellent material on reservation life and Indian-White relationships. The Johnny Cash album "Ballads of the American Indians" contains several relevant recordings including "Ballad of Ira Hayes"--a Pima Indian decorated for bravery at Iwo Jima in World War II who returned to the disillusionment of reservation life and death through alcoholism. Three commercial films--two versions of The Ira Hayes Story, stunning portrayals of reservation life and its effect on the psyche of the individual, and Tell Them Willie Boy Is Here, a modern view of the difficulty of adjusting to reservation life--dramatize some of the problems faced by Native Americans today.

11. Orientals also had great difficulty assimilating in 20th century America, largely because of hostile white attitudes toward them. What "official" attempts were made to prevent the assimilation of Japanese into American culture? What was the prevailing feeling of the Japanese toward American society and its discriminatory attitude toward Orientals? What were some of the types of discrimination used against the Japanese which made them feel "unwanted"? To Serve The Devil, Volume 2 (Jacobs, Landau and Pell), especially pages 225, 226, 228, 231, 241, 245, and 246, is a good source of this information. "The Pacific Migration" in Levy and Renaldo's America's People shows the reaction of whites toward Oriental immigrants and the Japanese perception of life in San Francisco in 1917.

12. During this period discrimination was aimed at the Chinese labor force in Western states. What was at issue in the conflicts that developed? What was the extent of mob violence against the Chinese, and what was the Chinese reaction to the violence? What disciplinary action was taken against the perpetrators of violence? "Memorial of Chinese Laborers Resident at Rock Springs, Wyoming Territory" (in Chink edited by Cheng-Tsu Wu) is an account of one such outburst. "The Anti-Chinese Riots in Washington (1885-1886)" (also in Chink) provides information on the "Chinese Question," the ways the people of Washington state tried to resolve it, the Anti-Chinese Congress in Seattle, and the "peaceful expulsion" policy and the way it was utilized against Orientals.

13. Geography and culture operate together to determine the spacing, shape, and function of cities. How did these two forces combine to affect the early development of American cities? "The City: Meaning and Method" in Hovenier, Perspectives in U. S. History, is a useful source of information on this subject.

14. What factors stimulated the growth of cities during the period from 1880 to 1920? Why were many rural people moving to the city? What were some of the problems created by urbanization? What effect did the development of electricity, the elevator, and the skyscraper have on city life? Why was poverty more visible during this period? Explain the development of the ghetto and the suburb. Pages 397-402 in Bragdon and McCutcheon, History of a Free People, and pages 586-604 in Hovenier, Perspectives in U. S. History, are good sources of this information. "What to Ask and When" in Kownslar's Teaching American History: A Quest for Relevancy provides students with opportunities to employ questions and questioning strategies to arrive at conclusions about the rise of the American city in the last century. At the same time, it assists students in learning what types of questions one can generate about a topic and how to respond to and utilize these questions in processing information, arriving at conclusions, and judging the appropriateness of these conclusions.

15. Complete the questions about the maps on pages 465-68 of Sandler, The People Make A Nation. Discuss the rate of urbanization and changes in residence patterns in the city during this period.

16. Read "Life and Work in the New World" in Novotny's Strangers at the Door for a view of the varieties of immigrant experiences in the cities between 1881 and 1920. The chapter is written in very human terms, showing the problems of husbands, wives, and children.

17. Developments in the South and the effects of World War I encouraged blacks to migrate to Northern cities where city life stimulated the growth of a black consciousness and the beginnings of the black civil rights movement. Discuss the causes and effects of the black migration. Hovenier's New Perspectives in U. S. History, pages 740-56, is a useful source for this information.

18. Trace the development of Harlem as the primary black community in New York City through a series of maps showing the growth of the black population in the area from 1911-1920. Research the reasons for this change and present your findings in an oral report. Harlem: The Making of a Ghetto by Gilbert Osofsky is a good source of both the changing population figures and the reasons for this development.

19. The padrone had many roles in the Italian community. Discuss the padrone's positive and negative roles in community affairs and the value of the padrone system to the Italian immigrant socially, economically and politically. Pages 138-158 in The Italian-Americans by Iorizzo and Mondello and pages 93-98 in Italian-Americans by Joseph Lopreato are good sources for this information.

20. Compare and contrast the life styles of rich and poor Americans in urban areas during the period 1880-1920. In what way has the situation changed today? Is the gap between rich and poor as great? Research or identify from your study of industrialization the reasons for the gap between rich and poor.

21. Research political bossism and attempts to reform the urban political system. Chapter 6 of Arthur Mann's Immigrants in American Life contains articles by George Washington Plunkett, Lincoln Steffens, Tammany Hall boss Richard Grober, and Fiorello La Guardia dealing with corruption and reform movements. Pages 470-73 and 490-99 in Sandler, The People Make A Nation, contain specific examples of political corruption and attempts at reform.

22. Summarize the changes that occurred in urban areas between 1880 and 1920 by constructing a comparison chart. The following categories for analysis might be included: Distribution of Population (rural/urban), Status of Independent Farmers; Status of Migrant Workers and Sharecroppers; Status of Native Americans; Size and Density of Cities; Transportation; Physical Features of Cities; Functions of Cities; Ethnic Composition and Distribution in Cities; Social Structure of Cities; Economic Conditions in Cities; Politics in Cities; Municipal Services in Cities. Review your notes and readings and prepare the chart for homework. Then discuss your findings with the class.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

America, No. 8 "Money on the Land," a filmstrip with cassette produced by Time-Life Films, Multi-Media Division, 1973. The teacher's guide accompanying the set contains the text and suggestions for use. To use this filmstrip as part of the section on urbanization, it should be approached from the point of view of the relation of industrialization to the growth of the cities.

The American Experience, 20 portfolios produced by The Smithsonian Institution and Scholastic Book Services, 1975. Each portfolio contains 50 reproductions (most are 11" x 14") of posters, photographs, documents, paintings, sculptures, etc. that can be used as starting points for discussion, research, etc. Each also contains a teaching guide with instructional ideas and a background text on the topic.

"America Builds" The visuals cover architecture, engineering, and design from about 1890-1950. They cover major architects such as Hunt, Richardson, Sullivan, and Wright, designers such as Norman Bel Geddes, Raymond Loewy, and others. Significant bridges, dams, and machines are illustrated.

"A Nation of Cities" This portfolio covers urban growth from about 1890-1930, illustrating the physical city, plans, parks, buildings, roads, and major urban institutions such as libraries and museums.

"Rural America" This portfolio covers farms, small towns, family life, churches, the effect of man on the land, ideals vs. reality, and the demands of daily farm routine, and the rewards.

The Black Odyssey: Migration to the Cities, Part I "Moving Up North," a filmstrip with record produced by Guidance Associates, Pleasantville, New York, 1970. This filmstrip explains the mass migration of blacks to the cities that occurred between 1880 and 1920. View the filmstrip in class after instructing the students to take notes. The questions on page 17-19 of the teacher's guide may be used as a guide to discussion. The teacher should also consult the teacher's guide for suggestions for activities. Activity option 2 might be especially useful in this section.

Immigrant America, Part I "The Immigrants Arrive: 1903-1913," a filmstrip with cassette produced by Sunburst Communications, Pound Ridge, New York 10576, 1974. This filmstrip is based primarily on the photography of Lewis Hine, a reformer of the early twentieth century who sought to illustrate the need for social change by the use of his camera. Hine developed a humanist art which is highly interpretative in his photographic work. Students might be asked to view the filmstrip, choose one or more of Hine's photographs and compose a story which would illustrate problems immigrants faced in adjusting to a "new world."

Indians of North America, 5 filmstrips and 5 cassettes produced by The National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C. 20036, 1973.

"The Plains," "The Eastern Woodlands," and "West of the Shining Mountains" These three filmstrips will provide students with a wealth of information pointing out differences among groups of Indians, which in part may help dispel stereotypes developed from the media which used the lifestyle of the Plains Indian as the major focus in their films. A study guide is enclosed which provides key discussion questions. (The New York Times filmstrip The First Americans is a useful tool which can provide some of the same information though not in quite as much detail.)

"Indians Today" is a good source for current material on Native Americans. The filmstrip set includes a guide with questions.

Migration North and Urban Conflict, a cassette produced by the Center for Cassette Studies. Side 2 of this cassette examines the problems faced by blacks in entering the labor market after the Civil War. Discussion of the tape is most appropriate for individuals or small groups and should include the following points. Compare the opportunities of blacks and whites in the job market. To what extent did federal legislation protect the black man's right to work? Explain. Discuss the role of the black and white woman in the labor force in the 1890's and the effect that had on the family. Explain the problems faced by the blacks in the North as they tried to enter the labor force. To what extent were blacks affected by labor unions from 1870-1910? Explain the A.F.L.'s policy on racial discrimination in the 1880's. What solutions would you recommend to remedy employment problems faced by the blacks?

North From Mexico, a film produced by Greenwood Press, 51 Riverside Avenue, Westport, Conn. 06880, 1971. Color, 21 minutes. Based on the book by Cary McWilliams, this film is a good survey of Mexican-American heritage from the days of Spanish exploration to the United Farm Workers movement. It deals with Spanish-Indian relations, religious conversions, architecture, folklore, Mexican-American relations, exploitation, farm labor and union organization, and La Raza.

Return to the Barrio, a cassette produced by the Center for Cassette Studies. This tape discusses the stereotypes held by the Anglo culture about Mexican-Americans and the Chicano reaction and action to break down these stereotypes. Discussion of the tape is most appropriate for individuals or small groups and should include answers to the following questions. How can you account for the Chicano's experience of self-rejection? To what extent is there blame placed on the educational community?

Yo Soy Chicano, a film distributed by Indiana University, Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, Indiana 47401, 1972. Color, 59 minutes. This film is a good blend of history and current issues. In its presentation, the film alternates between periods of history (beginning with the development of Indo-Hispanic Civilization) and related contemporary issues and events (e.g. goals and methods of United Farm Workers). Historically the film covers early Indian-Spanish culture, Mexican independence, Texas independence, Mexican-American War, 1910 Mexican Revolution, the 1930's depression, World War II, and the Vietnam era. It examines Mexican-American issues and events such as farm worker organizations, political organization, exploitation of Chicanos, justice, and the Chicano land claims.

IV. IMPERIALISM AND WORLD POWER

A. Factors Influencing the Position of the U. S. as a World Power

1. The EXPLOITATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES led to an increase in the economic, military, and political power of the U. S.

2. THE REPUBLICAN PARTY embodied the intellectual persuasion of latter-day Hamiltonians who perceived a new role for the U. S. in world politics.

3. The ROOTS OF IMPERIALISM may be traced to influential groups that shared the same objectives but whose rationale differed. Influential politicans who saw the "large policy" of the U. S. patterned their ideas concerning foreign policy on Great Britain. Other Americans perceived the foreign policy role of the U. S. as a mission to spread civilization. American business, in its ever increasing productive capacity, demanded virgin markets for manufactured goods.

4. ANTI-IMPERIALIST SENTIMENTS were embodied in the Liberal-Democratic tradition of the Cleveland administration. The idea that the U. S. could maintain colonies to some seemed unconstitutional. They felt that liberty and self-rule (determination) had to follow the flag.

5. The U. S. viewed with awe and envy the GROWTH OF IMPERIALISM IN EUROPE. Great Britain was identified with the attempt to encircle the U. S. from Canada to Latin America. Prominent Americans believed that the "blood and iron" pronouncements of Imperial Germany were a prelude to an inevitable armed conflict and that the Pacific expansion of Japan was the first step of the inevitable procession toward war.

B. Foreign Policy Between 1880 and 1920

1. The U. S. withdrawal from world affairs was not due to the lack of ADVOCATES OF AGGRESSIVENESS. William Seward advocated intervention in Korea, acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands, and intervention in the Caribbean. Other expansionists argued for intervention in the Cuban rebellion 1868-78, the securing of a naval base in Samoa in the 1870's, and the grabbing of naval harbors in Haiti during the 1880's.

2. The OPPONENTS OF IMPERIALISM AND EXPANSION argued the policy of Continentalism. It was against American principles to govern without the consent of the governed. The U. S. should abstain from foreign entanglement, avoid large naval commitments and expenditures, and abstain from absorbing people of alien race and tradition.

3. In the early 1890's a NEW MARTIAL SPIRIT in America found expression in a succession of chauvinistic outbursts: "jingoism" it was called.

a. War with Chile over the death of two U.S. seamen was narrowly averted when Chile capitulated with apologies and indemnities.

b. The U.S. became involved in a boundary dispute between great Britain and Venezuela when this action of Great Britain was misconstrued as an attack on the Monroe Doctrine.

c. The continuing question of the annexation of Hawaii was finally resolved with the capitulation of "Queen Lil" and the signing of a treaty of annexation in 1897.

d. The U.S. had been sympathetic but strictly neutral during the early Cuban revolution, but in the 1890's the U.S. gave increasing support to the rebels (and initiated the Spanish-American War). America had little sympathy for Spain and its culture, and many Americans believed in the "Black Legend." Spanish troops were accused of committing atrocities. American businessmen had increased investments there, and America's new determination to become the dominant Caribbean power made events in Cuba of vital concern to Washington. The "yellow press" of William Randolph Hearst's Journal and Joseph Pulitzer's World helped to stir up the interventionist frenzy.

e. The treaty with Spain committed the U.S. to open imperialism in the Far East and the Caribbean. Before the treaty was concluded, far-sighted anti-imperialists prognosticated difficulties in the Pacific. Justification and ratification of the treaty was based upon the moralistic line of McKinley--duty, destiny, humanitarianism, and religious mission.

f. To prevent the threatened partition of China, the U.S. issued the "Open Door" policy, which became the extension of U.S. foreign policy in East Asia based on economic concerns.

g. The election of 1900, which pitted McKinley against Bryan, became a popular referendum on imperialism. Empire was a fait accompli that was no longer a danger to the tradition of the U.S. Citizens of the U.S. did not like the war being waged against Emilio Aquinaldo and his Filipino patriots, but people felt that peace had to be restored. McKinley's economic policies had little to do with the return of prosperity to the U.S. economy, but he was billed as the advance agent of prosperity.

4. During the first decade of the twentieth century, more and more Americans, including those who considered themselves progressive, subscribed to the new doctrine of MANIFEST DESTINY which held that the duty of a strong nation was imposing civilization and justice in the backward territories it ruled.

a. In the Insular cases of 1900 and 1901, the Supreme Court held that inhabitants of the recently acquired American empire were not American citizens and did not have a right to the liberties guaranteed by the Constitution.

b. The inability of Theodore Roosevelt and his associates to understand the urgency in sentiments for self-government among subject peoples made American policy, as it developed, essentially indistinguishable from the imperialism of European powers.

c. Stretching his constitutional authority to its limits, Roosevelt intervened to preserve stability and American hegemony which he believed would guarantee justice. The Monroe Doctrine told Europe to stay out of the Americas; the Roosevelt Corollary asserted that America had the right to move in. From the war with Spain until the outbreak of World War II, the building and defense of a canal linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans became one of the chief objectives of American foreign policy. Roosevelt recognized that world order depended upon restraint and on the shifting balance of European power. He disapproved of Taft's Dollar Diplomacy and urged Americans to abandon commercial competition with the Japanese over China.

5. During the second decade of the 20th century under the WILSON ADMINISTRATION, the forces of moral principle and material power were forged to create a new international order.

a. Wilson and Bryan placed their hope for peace on international moral law rather than a system of defensive or deterrent military building.

b. Wilson attempted to remove the onus of "dollar diplomacy" by removing the U.S. from China's internal affairs and by being the first major power to recognize the new Republic of China. And Bryan reaffirmed his commitment to long-standing national policies when he warned Japan that their extraordinary twenty-one demands on China would violate the intent of the Open Door Policy.

c. Despite Wilson's effort to abandon "dollar diplomacy" in Latin America, a combination of circumstances made moral diplomacy difficult if not impossible. And his policy of "watchful waiting" in the Mexican Revolution was almost destroyed when he impulsively ordered the U.S. Navy to seize Vera Cruz.

d. Wilson, in defining American war aims in idealistic terms, helped transform the fervor of progressivism into the selfless bravery of the "great crusade" of the war to end all wars. But his objectives for a liberal peace conflicted with the attitudes of many Americans who wanted protective tariffs, resisted internationalism, and demanded revenge on Germany, and with the Allies, who demanded severe reparations from Germany.

e. In the Congressional election of 1918, Republicans gained control of both houses of Congress because Voters repudiated Wilson's request to vote Democratic if they approved his foreign policy. And Harding's rejection of the League of Nations and the Treaty of Versailles marked the return of an isolationist mood in government.

C. Domestic Politics and Foreign Policy

1. The U.S., enjoying the prerogative of geopolitical security, engaged in HEATED DISPUTES WITH MAJOR WORLD POWERS in which U.S. threats and boasts were out of proportion to her military strength. Major political parties engaged in anti-British campaigns to carry the favor of Irish immigrants. Naval influence in Congress promoted the annexation of Samoa, which was rejected by the Hayes Administration in 1878 as unconstitutional.

2. American INTERVENTION IN CUBA and the subsequent SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR were the result of internally frustrated impulses. Social protest and humanitarian reform set the tone of one group of interventionists, those who preached Populism, utopianism, the new Social Gospel, and radical labor movements. The second group, comprised of the big-navy advocates, the patriotic societies and the imperialists, embraced the impulses of self-expression, aggressiveness, and expansion.

3. THE ANNEXATION OF HAWAII AND THE PHILIPPINES represented the dramatic turnout of the historic tradition against acquisition of territories outside the Continental limits. To the militarists, Hawaii became synonomous with the first line of defense against Japan in the Pacific. Religionists interpreted Hawaiian annexation as "imperialism of righteousness." Another justification for the annexation was the assumption of the "White Man's Burden" to civilize and sanitize "heathens." And Hawaii was to become the first step to world trade domination and the expansion of production at home.

4. Teddy Roosevelt's positive attitude toward MILITARY STRENGTH AND PREPAREDNESS was manifest by his foreign policy. The Gentleman's Agreement preserved diplomatic relations between the U.S. and Japan and was indicative of Roosevelt's fight against the "yellow peril" sentiments displayed in California. A fact-finding commission was established in 1907 to side-step the immediate issue of the restriction of immigration and the impact on world affairs this action would have. The dishonorable discharge of black troops involved in a riot in Brownsville, Texas, was motivated by discipline and morale rather than racism. But in dealing with Latin America, Roosevelt's foreign policy was impervious and heavy handed. And Anglo-Saxons of old stock were urged to increase their birthrate to combat the growing numbers of immigrants.

5. Wilson and Bryan felt that they had a MISSION TO TEACH SEMI-LITERATE COUNTRIES to live according to the kind of legal and constitutional system that existed in the U.S. Yet they failed to provide moral leadership at home. Little effort was made by the Administration to dissuade California politicians from passing anti-Japanese legislation. The Southern prejudices of the Administration led to increasing segregation within federal service. The proponents of "Americanism" attempted to pass laws that would restrict immigration based on literacy. Munitions sabotage was blamed on

Irish-American and German-American extremists. The Zimmerman telegram created a wave of anti-German sentiment, and The Committee on Public Information, in mobilizing public opinion against the Germans, helped generate sentiment against German-Americans. In response to war time requirements, blacks in increasing numbers migrated to urban ghettoes where they competed with unskilled immigrants for jobs. In the post-war years, anxieties generated by propaganda created anti-immigrant violence manifested in the Red Scare. The Republicans, and their return to "normalcy," reflected a nation's disaffection, internationalism, and progressivism.

D. The Pursuit of Advantages Without Responsibility

1. The policies pursued in LATIN AMERICA and the MIDDLE EAST were based on the economics of oil rather than an interest in progressive reform.

2. The "RED SCARE" was a reaction to the victory of the Bolsheviks within Russia.

3. At the WASHINGTON NAVAL CONFERENCE the U.S. yielded potential naval superiority in response to the economies of the Harding Administration.

4. Big business demanded high PROTECTIVE TARIFFS to combat the prospect of an avalanche of imports from a newly recovering Europe.

5. The purpose of the NEW IMMIGRATION LEGISLATION was to freeze the existing racial composition of the U.S.

6. Spawned by reaction to the war, the KU KLUX KLAN became a potent political force in the South, Midwest, and Southwest.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS &
STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Prior to 1880, the United States did not lack exponents of international expansion. Secretary of State Seward pursued expansion aggressively. How does his policy compare with present U.S. policy; is U.S. foreign policy expanding or contracting? A Diplomatic History of the American People, Bailey, pages 365-[illegible] covers Seward and the pre-1880 expansionist policy.

2. In 1898 Senator Albert J. Beveridge of Indiana delivered a speech containing the classic argument for expansion and imperialism; "new markets for our produce, new occupation for our capital, new work for labor." Are these arguments still valid or have they become obsolete in the nuclear age? You might also consider protective tariffs and their validity: Are they an economic necessity? Are they a positive or negative force in the economy in the long run? Compare United States foreign policy circa 1900 and modern United States foreign policy. Beveridge's speech can be found on pages 333-35 in To Serve The Devil, Volume 2, Jacobs, Landau, and Pell. "America's Divine Mission" in Hovenier, Perspectives in United States History, also covers the speech and U.S. foreign policy at the turn of the century.

3. Research Social Darwinism, Imperialism, and Anglo-Saxonism, and discuss how these concepts affected United States foreign policy at the turn of the century. What other factors contributed to the growth of imperialism during this period? Are any of these factors pertinent in current U.S. policies? "The Mystical Qualities of Blood" in Hovenier, Perspectives in United States History, "Inspiring the New Manifest Destiny" in Bailey, The American Pageant, and "The Rebirth of Manifest Destiny" in Bailey, A Diplomatic History of the American People, are good sources of this information.

4. Below is a list of individuals who influenced to some degree the foreign policy decisions that made the United States a force on the imperialist scene. Role-play these individuals and present their respective views on expansion, at a round table forum at which opposing views should be presented. The remaining class members can act as research assistants and/or seconds to establish a particular viewpoint. Historic accuracy and use of direct quotations should be stressed.

Aquinaldo, Emilio
Platt, Orville
Clark, Champ
Carnegie, Andrew
Lodge, Henry Cabot
Hanna, Marcus A.
Hoar, George Frisbie
Kipling, Rudyard
Wilson, Woodrow
Roosevelt, Theodore
McKinley, William
Cleveland, Grover
Bryan, William Jennings
Dewey, George
"Dooley, Mr."
Liliuokalani, Queen

5. William Jennings Bryan had tremendous impact on foreign and domestic policy as Secretary of State. Prepare a brief paper on the present Secretary of State and one of his predecessors. (Bryan's appointment and term in office are covered thoroughly in The American Pageant, Bailey, pages 731-32.)

6. The class should be divided into eight groups, each group representing one of the major colonial powers or aspiring colonial powers in the late 1800's: Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Japan. Each group should justify the colonial policy of its respective country, demonstrate its aggressive or possessive colonial tendencies, and indicate the success or failure of this policy. During each group's presentation, the remaining students should be encouraged to play devil's advocate and refute the colonial argument, preferably using the anti-imperialist arguments employed during that period. As an epilogue, groups should indicate the present colonial status of their respective countries and attempt to explain the beneficial or adverse effects associated with imperialism.

7. Research the Spanish-American War. What were the ramifications of the victory over Spain and the problems inherent in the acquisition of colonial territory? How did McKinley use foreign policy to enhance his prestige at home? Have internal and external affairs become inseparable? A good source for information on the Spanish-American War is George F. Kennan's American Diplomacy, pages 9-23. The actual conduct of the war was often barbarous and overtly racist. "A San Francisco Weekly Defends the Army" in To Serve The Devil, Volume 2 (Jacobs, Landau, and Pell), deals with atrocities against Filipino insurgents. Was the conduct of the recent war in Vietnam basically different in tone from that of the Spanish-American War? Was the Army, Lt. Calley, or the American people responsible for the My Lai Massacre? Are there overtones of racism in either action? "Songs from the Spanish-American War" in To Serve The Devil, Volume 2, contains songs that exhibit racist attitudes. Research other wars in which songs were used to denigrate the opposing forces and racism was apparent. What was the attitude toward German-Americans prior to World War I (See Levy and Renaldo, America's People, pages 106-108, and Bailey, The American Pageant, pages 777-78). Compare the severity of treatment of German-Americans (pre-World War I) and Japanese-Americans (pre-World War II).

8. Hayes' Open Door Policy was not a new and viable idea but rather one that could not be strongly supported. Discuss the idealistic intent of the policy and its actual outcome. Compare the deviation between what was said and what was done in this case with current statements on policy. "Mr. Hippisley and the Open Door" in Kennan's American Diplomacy is a good source of information on Hayes' policy.

9. There were two sides of Dollar Diplomacy: using foreign money to protect Wall Street dollars invested abroad, and using Wall Street dollars to uphold foreign policy. Is this policy relevant in current United States foreign relations? The concept of Dollar Diplomacy is explained in "The Dollar Goes Abroad as a Diplomat" in Bailey's The American Pageant.

10. Read pages 320-22 in To Serve The Devil, Volume 2, Jacobs, Landau, and Pell, and discuss the link between expansion and racism. Analyze the changes in United States foreign policy that occurred during the period covered in the readings.

11. Compare Woodrow Wilson and current political leaders. Pages 729-31 in Bailey's The American Pageant deal with Wilson's ideological background and the things that contributed to the concepts of morality and idealism he brought to the political scene.

12. Discuss Woodrow Wilson's foreign policy, his intentions and his specific actions in Latin America. Pages 739-41 and 742-46 in Bailey's The American Pageant provide information on this subject. What were the problems involved in United States intervention in the Maxican Revolution just prior to World War I? What mistakes in policy did Wilson perpetrate in the guide of idealism? Can it be said that foreign policy becomes almost uncontrollable at times?

13. Using a world atlas and a desk outline map, indicate the areas of the world in which United States influence became dominant: Samoa and the south Pacific, the Hawaiian Islands, Latin America including Caribbean Islands, the Philippines, and China.

14. Some historians feel that the Frederick Jackson Turner Thesis may be applied to the growth of imperialism, and in particular to United States intervention in Cuba, as a corollary to the closing of the western frontier. Research this thesis and prepare a report to prove or disprove the relationship.

15. "Zig-zag - to move forward uncertainly, from side to side, as one carrying the white man's burden," --Ambrose Bierce, Devil's Dictionary. What is the usual definition of "zig-zag"? What does Bierce's definition imply? Compare these definitions with the realities of United States foreign policy. Write a brief reaction paper based on the following premise: The white man was a positive/negative influence on subjugated people. What facet of the "white man's burden" is illustrated in the picture on page 679 of Hovenier, Perspectives in United States History?

16.

Pro-imperialist	Anti-imperialist
Oh, dewy was the morning, Upon the first of May And Dewey was the admiral Down in Manila Bay And dewy were the Spaniard's eyes Them orbs of black and blue, And dew we feel discouraged? I dew not think we dew.	O Dewey at Manila That fateful first of May When you sank the Spanish squadron in almost bloodless fray, And gave your name to deathless fame; O glorious Dewey, say, Why didn't you weigh anchor and softly sail away?

These poems (quoted in Wayne H. Morgan, America's Road to Empire) indicate the diversity of public opinion on the annexation of the Philippines. Analyze the poems and then compose a poem using your views on the Vietnam conflict as the subject.

17. Military preparedness does not necessarily mean military aggressiveness. Discuss the military preparedness of the United States prior to World War II. Is a militarily prepared country more or less aggressive in the world arena? "World War II" in Kennan's American Diplomacy discusses this issue; Kennan's basic premise is that military preparedness and early entry into World War II would have ended the hostilities before Europe could have been devastated.

18. The Presidency of the United States is determined by diverse factors that influence the electoral process: the number of candidates, the factionalism in major parties, the overlapping party ideologies, sectionalism, etc. Discuss the Electoral College and our methods of choosing a President. What is the implication of the fact that a President may be elected by default? What might have happened if McKinley had not been assassinated? If Roosevelt instead of Wilson had been elected in 1912? If the United States had entered the war on the side of the Central Powers rather than on that of the Allies? If Wilson had been willing to compromise on the Treaty of Versailles? If Germany had been granted a just peace in World War I? Pages 721-22 and 725-26 in Bailey's The American Pageant provide information on President Wilson's election.

19. Compile a group of newspaper articles that deal with our current foreign policy in the Middle East. What is the role of big business and what is its influence on external affairs? Put your articles in a workbook and include a summary of the role of big business in foreign policy. How is the "oil problem" of the 70's similar to the "oil problem" of the 20's?

20. After World War II, hysterical fear of "Red Russia" and of world revolution developed in the United States. What methods were employed to rid the country of alleged subversives? Is there any situation in which the civil rights of an individual should be denied? "Rousting Out the Reds," "Ferreting Out Alleged Communists," and "McCarthyism and Trial by Slander" in Bailey's The American Pageant provide information on attitudes and actions during this period.

21. What were the advantages and disadvantages of the Washington Disarmament Conference 1921-22? Does security have to come before disarmament? How does this relate to the current arms race and the validity of nuclear purity? "Profit and Loss at Washington" in Bailey's A Diplomatic History of the American People is an attempt to balance the immediate effects of the Conference and the long-term effects it had on the balance of World power.

22. Discuss the changing policies of the American government after World War I. Was there a link between internal and external affairs? How was this link related to the quota restrictions of the early 1920's? "The Closing Door" in Novotny's Strangers At The Door provides a useful discussion of changing policies.

23. Discuss the return to nativism after World War I. "The Klan Interpreted" in Levy and Renaldo's America's People deals with the objectives of the Ku Klux Klan and its methods of achieving its goals. What would the United States be like if the Klan were the dominant political force?

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

American Adventures: A Filmstrip History of the United States, Unit IV, No. 1, "The Burden of World Power," a filmstrip with record, produced by Scholastic Book Services, 904 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632, 1974. This filmstrip and record deal with the growth of the United States over the past seventy years to the role of dominant world power. The teacher's guide contains conceptual and behavioral objectives, plus a section on motivation and related activities.

The American Experience, 20 portfolios produced by The Smithsonian Institution and Scholastic Book Services, 1975. "A New World Power" This portfolio contains 50 printed reproductions (most are 11" x 14") of maps, newspaper reprints, posters, photographs, engravings, documents, paintings, blueprints, etc. that can be used as a starting point for discussion, research, etc. It also contains a teaching guide with instructional ideas and a background text. " A New World Power" covers America as a new force in war, including the Spanish-American War and World Wars I and II. The world impact of the United States through business, diplomacy, exploration, tourism are also discussed.

Mary S. McDowell (Profiles in Courage), a film produced by Robert Sandek Associates. 2 reels, 25 minutes each, distributed by I.Q. Films, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10020. This film examines freedom of conscience in wartime America: loyalty pledges, pacificism and patriotism in World War I, the rights of the majority vs. the rights of the minority, the responsibilites of the citizens and of the teacher in a national emergency. A school teacher's courage is tested when she takes a stand against the compulsory unification of opinion in a democracy.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR TEACHERS

Banks, James A., editor. Teaching Ethnic Studies: Concepts and Strategies. 43rd Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1973.

This book is a gold mine of information. The authors present new conceptual frameworks for studying about ethnic groups and for analyzing American society. They also describe promising strategies and materials. The authors are social scientists and educators who have an unrelenting commitment to social justice.

Batllé, Ana, et al. The Puerto Ricans: A Resource Unit for Teachers. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nal B'rith.

Provides a narrative background on the Puerto Rican especially in the United States. Contains also a bibliography, and audio-visual listing.

Crouchett, Lawrence P. "The Development of the Sentiment for Ethnic Studies in American Education." The Journal of Ethnic Studies. II, Winter, 1975. Pp. 77-85.

A brief examination of interest in "ethnic studies" education from colonial period to present.

Franklin, John Hope, Thomas Pettigrew and Raymond W. Mack. Ethnicity in American Life. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1971.

In this brief readable pamphlet John Hope Franklin discusses how ethnicity has been a salient feature in American history. Pettigrew discusses the social dynamics of ethnic diversity in our changing culture, and Mack assesses how entirely new ethnic groups have emerged within the growing urban setting.

Glazer, Nathan and Daniel P. Moynihan, editors. Ethnicity: Theory and Experience. Cambridge, Mass.: University Press, 1975.

Glazer, Moynihan and other writers analyze the concept of ethnicity. They explain why ethnic identity has become more salient, ethnic self-assertion stronger, and ethnic conflict more intense. The book gives the reader a broader range of preceptions, points of view, and examples.

Handlin, Oscar. Out of Many: A Study Guide to Cultural Pluralism in the United States. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1964.

This pamphlet outlines some of the central themes about cultural pluralism. References follow each section of the material.

The Journal of Ethnic Studies
Published by: The Journal of Ethnic Studies
Western Washington State College
Bellingham, Washington 98225

Subscriptions: $8.00/vol. (4 issues); single copies, $2.50.

Katz, William Loren. Teachers' Guide to American Negro History. New York: Franklin Watts, 1968.

A basic handbook for school and libraries containing bibliographic and audio-visual information, a core reference library, and a plan for integrating American history curriculums.

Kownslar, Allan O., editor. Teaching American History: The Quest for Relevancy. 44th Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1974.

Chapter 6: "What Can Be Done with Myths?" provides sample lessons including student materials on the development of the "melting pot" myth and on its validity in the case of Blacks.
Chapter 7: "What to Ask and When" provides a sample lesson on the American City in the Nineteenth Century.

Leviatin, Victor. Resource Unit on Race, Prejudice and Discrimination. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1971.

A comprehensive guide to methods and materials for teaching about race and ethnocentrism.

Muessig, Raymond H. Controversial Issues in the Social Studies: A Contemporary Perspective. 45th Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1975.

The chapter by James Banks, "Should Integration be a Societal Goal in a Pluralistic Nation?" is of some relevance to the issue of ethnic content in American life.

Nava, Julian. Mexican-Americans: A Brief Look at Their History. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1970.

This short work sketches the major themes and issues encompassed in the historical development of this significant group in our society.

Ruderman, Jerome. Jews in American History: A Teacher's Guide. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1974.

A basic handbook for schools containing bibliographic and audio-visual information, classroom projects, and a complete plan for integrating American history curriculums.

Scott, Franklin D. The Peopling of America: Perspectives on Immigration. AHA Pamphlets, No. 241. Washington: American Historical Association, 1972.

An excellent brief survey of immigration. It includes material on migration of Blacks and Puerto Ricans and on the wider perspective of European immigration which places U.S. immigration in a much larger world context. Contains a good bibliographic essay.

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A. Ethnic Groups and Ethnic History

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Ames, William C. The Negro Struggle for Equality in the Twentieth Century. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1965.

Amfitheatrof, Erik. The Children of Columbus: An Informal History of the Italians in the New World. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1973.

Anderson, Charles H. White Protestant Americans: From National Origins to Religious Groups. (Ethnic Groups in American Life.) Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

Examines particular northern European groups as well as social, religious and political activities in the United States. Provides an overview of the WASP average reading ability.

Andrews, Edward Deming. The People Called Shakers. New York: Dorci Publications Inc., 1963.

Babín, María Teresa. The Puerto Ricans' Spirit: Their History, Life and Culture. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1971.

Bergman, Peter M. The Chronological History of the Negro. New York: The New American Library, 1969.

Brown, Dee. Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Very useful for Indian versions of American white relationships. Material on Chief Joseph Geronimo and Wounded Knee is useful for this time period, 1877-1920.

Bryant, Andrew. The Italians: How They Live and Work. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, 1968.

Burma, John H. Mexican-Americans in the United States. Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Company, Inc., 1970.

Butcher, Margaret Just. The Negro in American Culture. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1968.

Butwin, Frances. The Jews in America. (In America Series). Minneapolis: Lerner Publications Co., 1969.

Good information for slower groups.

Cahn, Edgar S., and David W. Hearne. Our Brother's Keeper: The Indian in White America. New York: New Community Press, Inc., 1970.

Castro, Tony. Chicano Power. New York: Saturday Review Press, 1974.

Chu, Daniel and Samuel. Passage to the Golden Gate. New York: Zenith Books, Inc., 1967.

A good source for slower readers on the Chinese in American to 1910.

Coles, Robert. Children of Crisis, Volume I: A Study of Courage and Fear. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1967.

Coles, Robert. Migrants, Sharecroppers, Mountaineers, Volume II of Children of Crisis. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1967.

Coles, Robert. The South Goes North, Volume III of Children of Crisis. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1967.

Colton, Calvin. Manual for Emigrants to America. (The American Immigration Collection). New York: Arno Press, 1969.

Coolidge, Mary Roberts. Chinese Immigration. New York: Arno Press, 1969.

Cooper, Paulette. Growing Up Puerto Rican. New York: The New American Library, Inc., 1973.

Cordasco, Francesco, editor. The Puerto Ricans: 1493-1973. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, 1973.

Good for a time line.

Cox, William. Chicano Cruz. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1972.

Cutler, Charles L. and George P. Morill. Land of Immigrants. Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1974.

Chronicles of American Indian Protest. (Edited by the Council of Interracial Books for Children). Greenwich, Conn: Fawcett Co., 1971.

Provides excellent documentary information on Native Americans. Interesting reading. Covers early history 1600's to present.

DeConde, Alexander. Half Bitter, Half Sweet--An Excursion into Italian-American History. New York: Charles Scribners Sons, 1971.

Presents the effects of the Italian immigration on Americans and Italian immigrants with particular emphasis on the political, economic and cultural ramifications.

Deloria, Vine Jr. Custer Died for Your Sins. New York: Macmillan Co., 1969.

Provides several excellent chapters on government policy regarding Native Americans.

Dennis, Henry, editor. The American Indian: 1492-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, 1971.

Good on government policies, specific events. For average to high groups.

Dowdell, Dorothy and Joseph. The Chinese Helped Build America. New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1972.

Drake, St. Clair and Horace R. Clayton. Black Metropolis: A Study of Negro Life in a Northern City, Volume 1. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1962.

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Elseman, Alberta. From Many Lands. New York: Atheneum, 1970.

Elseman, Alberta. Manana is Now: The Spanish-Speaking in the United States. New York: Atheneum, 1973.

A brief history of the Cubans, Puerto Ricans and Mexicans in the U.S. Concentrates more on today.

Elgin, Kathleen. The Mormons. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1969.

Feldstein, Stanley. The Poisoned Tongue: A Documentary History of American Racism and Prejudice. New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1972.

Finkelstein, Milton, Jawn A. Sandifer, and Elfreda S. Wright. Minorities: U.S.A. New York: Globe Book Company, Inc., 1971.

Fitzpatrick, Joseph. Puerto Rican American: The Meaning of Migration to the Mainland. (Ethnic Groups in American Life Series). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Good for average to high groups.

Flannery, Edward H. The Anguish of the Jews. New York: Macmillan Co., 1964.

An interesting study of historical and current anti-Semitism from the view of a Catholic priest.

Forbes, Jack D., editor. The Indian in America's Past. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

Using actual speeches and quotes, this book shows the negative and positive attitudes toward Indians throughout American history.

Frazier, E. Franklin. The Negro Family in the United States. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967.

Furer, Howard B. The British in America: 1578-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1972.

Furer, Howard B. The Germans in America: 1607-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1973.

Furer, Howard B. The Scandinavians in America: 986-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1972.

Galarza, Ernesto et al. Mexican Americans in the Southwest. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1970.

Gambino, Richard. Blood of My Blood. New York: Anchor Books, 1974.

Presents the Southern Italian view of the acculturation and assimilation experience in America. Very readable and important source for Italian-American value system and key concepts in their heritage which has been significant in their experiences in America. Average reading ability.

Gans, Herbert J. The Urban Villagers: Group and Class in the Life of Italian-Americans. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

Garcia, Ernest F. and George Shaftel. Mexican-American Heritage. Belmont, Calif: Fearon Publishers, 1972.

A brief history of Mexican-Americans going back to indigenous populations in Mexico. Good for slow groups.

Gay, Ruth. Jews in America: A Short History. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965.

Glazer, Nathan and Daniel P. Moynihan. Beyond the Melting Pot. 2nd Edition. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1970.

A study of the Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Jews, Italians, and Irish of New York City. The authors make the point that the melting pot did not happen in New York City. The book discusses the differing levels of achievement of the five groups--in education, business, and politics. It shows how cultural inhibitions and reinforcements have affected school performance, choice of career, recreation patterns, choice of neighborhood, political action, and attitudes toward other ethnic groups.

Goldstein, Sidney and Calvin Goldscheider. Jewish Americans: Three Generations in a Jewish Community. (Ethnic Groups in American Life Series). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.

Very good on acculturation and assimilation. Good cultural background and information.

Gonzales, Juan and Peter Quinn. Two Blocks Apart. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Goro, Herb. The Block. New York: Random House, 1970.

Greenleaf, Barbara Kaye. America Fever: The Story of American Immigration. New York: Four Winds Press, 1970.

Greeley, Andrew M. Why Can't They Be Like Us? New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1971.

Griffin, William D. The Irish in America: 550-1972. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1973.

Grossman, Ronald P. The Italians In America. (In America Series). Minneapolis: Lerner Publications Company, 1966.

Hagan, William T. The Indian in American History. Virginia: The William Byrd Press, Inc., 1971.

Handlin, Oscar. American Jews: Their Story. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, Sixth edition, 1976.

Handlin, Oscar. The American People in the 20th Century. Boston: Beacon, 1963.

A comprehensive study of immigration waves in America from the 17th to 19th centuries and of their aftermath. Examines the pattern of these movements, their ethnic content and places of settlement; the problems of Jewish, German, Irish and Italian Americans are analyzed.

Handlin, Oscar. Children of the Uprooted. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1971.

Handlin, Oscar. The Newcomers: Negroes and Puerto Ricans in a Changing Metropolis. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1962.

Handlin, Oscar. The Uprooted. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1951.

Hartmann, Edward G. A History of American Immigration. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967.

Hayden, Robert C. Black in America. Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1971.

Hentoff, et al. Black Anti-Semitism and Jewish Racism. New York: Schocken Books, 1970.

Herman, Masako. The Japanese in America: 1843-1973. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1974.

Hernandez, Luis F. A Forgotten American: A Resource Unit. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1971.

Higham, John. Send These to Me: Jews and Other Immigrants in Urban America. New York: Atheneum, 1975.

This book traces the immigrants' role in the general framework of American history and society, and focuses on the immigrant Jew and American anti-Semitism. For teachers and better students.

Higham, John. Strangers in the Land: Patterns of American Nativism, 1860-1925. New York: Atheneum, 1969.

Especially valuable for teachers. Explains in depth ideological patterns.

Hoff, Rhoda. America's Immigrants: Adventures in Eyewitness History. New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1967.

Hosokawa, Bill. Nisei: The Quiet Americans. New York: William Morrow, 1969.

Very good history of the Japanese Americans.

Houston, Jeanne Wakatsuki and James D. Houston. Farewell to Manzanar. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973.

Hsu, Kai-yu and Palumbinskas, Helen. Asian-American Authors. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972.

Hughes, Helen MacGill, editor. Racial and Ethnic Relations (SRSS Series). Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1970.

Presents a variety of interpretations on key racial and ethnic issues including identification, integration, social and economic relationships, with emphasis on particular minority groups.

Huthmacher, J. Joseph. A Nation of Newcomers. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1967.

Iorizzo, Luclano and Salvatore Mondello. The Italian-Americans. (The Immigrant Heritage of America Series). New York: Twayne Publishers, 1971.

Good information especially on the Padrone and crime.

Irwin, Leonard B. Minorities in Our Society. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1972.

Isaacs, Stephen D. Jews and American Politics. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1974.

Jacobs, Paul, Saul Landau, and Eve Pell. To Serve the Devil, Vol. 1 and 2, New York: Vintage Books, 1971.

Discusses the history of racism for most major ethnic groups in America--uses facts and case histories. Very good.

Jones, Claire. The Chinese In America. (In America Series). Minnesota: Lerner Publications Company, 1972.

Jones, Jayne Clark. American Indian in America, Volume II: Early 19th Century to the Present. Minnesota: Lerner Publications Co., 1973.

Jordan, Winthrop D. White Over Black: American Attitudes Toward the Negro 1550-1812. Maryland: Penguin Books, Inc., 1969.

Josephy, Alvin M., Jr. The Indian Heritage of America. New York: Bantam Books, 1975.

Kahn, E. J. Jr. The American People: The Findings of the 1970 Census. New York: Weybright and Talley, 1974.

Karp, Deborah. Heroes of American Jewish History. New York: KTAV, 1973.

Kennedy, John F. A Nation of Immigrants. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964.

Kim, Hyung-Chan, and Wayne Patterson. The Koreans in America: 1882-1974. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1974.

Kitano, Harry H. L. Japanese Americans: The Evolution of a Subculture. (Ethnic Groups in American Life). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.

Kung, S. W. Chinese in American Life: Some Aspects of Their History, Status, Problems, and Contributions. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1962.

La Dumina, S. L. and F. J. Cavaioli. The Ethnic Dimension in American Society. Boston: Holbrook Press, 1974.

The central theme of this book is that the American experience can be understood through a study of immigrants and ethnic minorities. It relies heavily on primary source documents that view the American social fabric through the eyes, ears, travail, and writings of American ethnic groups. The readings are woven together into a narrative that explains the reason for inclusion of each article and its place in the nation's historical, social and political setting.

Larsen, Ronald. The Puerto Ricans in America. (In America Series). Minneapolis: Lerner Publications Company, 1973.

Good for slower groups.

Latham, Frank B. The Rise and Fall of "Jim Crow," 1865-1964. New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1969.

Learsi, Rufus. The Jews in America: A History. New York: KTAV, new edition, 1975.

Leather, Noel L. The Japanese in America. (In America Series). Minneapolis: Lerner Publications Company, 1967.

Lee, Rose Hum. The Chinese in the United States of America. New York: Oxford University Press, 1960.

Leinwand, Gerald. Minorities All. New York: Washington Square Press, 1971.

Levy, Eugene and John Renaldo. America's People. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1975.

A collection of readings, often first-hand accounts, grouped topically about the experiences of the many peoples who make up the United States. There are selections covering most ethnic groups from the colonial period to the present.

Lewis, Oscar. La Vida. New York: Random House, 1965.

Lincoln, C. Eric. The Negro Pilgrimage in America. New York: Bantam Books, 1967.

Loeb, Robert H. Jr. The Sins of Bias. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1970.

Logan, Rayford W. and Irving S. Cohen. The American Negro. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1967.

Lopreato, Joseph. Italian Americans. New York: Random House, Inc., 1970.

A good analysis of the problems of Italians becoming Americanized.

Ludwig, Ed and James Santibanez. The Chicanos. Maryland: Penguin Books, Inc., 1973.

Madsen, William. Mexican-Americans of South Texas. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

A good case study, perhaps a little dated now, but good information on traditional cultural norms. For average or above classes.

Mangione, Jerre. America is Also Italian. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1969.

Mann, Arthur. Immigrants in American Life. Hopewell, N.J.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1968.

Martínez, Al. Rising Voices. New York: The New American Library, Inc., 1974.

Martínez, Elizabeth Sutherland and Enriquita Longeaux Vasquez. Viva La Raza! New York: Doubleday & Company, 1974.

McCuen, Gary E. The Racist Reader: Analyzing Primary Source Readings by American Race Supremacists. Anoka, Minn.: Greenhaven Press, 1974.

Meltzer, Milton. In Their Own Words: A History of the Negro American. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1965.

Miller, John C. This New Man, the American. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1974.

Mohr, Nicholasa. Nilda. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1973.

Momaday, Natachee Scott. American Indian Authors. Hopewell, N.J.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972.

Highly recommended. Contains excellent material by Indian authors about reservation life, Indian-white conflict, today's Indian.

Montalvo, David, Alida Deguera, Marcos Ledée and Eleanor Sandstrom. The Puerto Ricans: A Brief Look at Their History. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1974.

A good short history of Puerto Rico.

Moore, Joan W. and Alfredo Cuéllar. Mexican Americans. (Ethnic Groups in American Life Series). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Very good! Includes a history of Mexico, Catholic Church, immigrants, etc.

Moquin, Wayne. A Documentary History of the Mexican Americans. New York: Praeger, 1971.

Good for research material covering 1536-1970 events.

Moquin, Wayne, editor. Makers of America Series (10 volumes). Encyclopedia Britannica Educational Corporation, 1971.

The ten volumes of this series contain some 731 "documents"--in the broadest sense--by nearly as many different authors, reflecting the ethnic diversity of the United States.

Morrow, E. Frederic. Way Down South Up North. Philadelphia: United Church Press, 1973.

Morse, Samuel F. B. Imminent Dangers to the Free Institutions of the United States Through Foreign Immigration. (American Immigration Collection). New York: Arno Press, 1969.

Myrdal, Gunnar. An American Dilemma, Volume 1: The Negro in A White Nation. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

Nash, Gary B. and Richard Weiss. The Great Fear: Race in the Mind of America. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.. 970.

Nash, Roderick. The Call of the Wind 1900-1916. New York: George Braziller, 1970.

Nava, Julian. Mexican-Americans Today: In Search of Opportunity. Connecticut Xerox Corporation, 1973.

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Neidle, C. S. The New Americans. New York: Twayne Publishers, Inc., 1967.

Noar, Gertrude. Sensitizing Teachers to Ethnic Groups. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1971.

Novak, Michael. The Rise of the Unmeltable Ethnics. New York: Macmillan, 1972.

The author speaks on behalf of the millions of lower middle-class whites frequently from ethnic backgrounds: Poles, Italians, Greeks, and Slavs. He believes these people hold the key to social change but have been overlooked as a political force by the WASP "superculture." Most of the attention is on the 1960's and 1970's.

Novotny, Ann. Strangers at the Door. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1971.

This is a very readable book which covers the history of immigration to America, placing emphasis on the time period 1880-1924. It has excellent photographs and interesting accounts of working and living conditions 1880-1920.

Osofsky, Gilbert. Harlem: The Making of a Ghetto. New York: Harper & Row, 1968.

This book contains a thorough study of the process by which Harlem was transformed from a genteel suburban community in 1890 to an emerging black slum by 1920. It does an excellent job of analyzing the forces which caused a dramatic change in this community. It would be especially useful as a source of information for the teacher or an interested student.

Paredes, Américo and Raymund. Mexican-American Authors. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972.

Pinkney, Alphonso. Black Americans. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.; 1975.

Prago, Albert. Strangers in Their Own Land: A History of Mexican-Americans. New York: Four Winds Press, 1973.

Rendow, Armando B. Chicano Manifesto. New York: Collier Books, 1971.

Traces the historical development of the Mexican role in U.S. history to the current philosophy of La Raza.

Rischin, Moses. The Promised City: New York's Jews, 1870-1914. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

Rose, Arnold. The Negro in America. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1964.

Scheiner, Seth M. Negro Mecca: A History of the Negro in New York City 1865-1920. New York: New York University Press, 1965.

Schweitzer, Frederick M. A History of the Jews Since the First Century A.D. New York: Macmillan, 1971.

Selzer, Michael, editor. Kike, A Documentary History of Anti-Semitism in America. (The Ethnic Prejudice in America Series). New York: World Publishing, 1972.

A good analysis of why there was anti-Semitism in America, illustrated with actual speeches, government acts, case histories, and cartoons.

Senior, Clarence. The Puerto Ricans: Strangers--Then Neighbors. New York: Franklin Watts, 1965.

Good on history and change in attitudes and values.

Severn, Bill. Ellis Island: The Immigrant Years. New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1971.

Servin, Manuel. An Awakened Minority: The Mexican-Americans. California: Glencoe, 1974.

A full history of Mexican Americans with case histories.

Shippen, Katherine B. Passage to America. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1950.

Simmen, Edward, editor. The Chicano. New York: Mentor Books, 1971.

Excellent source of short story material on the Mexican-American as viewed by Anglo-Americans. Broken into time periods 1869 to present. Contains stories by such celebrated authors as Bret Harte, Jack London, and John Steinbeck which present the Mexican-American as an individual caught in a social order that demands that he adjust to the "way of life" of Anglo-Americans.

Simmen, Edward. Pain and Promise: The Chicano Today. New York: The New American Library, 1972.

Sinkler, George. The Racial Attitudes of the American Presidents from Abraham Lincoln to Theodore Roosevelt. New York: Doubleday and Company, 1972.

Sloan, Irving J. Blacks in America: 1492-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, 1971.

Sloan, Irving, editor. The Jews in America: 1621-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, 1971.

Good for a historical perspective, average to high groups.

Smit, Pamela and J. W. Smit. The Dutch in America: 1609-1970. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1972.

Spangler, Earl. The Negro in America. (In America Series). Minneapolis: Lerner Publications Company, 1971.

Stalvey, Lois Mark. The Education of a WASP. New York: Bantam Books, 1971.

Steiner, Stan. La Raza: The Mexican Americans. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

Good snapshots of what it is to be a Mexican American in the Southwest, with a detailed account of "brown power." Good for average to above average readers.

Stensland, Anna Lee. Literature By and About the American Indian: An Annotated Bibliography. Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1974.

Sung, Betty Lee. Mountain of Gold. New York: Macmillan Co., 1967.

Traces the position of the Chinese in America from the Gold Rush to the present.

Taeuber, Karl E. and Alma F. Negroes in Cities. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1965.

Tebel, John and Ramón E. Ruiz. South By Southwest: The Mexican-American and His Heritage. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1969.

Traverso, Edmund. Immigration: A Study in American Values. Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1964.

Tripp, Eleanor B. To America. New York: Harcourt, Brace, & World, Inc., 1969.

Trueblood, D. Elton. The People Called Quakers. New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

Tung, William L. The Chinese in America: 1820-1973. (Ethnic Chronology Series). New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1974.

Wade, Richard C. The Negro in American Life. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1965.

Wagenheim, Karl with Olga Jimenez. The Puerto Ricans: A Documentary History. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1973.

Wagenheim, Karl, editor. Puerto Rico: A Profile. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1970.

A good, involved, documented history, probably best for average to high groups.

Wagley, Charles and Marvin Harris. Six Case Studies: Minorities in the World. New York: Columbia University Press, 1967.

Washburn, Wilcomb E. The Indian in America. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1975.

Wax, Murray L. Indian Americans: Unity and Diversity. (Ethnic Groups in American Life Series). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.

Werstein, Irving. Massacre at Sand Creek. New York: Scribner, 1963.

Provides interesting account of unprovoked attack of white soldiers upon an Indian village and the legal aftermath of this action.

Wheeler, Thomas C. The Immigrant Experience. New York: The Dial Press, 1971.

Wittke, Carl. We Who Built America. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939.

Wu, Cheng-Tsu. "Chink!" A Documentary History of Anti-Chinese Prejudice in America. (The Ethnic Prejudice in America Series). New York: World Publishing, 1972.

A good analysis of why there was prejudice against the Chinese throughout American history, illustrated with actual speeches, Congressional Acts, and case histories.

Yinger, Milton J. A Minority Group in American Society. New York. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965.

Ziegler, Benjamin Munn. Immigration: An American Dilemma. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1953.

B. General History

Bailey, Thomas A. The American Pageant. Fourth Edition. Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath, 1971.

A standard United States history textbook.

Bragdon, Henry W., Samuel P. McCutchen and Charles W. Cole. History of a Free People. New York: Macmillan, 1973.

A standard United States history textbook.

Bromwell, William J. History of Immigration to the United States. (The American Immigration Collection). New York: The Arno Press, 1969.

Callow, Alexander B. Jr., editor. American Urban History. New York: Oxford University Press, 1969.

This book contains selected readings about urbanization throughout American history. It would be best used as a supplementary reference for the teacher or the exceptional student.

Cochran, Thomas C. and William Miller. The Age of Enterprise: A Social History of Industrial America. New York: Harper & Row, 1961.

Cordasco, Francesco, editor. Jacob Riis Revisited. New York: Doubleday & Co., 1968.

Stories by Jacob Riis on the horrible living and working conditions in New York 1880-1910. Included are photographs.

Couperie, Pierre and Maurice C. Horn. A History of the Comic Strip. New York: Crown Publishers, Inc., 1968.

A concise history of the cartoon and comic strip in America. Shows historical application and origins of various forms.

Degler, Carl N. Out of Our Past: The Forces that Shaped Modern America. Revised Edition. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

Survey of American history with emphasis on events and developments usually ignored or subordinated in standard accounts of American history . For example, the history of the Negro, the rise and influence of the city, and the beginnings of American nationality in the colonial period receive extended discussion.

Diamond, Sigmund. The Nation Transformed. New York: George Braziller, 1963.

Foner, Philip S. From Colonial Times to the Founding of American Federation of Labor. New York: International Publishers, 1962.

Frazier, Thomas R. The Underside of American History: Other Readings. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1973.

Handlin, Oscar. The Americans: A New History of the People of the United States. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1963.

Handlin, Oscar, editor. Immigration as a Factor in American History. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1959.

Collection of sources on subjects such as: Old World background, economic adjustment, immigrant organizations, politics, cultural contributions, concepts of Americanization, and immigrant restriction.

Hovenier, Peter J., Frederick Rosentreter, Willard Gandy, Ruth Anderson, Irwin Weaver. Perspectives in United States History. San Francisco: Field Educational Publications, 1971.

A United States history textbook organized chronologically through Reconstruction and topically thereafter. The topics are: politics, foreign affairs, the economy, the city, and values.

Iman, Raymond and Thomas Koch. Labor in American Society. Glenview, Ill.: Scott Foresman, 1965.

Good case histories of the working man throughout American history.

Keller, Morton. The Art and Politics of Thomas Nast. New York: Oxford University Press, 1968.

A compilation of Nast's better known cartoons from the Gilded Age with analysis.

Kelley, Robert. The Shaping of the American Past. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

A comprehensive American history text with the main focus on the political struggle of each era. Does a much better job than most texts in introducing ethnic content. It weaves in blacks, women, American Indians, workers and farmers, European immigrants, Mexican-Americans--all receive close attention in this book. Very good for reference.

Kwait, Joseph J. and Mary C. Turpie, editors. Studies in American Culture. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960.

McKelvey, Blake. The Urbanization of America: 1860-1915. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1963.

This book contains a thorough study of urbanization in the period covered by this unit. It is an excellent reference for both teacher and student.

Pease, Otis, editor. The Progressive Years. New York: George Braziller, 1962.

The spirit and achievement of American Reform at the turn of the 20th century as seen by the men and women who lived during those years.

Pelling, Henry. American Labor. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965.

Sandler, Martin W., Edwin C. Rozwenc and Edward C. Martin. The People Make a Nation. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971.

A standard United States history textbook that relies heavily on primary and secondary source documents.

Seligman, Ben B. The Potentates. New York: Dial Press, 1971.

A history of American business and businessmen.

Sinclair, Upton, editor. The Cry for Justice: An Anthology of the Literature of Social Protest. Clifton, New Jersey: Kelley.

An anthology of humanist thinkers and their work on the subject of the working man.

Smith, Henry Nash. Popular Culture & Industrialism 1865-1890. New York: Doubleday & Company, 1967.

Trachtenberg, Alan. Democratic Vistas 1860-1880. New York: George Braziller, 1970.

Weber, Adna Ferrin. The Growth of Cities in the 19th Century. New York: Cornell University Press, 1967.

Weinberg, Arthur and Lila Weinberg, editors. The Muckrakers. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1961.

Articles by America's most famous writers for reform.

C. Social and Behavioral Science Reference

Allport, Gordon W. ABC's of Scapegoating. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith 1954.

Barron, Milton L., editor. Minorities in a Changing World. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1967.

An excellent resource book for teachers explaining from a sociological and psychological viewpoint the problems and reactions of ethnic groups in America.

Biesanz, John and Mavis Biesanz. Modern Society. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964.

A sociology textbook. Difficult.

Blizt, Raymond and Norman Provost. The Nature of Prejudice. Minnesota: St. Mary's College Press, 1972.

Provides a unique approach to the nature of prejudice combining a photographic essay with poems and short statements. Study guide provides activities and questions. Excellent for thought motivation.

Brown, Lawrence. Immigration: Cultural Conflicts and Social Adjustments. New York: Arno Press and the New York Times, 1969.

This is a history of the cultural conflicts and social adjustments faced by old and new immigrants.

Engle, T. L. and Louis Snellgrove. Psychology: Its Principles and Applications. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1969.

A high school psychology textbook.

Gesell, Arnold, M. D. and Frances Ilg, M. D. Child Development--An Introduction to the Study of Human Growth. New York: Harper & Row, 1949.

A basic psychological examination of how a child develops culturally as well as physically.

Glock, Charles Y. et al. Adolescent Prejudice. New York: Harper & Row, 1975.

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A detailed and analytical examination of the meaning of majority and minority and selected ethnic groups in various world environments, with interpretations of discrimination, adjustment, and revolution. Recommended for above average readers and teachers.

GLOSSARY

Aggression - Application of Darwinian theory. "The struggle of one biological species versus another can be reflected in the struggle of cultures, peoples, nations or even smaller cultural units versus one another. The cultures of peoples of the earth can thus be interpreted as an environmental factor which determines aggressive behavior." (Ashley Montagu, Man and Aggression)

Anglo - Mexican-American word for a white American.

Assimilation - "The universal social process through which the cultural differences between groups are gradually reduced or eliminated. The social blending of peoples." (Koller and Couse, Modern Sociology)

Borinquen - Indigenous peoples of Puerto Rico, sometimes called Tainos.

Defense Mechanisms - "Protect the individual's self-esteem and defend him against excessive anxiety when faced with continuing frustrations." (Hilgard, Introduction to Psychology)

Discrimination - The acting out of prejudicial attitudes so as to deny a person or group fair and equal treatment.

Displaced Aggression - An aggressive action against an innocent person or object rather than against the actual or intangible cause of the frustration.

Ethnic - An ethnic group is a large collectivity based on presumed common origin, which is at least on occasion part of a self-definition of a person and which also acts as a bearer of culture traits. (Max Weber as quoted in Glazer and Moynihan, Ethnicity: Theory and Experience)

Ethnicity - " . . . implies the existence of a distinct culture or subculture in which group members feel themselves bound together by common ties and are so regarded by other members of the society." Yetman and Steele, Majority and Minority)

Ethnocentrism - "A person's belief that his own group and culture are superior to all others. . . " From Greek, ethnos--nation. (Biesanz, Modern Sociology)

La Raza - Literally transiated, race or people. Now used by Mexican-Americans who describe themselves as being in opposition to anything Anglo; they are La Raza, people in resistance.

La Raza Unida - Mexican-American political organization of resistance.

Machismo - A sense of maleness, bravery such as a bullfighter's, great leadership such as a conquistador's. Often includes dominance over their women, be it wives, sisters, girl friends, or daughters. Sexual prowess and the old double standard are a part of machismo.

Majority - A group which has a superior social position and whose interests are effectively represented in the political, social, and economic institutions of the society-at-large.

Minority - A group which has an inferior social position and whose interests are not effectively represented in the political, social, and economic institutions of a society.
- Not defined in terms of numerical superiority but in terms of power to translate wishes into group policy.
- Exists whenever a group senses that its distinctive characteristics separate its members from the dominant group in society in ways that impose handicaps upon them.

Miscegenation - Sexual relationships between Caucasians and people of color.

Nordic Cult - A belief that Northern Europeans were superior to Southern Europeans.

Padrone System - The system through which Italians made contracts with employees to supply themselves with squads of laborers. Many kept their workers in debt and working for low wages.

Perceptual Accentuation - When a particular ethnic group or "racial" group because of certain physical characteristics is perceived by the dominant culture as being more prevalent or visible than it actually is. For example, social workers in New York were asked what percentage of the case load was Puerto Rican; they replied 85%, when it really only amounted to 35%.

Poverty - A situation in which a particular group lacks the minimum standard of living necessary to participate fully in the mainstream culture.
- Income falls behind that of mainstream community.

Prejudice - " . . . Instead of withholding judgment on an individual until we know him, we believe we know what he is like simply because of some one distinguishing trait." (Biesanz, Modern Sociology)

Protestant Ethic - A belief that hard work will bring success.

Race - "A group is defined as a race by a society when certain selected physical or biologically transmitted characteristics are isolated and their importance as differentiating factors magnified." (Yetman and Steele, Majority and Minority)
- "A race is a large group of people distinguished from other groups by inherited physical differences." (Biesanz, Modern Sociology)
- "Races are not so much real things which man has discovered as they are pigeonholes which man has constructed." (Biesanz, Modern Sociology)

Racism - ". . . is a systematized, dogmatic attitude,—'the dogma that one ethnic group is condemned by nature to congenital inferiority and another group is destined to congenital superiority.'" (Gesell and Ilg, Child Development)

Socialization - The process through which the individual learns to adjust to his society's norms, and as a result, becomes an accepted member of that society.

Stereotype - ". . . one group's or individual's preconceived image of what all members of another group are like regardless of their individual characteristics." (Biesanz, Modern Sociology)
- "An emotional attitude is simply a more or less habitual tendency to react to and feel in a particular manner in a given situation. When the attitude is excessively emotional or unreasonable we call it a prejudice. When the attitude tends to occur time and time again in much the same way under varying circumstances, we call it a stereotype." (Gesell and Ilg, Child Development)

Xenophobia - Fear and hatred of foreigners.

"Yellow Peril" - A belief that the Chinese and Japanese could not become assimilated and posed a threat to the American way of life and work.