

POWERS OF DEPICTION:  
A TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY-LEVEL  
HISTORY BOOKS CURRENTLY IN USE IN  
TORONTO, ONTARIO AND STILLWATER,  
OKLAHOMA

By

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The legitimacy inherent in any historical account lies in the power of depiction. The intention of this study is to ascertain how four history textbooks used in public schools from two different countries, the United States and Canada, depict the culture and historical interaction with the opposite country. The United States has a healthy and productive relationship with Canada in numerous social and economic areas and, in spite of differences, primarily in areas pertaining to political or economic arenas, this relationship is not going to change in the foreseeable future. But as Lee Heller (1998) writes, “The key assumption that any challenge to the conflation of nation and culture needs to address is that cultural production and consumption (of texts, but also of experience and ideology) happen within national boundaries and replicate those [same] boundaries in their content” (p. 348).

#### Contextual Background and the Importance of Text

The public school history curriculum does not account for students’ entire view of the world, but it does determine, to differing degrees, how people view their own culture or group, and the culture of other groups or nations following their experiences in school. Quoting Fred Inglis, Michael Apple (1991) writes:

Texts are really messages to and about the future. As part of a curriculum, they participate in no less than the organized knowledge system of society. They participate in creating what a society has recognized as legitimate and truthful. They help set the canons of truthfulness and, as such, also help re-create major reference points for what knowledge, culture, belief, and morality really are.” (p. 4)

The texts in the school curriculum begin the creation of a larger cultural and historic lens through which students will view and interpret further information. This lens is oriented toward the distinctiveness and legitimacy of the particular culture that teaches through it. It is also what Crotty (1998) and Patton (2002) refer to as [social] constructionism. This is the collective effort of various individuals and/or groups in generating the framework of experience of knowledge that legitimize a particular point of view so that it is accepted.

The cultural and historic lens through which the text of canonized history books within public schools is presented does shape a particular contextual and civic orientation. Though this particular orientation, or lens, is hardly a clear or cut-and-dried framework, nevertheless, it presents a framework of assumption. The interpretation of history reinforces the dominant forms of knowledge, culture, beliefs, and morality of national or cultural groups. The structural framework and subsequent delivery of history comprises a set of basic assumptions or perception(s) people hold, on levels ranging from local to national, about relationships between themselves and other groups in the world.

While these assumptions are hardly immutable, they are a fundamental component of how a people' regard others.

History, because it is told from a national point of view, often compliments the experiences of particular groups of people. This national lens is part of what people use to navigate the world they live in and the taken-for-granted understanding and inferences about others. Because a canonized textual approach to history presents no alternative set of experiences to challenge these assertion(s), the information contained in history books is presented as the set of facts and truths. The orientation, facts, understanding of relationships, and cause-effect factors of different periods of history coalesce to form part of how students are taught to see their culture, or at least the dominant geopolitical culture of schooling of which they may likely be a part of. As James Axtell (1979) writes, "What we have gained in national depth, we have lost in historical breadth" (p. 550). The centering of history on the national level does not lend itself more fully to the cause-effect relationships that exist between different nations.

Culturally speaking, Canada and the United States have much in common, both in terms of the roots of their cultural heritage and in present-day interaction between their respective citizenry and economic structures. However, different versions of history are taught in school on either side of the border. Whether we are referring to periods of conflict, economic activity, or political and cultural change, there are different perceptions of similar and potentially pivotal events and the periods in which they occur.

Evidence of this can be seen in the understanding of history by students that have recently emerged from secondary school. James Tagg, an American historian who teaches at a university in Canada, reports that while many Canadian undergraduate

students acknowledge the contributions made by the United States toward the greater global picture, they are quick to point out mistakes. Examples of the negative include deployment of the atomic bomb (not to include credit in development) during World War II. According to Canadian undergraduates in the survey conducted by Tagg (2004), the Cold War with its beginning and continuous reinforcement is credited to actions of the United States. The War of 1812 also has a vastly different interpretation by Canadians than by Americans. Those who responded to Tagg's survey gave the article its very name, "And we burned down the White House, too." The perspective on the end of the war and the Treaty of Ghent is oriented in a way that reinforces Canada's victory, namely that Canada avoided being absorbed by the United States. The Civil Rights movement, according to Tagg, elicits a 'ho-hum' or general shrug as a response on the part of the undergraduates. Some of the respondents in the survey replied that the United States was long overdue in getting to this point of social development. Others in the survey question just how substantial the changes were in a society where they perceive race to still be such a problem.

The differing interpretations of history comprise an influential factor in current relations as they are understood between the citizens of the two countries. Culturally speaking, for a system of value or experience to be cohesive, it need not utilize, or victimize, another cultural system in order to make it appear better or more advantageous. However, this polarization does represent the path of least resistance. It also represents a viable mechanism for influencing people to believe one way of seeing things, as opposed to another. In this manner, polarized interpretations of history are a substantial component of nationalism. Joseph Tohill (2003) observes that polarization reflects the



centering of history and its teaching on the nation-state model and it is, therefore, most likely that history will be presented in this manner in texts. *Exceptionalism*, a feature of historical writing that can become readily apparent is the tendency to cast the ‘other’ country or group in a negative light. It is a means of promoting a particular sentiment by one group towards another. Exceptionalism does not, in all cases, represent a negative; rather it is used/employed with varying degrees of accuracy and bias.

Culture is transmitted within any school setting. This study will address the history curriculum as it is shaped by the use of different textbooks. The subject of how textbooks either disseminate or refute the claims of a nation’s history can be a slippery slope. This study will, therefore, be limited to the history texts used at the secondary level. The focus of this comparative study is to examine the manner in which textbooks from different countries represent the ‘other’ country or culture.

The reason for choosing the secondary level of schooling as opposed to another is that the history taught to students from primary through secondary levels tends towards canonization. As I will illustrate when referring to the culture of the text, texts are reviewed by too many people and pass through too many levels to contain any controversy, especially if that information concerns the legitimacy of the immediate culture and the manner in which that culture is presented in an educational setting. One may study ‘revisionist’ history extensively beyond the secondary level, but seldom with the use of canonized history text(s). Canonized versions tend to present people and events as fitting together much more seamlessly and with less adversity. While there are always tragic events within the time(s) being studied, they are generally downplayed in favor of a more positive and cohesive version of the story being told.

This perspective occurs so that the story being told through the text will be more cohesive and so that it will favor the acceptance of a particular version of the 'facts'. This version of the facts is embedded within the experience and perception of the culture. Therefore, the flavor of this version of history will usually favor that culture, as opposed to another. It is in this context of historical representation that dimension(s) of nationalism come to the surface. There are numerous qualifiers for this relationship between text and culture. It certainly cannot be said that there is a singular culture in any setting where a nation-state is being examined. However, some groups possess greater degrees of power and influence than others and this accounts for a particular structural or organizational hegemony. By hegemony, I refer to a structure of value and operation and the orientation by which it operates. This framework results from the collective efforts and sensibilities of numerous individuals that vie for influence and/or control. Ney and Molenaars (1999) note that competition between groups within the same culture or nation produces a self-adjusting effect that accounts for the shift in emphasis from one area or practice to another within the nation's or culture's resources, educational or otherwise. Whether these groups are liberal or conservative, this competition occurs over time and adjustment(s) result. While this kind of hegemonic adjustment is common within the same culture or nation, it is far less common to have the same influence exerted from outside the group. Different groups compete with each other over control of the resources that establish particular social practices, of which the form and content within schooling are but one. The greater hegemonic structure and set of interests that prevail because of competition between groups presents various socio-cultural results. One of these is the ability to control resources such as the particular version(s) of history as it is

covered in the school curriculum. Curricular changes in the form and focus of the content of schooling account for the shifting emphasis from one period to another. An example of this is race relations during the Civil Rights movement in the United States. Violent incidents happened between groups of whites and blacks during this time, but history books in schools do not go in depth on this, partly because of the graphic nature of the depiction. Pictures that show the result of lynch gang activity will not be shown, nor will pictures of African Americans being intimidated or beaten be shown. There are several reasons for this: modern mainstream groups do not endorse these same practices, imagery like this could adversely affect sales and distribution of the text, and so it is not conducive to the financial returns that publishers seek and many people believe that we live in a different world now and should celebrate progress, rather than hover over past transgressions.

The groups or individuals composing a particular culture are never strictly on one side or another when it comes to the historical tale. However, individuals within a particular group will share a greater degree of commonality with one group as opposed to another and will more readily ally themselves with the group with which they have more in common. This more often occurs inside national borders, though there are exceptions. Ronald Tammen (2000) illustrates that alliances exist in many different forms. These alliances are part of what make different geo-cultural populations compatible with one another. Sometimes they lie across national borders, but many times, and more importantly for the survival and long term health of the larger nation-state, they are “based on...compatibility among the parties and [a] joint commitment or opposition to the status quo” (Tammen, et al, 2000, p. 13). Part of this joint commitment addresses what is

‘truth’ in history and the context of that truth as it is taught. There are certainly times where this relational alliance between groups goes beyond national borders, but when it does, and when it concerns cultural or educational rights, it is the result of less-powerful or marginalized groups allying themselves against the more powerful groups within those same nations. Examples of this would address indigenous populations, such as Native tribes whose geo-political boundaries differed so drastically from what is observed today.

### *Culture of the Text*

When analyzing textbooks used in any curriculum, one must first acknowledge the multiple factors that affect the presentation of print and pictures on their pages. A second, but no less important, matter is that textbooks represent an economic commodity and it is in the interest of publishers to secure as large a return as possible for their extensive investment of capital and human resources into the development of this commodity. Drawing on the work of Raymond Williams, Michael Apple (1991) discusses culture in two ways: first as lived experience and the second as a commodity.

“This dual nature of culture poses a dilemma for those individuals who are interested in understanding the dynamics of popular and elite culture in our society. It makes studying the dominant cultural products—from films, to books, to television, to music—decidedly slippery, for there are sets of relations behind each of these “things.” And these in turn are situated within the larger web of the social and market relations of capitalism”

(Apple, p. 22)

The factors that shape the form and focus of a textbook will be addressed in terms of culture, to use the term quite broadly, because they are not situated in any one place,

but instead are interwoven into the organizational structure of production and distribution. Before a textbook is adopted, it must pass through several lengthy steps. There is the researching and writing of the material by an author or group of authors. Following the writing of the text, numerous graphs and/or pictures are selected to represent or reinforce particular concepts or relationships covered in the text and are placed strategically within the book. In themselves, pictures account for a certain dimension of bias within textbooks. If a singular or smaller number of pictures are used to represent larger groups of people or a particular span of time, they may be biased and therefore misleading. This occurs through the generalization that the reader infers from the material. There is also the series of steps where an editorial or advisory board reviews the information written and verifies it for content and/or orientation. This series of steps may alter the focus of the information for a number of reasons. For example, one person or group's interpretation of similar events may differ in terms of outcomes and/or importance. Another reason is that the target audience for textbooks may be viewed as not developmentally ready to receive particular kinds or depths of content.

The books published are subject to existing market conditions and these markets are, at present, primarily patriarchal. Apple (1991) reminds us that books are published by people within the publishing market who, for the most part, are male and so will continue to produce patriarchy within the industry itself. They also have experiences derived from the existing market for their products. This particular market dominates the manufacture and distribution of texts.

Another characteristic in the culture of the text lies in the fact that the history textbook is an economic commodity. This commodity is prepared exclusively for

consumption by an educational entity or market. Therefore, it is in the best self-interests of the publisher to ensure that the product they present is compatible with the demands of the particular market. The demands and preferences of consumers within the market for which a text is intended must be satisfied if the text product is to be received and consumed by that market.

In dealing with texts as a commodity, publishing firms employ two kinds of capital: symbolic and financial. Symbolic capital revolves around the information, concepts, and ideas that students receive from the text(s) they use. Financial capital involves the monetary returns that a company must make in order to continue to be able to conduct business and/or survive. In distributing a text to schools, the publisher's first priority is to recover those resources invested in packaging and marketing the textbook, not to mention the highest profit margin possible. The symbolic capital, then, takes a secondary role. According to Apple (1991), "A substantial cultural or educational vision and the concerns associated with strategies based on symbolic capital will necessarily take a back seat..." (p. 30). The writing of the text and the revision of the information are separate processes from the marketing aspect, but are still interrelated since one affects the other and, ultimately, financial returns are affected the most. Financial capital, though its priority influences the context of truths, is the end goal for engaging in the process in the first place.

Authors have the option of producing revisionist history, but that presents the possibility of adversely affecting sales of the text in a way that can have negative results. The publisher has the option of appealing to a particular market where revisionist history may be dominant, but the market share for revisionist history is not as large as for texts in

the public school curriculum. Apple, citing Coser, Kasushin, and Powell (1982), states that, “Ultimately...if there is any censorship, it concerns profitability. Books that are not profitable, no matter what their subject, are not viewed favorably” (1991, p. 31)

Another, and no less important component of the culture of the text, lies in the fact that the educational systems in numerous countries are de-centralized in terms of their textbook adoption. The United States and Canada are two of these countries. This fact increases the competition between publishers for obtaining greater degrees of the available market share. In the United States, California, Texas, and New York are among the largest consumers of school textbooks and so play a pivotal role in determining the options, formats and characteristics the textbooks available to other states. Canada has a similar decentralized policy, with the responsibility for textbook adoption falling to the different provinces. Additionally, the ancillary materials that accompany textbooks account for a substantial part of the appeal of one text over another. It is important to remember that one textbook will never be an exact duplicate of another and this means that the information presented within different textbooks is being marketed to a particular audience and will have stories and facts presented with a different focus on what is stated and/or emphasized as important for students to understand and remember. I have participated in textbook adoption committees in the past and it is often the ancillary materials for textbooks that sell them the most effectively. That is, test banks and other materials for evaluation and reinforcement or re-teaching are often considered to be of primary, and very practical, importance. Again in this context, financial capital occupies the most influential position. Publishers accessorize particular editions they are trying to

market most, and have other editions that do not have the ancillary materials that make them attractive for purpose

Publishers and authors, where textbooks are concerned, represent components of a particular culture. In the end, the publishers cater to the preferences of the larger social and cultural group(s) they seek to serve. It is less important to identify just what these social cultures are, rather than to understand that they are different by their inherent experiences and makeup. For this reason, people of different cultural, social, political, and economic thought do not always agree with one another. The textbook written by a person of a particular intellectual tradition often reflects the biases or predispositions when such thoughts are grafted onto the text that is written. C. Behan McCullagh (2000) aptly observes that "...liberals think people are normally motivated by reason and principle; Marxists think they are normally motivated, often unconsciously, by socioeconomic self-interest. The inferences they draw about people's motives for action will vary accordingly" (p. 40). For this reason, groups are bound to disagree. Even then, the implicit components of the historical tale that are influential address the manner in which character or the building of the individual is depicted. McCullagh also states that "Liberals will think a person's avowed goals and principles are important ingredients in their character; but a Marxist will prefer to look at the dispositions which seem to inform a person's actual behavior, expecting to find self-interest trumping principle" (p. 40).

The influence of the author's values on the way history is presented becomes relevant because cultures have slightly different value systems from one to another. Regardless of political, linguistic, ethnic, or cultural similarities, the fact that authors live across national borders from one another accounts for significant factors of difference.



The culture of the text is, within the context of this study, a limitation to be taken into account. The history texts in use within the schools do not represent the entirety of the experience(s) of any culture or individual, nor do they adequately articulate the complex historical relationships between different groups of people. Rather, they represent what is acceptable to dominant parties within a particular market, of which schools represent the primary consumers. However, for this study, I will be considering texts as products of substantial influence through processes of the culture just described. These products are in use within schools in both countries and serve as the template upon which their curriculum is based.

Schools and the social structures they feed are largely influenced by symbolic power. A circle of dominant ideas is not necessarily prescribed, but only offered for consumption by groups of any composition and are not always the only way the look at events or relationships. There is, however, a partially pacifying effect occurring through the emphasis of ‘truth’ in one body of facts as opposed to another. If minority or other groups are neglected through the absence of mention, then they are marginalized. Apple (1991) quotes Stuart Hall in saying that also placed strictly within a particular framework is the set of ideas for thought or action in what is considered “...rational, reasonable, credible, indeed sayable or thinkable within the given vocabularies of motive and action available to us” (p. 12). Hegemonic dominance over a potentially rival, but weaker, structure of truths lies in creating, maintaining and reproducing these very limits. Further quoting, this becomes what Stuart refers to as “...the horizon of the taken-for-granted. What the world is and how it works, for all practical purposes... Their dominance lies precisely in the power they have to contain within their limits, to frame within the

circumference of their thought, the reasoning and calculation [and so perception] of other social groups” (p. 12). Unless a student has experiences that directly refute the assertions of the text(s), the facts as they are presented through the text comprise the substance of the ‘truth’ they are exposed to.

With few exceptions, most students, especially those at the secondary level, do not have a range of experience outside their own cultural framework that refute or challenge the claims in their history books. Even if a student did have extra-cultural experiences, their level of experiences can actually work against them because the perception(s) they bring to learning history run contrary to what others are learning and so developing into the same set of assumptions. Terrie Epstein (1997) conducted studies in U.S. high schools demonstrating that students from diverse backgrounds often construct different interpretations of the same materials that are read from history books. This comes about through the process of aligning what they read and discuss with their own life experience(s) and what they were taught or experienced outside school. This occurs along lines of ethnicity, culture, race, and economics. Therefore, students at this age suffer a handicap in their ability to look critically at the information and experience presented in history texts. They do this because of a lack of similar life experiences as might constitute a challenge to the other sets of normative claims being made.

Another factor lies in the use of standardized examinations in secondary school. Numerous aspects of the schooling experience address citizenship education, of which history is the primary vehicle of delivery. Historical events with their outcomes, both critical and minor, are interwoven form a basic perception or set of assumptions in the mind of the student. The tests that students must take each year directly address this

information. Carole Hahn's (1998) research into different aspects of citizenship education in numerous westernized countries reveals that standardized examinations often leave the teacher feeling pressured to be able to cover the information relevant to the curriculum and the test. This leaves little, if any, additional time for critical inquiry into history. This fact, accompanied by the use of standardized history texts, blunts the edge of inquiry in favor of a model of education that focuses more on performance.

History texts, such as those in this study are approached in terms of their information comprising a culturally cohesive perspective and orientation. This framework of history will not be entirely positive, meaning the absence of all wrongdoing or malevolence directed at some individual or group by others. It will possess a particular point of view that makes certain actions or situations acceptable or preferable and others not because they are products of socially constructed culture. This information is, thus, viable and believable, to varying degrees, for the individual student. This is a necessary component to history education. Whether a person is a member of a marginalized group or the dominant socioeconomic group, certain prior events must be credible to some degree in order for a cohesive set of social beliefs and assumptions to exist. Common assumptions constitute part of what holds any group together. They account for a portion of the attitudes held towards each other and other(s) outside the group.

An example of these assumptions is the depiction of the institution of slavery in the United States. It is culturally accepted that slavery occurred in the experience of this country. It is also accepted that different regions of the country felt very differently about it. It was seen as a social and economic means of productive convenience primarily

where large-scale agriculture occurred, as in the southern states. It was not seen in the same light in other regions and, as a result, was one of many factors that led to the American Civil War. History books used in public schools in the United States do not explore to any great extent the depth, nor the depravity, of what happened in any great extent that revisionist historians such as Ronald Takaki (1993) or Howard Zinn (1999) do.

Standardized and canonized, history books speak of the fact that it happened and that many black slaves tried to escape to the north. They mention a few noted abolitionists, including Frederick Douglass, but slavery is only given cursory mention in comparison to the farther reaching implications it has held for the United States and various cultural groups, not to mention their civil and social perspectives toward one another to this present day. Ronald Takaki (1993) relates that some white slave owners attempted to breed slaves, much the same as livestock. This kind of depravity is not included in the standard history books in secondary public schools. The experiences Africans have in these kinds of injustices and these experiences in inequality are still arguably present in today's society, albeit beginning to abate.

The point is that the information presented in history texts inevitably works to reify a particular framework of social hegemonic truths. When the truth regarding historical occurrences is negative and might work against the groups or parties in positions of power or leadership, those same occurrences are often downplayed or sterilized in order to propagate a more homogenized and non-confrontational version of history. The result is that learning still takes place, but no one is offended or marginalized. In the context of the United States, this process does not work entirely to

the betterment of whites and to the disadvantage of blacks, Native Americans, or other minorities, but the perspective of the text is still quite lopsided in side-by-side comparison to revisionist accounts like those of Zinn (1999) or Takaki (1993).

Due to the different schools of thought, and points of view, the absence of bias in history is impossibility, and history is always related from a particular point of view. While historians will go to great lengths to separate themselves from the bias which accompanies a traditional canon of historical lore, they are still bound by the fact that their experiences and perceptions are bound within a particular context of cultural experience. While it should never be assumed that historians are permanently tainted by their cultural experience, the level of bias we are referring to here is a fundamental one because it is culturally/socially constructed and so programmed. This fundamental level goes beyond the facts and assertions presented in the text and, presents the builds a set of particularized assumptions based on preference, whether personal or from a collective source. Whether we are referring to the writer or the reader of history matters little, for we are all bound by the limitations of our experiences.

In the context of textual analysis, the way history is related should be examined in terms of a system, more precisely an aesthetic one. The facts that are included or omitted from history books reflect fundamental biases or perspectives toward other groups. Whether this perspective is focused strictly upon another group or some competing system of values by other groups is less important than the fact that the particular point of view of a text works to persuade parties that one is right over the other. The examples I refer to through this study are part a much larger curricular fabric. Textbooks clearly

present ideas and people in widely varying degrees of legitimacy. Therefore, history is also quite complimentary of separate academic areas.

The notion of depiction, in the way I will examine it, is not a list of insults or innuendo that are directed at all members of 'country/group A' from members of group B. Instead, this biased depiction serves the function of reifying the legitimacy of group B by downplaying or more narrowly interpreting the strenuous features of the history as it may have occurred between both, or all, groups of people.

Much has been said of the considerable difficulty that bias presents to historians. Certainly guiding axioms are meant to minimize bias to the greatest degree possible. Objectivity is a creed to aspire to, but examination of any qualitative research methodology will reveal biases. Raymond Grew (1980) addressed bias when he wrote of the need and legitimacy in comparing historical accounts between peoples. Quoting Lord Acton, "The process of civilization depends on transcending nationality" (Grew, 1980, p. 763). This speaks directly to the limitations imposed by strict nationalist interpretations of historical accounts.

Relationships between different groups can take numerous forms: political, religious, ethnic, cultural, economic, or any combination of these. In the course of deciding which significant or pivotal events a version of history should contain, there is the ongoing presence of cause/effect. Whatever form of interaction we refer to between or within different populations, the outcome of particular events establishes the structure and function of the relationships that follow. These relationships may be servile, colonial, or mutually constructed and gainful. These relationships are sometimes presented forthrightly and other times glossed over within the text. With the United

States, the defeat of the Confederacy in the Civil War established the dominance of the north and so the prevailing ideology of the nation. The designation of the territory that became Oklahoma as a reservation for particular Indian tribes established not only where they were removed to, but also the kinds of rights they had following their arrival, and the list goes on.

In the writing of history, causal factors for particular events are assigned at specific points or nodes of interaction. These causes are often quite general. When a history text is used in the classroom, adequate scope and breadth is seldom, if ever, allowed for, so students' understanding of the degree or depth of complexity of history is generally lacking. Relationships between groups of people are far too complex to allow for them to be explored in detail, considering the amount of information which must be covered and the time and space available for doing so. The constrictive nature of time, in this setting, has the end result of diluting the history that students are exposed to and so affects the perception and assumptions they build from it. While numerous authors research, write, and evaluate the claims made in history books, they must often settle for claims and assertions that capture the high points of an era or series of significant events. Exploring the true nature of the relationships between different groups would seldom reveal a definitive causal point a particular event or outcome(s). If anything, such an exploration/presentation would cause the historical tale to no longer be centered on the nation-state. This is an area in which authorities from the respective cultural groups have conflicting perspectives. An example of this lies in examining relationships between countries that have a troubled or violent past between them, for example the history that

is taught in Poland versus the history taught in Germany concerning the World War II era to the present day.

Another example is the Palestinian interpretation of history versus the Israeli/Jewish one. Yet another example is the difference in historical accounts between Japanese and both Korean history books. Japan's recent adoption of textbooks that significantly downplay the brutality of its occupation of Korea during World War II and the actions that followed illustrates this well. The Japanese account is in marked contrast to the Korean account. Every two years, the Ministry of Education for the Japanese government updates information included in the history books. Reporting for the UNESCO Courier, Richard Werly (2001) asserts that the most recent adoption in Japanese junior-high and high school texts significantly downplay atrocities committed by Japanese troops towards the Koreans during the colonial period through World War II (see also Beal, Nozaki, and Yang, 2001)

The current division between the Turks and Greeks over the island of Cyprus is presented in drastically different terms as to who started the conflict and who did not. The controversy concerns the impact that the shaping/re-shaping of history through economic/political means can have on the mission and function of the school. Koutselini-Ioannidou (1997) reports that in the context of Cyprus, the political apparatus readily used the curriculum of the school as a means to promote the Greek community over the Turkish one. While this was not strictly rooted in history, the majority of the propagandizing occurred in the social sciences.

The socio-historic tale is subject to many influences as it is formed, focused, received, and so consumed by students. Preferences for certain values over others and for



the institutions that support these values are endorsed through the information disseminated through the text. The system of historical assertion weaves itself together to form a larger social aesthetic framework. This framework appeals to the civic sensibilities of students. Referring to certain forms of government and decision-making further impresses this aesthetic on the mind of the consumer of the information, so that some forms of civic, political, or private organizations are seen as more beneficial than others. Within different cultural settings, the historical tale relates at least part of the circumstances the fore-bearers of a certain people struggled with and what they chose as the right course of action at a particular time. These 'right' courses of action eventually become codified into normative social mores and so another set of cultural assumptions. The institutions and powers that resulted from these historical interactions are generally seen as preferable and so are acceptable for the most part to most students.

The history from a textbook contains generalized biases and assumptions which are built within a short amount of space. Describing institutions or people from a certain point of view has a legitimizing effect on the targets of the description. In the case of the United States, descriptions of particular events such as the election of a President, or the presence of a particular leader during wartime or hard times give that particular setting a sense of orientation and legitimacy in the eyes of the reader. The characters and situations in history books are presented in terms that make a particular system of belief and its accompanying actions desirable over others, even to the extent of having certain kinds of faces or figures represent those beliefs or actions. In American history books, it is commonplace to find that the likes of Robert E. Lee or Ulysses S. Grant represent the

finest aspects of military leaders from a particular era. It is uncommon, however, to find the greater military minds of different Indian tribes presented in the same manner. Instead of the United States having strictly bland descriptions of what occurred during the Mexican-American War, the names associated with it grant the information a sense of intimacy that it would, otherwise, not have. Famous military leaders such as Robert E. Lee and James Longstreet give character to the times and events in which they participated, regardless of the actual nature of their role. Figures such as Carrie A. Nation are readily associated with prohibition, Frederick Douglass with the abolitionist movement, Alice Paul with women's suffrage, Gloria Steinem with the Feminist movement of the 1960's, Abraham Lincoln with emancipation of the slaves. In one sense, the particular person or entity is reified in terms of his/her relationship to the particular event(s). In another sense, the outcomes of the events are made more legitimate through presentation of the information in a personalized and detailed manner.

An additional outcome from the presentation of material in this manner is the reinforcing or undermining of existing relationships between geopolitical entities. This reinforcement may have positive or negative features, but it does occur. An example is the result of the war between Mexico and the United States. The boundaries between these countries are fixed, as are the causal factors which brought about the conflict ending with the establishment of these borders where the United States was clearly the winner and Mexico clearly was not. A similar example lies between the United States and Canada. These two countries share multiple facets of their linguistic, social, historical, and political structures, yet both draw definitive distinctions between themselves. This distinction is a large component of what determines the sense of nationalism or patriotism

or national identity and comprises the essence of how each country re-teaches its own history.

I have selected history because of the body of facts and relationships that it presents to students. I have not chosen science, mathematics, or language arts because, as subjects within the school curriculum, they focus on different sets of competencies. While it is certainly true that these subjects are presented in the context of culture, that culture is primarily as an avenue of instructional delivery, rather than the goal of end-understanding. In a mathematics textbook, the word problems or pictures of students are presented becomes an important feature, but this feature is not primary. The primary feature is mathematics itself. Characteristics of the text such as verbal description or pictorial illustration(s) do provide a format in which minorities or other groups may be included, but they do not describe actions or relationships grounded in history. In science, we are referring to facts and theories. The science texts used in schools include different minorities or nationalities, but again these are secondary to the substance of the curriculum itself. History is significant because of the context in which it is presented. It is not a set of skills to be taken into the larger world, rather a set of perceptions about the world.

Regardless of the beliefs that students may have coming into a history classroom and regardless of what the teacher may or may not say, engaging the text presents the students with information that they may reject, accept, or modify in light of their knowledge level or interest. In any case, the text serves as a medium through which the student's perspective is modified. My experiences in teaching social studies and seeing the sense of nationalism come up with both American students and students from foreign

countries demonstrates that a student may be exposed to a particular set of facts or beliefs and the accompanying context and not refer back to them until they find themselves in a situation that is potentially conflictive. At this point, ideas stated in the text may become further embedded or they may be refuted.

### *Qualifying Contexts and Limitations of the Study*

At the outset, it was stated that the history materials to be used in this study would come from public school textbooks. I also stated that the history taught to students does not account for the entirety of their world view, but plays a part in its development. There are, however, several exceptions to the canonized nature of this kind of schooling. These should be recognized as limitations of this study. These texts are not utilized in all history instruction in both countries. The United States and Canada both have decentralized text adoption policies, so, while some titles may have more of a presence or market share than others, there are numerous texts in use in the schools of both countries.

The history textbook market is as diversified as the classes these books are bound to serve. For this reason, it is realistic to examine a sample of this kind of literature to see at what level and in which areas those texts support or refute each others claims. Then at least a pulse of the relationship will be revealed.

Another limitation lies in the fact that standardized history textbooks are not utilized in all instructional situations; that is, there are forms of schooling just as numerous and legitimate as public schooling, but are not represented here. This includes private and religious schooling, alternative schooling, home schooling, and the like. Since educational structures vary so greatly, it is necessary to accept that this kind of

research represents only a particular and regionalized slice of a much larger picture of the educational institution.

The influence of the publishing industry and the context of its culture is significant in examining a subject such as this. Therefore the texts that come from each country will be regarded as compilations of cultural products and artifacts in themselves. This represents a limitation in that the texts are the product(s) of inevitable bias on some level and an advantage in that they are close to what at least one group of people subscribe to as being the truth.

Another inherent limitation in this study is the experience of the researcher(s) and author(s). At the outset, it is important to state that since this is a qualitative study, and since quantitative measures are not being utilized, there will be a dimension of tacit bias as both sets of texts are closely examined.

### *Significance of the Study*

Better knowledge of the assumptions and understanding of history that is being presented in public schools is an asset because relations between the members of different national communities are built partially on this information. Accounts of it will inevitably differ between nations and the combination of the cultural and economic factors that influence the writing, teaching and consumption of history provide areas of further potential complications. When both real and imagined communities are built on the cultural truths taught in history, the greater good demands the greatest degree of clear and accurate portrayals of the actors and parties involved. Approaching this topic through the examination of textbooks from two countries that share a profoundly

common heritage will help to build a future framework of analysis for examining other countries that do not have such a common heritage and perhaps not so friendly a set of relationships.

### *Statement of the Problem*

Bias is demonstrated to be a pervasive feature, though to varying degrees, of the historical process of social learning through the writing and subsequent teaching of history in public schools. It will be useful to see the larger categories of culture and society that may be inaccurate or where slanted depictions or spin-doctoring may occur in textbooks on either side of a national border. To see how these narratives differ or agree within the larger structures of politics, economics, culture, and other cause/effect relationships will lend insight into the particular parts of a group's heritage it guards the closest and those where compromise or accommodation is possible. It will also, for future research, be useful to see what sorts of generalizations or themes emerge between groups of people at different geographic locations.

### *Research Question*

Through the use of history textbooks, how do Canada and the United States represent themselves through textual depiction of their interaction with each other, both historically and to the present day?

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In examining historical representation, examination of textbooks in isolation will not suffice. This analysis will review scholarly activity as it relates to three important factors in textbooks: Nationalism, civics education, and the presence of economic interaction between Canada and the United States. These three factors are important for a number of reasons: First, history books inevitably present a view of history that is culturally or historically biased in some way, deliberate or not, and this is unavoidable. According to Innis (1951), texts that arise from any particular cultural locale are pre-disposed to be written in ways that appeal to the sensibilities of the people of that locale, especially when they are oriented towards mass consumption. He states that, “Emphasis on literacy and compulsory education has meant concentration on magazines and books with general appeal and widened the gap between the artist concerned with improvement of his craft and the writer concerned with the widest market” (p. 77). Examples of this include newspapers, magazines, and, in this instance, textbooks.

Second, the sense or perception of nationalism is part of what drives the context of information students are expected to learn as they become increasingly active members of the larger societies within which they reside. The values that accompany civics education change from one period to another and are influenced by the presence of

conflict, political or ideological instability, etc. The manner in which history is presented partially reflects the implicit and explicit values of the society. Thus, some groups are marginalized to a greater degree during certain periods of history and receive restitution through greater mention or detail at a later time. Added to this is the fact that nationalism is a multi-faceted experience and differs from group to group. The United States and Canada have different concepts of nationhood. While the United States sense and experience has been from making a single nation from many people, Canada's has been based on compromise and accommodation (see Cowley, 1981; McDiarmid, 1976). Citing historian Richard Gwyn, James Tagg (2004) writes that "the United States is based on the idea of the nation-state and Canada is based on the idea of the state-nation" (p. 312). Therefore, they will inevitably construct and experience social realities in ways that may be similar, yet also distinctive.

Lastly, economic interaction becomes important here because of its continued expansion between the United States and Canada. While each is a valuable trading partner for the other, features of their respective social landscapes, especially that of Canada, continually negotiate the thin line between efficient economic expansion and economic and consumer colonization by the United States. Examples include the nature of media production and consumption, distribution of periodicals, and the like (Cowley, 1981).

Griffith (1990) asserts three primary dimensions in examining and understanding the use of texts both within and outside the nation-state. First is the philosophical dimension which addresses the purpose of the text itself and the truths or assertions it attempts to convey. The second is definitional and applies to the normative claims within



the texts and the context within which the historical narrative is told. Third is the nationalistic dimension, a dimension that assumes increasing importance as the reader goes from one nation to another in reading or listening to the particular truths or claims of that nation's experience. Nationalism might be likened to the shape of the box and style of wrapping paper within which the socio-historic narrative is formed and takes place. It is unique to the people making it. Therefore, all three dimensions are subject to different social perceptions and norms and so will coalesce differently from one geo-political location to another. While nations such as Canada may be avid consumers of American products, schools are places where Canadian interpretations of identity and civic attitude are re-asserted and reinforced.

Some of America's largest and most influential publishing companies have gone 'north' looking for new markets and, as a result, have flooded Canadian markets with products which have a different cultural orientation to them. This has drawn a caustic response from certain elements of the Canadian citizenry concerning the *encroachment* by the neighbor to the south and many are reacting protectively and in defense of what they perceive to be their national and cultural sovereignty (Cowley, 1981).

### *Characteristics of Nationalism*

Exploring historical depiction from any cultural point of view requires that certain fundamental characteristics be factored in as features of the human and social landscape, among these the notion of nationalism. Nationalism is important here because of the overarching nature of the truths it legitimizes. Griffith's (1990) factors of philosophy and definitional dimensions come under the umbrella of nationalism. Ernest Gellner (1983) observes that nationalism has three different typologies, all of which are tied to

education, directly and indirectly. They are (1) power (2) education and (3) shared culture (Gellner, 1983, p. 97). This factoring helps to account for the range of differences, sometimes radical, existing from one group or population to the next. Karen Marrero (2003) observes “an inherent paradox, between the possibility of nationalisms changing due to influences from outside, and the fact that these nationalisms become more entrenched in reaction to outside influences” (p. 147). Nationalism is a feature that is elusive to define in any precise way, although it may be more obvious when the reader is face to face with it or hears the rhetorical sentiment it informs. It is not always clear what kinds of practices or information reify a particular nationalist sentiment. They may be positive, but many times are related to negative perceptions or stereotypes that one group uses against another for its own goals of self-definition or legitimacy. Michael Ignatieff (1999) describes the narcissism that often accompanies particular nationalist beliefs. Describing the perception of certain relationships between nation-states, he states that “...nationalism is the transformation of identity into narcissism. It is a language game that takes the facts of difference and turns them into a narrative justifying political self-determination” (Ignatieff, 1999, p. 96). This is part of the reason for examining nationalism as a product of interaction between different aspects of culture, namely nationalistic, civic, and economic.

Montserrat Guibernau (1996) makes an invaluable observation of the view of nationalism held by the state:

The state favors nationalism as a means to increase the links existing among its citizens. If the state is successful and, apart from the mere political connection, manages to develop a combination of several kinds of

relations- economic, territorial, religious, linguistic, cultural- the state creates the nation (pp. 70-71).

Epistemologically, therefore, nationalism does not have a single meaning. While this topic is not new, scholarly inquiry into it is a fairly recent field (Ozkirimli, 2000). Webster's college dictionary (1991) defines 'nationalism' as the following: (1) devotion and loyalty to one's own nation; patriotism (2) the desire for national advancement or independence. (3) the doctrine or policy of asserting the interests of one particular nation over the interests of other nations. (4) a movement, as in the arts, based upon the folk idioms, history, aspirations, etc. of a nation.

One of the shortcomings of the earlier writings on nationalism, as observed by Gellner (1983), lies in the fact that early thinkers in the field did not help to formulate any lasting treatise on the subject. Gellner observes toward the end of *Nations and Nationalism* that "this phenomenon [nationalism] depends a very great deal on local circumstances which deserve study; but I doubt whether the nuances of nationalist doctrine played much part in modifying those [local] circumstances" (1983, p. 124). The problem in examining nationalism is, again, one that arises in the forms that it takes from one setting or group to another. Quoting Hobsbawm, Ann Low-Ber writes

"all human being[s], collectivities and institutions need a past, but it is only occasionally the past uncovered by historical research. The standard example of an identity culture which anchors itself to the past by means of myths dressed up as history is nationalism. ...school history is singled out

as one of the places where myth most easily takes over from history” (p. 3 Para. 4).

A reductionist approach to nationalism is problematic because its manifestations vary according to the context(s) in which it occurs. In the instance of schooling, Low-Beer further contends that “civic purpose and national identity have been an important reason for the inclusion of history in the school curriculum from its inception” (p. 5 Para. 3). Ross Poole (1999) further states that “Membership of the nation...is a specific form of *individual* existence and carries with it certain conceptions of agency, of relationships with others, and appropriate forms of activity” (p. 4). This applies not only to values and traits preferred by the population, but also to ways in which educational institutions propagate those values and traits.

The primary dimension of nationalism we are interested in here is its manifestation in the printed materials used by schools, particularly in the area of history. Though textbooks do not account for the entirety of how one cultural group regards another, they are still useful gauges of social perception(s), or at least the version that is being promoted by publishers. Dan Fleming (1992) refers to textbooks as “mirrors that reflect the social studies curriculum as to priorities” (p. 59). These priority-influenced textual truths are woven together to form a longer historical narrative that favors a particular cultural orientation.

This historical story line, when presented through the text and tale of history, depicts the ‘other’ in terms that are convenient to the culture or group telling the tale. As perceptions of nationalism direct the way(s) in which a text will be read, they inevitably

bias the information. According to James Tagg (2004), since the 1960's, Canadian students have been increasingly lectured as to the importance of finding and retaining Canadian identity and culture. This happened in reaction to economic and social events occurring in the United States which were perceived to be influential in Canada.

Because textbooks are products of a culture and because some orientation for the material presented in the book is necessary, it is important to explore nationalism. Though nationalism has multiple dimensions, it is the political one that influences the schools in a particular society or culture. In the case of Canada and the U.S., it is possible that nationalism plays a shaping factor in the sequence and context(s) of the respective truths or assumptions presented and casts them in a light that decidedly favors one perspective over another.

We cannot say that nationalism is the epicenter around which all the decisions concerning history education are made. The presence of the nation-state orientation towards history education involves the presence and influence of nationalism in the social and psychological landscape between different parties or nationalities. Bernard Yack (1999) asserts the civic/ethnic dichotomy to nationalism. It cannot be said that nationalism is only a political construction. There are too many non-uniform features among members of the same social landscape. The ethnic perspective is one located closer to individuals and is a product of their heritage and how they choose to act in reference to it. The civic perspective encompasses a macro set of ideals that apply to larger and potentially non-uniform groups of people. The civic perspective is also a space where different groups will compete for the ability to influence what is seen as necessary or correct (Yack, 1999). It is important to understand the fundamental factors

related to the concept of nationalism and their impact, for it is not a force that is singularly faceted. As we approach the analysis of history books between two countries, we must keep this in mind.

In the introduction to *Theories of Nationalism*, Umut Ozkirimli (2000) helps situate nationalism as it exists in multiple contexts of experience and perception. Quoting Bilig (1995), he writes that, “Nationalism is a discourse that constantly shapes our consciousness and the way we constitute the meaning of the world. It determines our collective identity by producing and reproducing us as nationals” (p. 4). It is appropriate to better define how this might happen through the history or social studies curriculum. Reproduction of values in education occurs through students’ participation and their submitting to information that is considered a ‘cultural truth’.

Ozkirimli (2000) describes nationalism in several general forms, each with different characteristics that compose a particular perceptive lens. An introduction and research into this subject is necessary in order to have at least a summarized and succinct understanding of it. This is because the nature and orientation of history as it is told through history books, is told with the quality of being a narrative tale. These stories stir and blend what happened in history in a way that favors one perspective over another. History books tell all matter of stories that include times of war and peace to the chapters of economic, social, political, ethnic, religious, and imperial history. Since Canada and the United States have different concepts of the nation itself, naturally they occupy different positions on the spectrum of nationalism.

Humanitarian Nationalism

Humanitarian nationalism was first expounded in the eighteenth century. It is based on the rule of natural law and stability. This orientation gives rise to classist structures of social arrangement. This interpretation offers the kind of logic that favors the continuous influence of a political or imperial body for what may be seen as the greater good.

### Jacobin Nationalism

Jacobin nationalism is based more on a social state which is inherently 'pure' in some way. This purity may be religious, ethnic, etc. The characteristic here lies in the degree of 'idealism' that a particular line of thought, or nationalism, elicits in the behavior of the individual. According to Ozkirimli, different collectivities of this design render their version of belief and nationalism in terms that are much more exclusive of one group over another (p. 38). In this same environment the author illustrates the arrival and propagation of movements of fascism, like those that occurred with Italy and Germany prior to and during World War II.

James Murphy (2002), an associate professor of government at Dartmouth College, asserts that this sort of nationalist sentiment has been woven into the educational fabric at different points of American history as well. These times include eras of social or military conflict, as well as competition between different social values. Nationalism can fuel a fervent desire in the minds of the citizenry to become more cohesive and pure, a desire that comes at the expense of lesser-powerful groups who either cannot or will not assimilate.

### Traditional Nationalism

Traditional nationalism prefers the strength of custom and tradition over that of revolution in the action or revolutionary sense of the word. Traditional nationalism addresses why it is right to adhere to the greater structure or system of government. The attributes of Jacobin nationalism were not agreed with by all and this provided the genesis for traditional nationalism. Nationalism, in this context, represents an evolutionary point that the nation goes through. It is in this area where the U.S. and Canada disagree regarding cause and justification and the Revolutionary War gains the rank of disagreement (Grabb, Curtis, & Baer, 2000). Regardless of the outcome, parties disagree on the means by which the nations achieved their independence.

#### Liberal Nationalism

The typology of liberal nationalism applied mainly in the limiting of existing governmental structures and the powers they hold. Each group wants to represent an autonomous political unit when dealing or interacting with other groups that form their own autonomous political units. The ‘over-government’, whose responsibility is stewardship of these different groups ensures the equitable treatment of them by and toward each other.

This perspective on nationalism found favor in several European countries at the early part of the twentieth century, but through the course of World War I, the philosophy changed and found itself in competition with other forms of nationalistic belief emerging at the time (Ozkirimli, 2000, 39). Nationality, by this time in European history, took a turn which was more oriented around its own self. This would continue to be the dominant perspective through the end of the second World War.



## Integral Nationalism

This perspective is highly centered on the nation-state and individuals and their needs come secondary to it. This form, according to Ozkirmli, addresses the nation as a means in itself, rather than as a means for available to the individual. This form is tyrannical and highly intolerant of dissent and/or any disagreement. In the case of Europe, integral nationalism flourished in some countries, such as Italy and Germany, but its effects were felt in other countries such as Hungary, Poland, Turkey, and Yugoslavia through the conflict(s) that spilled over the national borders.

## Economic Nationalism

Economic nationalism is centered on the idea of the perpetuation of the economic landscape that makes one or more groups successful. Groups and individuals maintain their affiliation and working relationships with one another out of mutual pursuit of a similar set of goals based on personal or collective economic gain.

## Eastern and Western Versions

Hans Kohn, cited in Ozkirmli (p. 41), offers an approach whereby the form of nationalism is viewed through an eastern versus western lens. Why is it important to distinguish between these slightly different forms of the same kind of thinking? Contextually, as people encounter the history or experiences that occurs around them, they are predisposed to think along certain cultural mores. Therefore, the media-reported struggle of a group of people against the government of a far-off 'democracy' will have little appeal to their own priorities or value structures. If a person perceives nationalism

along the lines of economics, then nothing having to do with ethnicity or any other group will make sense, but this is not the case in all geo-political arenas.

### Diaspora Nationalism

The concept of siege culture comes into being here. Diaspora nationalism occurs when a self-defined group, usually a minority group, considers itself to be under threat or attack from a larger group. Usually the dominant group resides within the same geo-political or social setting and seeks, either actively or passively, to subdue or extinguish the smaller less-powerful group it considers to threaten. Smaller groups form the antithesis of this logic. Leslie Bash (2001) asserts that “a culture whose adherents perceive to be under siege is endowed with a certain kind of legitimacy” (p. 8). When there is a threat, the group defending itself may erect “a symbolic fortress in order to withstand the onslaught of ‘barbarianism’ [and this] is perceived as a permanent feature rooted in a glorious past and regarded as the very foundation of the culture of the group” (p. 8-9). This concept applies not only to smaller groups such as the Jews during World War II, but also to groups that do not occupy positions of considerable power and influence within the geopolitical apparatus where they reside. This same concept may be applied to certain parts of the Canada/United States relationship. This is to say that some Canadians citizenry perceive their cultural sovereignty to be under threat by the economic and cultural hegemon to the south (Cowley, 1981). These concerns persist regardless of the nature of the relationship between the countries.

### *Textbook Bias Studies*

Textbook bias studies are not new to researchers. Harry Dhand (1988) collected several examples of studies from Canada and the United States that examine various contexts of social education. I will summarize these findings as they illustrate the results of textual bias in history books in both countries. The studies address the treatment of particular facts or claims made by social studies texts with regard to national groups. Through their depictive power, texts seek to illustrate the form of the ideal character.

David Tyack (1993) observes that bias and prejudice in school were historically viewed as things to be fixed on the part of the people and not the system itself. This same bias and prejudice are transmitted through the materials used to teach students. They address areas of economics, gender equity, minority or indigenous representation, political leadership, the importance of particular historical figures, ethnic and cultural diversity, religious tolerance, and the like. Most of these studies, however, concentrate on what is written and taught within a particular nation.

## Canada

In their study of Canadian history books, McDiarmid and Pratt (1971) found that non-mainstream groups such as blacks and Indians were depicted in the least favorable manner of groups included in the textual narrative. This includes the vernacular used by mainstream culture(s) to describe them. These groups were still included within the text, but through themes that were primarily assimilationist in the nature of their descriptions.

Wood (1981) examined ethnic and cultural diversity themes in the texts used by Canada's mainstream social studies classes and found they have done an inadequate job of presenting the reality of the social landscape in regards to cultural diversity (see also Poole, 1999). That is, the interactions between groups are primarily observed through the

lens of one group, rather than presenting a multitude of lenses in the text. Osborne (1980) analyzed textual information as it relates to working class Canadians and found that only 'mainstream Canada' was presented with any real emphasis. A large percentage of the actual social structure of the country was omitted or distorted.

Conley and Osborne (1983) analyzed political education as it occurred through history texts and found that the mainstay of this curriculum resided in the traditional civics approach to history education. This subdues larger goals of political literacy and efficacy and is affected directly by bias. As the text presents information on various groups that is distorted, it also affects their perceptions of the political process, and their place in it.

#### The United States

Similar studies have been undertaken and the results, while not an exact image of Canada, also show a biased depiction of non-mainstream parties. Like Canadian texts, U.S. texts have portrayed the native Indian in ways that are inaccurate (see Parsons, 1982). Harris (1980) describes examples from various history texts that cast African-Americans in a similar stereotypical manner (see also Poole, 1999). Garcia and Tanner's (1985) analysis of texts shows improvement of African-American depiction, but other groups are marginalized or co-opted into larger multicultural categories. These groups include the Irish, Jewish, Italian, and Polish American groups, who were given greater mention and depth through the 1970's. This differentiation has decreased, if not partially reversed in recent years (see Garcia, 1985). Chin's (1984) findings address the experience and contribution of Asian-Americans in the United States. She contends that the texts did not adequately portray the experience or contributions of this group to the

larger American political and cultural landscape. Kaya-Carlton (1986) studied ethnicity as presented in American texts and found both the ‘melting pot’ approach to national historical depiction as well as the ‘salad bowl’ approach.

Yet another example in U.S. texts lies in the uneven portrayal of different Asian groups. Bullard (1986) found that cultures as different as those of China, India, and Indonesia are lumped into generalized categories and these categories do not even have a uniform philosophy for how the groups are depicted, allotted space for mention, or pictorial representation within the textbook. The result brings about arbitrary reductionism in the information conveyed. In one example, she reports that the only picture representing Indonesia was a dancer in traditional ancient dress. Across the different social studies textbooks surveyed, China received treatment ranging from Euro-centric to fairly positive.

Dhand reports that different cultures and the regions where they reside do not receive equitable treatment or mention in the history books of Canada or the U.S. Africa is another excellent example: in this context, an entire continent and its people were presented in homogenized terms and devoid of contributions made to the West (see Crofts, 1986). Crofts reports that coverage of this area has improved in that groups are now presented in more realistic terms, but that the choices of groups for textual representation are rife with biases. Another serious omission lies in the absence of depicting the economic problems faced by developing nations in this region. Greenfield (1986) reports that Latin America is also described in a reduced category, similar to that of Africa. Both frequency of mention and depiction have improved, but they fall prey to the Euro-American values and the perception of these values in solving problems. This

takes away from the complexity and the truthful nature of relationships and history between these nations and the United States.

Ross Poole (1999) describes the term ‘multiculturalism’ as entering politics in the 1970’s in Canada and the United States. This occurred as a result of social changes following World War II, in which travel, communications, and the media made it possible for widely separate groups to interact. As a result, groups separated by distance had a means by which to resist assimilation and better organize themselves in order to assert and retain their unique identities (p. 114-115). While this does not account for a better relating of the historical tale, it helps to explain why the textual mention and depiction of some groups improves, while that of others does not.

Historical narratives centered on the nation-state model do not present the fullest account of past events. The resulting bias in this depiction presents groups or individuals from different culture(s) in a manner that is ultimately untrue to some extent. The ‘un-truths’ result from different or narrowed interpretations of similar events and are partially accountable for the bias or prejudice that exists between the constituent elements of different national communities, or groups. These different perceptions of truth also influence the larger makeup of group social perception from one geo-social setting to another. The biased depiction in textbooks does not occur in all areas, but has its most prominent effects in those areas where nationalism or civic sentiments are concerned. This occurs in those spaces where history is oriented towards the building of a particular social mind-set, and that favors the continual re-building of itself. The concept of *Sui generis* (p. 19) is one Ozkirimli (2000) uses to refer to the building of a national community that is authentic and unique in its identity, and more importantly is a concept

that represents an ongoing evolution of changes in the formation of belief. A contention supported by the review of literature is that mainstream texts do not adequately portray non-mainstream or minority groups. This occurs not only inside national education systems, but also across national boundaries. It is part of the final product of mainstream culture and the manner in which it combines with nationalism.

Within the increasingly complex state of relations between groups and nations, the concept(s) and experiences of nationalism become steadily more contradictory as viewed within the realistic relationship(s) between nations. The very nature of nationalism signals one thing: concern for the larger political or social self. Lee Heller (1998), citing Edward Said (1978), writes, “Fields of learning, as much as the works of even the most eccentric artists, are constrained and acted upon by society, by cultural traditions, by worldly circumstance, and by stabilizing influences like schools, libraries, and governments” (p. 340).

### *Civics Education*

Civics education, as it relates to the larger political and social structures it is intended to address and sustain, can be part of numerous academic subjects, of which history is the most obvious. Carol Hahn (1998) addresses civics education in terms of the different contextual systems in various geo-political areas, including Europe and North America. Civics education occurs “within a set of boundaries where the ideals of citizenship, democracy, and education were somewhat similar” (p. viii). The results of her examination of western industrial/post-industrial countries and the attitudes and ideals their education system(s) seek to reinforce do not show uniform approaches. They show

that the system or methodology of a country is not automatically compatible with the set of practices from another nation.

According to Hahn (1998), the research on political learning tends toward two general traditions: political socialization and a cognitive development model.

The dominant tradition in the 1960s and 1970s was political socialization.

Associated with structural functionalist and systems theories, socialization research focuses on the macro level and is concerned with the processes used to instill in individuals concepts, beliefs, attitudes, and values which in the aggregate will sustain the political system (p. xi)

In this approach, school takes the form of an institution whose partial purpose is to transmit what is considered 'correct'. History and geography classes are some of the primary areas where issues relating to these dimensions of education are addressed and subsequently built on (see Gaston, 2004; Levinson, 2003; Thelen, 1998).

The second tradition is the cognitive development model which Hahn states is the means "whereby the focus is on the micro-level or how individuals construct meaning about the political [or social] world (1998, p. xi). The cognitive dimension on the micro-level is the manner whereby the individual makes sense of information he or she has been exposed to through the various social processes, of which school is but one. The continual teaching and re-teaching of subjects such as history, builds a precise contextual fabric that sustains and reinforces a particular set of truths and assumptions.

The effort to build communities through civics education is an effort that is rooted in history, but is also used to address needs of the present day. David Thelen (1998) asserts that "history was invented and largely served to provide stories that link



individuals to the nation-- to make the nation seem a logical or desirable or inevitable fulfillment of experiences for diverse individuals” (p. 397). Lee Heller also states, “Communities are to be distinguished not by their falsity/genuineness, but by the style in which they are imagined” (1998, p. 344). This applies directly to the social construction of knowledge. Victor Brooks (1986) explored the notion of Canadian studies in American history courses, in his historical analysis of texts that were utilized in schools in the post-revolutionary war years. He found that the sentiment(s) used by each country in its respective documentary reality addressed the merits of the respective social system each was trying to protect and disseminate. With the United States, it was the advantage of self-rule and breaking ties with the British colonial empire. In the case of Canada, the advantages were in holding close to Britain, for they did not want to be taken over by America.

#### Civics Education in Canada

According to Hebert and Sears (p. 6), civics education in Canada has fallen into four different phases during the last 110 years. During each of these phases, content areas were emphasized. The most recent, and the one that is relevant in this analysis, began in the 1990’s and addressed the need of the individual to be oriented more toward the role of the entrepreneur and one who could more readily compete in a globalized economy. Due to this economic re-assignment, the notion of community and participation that had been part of the Canadian curriculum was re-worked into a form that more resembled the American model (Osborne, 1996 as cited in Hebert and Sears).

As a result, different positions have been developed as to where civics education belongs in the curriculum. Herbert and Sears report a number of studies asserting that the

primary position for civics in Canadian education should be within the subject of history (see Bliss, 1992; Granatstein, 1998; Laville, 1996; Durocher, 1996; Richard, 1995).

According to Meira Levinson (2003), “Social studies-based civic education... roots the rights and responsibilities of citizenship within a larger narrative about the country’s history and identity, carrying that through into a narrative about each student’s own identity as an actor within the national story.” (p. 25)

Herbert and Sears also report that not all agree with this approach, but history has become the nesting place for at least a majority of this subject. They cite additional studies contending that civics belongs in more than one academic subject and should not be limited merely to one when the goal is to promote more active civic and social awareness and participation (see Johnston, 1997; Laurin et Klein, 1998; Laville et Dionne, 1996).

#### Civics Education in the United States

Jeffrey Mirel (2002) writes that similar changes in American concepts of civic education and national identity have also taken place during this past century. A primary change is that the American model has been recast to include diversity, rather than groups simply shedding their ethnic identities as had been done in the past. Mirel’s analysis covers changes from the 1900’s through the 1950’s and shows that events geographically external to the United States, to include both World Wars, played a major role in bringing about this change. John Hoge (2002), in a similar analysis spanning from the 1950’s through the end of the century, concluded that starting in the 1950’s, books were written in a way that asserted democracy (or Americanism) over communism. The 1960’s and 70’s saw the end of this trend and the rise of LRE (Law Related Education). This form

ushered in imperatives such as skills and attitudes deemed necessary for responsible citizenship. Hoge asserts that “an explicit citizenship education rationale is often claimed as a fundamental purpose for instruction in history, economics, geography, and other social science courses as they are taught in high school” (2002, p. 105).

Civics education, therefore, is a direct corollary of values education. As Meyer (1988) contends, citizenship is an abstract term that is primarily functional in nature. Therefore, each country or group constructs the model citizen in a different fashion. Lee Heller (1998) also addresses this issue: “If the poststructuralist enterprise has taught us anything, it is that truth is constructed, a product and servant of the culture it claims to describe” (p. 336).

#### *Economic Interaction(s) and NAFTA*

With the passage of the North American Free Trade Agreement in 1988, the economies of Canada and the United States became more interrelated. Prior to this time and while the agreement was still in various stages of negotiation, people in both countries worried aloud as to the potentially negative cultural impacts that might ensue.

In a paper entitled “Globalization and Cultural Diplomacy”, Harvey Feigenbaum (2002) quotes Kevin Mulcahy in saying that “Canada has had a longtime fear of becoming a U.S. vassal state” (p. 20). Mulcahy further writes that “the size and aggressiveness of American cultural industries such as movies, television, and publishing have, in various periods and among certain audiences, stimulated a strong sense of fear about the ‘Americanization’ of Canada” (p. 21). While the commodification and consumption of cultural goods such as these may be argued to be somewhat more benign by their design and use, cultural products bring about and build perceptions toward

particular institutions, relationships, and items. Hernan Galperin (1999) writes of the importance of the audio-visual industries' influence on culture: "Communications industries also carry lofty political implications because it is through them that public discourse circulates through modern societies" (p. 3). As the U.S. economy has expanded, companies and corporations have gone north looking for newer markets and, in many cases, with the intention to procure the means to control those markets.

Seymour Lipset (1991) outlines the comparable economic advantage(s) held by the United States over Canada, in terms of population, economic and labor force, and capabilities in distribution. The ethic and abilities built into the economic practices of each nation are products of that nation's heritage (Lipset, p. 435). Citing Herschel Hardin (1974), Lipset observes that "Canadian entrepreneurs have frequently been less aggressive, less innovative, and less likely to take risks than American ones" (p. 435). An extension of this logic can be seen in the practices some Canadians have in financial investing. Lipset observes that when individuals invest, a majority of them do it south of the border in the United States where the promise of a return has a greater degree of probability. Lipset cites Glazier (1972) in arguing that "because Canadians have invested in 'sure' companies in the United States, Canada has suffered not just from a labor drain and a brain drain, but from a considerable capital drain as well" (Lipset, p. 435).

Another phenomenon that occurred after World War II was the expansion of American higher education, with a steady migration of Canadian students into American universities (Rowland Lorimer, 1991). During their time in America, these education students were exposed to practices based on the ideals and theories of pragmatists like John Dewey (Lorimer citing Lorimer and Keeney, 1989). The more influential

universities such as Columbia, Stanford, and Chicago became centers of pragmatist thought. Many of these students then returned to Canada to occupy influential positions within the educational hierarchy (Lorimer, p. 4). Thus, pragmatism headed north and became part of the educational landscape at certain Canadian universities, so the dimension of American philosophical orientation in education became potent in two locations. The dominance of American educational thought and the familiarity these professionals had with the publishing industry in the United States began to work against the Canadian publishing industry.

Since Canadians do not share the exact same civic traits as Americans on the whole, it stands that one set of cultural mores will be perceived as more invasive and incompatible with the other. Citing Roger Swanson, Cowley (1981) writes that “Canadians have an abiding receptivity to, but fear of, cultural influences from the United States” (p. 572). While this same public concern does not exist in the United States, the Canadian reaction to it occurs in the form of cultural protectionism.

Lorimer (1991) writes that book publishing has undergone substantial change since the end of World War II and from 1965 on. At the close of World War II, American publishers established dominance in the English-speaking Canadian market. This placed Canadian-owned firms in second place with regard to market share and dominance. As a result, a grass-roots movement began whereby Canadian authors and publishers worked to re-establish their presence in the native markets. As a result, Article(s) 1607 and 2005 of the Free Trade Agreement (see Lorimer p. 1-2) and Annex 2106 (see Galperin, 1999, p. 10) specifically address the preservation of and right to act on industries, to include book publishing, that are considered culturally important. While

this contradicts the underlying logic of the free trade agreement, it presents a set of option(s) for retaining and promoting cultural identity considered important to Canada. No feature(s) like this exist in the agreement between Mexico and the United States (Galperin, p. 10).

Lorimer (1991) also writes that the Vietnam era of the 1960's and 70's brought about a significant shift in political thought and ideology within the Canadian citizenry (p. 4). Cultural protectionism and the re-assertion of cultural sovereignty began within the publishing industry at that time. While a variety of titles are available for use within the school system, the history texts chosen for this study were written, published, and distributed in the country in which they are taught.

Lorimer (citing Lorimer, 1984) reports, for the Ontario market, that while importing school textbooks for use in Canadian schools is not forbidden, textbooks that are strictly American in their construction have little chance of being adopted. For this reason, books are published separately for schools in Ontario and other districts.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

Due to the nature of the reproduction and dissemination of history through the process of schooling and the means by which this reproduction and dissemination build the social being, I will utilize discourse analysis to examine how Canada and the United States represent their interaction(s) and experiences with each other, and so themselves through the emphasis placed on particular events and their outcomes. The process of building and disseminating accounts of history is an exercise in social constructionism (Crotty, 1998). Constructionism is a relevant dimension in this context because the end product of socially-constructed knowledge is gained through collective effort and not strictly that of the individual. Social constructionism, in this context and through the information it employs, goes back to a particular fact, or facts, at some point in history. It is from the interpretation of these facts that the historical narrative is then developed. Rockmore (2003) states that historical writing “requires the construction of interpretive frameworks to take into account the known historical data. In every situation it is always possible to construct more than one interpretation to fit the known facts, and there is always more than one perspective for determining such facts” (p. 67). This study addresses existing political, economic, and social relationships, and the facts which animate them, as depicted in history books. Lee (2000), citing Luke (1997), writes that

“all forms of discourse analysis generate texts about texts” (p. 197). The two cultures are separate and distinctive of each other in particular ways and therefore document themselves and articulate certain values based in part on the relationship(s) held with the opposite culture and the value frameworks of that opposite cultural system.

### Discourse Analysis

Citing Potter (1997) and Prior (1997), David Silverman (2003) describes this sort of discourse analysis as useful in understanding “how different versions of the world are produced through the use of interpretive repertoires, claims to ‘stakes’ in an account, and construction of knowing subjects” (p. 349). Examination of the outcomes of a group’s social construction of the resulting knowledge framework reveal what the guiding rules of knowledge construction involve and what they are intended to bring about that is to the benefit of the group in question. Connelly and Clandinin (1991) contend that this form of inquiry has a substantial sociological dimension in that narrative analysis and inquiry address both the building of communities and their sustainment. While the building of a particular community or institution involves the efforts of many, there are varying interpretations as to the significance of a particular event or outcome as that construction continually occurs. Additionally, Rockmore (2003) further argues that “we never just grasp the empirical facts, but ‘construct’ representations of the historical events...within the prevailing conceptual scheme or schemes and the empirical constraints” (p. 69). The difference in how groups of people, especially those across national borders, interpret particular historical interactions involves the hermeneutic principle (Patton, 2002; see also Pinar 1994; see also Gadamer 1975). This principle asserts that different groups will view similar situations in non-uniform ways that have an outcome which is defining



or altering of the social construction of knowledge. In the same, it addresses the nature of the causal factors that brought about the historical interaction in the first place.

### Choice and Rationale of Materials

Four textbooks, two from Canada and two from the United States, were chosen for this study because of their emphasis on national character through the teaching of each nation's history. Such an emphasis means that these books devote an expanded degree of attention to details of the historical narrative for each country.

From the United States, more precisely Stillwater, Oklahoma, textbooks from the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade(s) currently in use were examined. The 11<sup>th</sup> grade text is distributed by Prentice Hall publishers, covers U.S. history and is entitled *America: Pathways to the Present*. The 12<sup>th</sup> grade text, distributed by Houghton Mifflin publishers, comes from an advanced placement U.S. history course and is entitled *Making America: A History of the United States*.

The textbooks from Ontario, Canada are used in the 10<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grades in the school system of Toronto. They are produced and distributed by McGraw-Hill Ryerson publishers. The 10<sup>th</sup> grade textbook is entitled *Canada: A Nation Unfolding* (Ontario edition) and the 12<sup>th</sup> grade textbook is *Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture*. The 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade texts from the United States and 10<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade texts from Canada were chosen because of the sequence of history courses in the respective school systems.

As noted in Chapter 1, both educational systems have decentralized textbook adoption policies. Therefore, numerous texts are available for school districts in both

cities and in many cases different titles are in use. Either a committee or the individual faculty member has a choice in the text they elect to use. Whatever the choice of the individuals, committees, or departments, the text(s) stand as what Atkinson and Coffey (1997) refer to as documentary realities. Documentary realities are part of the codified means by which societies, and so their schools, explain their experiences, and so narrate their separate, socially-constructed realities. Atkinson and Coffey also point out that “it is important to realize the extent to which many cultures and settings are self-documenting” (p. 45). That is, the content of one text is structured to build or expand on what has been taught before as well as the subject(s) that will be covered in subsequent years.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to gain insight into the cultural/national assumptions that find their way into the respective classroom(s) via the texts that are used. The texts will provide a snapshot, of sorts, relating to cultural assumptions and construction as well as address a dimension of what Atkinson and Coffey refer to as “intertextuality” (p. 55), the idea that texts do not stand alone, but instead refer to and reinforce a larger system of reference, in this case the goal(s) of general cultural cohesion. As described in chapter 1, committees or individuals may choose one particular text over others for various reasons, including the ancillary materials that accompany a particular text, or the readability level(s) of one over another. The texts for this study were chosen because they are in actual use within both school systems. They

occupy particular nodes of the national historical narratives and will lend insight into the orientation of the cultural hermeneutic for both Canada and the United States.

Membership categorization was used to organize the data and help to generate relevant themes as the analysis proceeded. Carolyn Baker (2000) asserts that the “membership categorization device analysis offers a socially critical perspective on text and culture by showing a different order of phenomena in texts and in talk than is retrievable through other critical discourse analysis approaches, and by locating ‘culture’ in social practices” (p. 112). A Likert scale was employed for generation and subsequent comparison of relevant categories of information in each of the texts. The rating system was as follows: (1) Negative (2) Partially Negative (3) Neutral (4) Partially Positive (5) Positive. The information in the entry will be rated to determine the nature of textual depiction and whether it occurs in a positive, negative, or neutral context. It will be plain to see who benefits in the resulting point of view. Passages of text will include paragraph and sentence form, depending on the relevancy of the particular chunks of data. Illustrations in the text were also examined as they are relevant.

#### Inductive Model of Research

As each text was analyzed, the membership categorization and criteria for assessment was further refined to ensure that all relevant data were assigned to a category and so evaluated. Phillip Mayring (2000) describes an inductive model of analysis whereby the categories used to evaluate textual material are refined as necessary when 10-50% of the materials have been covered. This process allows for the formulation of additional categories as needed and sustains the focus of the analysis. At the outset, these

categories included historical events as they address different social structures within each country. They include the political, economic, religious, and cultural dimensions as they are depicted historically and to the present day. The interaction(s) depicted in each text build on information and assertions that are woven throughout the historical narrative. The intent was to see what kind of historical victimization occurred on either side through the telling of similar events from two different points of view and the particular contexts in which the telling occurs. The subject of this treatment was quite broad, but for purposes of this study, confined to the way texts from each nation depicts the other. In a broad sense, both nations claim either England or France as their cultural progenitors, so the depiction of the British and French empires and the relations to other former European empires will be a feature of this analysis, but it is important to note that it is a tertiary one. Canadian history treats the depiction of the British Empire differently than the United States. Therefore, depiction of the British Empire was confined to the manner it addressed Canada. While Canadians largely considered themselves to be British citizens or French and this guided their civic sentiments, the United States did not outrightly regard them in the same ways. While the populace was seen first as 'Canadian' in an overall sense, the focus was on the manner of influence they held for British colonial heritage. There were times where the distinction was made between Canada and England, and other times where the two were more intertwined. Therefore, the various ways that colonial ties influenced the interpretations of history was very different for all groups of people. The straightforward depiction directly between Canada and the United States is the focus of this inquiry.

Because the sets of books did not cover exactly the same materials, I situated passages of text that address the same topic or event(s) in history and compared how each nation represented the other. If one text addressed an area that the other texts did not, the absence of this information or these entries was evaluated as to whether its absence was an area of importance.

Following collection and analysis of the data, frequency and types of description were recorded as they applied to either country. From that information it is possible not only to better understand how much attention is paid to a particular group and culture outside one's own border, but whether groups are victimized or depicted as other so as to further reinforce the assertions, or the normative claims of the particular country. As stated in the existing research, studies like this have been done, but since textbooks are continuously produced and consumed by publishers and schools, this study provides a useful indicator for how depiction exists in present-day school systems.

#### *Inter-Rater Reliability*

According to Geist and Aldridge (2003) reliability is an important feature for qualitative studies where an analysis of text is the central focus. Inter-rater reliability minimizes potential bias from a singular interpretation of textual data. The result of this bias in this context, in its most immediate form, comes from one nationalist experience versus another. Citing Denzin, Patton (2002) reminds the reader that a triangulated approach to the interpretation of textual documents helps to overcome the bias intrinsic to a single researcher (see also Mathison, 1988). For this study, two outside individuals have served as raters. The first coder is Canadian by birth and a former faculty member from a liberal arts college. The second coder is a graduate student at Oklahoma State

University; both are males. This was done for two reasons: First, in an effort to ensure the greatest degree of objectivity possible and secondly as a safeguard against generalizations that occur through the process of acquiring cultural knowledge through growing up and learning in different countries. Relevant passages in the texts are listed in the appendices with ratings from the researcher and additional raters being listed side by side. The primary researcher will be listed as 'Researcher', the Canadian citizen will be listed as 'Rater #1', and the graduate student from Oklahoma State University will be listed as 'Rater #2'. Having these separate evaluations present to compare the rate of agreement and/or disagreement will yield a better picture for how the different text entries are seen. While there were sure to be discrepancies in the results of the readings, the differences will better illustrate in themselves the different points where the bias of historical reading and depiction lies. A form verifying that this study is non-human research is located in Appendix K on page 504.

#### Rationale of Qualitative versus Quantitative

Some current studies employ quantitative methods for research such as this, but the goal here was to develop a qualitative approach and analysis. Though the method of interpretation possessed a dimension of post-positivism (see Crotty, 1998), the participation of outside raters also served an interpretive function in that all entries were observed and evaluated by three people, instead of just one. In developing this framework, examples of other textual and historical relationships were examined between other countries to see some of the ways that one group or nation benefits in their claims versus those of another group. In the end, the goal of the researcher was to see the

particular types of generalized themes that arise from the texts as they relate to the country whose history they present, as well as themes related to the opposite country. The results will illustrate those features and components of the social narrative that nations guard the closest and which they maintain as vehicles to reproduce their respective identities.

Among the four textbooks used in this study, the total number of entries addressing the opposite country amounted to 530. Due to the amount of information included and the fact that outside individuals agreed to serve as inter-raters, the post-positivistic dimension has also been included as a means to keep track of the information in a reliable fashion. This dimension is also necessary because, as Elliot Eisner (1998) asserts, “The term *qualitative* suggests its opposite, *quantitative*, and implies that qualitative inquiry makes no use of quantification. This is not the case” (p. 5). Eisner goes on to illustrate the connection between empirical representations (quantitative) and the manner of their representation (qualitative) and being too interwoven to separate them in any real sense. Eisner also contends that qualitative inquiry is “sufficiently general to encompass not only teaching and other forms of human activity, but also objects such as buildings and books” (p. 5). Since this analysis is entirely directed at textbooks and treats them as social and cultural artifacts, it becomes relevant to include a means for keeping better track of the amount of data and nature of its evaluation as a means of check and balance.

The inclusion of this post-positivistic dimension within a qualitative study was also done for the reason that, as described through triangulation, although bias cannot be eliminated completely, it can be minimized and so a greater degree of general objectivity

assured. Some of the entries were quite brief with others being longer. For each text, all entries addressing the opposite nation have been recorded and are located in the appendices. The only entries recorded were those that directly addressed the opposite country and/or culture, therefore not all the information relating to building the national narrative was relevant in gathering the information necessary for this analysis. Following each entry, the rating scale value given by each rater will be listed. For example, Entry #1 (2/3/4) refers to Entry #1 where the researcher assigned a value of 2, inter-rater #1 assigned a value of 3 and inter-rater #2 assigned a value of 4 for the particular entry. The value of these entries are based on the Likert scale described earlier in chapter 3. Accompanying graphs are also located in the appendices listed for each textbook. As the data was collected and compared, examples of historical interaction are shown so the reader will have a greater understanding of the trends in how one text depicts same or similar events contained in the others.



## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

This chapter contains four sections, each with smaller subsections. The first section addresses the information obtained from the Canadian textbooks; the second addresses the information from the American texts. The third addresses areas of overlap, where the texts from both countries depict the same or similar events and the nature of the resulting information; and the fourth section addresses the results and percentages of inter-rater reliability as it pertained to interpretation of the different entries and whether those interpretations were positive, negative, or neutral.

#### Canadian History Books

The textbook *Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture* contained 258 separate entries that depicted the United States politically, militarily, culturally, or economically. The nature of these depictions fit within the category of themes listed below. The textbook *Canada: A Nation Unfolding (Ontario Edition)* had 181 separate such entries. The general and specific themes that emerged from the entries are not exactly the same in both books, although there is considerable overlap. The themes from each textbook are listed below and at the beginning of the section for each of the history books.

#### *Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture*

1. Thirteen Colonies
2. Religion

- 3.
4. People
5. Political Sovereignty
6. Canadian National Identity
7. National Expansion
8. Immigration
9. Military Conflict
10. Slavery
11. Economic Activity
12. World Affairs
13. Communications/Entertainment
14. Chapter Objectives/Review

*Canada: A Nation Unfolding (Ontario Edition)*

1. Cultural Protectionism
2. Military Conflict
3. Economic Activity
4. Canadian National Identity
5. Immigration
6. Canada-US relations
7. People
8. World Affairs
9. Environment
10. Chapter Reviews

There were several reasons for differences in the emergent themes in this analysis.

Although the texts covered the same frames of time, they were written by different authors and serve different grade levels. The senior-level (12<sup>th</sup> grade) history book contained a level of detail that the sophomore-level (10<sup>th</sup> grade) did not. This was due to the fact that one textbook built and expanded on information presented in previous years of the curriculum.

***Defining Canada: History, Culture, and Identity***

Of the 258 entries in *Defining Canada: History, Culture, and Identity*, 96 were judged to be neutral by all the raters. These areas of mention ranged across all the emergent themes and are included in the appendices. There were 37 cases of positive

mention within the text for the United States and 125 were negative, with 96 being neutral. In the following sections, each theme with the subsequent entries, both positive and negative, are listed. The general list of themes is as follows:

*Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture*

1. Thirteen Colonies
2. Religion
3. People
4. Political Sovereignty
5. Canadian National Identity
6. National Expansion
7. Immigration
8. Military Conflict
9. Slavery
10. Economic Activity
11. World Affairs
12. Communications/Entertainment
13. Chapter Objectives/Review

Thirteen Colonies

The theme of Thirteen Colonies had a total of 11 entries to it. Of these, 5 were negative, 6 were neutral and none were positive. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix A. In the context of the Thirteen Colonies theme, the leaders mentioned, namely George Washington and Benjamin Franklin were related to factors which started conflict. No other individuals were mentioned, but people were lumped together in a way that describes a much larger group, lower on the socioeconomic ladder, that was placed in a situation where individuals and larger parties had to leave if their loyalties to England were to remain intact. Those not loyal to England were described as *rebellious subjects*.

Entry #3(2/2/2) referred to the expansion of settlers to the west of the Thirteen Colonies and their encroachment onto Aboriginal lands. “George Washington and Benjamin Franklin—were not going to be prevented from taking over Aboriginal lands

and selling it in parcels to those who wanted to move west into what was still known as Indian territory.” Entry #5(2/3/3) referred to the Ohio Valley region and the Royal Proclamation of 1763, which settlers in the Thirteen Colonies viewed the proclamation as an attempt to hold back expansion westward. Entry #6(2/2/3) referred to the arrival of immigrants to the British colonies of North America, namely those under British control. The entry goes on to state, “They came mainly from the British Isles and the United States, fleeing civil unrest, oppression, famine, poverty, and slavery.” Entry #7 (2/2/3) referred to the Quebec act and its limitation of the takeover of more Aboriginal lands. “The American Revolution tore apart the society in the Thirteen Colonies with neighbour fighting against neighbour, revolutionary against British loyalist.” Entry #8(2/3/3) referred to the British attempting to win the support of religious leaders in Quebec to “keep them from joining the rebellious subjects of the Thirteen Colonies to the south.”

### National Expansion

In the context of national expansion, the entries depicting the United States or Thirteen Colonies were all negative. The United States was depicted as being land-hungry on the whole and the Canadians, through being anxiously aware of the potential American intent, were forced into a competitive relationship in order to keep from being overwhelmed.

Entry #11(2/2/3) referred to John Graves Simcoe as the first lieutenant governor of Upper Canada. In this entry, his belief toward the American democracy was that many Americans would soon grow tired of democratic culture in the United States and come to his colony if it embodied proper British customs, manners, and principles. Entry

#12(2/2/2) referred to movement of settlers in the United States versus that of Canada. In the United States, companies owned by private individuals claimed “huge tracts of Aboriginal lands and where pioneers trekked looking for land on which to settle.” It was then stated that the difference in these policies would have “a profound impact on the future development of both nations.” It would develop into the mindset with which each group slowly occupied greater and greater parts of the continent. Entry #13(2/2/1) referred to westward expansion and the “American threat.” “For decades, there existed a major concern that if Canadians did not establish a physical presence in the west, it would not be long before the Americans did.” The entry contains a quote from the Prime Minister of the time, John MacDonalD who said, “[The Americans] are resolved to do all they can, short of war, to get possession of our western territory, and we must take immediate and vigorous steps to counteract them.” The American philosophy of Manifest Destiny was cited as a reason for Canadians being “anxiously aware” of what the United States was seen to most likely do following the end of the American Civil War. American Secretary of State William Seward was referred to in the same entry as the purchase of Alaska, he was quoted as saying, “You are building excellent states to be hereafter admitted into the American Union.” The American act of dispatching a consul to the Red River was related as being equally disturbing.

Entry #14(2/3/3) referred to the placement of Aboriginal Peoples onto reservation lands. The Canadians were referred to as desiring to open the lands to agriculture, settlement, and the railway. “South of the border, the Americans were fighting a costly series of battles against the Plains Indians.” The Canadian government was described as

being strapped for cash, but none-the-less, setting out to acquire the land west of Manitoba afterwards by “learning from that experience”.

Entry #15(2/3/3) referred to the national policy of Central Canada. It described the severe downturn of the Canadian maritime economy when markets with the United States and Britain disappeared. Entry #16(3/2/3) referred to the growth of the American Gilded age and a net migration out of Canada of almost two million people. This entry was set against a perception that the American frontier had closed up.

### Military Conflict

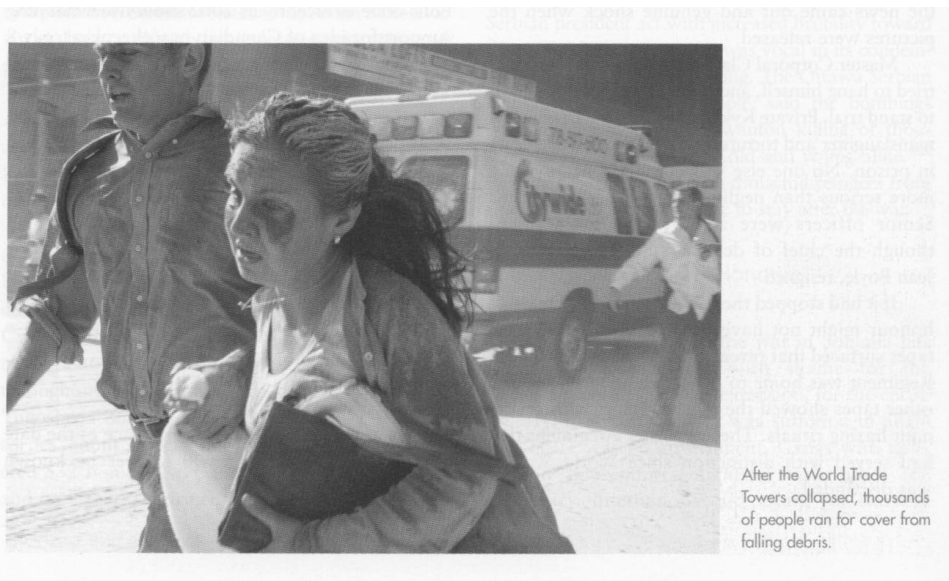
Military conflict between Canada and the United States was separated into three general periods: the American Revolution, the War of 1812, and conflicts of the twentieth century to include World War I and World War II. Of the 56 entries within this theme, 7 are positive, 34 are negative, and 16 are neutral. The positive depictions are discussed first followed by the negative. Neutral entries are listed in the appendices.

Entry #22(4/3/3) referred to the balance of trade between Britain and its colonies. The context was Britain’s utilizing and maintaining the colonies for its own economic benefit. None were allowed to aspire to a level higher than that of Britain, but “by the late 1700s, the Thirteen Colonies were ready to chart their own economic future.”

Entry #48(5/3/3) referred to the Halifax Relief Commission of 1917. It stated that a sizable amount of aid, \$750,000 in cash, had come from the Massachusetts Relief Committee. Entry #52(3/4/3) referred to the manufacture of Canadian industries to support the American war effort. Canada provided training, materials, and access to American industry. Entry #53(2/4/3) referring to the war in the Atlantic ocean during

World War II, stated that when the American navy moved a majority of its fleets from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, the Axis powers saw this as a point of weakness. Canada was then charged with protecting the Atlantic coastline. Entry #56(4/3/3) referred to the amount of fighting that Allied countries had done during World War II. It cited Britons as fighting in greater numbers, but that Canada had made a “considerable contribution as a newly independent power with a comparatively smaller population.”

Entry #70(3/3/4) referred to the attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001. It described the United States as gaining support from the United Nations and the formation of a peace coalition. The entry also stated that during the invasion of Afghanistan, four members of the Canadian military were killed by friendly fire. “An American pilot had accidentally dropped a bomb on them. They were the first Canadian soldiers to die during a combat mission in almost fifty years.” Entry #71(3/4/3) showed a picture of a woman running from the World Trade Center covered in dust (see photograph in appendix).



The picture does not emphasize nationality, but rather the human experience of that time. Entry #72(5/4/5) showed a Canadian flag flying beside an American flag at a remembrance ceremony in Ottawa.



The national expansion theme had several entries that were negative, as well. Entry #18(3/2/3) referred to the French Canadians by British administrators. They were cautious in their approaches to this group due to the discontent in the Thirteen Colonies. Entry #19(2/2/3) referred to the Quebec Act and the subsequent “outrage of settlers in the Thirteen Colonies” in reference to settling on Aboriginal lands. Aboriginal leader Josef Brant is referred to as knowing that Aboriginal people would lose more land if the American Revolution succeeded. Entry #21(3/2/3) referred to the “Mandate to Rebellious Subjects During the American War” as a warning to Canadians by British officials not to rebel against Britain. Entry #23(2/2/3) said that the policies of the Thirteen Colonies during the Revolutionary War and that “they tended to alienate what little support the revolutionaries had within Quebec.” Entry #24(2/2/3) referred to the “propaganda” of the Thirteen Colonies toward the French Canadians. Parts of the letter



were included with language that is caustic and accusatory. “By the introduction of your present form of government, or rather present form of tyranny, you and your wives and your children are made slaves. You have nothing that you can call your own, and all the fruits of your labour and industry may be taken from you, whenever an avaritious governor and a rapacious council may incline to demand them.” Other parts of the letter that were included had similar language that served as an attack on culture. The entry further stated that “French Canadians were suspicious of the promises of friendship and civil rights” by the Americans.

Entry #25(2/2/3) referred to the attack in 1775 on Quebec by the American militia. “The combined British forces and French Canadians managed to hold their city successfully against the Americans.” The entry continues, “this show of force convinced the Americans that the conquest of Canada was not worth the effort it would take to accomplish.” The text referred to the French Canadians and the British forces, but the same designation did not hold for the American militia; instead they were referred to only as the Americans. Entry #26 (2/2/3) referred to the political sentiments of those that came to be known as patriots and loyalists. The section was headed “Patriots/Rebels and Loyalists/Tories.” The entry refers to the civil standing of various parties of the time, but emphasized what happened to the British loyalists. Mention of Britain’s “restrictive policies and taxes” was given, but not to any extended degree. The fates of the descendents of immigrants who came to the colonies were described as property being lost, being sent to prison, sent into exile. Slavery was also mentioned, as slaves were on both sides of the conflict. George Washington was included as “the person who was to

become the first president of the U.S. after the revolution, was from Virginia and owned hundreds of slaves.”

Entry #27(2/3/3) referred to the Aboriginal allies of the British during the revolutionary war. The passage indicated that an alliance with Britain was their only hope of retaining claims to their native lands. The passage further stated that the fighting occurred largely on their lands and that their families were foremost among the casualties. Entry #28(2/2/3) addressed the United Empire Loyalists and the migration north to Canada. Descriptions were given as to some of the occupations they formerly held in the Thirteen Colonies, all of which indicated a reputable standing in the community. A description followed of “entire families; sometimes the families were made up only of women and children, without husbands and fathers who had been killed in the American war” with words like “refugees” used to describe them.

Entry #30(2/2/3) referred to the War of 1812 with main causes of the conflict being the American determination to take over additional Aboriginal lands. Entry #32(2/2/3) addressed causes for the War of 1812 and cited numerous forms of blame and accusation on the part of the Americans towards the British. “Aggressive nationalists, the War Hawks” were cited as wanting war with Canada in order to acquire more territory. The passage depicted the American government as lashing out in all directions in order to further its own goals.

Entry #33(2/2/2) referred to the military conflicts and propaganda disseminated through the newsprint in America at the time. Major-General Isaac Brock was mentioned as being “well aware of the warlike attitude of the Americans towards the British and Canadians.” “Every American newspaper teems with violent and hostile resolutions

against England and associations are forming in every town for the...purpose of attacking these provinces.” The military conflicts mentioned throughout the rest of the entry depicted the American militia as being ill-equipped and unable to hold its own.

Entry #34(2/2/2) referred to events that occurred in lower Canada leading to alliances between General Isaac Brock and Tecumseh, an Aboriginal leader. This alliance is set against the backdrop of the potential American takeover of Aboriginal lands and the promise by the British to help Aboriginal peoples to prevent this. In this entry, Americans were referred to as “land-hungry.” Entry #35(2/2/2) continued with a reference to the battle for Fort Detroit. In this passage the Americans were referred to as invaders. At the end of the War of 1812 there was “no stopping the American expansion west.” The Aboriginal peoples were described as the “real losers of the War of 1812.” Entry #36(2/3/3) referred to the Treaty of Ghent which ended the war and to the folklore that resulted in Upper Canada: the “Loyalist population turned back the American threat almost single-handedly.” The resulting groups were described as being suspicious of anything that seemed “American republicanism.” Entry #38(2/3/3) referred to the formation of the “Loyal and Patriotic Society of Upper Canada at York.” Among its initial purposes was to defend “Upper Canada’s borders against the Americans.”

Entry #40(2/2/3) referred to the American Civil War and the suspicions by the Americans that Britain was siding with the southern states against the northern states. The passage stated that “some Americans were talking, yet again, of annexation of the Canadian colonies.” Inserting phrasing such as “yet again” implies redundancy. Entry #43(2/2/3) referred to the Quebec Conference and cancellation of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866. In this entry, the Americans were described as again threatening war against

Canada over an incident stemming from the Civil War conflict that involved Confederate agents. The entry describes members of the conference who were children during the War of 1812 and that “the threat of invasion was very real.”

Entry #44(2/3/3) referred to the expansion of Canadian borders. In this entry the “constant threat of annexation by the United States” was given as an influential factor forcing many of the colonies to consider and reconsider confederation within Canada.

Entry #45(2/3/3) referred to a military expedition whose purposes were to “discourage American attempts of taking over Canadian territory.”

Entry #46(2/1/1) referred to events leading to the formation of the North-West Mounted Police. American traders that came to Canada were described as ruthless, and an extended example came with the description of “drunken American wolfers.” “Incorrectly believing that the natives had stolen a horse from them, the ‘wolfers’ murdered twenty Assiniboine, including the elderly and children. In a horrific display of brutal lawlessness, one elderly tribesman was clubbed to death and his severed head tied on to a pole.” The passage presented this as a reason for the formation of the North-West Mounted Police as the fear of lawlessness “was an open invitation for American Annexation.”

Entry #50(2/2/3) referred to the Treaty of Versailles which ended World War I. For this treaty signing, the Canadian Prime Minister insisted on having a seat at the Peace Conference. The United States was described as being angered by this idea because Canada was a colony of Britain, which meant more power for Britain. The United States, the text said, refused to join the League of Nations “partly in protest of the British colony’s new voice.” Entry #51(2/3/2) also referred to the refusal of the United States to

join the League of Nations: it was “ironic that the U.S. did not join the League, even though the organization had been a vision of the American President.” Use of the word “ironic” implies that the United States was not forward-looking, in spite of the vision of its leader of the time.

Entry #57(2/2/2) referred to the period of the Cold War and the alliance between Canada and the United States. The United States was described by the leadership of Canada as being “overly-aggressive” and this created “unnecessary confrontations.” The passage further stated that this view was a source of major tension between the two when expressed.

Entry #59(2/2/2) concerned the Korean War during the Truman presidency. In dispatching troops to aid the South Koreans, Canada sent three destroyers and an air-transport squadron. America’s response to the Canadians in the text was that this was “wholly inadequate.” Further in the same entry, “the main effect of the Korean War on Canada was that it forced to the Cabinet to reflect carefully on the increasingly troubling character of American leadership.” The concern was that American foreign policy was “overly aggressive and that the Americans risked nuclear confrontation over situations that neither Americans nor Canadians fully understood.” This implied that the United States was doing its best to manipulate circumstances to further its own international agenda.

Entry #60(2/2/2) addressed sovereignty issues of Canadians during the Cold War through their alliance with the United States. Building a chain of radar stations on Canadian soil was described as going through “tough negotiations” with the United States. Further in the entry, with the addition of inter-continental ballistic missiles to the

Soviet arsenal, the text described Canada as being part of “intensified defence cooperation with the United States, even when Canada was not at war.” Sovereignty issues with Canada were a “constant challenge” in working with the United States. The United States was described as pressuring the Canadians to accept nuclear weapons and the entry ended with the statement: “a policy that many Canadians strongly opposed.”

Entry #62(2/2/3) referred to the Bomarc missile crisis, by which the United States provided missiles to Canada under the NORAD agreement between the two countries. Accepting the missiles without warheads, Prime Minister John Diefenbaker infuriated the United States. The United States then publicly accused Canada of not fulfilling its responsibilities. The text stated that “the rebuke was so public, so extraordinary, that Canada’s ambassador to the United States was recalled as a diplomatic protest, the first time that had ever occurred.” The United States was described as acting in ways that were hot-headed and arrogant in the face of Canada’s feelings on nuclear weapons.

Entry #63(2/2/3) referred to the Cuban Missile Crisis and the reaction of both the United States and Canada. The United States was depicted as “provoking the Soviet Union unnecessarily and heightening the danger.” Further in the entry, the Vietnam War was mentioned as well as the support Canada gave the United States versus what it “demanded.” Entry #64(2/2/3) was a picture showing an anti-war protest during the Vietnam War in Ottawa, Canada on Parliament Hill. Parts of the photo showed placards that stated “Stop selling war materials to U.S.” and “Withdraw U.S. Troops”. Entry #65(2/3/2) referred to American draft dodgers during the Vietnam War, saying that they had a “significant influence on Canadian campuses in the late 1960s.”

## Economic Activity

Economic interaction between the United States and Canada had a total of 47 entries in the text. Of these 47 entries, 8 were positive, 16 were negative, and 23 were neutral. The entries evaluated as positive are listed first and the negative follow. Neutral entries are listed in the Appendix A.

Entry #73(4/3/3) referred to the relationship between the Thirteen Colonies and the British Empire for economic gain, stating that “by the late 1700s, the Thirteen Colonies were ready to chart their own economic future.” Entry #80(4/4/3) referred to the growing independence of the British North American colonies in that they “started to look to the United States for economic alliances.” Entry #81(3/4/3) addressed the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 which gave Canada extended trading rights with the United States. With this treaty, they were able to rely less on colonial trade with Britain.

Entry #98(2/4/3) referred to the branch plant economy within Canada. Negative areas of the entry addressed concerns by the Canadian government which included the power to dictate policy on the governmental level, both domestic and foreign. Also included in this entry was the assertion that decisions were typically not made at the branch plant level, but rather at the head office which, in the case of the United States, meant that labor policies were made outside the country. Positive aspects of this entry included the fact that jobs were created in Canada and these jobs improved the economy itself.

Entry #99(3/4/3) referred to the TransCanada pipeline, which was a joint venture between the United States and Canada. The Prime Minister at the time believed that the United States had the resources to help get the project underway and that Canada did not.

Entry #112(4/3/3) referred to the topic of labor. An American-based organization called the Knights of Labor (KOL) is credited with making progress toward unionized labor organization within Canada. Entry #114(4/3/3) referred to the KOL as an organization concerned with farmers rights and stated that they “championed” the rights of farmers to “own and operate their own economic concerns.”

Entries with negative depictions follow. Entry #116(2/4/3) referred to the Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA) of Canada. Positive features of this entry addressed the fact that “most foreign investment in Canada since the end of World War II has been from the United States.” Negative features of the entry referred to protests by the United States that FIRA was “a hindrance to good capitalism and suddenly Canada had a reputation for being unfriendly to capitalism.”

Entry #82(2/2/2) referred to increased freer trade between Canada and the United States, but highlighted an incident in 1861 when agents for the confederate south were captured in neutral waters. Britain intervened and the matter was settled peacefully, but Joseph Howe is cited as realizing “just how vulnerable the Atlantic region was to an American attack and takeover.” Entry #89(2/3/3) also referred to the cancellation of the Reciprocity Treaty and stated that it “necessitated a transportation revolution.”

Entry #90(2/3/3) addressed a turn of events in 1917, when Britain ceased to be the major trading partner for Canada, so Canada turned to the United States in search of new markets. The entry states, “However, this new business relationship made Canada increasingly dependent on America for supplies.” Inclusion of the word ‘however’ in the entry implies that it was a negative development.



Entry #92(2/2/3) referred to the branch plant economy in Canada. Henri Bourassa is mentioned as stating that “at this rate, American capital will soon run Canada and Canadians.” Further in the entry was the statement that “by the 1930s Americans controlled almost one quarter of Canadian manufacturing, easily outstripping British investment.” It was further stated that this investment relationship “would have both good and bad lasting implications.” Entry #96(2/3/3) referred to the building of the St. Lawrence Seaway. The United States was depicted as dragging its feet since, in 1951, Canada threatened to build the seaway “entirely within its own territory.” Following this threat, the United States agreed to participate.

Entry #100(2/3/3) referred to agricultural practices. It described the United States as subsidizing its farmers and rendering the Canadian farmers unable to compete. The entry stated that Canada was selling wheat to China and that America stated its opposition to trading with “enemy communists.” Entry #101(2/3/3) referred to the objection of the United States to Canada’s trading with Cuba, under the leadership of Fidel Castro. The United States is described as trying to prevent its Canadian business subsidiaries from doing business with Cuba. The entry further stated that “many Canadians deeply resented this... because they did not feel that the United States had a right to impose its laws on Canada.” Entry #102(2/3/3) also refers to the trade disagreements between Canada and the United States. The text cited a law passed by the United States allowing criminal charges to be brought against Canadian subsidiaries that did business with Cuba. The text also stated that this law had “little practical effect” and “was widely resented in Canada.”

Entry #104(2/3/3) referred to merchandise sold through major department store chains in Canada. The entry described the department chain Eaton's as capitalizing on the nationalism of Canada by stressing its "all-Canadian" background and the fact that many of its goods were British-made, as opposed to Simpsons-Sears which imported large quantities of American-made goods.

Entry #105(3/2/3) referred to the election of Brian Mulroney as Prime Minister of Canada. The text described the fact that he was prepared to pursue greater free trade with the United States, but that this was met with a "firestorm of protest." Nationalist publishers such as Mel Hurtig were quoted as saying that it will mean "the destruction and disappearance of our country." Entry #107(2/3/3) referred to the passage of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and pointed to statistics from NAFTA critics citing that real disposable income had increased in the United States and decreased in Canada.

Entry #109(2/2/3) decried the agricultural policies of Canada while stressing that "U.S. and European competition is greatly subsidized." Entry #111(1/2/2) was a political cartoon that satirized the softwood dispute between Canada and the United States. In it, the United States Forest Industry was depicted as a large man with the words "Big Fat Bully" written on his shirt. He is sitting on top of a beaver, one of whose arms who he appears to be ripping off. Next to the dog is a hat lying on the ground which reads Canadian Soft Wood. Next to the large man is an elderly women with the words "American consumer" printed on her. She is saying to the large man, "your little protection racket is going to cost me you twit!" This cartoon depicted the U.S. Forest Industry as a big thug that squashes the competition.



Entry #118(2/2/2) referred to the Kyoto Agreement of 1997. It stated that the agreement was signed by 84 countries, including Canada. The only other country mentioned is the United States, where “President George W. Bush decided his country would not ratify Kyoto. Bush claimed it would be too harmful to the US economy.” The absence of the mention of another country in this entry depicts the United States, or at least the President, as not being as forward-looking as the countries who signed.

### Canadian National Identity

The theme of Canadian national identity had entries with both positive and negative features. These features were intermixed within the various entries, so entries with both positive and negative features were listed initially along with the positive entries and the negative entries followed. There were 4 positive entries, 10 negative entries and 5 that were neutral. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix A.

Entry #125(2/4/3) referred to the state of culture in Canada in 1951. Negative features of the report stated that “Canadians either starved at home or went abroad” when compared to the United States. The report also asserted that Canadian culture would

soon be overwhelmed by American culture if something were not done. Positive features within the same passage stated that most of the support for the arts in Canada came from “American foundations such as Carnegie and Rockefeller.”

Entry #126(2/4/2) detailed the Report on the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters, and Sciences. Positive features of the report included within the text detail the influence on and autonomy of Canadian culture within several social spheres. The report cited the indebtedness of Canadians to American generosity in areas such as the arts and other social institutions which “helped Canadians to live their own life and to develop a better Canadianism.” Negative features of the report detailed that the reliance on America, both economically and socially, had presented a cost to Canada in that many students leave for America in order to study at universities or to obtain jobs. A latter part of the report stated that the importation of American media and print shifted the emphasis from what would be considered Canadian to American. These included the supplementary materials in school textbooks, newspapers, movies, and the like. As a result, “it cannot be denied...that a vast and disproportionate amount of material coming from a single alien source may stifle, rather than stimulate our own creative effort.”

Entry #130(4/3/3) referred to the 1967 Montreal Expo Fair. In this entry, the geodesic dome, an attraction built by the United States, was referred to as “stunning.” Entry #133(3/4/3) referred to radio content and the limitation for playing American music. The text stated that the radio stations “were making tidy profits by playing American music.”

The negative entries for this theme follow. Entry #120(2/2/2) referred to the establishment of the Parliament buildings in Ottawa by Queen Victoria in 1857. The entry depicted her choice of Ottawa over other locations as “much safer from the potentially threatening Americans.” Entry #123(3/2/3) referred to the alliance of Canada with the United States following World War II. The United States and Russia were described as hostile to each other and in danger of starting World War III. The United Nations was described as an avenue for Canada to work through in order to “avoid complete identification with the United States.” The entry further describes the United Nations as “a genuine opportunity to work for peace, perhaps even to help prevent a nuclear war.” This entry directly addressed the United States and Russia.

Entry #131(2/2/3) was a chapter opener describing the advancement Canadians made toward “international success.” Following this, this text states that “Canada remains cautious about the enormous cultural influence of the United States.” Entry #132(2/2/2) quoted a speech by Pierre Trudeau in Washington where he compared living next to the United States to sleeping with an elephant, alluding to the enormous cultural and economic influence of the United States on Canada. The passage continued, “in terms of culture, Canada has decided to fight the American influence.” It described increasing levels of cultural protection and development that had increased since the 1930s and continued to become stronger in the second half of the twentieth century.

Entry #134(2/2/3) referred to free trade between Canada and the United States. Remarks by Prime Minister Brian Mulroney that “Canada is open for business” were followed by examples of book titles, that included *The Betrayal of Canada*, stating that “as certain as you are now reading these words—the destruction and disappearance of our

country.” Opponent points of view were included with the description “once Canada negotiated its economic sovereignty away, its political sovereignty would follow.” Entry #137(2/2/2) was a chapter epilogue that described Canada keeping at bay U.S. cultural dominance in terms of a mouse keeping an elephant at bay.

## Immigration

The immigration theme had a total of 16 entries with 3 being positive, 6 being negative, and 7 neutral. The positive entries are listed first followed by the negative. The neutral entries are listed in the appendix.

Entry #147(3/4/3) addressed the “Guilded Age” of the United States with the economic expansion drawing immigrants from Canada to the United States. Entry #149(3/4/3) referred to efforts by the Canadian Minister of the Interior to attract immigrants from the United States by the use of pamphlets. Americans were among what Clifford Sifton (Minister of the Interior) labeled as “desirable.”

Entry #183(2/2/3) referred to immigration from the United States to Canada by “people fleeing civil unrest, oppression, famine, poverty, and slavery.” This entry depicted both the United States and the British Isles as places of strife. Entry #139(3/2/3) referred to people who were loyal to the British Empire and because of this they were persecuted in the colonies and had to flee to Canada. This occurred in the context of the Revolutionary War in the United States where Americans are referred to as “rebels” and the refugees are described as families that were torn apart by the conflict, former leaders and business owners in the communities that were expelled because of their political beliefs.

Entry #142(2/3/3) referred to black loyalists in Nova Scotia. The entry began by referring to the writers of the American Declaration of Independence, stating that the “patriots who demanded freedom for themselves seem not to have noticed the irony in their being, in many cases, slave owners.” Entry #144(2/3/2) referred to the movement of settlers west following the treaty between Britain and the United States. Aboriginal lands were described as lost due to the movement of thousands of American settlers west. This happened until “they had taken over almost all of the Aboriginal territory that makes up today’s United States.” Entry #151(2/3/3) referred to the flight of Jews from Nazi Germany. The text stated that the numbers of refugees allowed into Canada was “significantly smaller than [the numbers] allowed into the United States.”

Entry #153(2/2/3) referred to the differences between Canada’s version of a cultural mosaic and America’s version of a melting pot. The melting pot was described in the text as forcing people to become like those already there. The mosaic described cultural differences in people as “differences coming together to make a country.”

## People

The theme of people as a theme had a total of 16 entries with 2 being positive and 9 being negative. Five were neutral and are listed in Appendix A. Some of the entries were part of other themes, but for purposes of this theme have been evaluated based on the individuals they address.

Entry #166(4/3/3) addressed the economic reform that Canadian Prime Minister R.B. Bennett instituted. The text stated that he fashioned this program after the “New Deal” from President Franklin Delano Roosevelt in the United States. Entry #167(4/3/3)

referred to Morley Callahan, a Canadian author, stating that Callahan was best known outside Canada, but that when American literary critic Edmund Wilson referred to him as “unjustly neglected”, he returned to prominence in Canada.

Entry #155(2/2/2) referred to George Washington and Benjamin Franklin as two of many land speculators. The text stated that, despite British assurances to the Aboriginal peoples, these speculators “were not going to be prevented from taking over Aboriginal lands” for purposes of selling “what was still known as Indian territory.”

Entry #157(2/3/3) referred to George Washington’s negotiations with Guy Carleton following the end of the Revolutionary War. The text stated that a primary part of Washington’s agenda was the return of slaves that were the “property” of American citizens. The word property is set apart in the text with quotes around it for emphasis.

Entry #158(2/3/3) referred to Lieutenant Governor John Graves Simcoe and his attempt to make Upper Canada a model of England. His belief was that Americans would grow tired of democratic culture in the United States and come to Upper Canada.

Entry #160(1/2/2) referred to the Aboriginal leader Tecumseh’s efforts to unite Indian tribes against takeover of their lands. In the passage, the loss of Aboriginal lands was described as inevitable “unless they could defeat the land-hungry Americans.”

Entry #161(2/2/2) also described Tecumseh’s engagement with the American military.

Through the passage the Americans were described in singular terms with no leadership or any other designation. Following the death of Tecumseh, “there was no stopping the American expansion west.” Entry #162(2/2/3) described Sir John MacDonal in saying that he “knew the reality of the threat that the American Civil War brought to the colonies.” This was stated in terms of Canadians being able to defend themselves if they



were united. Entry #163(2/2/3) referred to Queen Victoria's and her decision to make Ottawa the colonial capital. In this entry, Ottawa is seen as "much safer from the potentially threatening Americans."

### Political Sovereignty

The theme of political sovereignty had a total of 25 entries. Of these, 5 were positive, 11 were negative, and 9 were neutral. The positive will be listed first, followed by the negative. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix A.

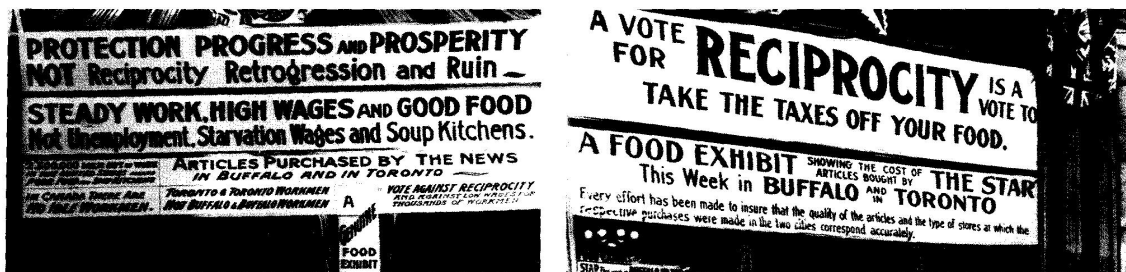
Entry #172(4/4/3) referred to a report by the MacKenzie administration promoting political reform. The text stated that "American-style democracy" would be the goal of the reform. Entry #173(3/4/3) referred to a rebellion in 1837 in which the British attempted to put down a potential rebellion through military confrontation and martial law. The text stated that a leader by the name of Louis Papineau fled to the United States. Entry #175(3/4/3), referring to confederation in Canada, stated that "it combined aspects of both the British and American systems."

Entry #182(4/3/3) addressed the attempts by Canadian reformers to reform their own urban ills. The text stated that these reformers were "taking their cue from well-publicized American muck-rakers" as a way of promoting change. Entry #187(3/4/3) referred to the Bill of Rights that Prime Minister Diefenbaker wanted to make part of the Canadian Constitution. The text stated that he desired to have it as part of the constitution in the same way that the Bill of Rights was part of the American Constitution.

Entry #171(2/3/3) referring to the Family Compact members of Upper Canada, stated that these members drew on Loyalist beliefs and that this would make them hostile to the U.S. through their cultural ties to Britain. Entry #176(2/2/3) referred to Prime Minister MacDonald's remarks about the U.S. Constitution. According to this entry, he states that American republicanism was "started at the wrong end" through the granting of extended degrees of sovereignty to each state. This statement occurs in the context of defending Canadian approaches to sovereignty within the General Government and Legislature.

Entry #183(2/2/2) referred to the Alaska boundary dispute. The entry referred to a dispute in 1903 as the "most serious" to occur between Canada and the United States after Canada began to move away from strict British control. The results of the six-member commission that voted on where the boundary with Alaska would lie is referred to as a "largely forgone conclusion" due to the nature of British-American relations at the time. Entry #184(3/2/3) is a map of the Alaska Boundary Dispute. In the map (see Appendix A) the boundary claims of both nations are represented, as is the outcome of the commission's decision.

Entry #185(2/2/3) shows a poster regarding the Reciprocity Treaty between Canada and the United States.



Before the 1911 general election, the windows of the offices of the *Toronto Star* and *Toronto News* newspapers echoed the arguments for and against reciprocity in trade with the United States.

This entry shows posters that are both for and against the treaty. The placard against the treaty uses words like “unemployment, starvation wages, and soup kitchens” to illustrate the outcome of the treaty. Entry #186(2/2/3) referred to the period of industrialization occurring in Canada through the early 1900s. The text stated that the development was unevenly distributed, but with the end of World War I, the export-driven Canadian economy went into a depression. The text further stated that the “situation was made worse by the introduction of American tariffs,” followed by a depiction of the nature of the impact and the percentage drop in the gross national product.

Entry #189(2/2/2) referred to the health care system of the Canadians versus that of the United States. Comprehensive health care was an example that Canada cited as making itself different from the U.S., “which has not been able to enact such a system.” Entry #191(2/2/3) referred to the softwood lumber dispute between the United States and Canada. In the entry, the “American Trade Ambassador stated that the trade war would continue unless the Canadian government taxed its softwood exports. In the text, this was linked to “greatly hampering British Columbia’s economic recovery.”

Entry #192(2/3/2) referred to the Arctic Sovereignty of Canada. The entry stated that Canada had always claimed the Northwest Passage as internal waters, thus requiring other nations to receive permission before using it. The United States sent the *Polar Sea*, a Coast Guard cutter through the passage, but that “the *Polar Sea* did not have that permission.” The incident was settled, but the United States did not recognize Canadian sovereignty in the matter. The passage concluded with mention of an agreement signed by the United States in which it “agreed to ask for Canadian permission for U.S. government-owned or government-operated ships to use the Northwest Passage.”

## World Affairs

The theme of world affairs had 20 entries pertaining to the United States. Of these, 5 were positive, 7 were negative, and 8 were neutral. The neutral entries are included in Appendix A. The positive entries are listed first, followed by the negative entries. Descriptions which are both positive and negative are listed with the positive entries.

Entry #199(4/3/3) referring to the development of the “Toronto Method” in a program to deal with polio. In the entry, Jonas Salk, an American physician, was given credit for developing the vaccine. The Toronto method was then described as an undertaking by Canadians to mass-produce the vaccine.

Entry #201(2/2/4) referring to the reshaping of foreign policy under Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau, had both positive and negative features. A positive feature came in the beginning of the entry when Pierre Trudeau was quoted as saying, “The friendship between our two countries is so basic, so non-negotiable, that it has long since been regarded as the standard for enlightened international relations.” The entry then became negative describing the American leader of the time being described as “not returning the sentiment.” President Richard Nixon was then referred to as saying that he found Trudeau to be “too much of a ‘small-I’ liberal.” Several examples were given in which Canada made foreign policy decisions that went against those of the United States. Included in these were recognizing the People’s Republic of China as the legitimate government of China, which the United States did not; an official visit to Cuba and Fidel Castro, which the United States opposed; and consideration of pulling out of NATO,

which the United States opposed. Trudeau was quoted from a speech made in the Soviet Union where he referred to America as the “giant next door.” Going further, the text quoted him as saying that the United States posed a danger to Canadian “national identity from a cultural, economic, and perhaps even military point of view.” The final passage in the entry quoted Richard Nixon saying, in 1972, that “It is time for us to recognize that we have very separate identities and that nobody’s interests are furthered when those realities are obscured.”

Entry #206(4/3/3) in the context of globalization, quoted American President George Bush as saying, “for those around the world who live in poverty, globalization is their best hope for escaping.” The entry then gave Canadian Prime Minister Jean Chretien’s perspective on globalization: [It is] an opportunity to make the world a better place by strengthening democracy, creating prosperity, and realizing human potential.” While Bush’s remarks held more of an economic perspective than Chretien’s, they were still positive.

Entry #213(4/4/3) referred to multinational agreements between Canada and other nations. Free trade with the United States was described as making it easier for the government to sign deals with other nations. The border with the United States was referred to as “more of a meeting place than a barrier and of Canada accepting the American dollar as its unit of currency.”

Entry #196(2/2/3) referred to the relationship Canada held with other nations following World War II. The hostile relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union was described as having the potential of starting World War III. Canada, through its efforts in the United Nations, was seen as being able to pursue a peacekeeping

role that would help it avoid complete identification with the United States and “even to help prevent a nuclear war.”

Entry #200(2/3/3) referred to the Foreign Investment Review Agency of Canada (FIRA). FIRA determined whether particular types of investment were good for Canada, both economically and culturally. In the text, the United States was described as presenting the largest amount of foreign investment into the economy and also complaining that FIRA was a hindrance to business. The text then stated that “Canada suddenly had a reputation for being unfriendly to capitalism.”

Entry #202(2/2/2) showed a picture of Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau shaking hands with American President Richard Nixon. The caption below the photograph read “Canada-U.S. relations—like sleeping with an elephant?” Entry #203(2/2/3) referring to the speech that included this last quote. The text went on to describe the “serious dilemma” this posed and stated that “Canada has decided to fight the American influence.” Examples in the entry included movies, radio, television, and magazines. Canada was described as escalating protection of its culture steadily from the 1930s through the second half of the twentieth century.

Entry #207(2/3/3) referred to the critics of globalization in saying that it would “destroy jobs, income, and the environment.” The text pointed out corporations, all of which were American, that included General Motors, Ford, and Wal-Mart and stated that they “are richer than most countries.” The entry then described there being no “guaranteed benefit to the employees...or to the people who buy their products.”

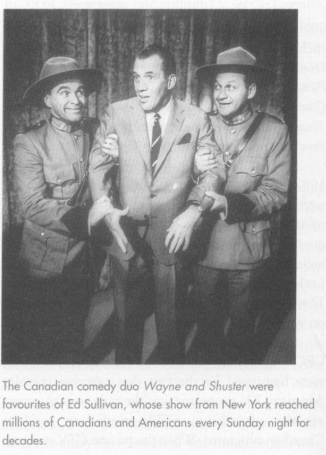
Entry #212(2/2/2) referred to the Kyoto Agreement on greenhouse gases. The number of countries who signed the agreement is listed at 84, including Canada and the

United States. The entry then referred to the United States as “by far the largest producer of greenhouse gases in the world” and stated that President George Bush decided not to ratify the Kyoto Agreement on the basis that “it would be too harmful to the US economy.”

### Communications/Entertainment

The theme of communications/entertainment had a total of 23 entries. Of these entries, 3 were positive, 16 were negative and 4 were neutral. The positive will be listed first, followed by the negative, with the neutral entries listed in the appendix.

Entry #227(4/3/4) was a picture of the comedy duo *Wayne and Shuster* with Ed Sullivan. The picture was positive as everyone in the photo was smiling and having a good time.



Entry #229(4/3/3) referring to the entertainment Canadians received from the United States, stated that, “economic ties to the United States helped put food on the table, [but that] Canadians also began sensing the dangers of relying on their southern neighbour to provide food for their souls.” While the economic context of the passage was overly positive, the implication toward culture was not.

Entry #236(4/3/2) referred to the superheroes that came out of comic books in Canada. The United States was personified by a “towering figure” of Uncle Sam, Great Britain was that of John Bull, while Canada was represented by a “young impressionable female.” These cartoons were designed to represent the character of the particular nations. Canada was portrayed as a young female courted by both the larger figures, due to her lack of power or self-sufficiency.

Entry #215(2/2/2) was a unit opener referring to the amount of programming, radio and movie theatres, being produced by Canadians. According to this entry, the 1930s saw the beginning of attempts to “protect and foster Canadian cultural programs and attempts to stop the growing influx of American influence.” In this context, influx is used to describe the one-way nature of this relationship. Entry #216(2/2/3) referred to the different forms of media as it was absorbed by the Canadian audience. This included magazine print, movie theatre ownership, and radio. The entry described the overall dominance of American-owned entertainment industry and mentioned that several commissions were created in order to regulate the Canadian consumption of media. American films were described as not being as “artful” as those produced in Europe and Canada; however, the populace preferred them.

Entry #218(2/3/3) referred to the unique Canadian culture as it was forged free of Britain. The same entry mentioned the “peril of being drawn into an American orbit” and stated that American popular culture threatened to overwhelm the distinctive Canadian identity. Entry #219(2/3/3) also referred to Canadian culture as it became more dependent on American culture for its entertainment and other forms of consumption. The entry ended by stating that “unless something was done, a distinctive Canadian



culture would cease to exist.” Entry #220(2/3/3) also referred to newsprint circulation in Canada and stated that the “sheer number of American magazines in English Canada was seen as eroding the circulation of Canadian magazines.” Entry #221(2/3/3) referring to American periodicals, stated that they comprised the bulk of the market share in Canada according the O’Leary Commission in 1961. The text stated that “Worse, the American publications *Time* and *Reader’s Digest* received 40 percent of the money from magazine advertising.” Entry #222(2/3/3) referred to the content dilemma whereby the amount of music played on Canadian radio stations was either British or American. The performers, according to the text, argued that “the stations were suffering from a colonial mentality.” Entry #224(2/2/2) referred to television stations and the quotas they eventually came under for carrying too much American content.

Entry #225(2/3/3) referred to attempts by the Canadian film-making industry to insert more of their own products into the theatres. The entry stated that such efforts were “snuffed out by the quick assertion of financial control by Hollywood.” Entry #226(2/2/3) referred to discussions held in order to break the Hollywood monopoly over Canadian entertainment, which resulted in no action being taken.

Entry #232(2/3/3) referred to songs and the amount of play they received on Canadian airwaves. The number of songs that were American or British left less room for those that were Canadian. Entry #233(3/2/3) referred to the Olympic Winter Games of 2002. The entry described the Canadians’ winning against teams of the Americans, but then connected the competition to the 1972 series with an “ideological battle so central.” The outcomes of both games were seen as intertwining the Canadian identity with hockey. Entry #234(2/2/2) was an illustration of a song adapted to the Canadian hockey

team following its victory in 2002. Part of the lyrics referred specifically to the United States with the quote “Sorry, eh , We put the hurt on you, Team USA [A]nd showed the whole world that it’s still our game.” The words “sorry, eh” referred to a Canadian comedy caricature for characters known as Bob and Doug Mackenzie. Entry #235(2/3/2) referred to sponsors of professional hockey teams and implied that the American corporations such as General Motors and Imperial Oil did not see the potential returns for their investment into sponsorship. A GM Canada president was quoted as saying that he “did not believe hockey would sell cars.” This entry implies the short-sighted nature of American corporations regarding the importance of hockey to the Canadian population.

Entry #237(2/3/3) referred to the publication of underground comic books with a new generation of superheroes. Captain Canada, the superhero, was described as being “pitted against Media-Master, who was bent on world domination.” Media-Master is a description of the American media influence in Canada.

## Religion and Slavery

The theme of religion had only 1 entry and it was evaluated to be neutral by all the coders. It is listed in Appendix A. The theme of slavery had a total of 3 entries. None were positive, 2 were negative, and 1 was neutral. The neutral entry is also listed in Appendix A. Entry #239(2/3/3) referred to slaves owned by some of the writers of the Declaration of Independence. The entry stated the “irony” that they seemed “not to have noticed that they were, in many cases, slave-owners.” This comment is set in the context of demanding “freedom for themselves.” Entry #240(2/2/3) referred to the Underground Railroad. It described the thousands of people who participated in this highly intricate

operation. Harriet Tubman was mentioned as having a bounty of \$40,000 put on her head by the American authorities. There is no other mention of Americans who helped with this operation, only those linked to it by their hatred of slavery. The word “American” is linked to the authorities that hunted runaway slaves.

#### Chapter Objectives/Reviews

The chapter objectives and review entries contained 17 entries. Of these, 16 were neutral and 1 was negative. There were no positive mentions. The negative is listed with the neutral entries listed in Appendix A. Entry #249(2/2/2) was an objective for chapter 22. “By the end of this chapter, you will be able to assess the effectiveness of attempts to protect Canadian culture from American domination.” This entry describes an end result which is predictable in that there is an attempt to take over Canadian culture by the Americans. Phrases like “attempts to protect” used simultaneously with “American domination” give the reader a preconceived notion of the result that will be arrived at.

*Canada: A Nation Unfolding*

This Canadian history book had a total of 181 entries that depicted the United States in terms that were social, political, economic, or militaristic. Of these, 48 were positive, 46 were negative, and 87 were neutral. Some of the entries from the text had features that were both positive and negative. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B. The emergent themes for this textbook are listed below:

*Canada: A Nation Unfolding (Ontario Edition)*

1. Cultural Protectionism
2. Military Conflict
3. Economic Activity
4. Canadian National Identity
5. Immigration
6. Canada-US relations
7. People
8. World Affairs
9. Environment
10. Chapter Reviews

Cultural Protectionism

The theme of cultural protectionism had a total of 4 entries. Of these, 3 were neutral and 1 was negative; there were no positive entries for this theme. The neutral entries are listed in the Appendix B. Entry #1(1/2/1) referred to the progression of cultural protectionism in Canada as a reaction to events within the United States. This entry concentrated on the concerns of Canadians about their loyalties and ties to Britain and to the King and also their concerns with the activities of the American military concerning invasion. The entry described 1812 as a year when America invaded Canada and stated that “Canadians poured into the streets to drive out the unwanted Americans.” The entry further stated that the United States government had forgotten that not even

thirty years earlier "...Loyalists had clearly chosen British values over the new American republicanism." Regarding the 1867 formation of the Dominion government in Canada, the text stated that "the Americans served as an inspiration—of what not to do, "and that formation of a strong central government in Canada "would ensure that no such disaster" would occur.

### Military Conflict

The theme of military conflict had a total of 23 entries. Of these entries, 3 were positive, 1 was negative, and 19 were neutral. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B.

Entry #8(4/4/3) referred to World War II and the addition of American troops at the time that Germany was having difficulty replacing troops lost during combat operations. Referring to the arrival of American forces to "fill out the Allied ranks," the text stated that the Allied army had superior forces and that the "tables were turned."

Entry #11(4/3/4) referred to the numbers of Jewish peoples fleeing Nazi Germany Canada and the United States had accepted as refugees. It stated that "Canada had accepted a mere 4000 Jewish immigrants, while Britain had taken 85 000 and the United States, 240 000." The entry concluded by saying that Canada did not have a good record of providing safe haven.

Entry #24(4/4/3) referred to the economic relationship between Canada and the United States during World War II. Canadian Prime Minister Mackenzie King and United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed the Hyde Park declaration. The text referred to this agreement as one that helped Canada deal with the trade deficit that

existed with the United States and “marked the beginning of a new era of close economic ties between the two nations.”

Entry #9(2/3/3) referred to the Treaty of Versailles which ended World War II. Canada was given two seats at the Paris Peace Conference “after strong resistance, especially from the United States.” Though there was resistance from other parties, the United States was the only country highlighted in this fashion.

### Economic Activity

The theme of economic activity had a total of 61 entries. Of these, 23 were positive, 18 were negative, and 20 were neutral. The positive entries are listed first, followed by the negative. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B. Some entries had both positive and negative features and these are discussed further with the positive entries.

Entry #30(4/3/3) referred to changes in the Canadian economy by 1900. Foreign investment from the United States and Britain was helping “industry to expand to meet the need for manufactured goods.” Canada was described as riding “a wave of prosperity” into the twentieth century. Entry #31(3/4/3) referred further to expansion of the economy. Pulp and paper mills are described as being built to export newsprint to countries, “especially the United States.” Entry #32(4/4/4) further expanded on the development of the Canadian economy as not having to rely solely on trade with Britain stating that “the United States was gradually becoming Canada’s most important trading partner.” Entry #33(3/4/3) referred to attempts by Canada to attract immigrants from the

United States. Undercover agents were used as part of this process, implying that needed immigrants resided within the United States.

Entry #39(4/4/3) referred to reform movements for women, mentioning Emily Stowe, a doctor who was denied entrance to Canadian universities, but was able to obtain her education in the United States. The implication in this entry was that the United States was more liberal in its access to higher education than Canada at the time.

Entry #41(2/4/3) had elements that were both positive and negative. The entry referred to the after-effects of World War I on the Canadian economy. Economic hard times “led many Canadians to abandon their country for the United States, where negative effects of the war had not been as great.” The entry noted that nearly “a million Canadians moved to the United States from the rural areas of Eastern Canada.” Negative features of the entry stated that “higher tariffs in the United States also made it difficult for Canada.” The conclusion from this part of the entry implies that economic decisions in the United States made it harder for Canadians and this contributed to many having to leave.

Entry #42(4/4/3) referred to conditions of the Canadian economy by 1924 and referred to the effect of the rebuilding of European economies and the effect this had on the Canadian economy. American demand for Canadian products was described as being “incredible” and that American investment in Canada had “soared,” thus making the economy much stronger.

Entry #51(4/4/4) referred to economic reforms undertaken by Canadian Prime Minister Bennett following the 1935 election. His election platform was based on the “New Deal” envisioned and implemented by President Franklin Delano Roosevelt in the

United States. The entry concluded with several examples of improvement in labor practices, to include insurance against sickness, unemployment, and accidents and the improvement of wage and working conditions. Entry #52(3/4/3) referred to the Prairie Farm Rehabilitation Act (PFRA) stating that a new trade agreement was signed with the United States.

Entry #57(2/4/2), regarding to Canadian-American relations in economic terms, contained elements that were both positive and negative. Positive elements referred to the increasingly inter-related nature of both nations' economies. The text stated that the United States had replaced Britain as the main trading partner for Canada. A small chart showed the simultaneous decrease in British investment and increase in American investment. The entry stated that "Canada was moving away from Britain's control." Negative features of the entry stated that at the same time, it was "coming under the influence of the United States." Examples such as outright branch plant ownership by the United States and purchase of land for timber and mineral rights illustrated this. Entry #58(3/4/3) contained a comparison of Canada in 1945 and 1968. In this entry the United States was described as being the most important trading partner for the Canadian economy.

Entry #59(4/3/3) referred to the increased interest and fascination of Canadians with the "chrome boats being churned out by Chrysler, Ford, and General Motors in Windsor, Oakville, and Oshawa." Entry #60(3/4/3) referred to economic hard times for Newfoundland and stated that the United States was interested in the "military and economic potential of Newfoundland and Labrador."



Entry #62(4/4/3) referred to some of the cultural problems that existed between French-speaking Quebec and English speaking provinces in the country. A leader by the name of Maurice Duplessis heavily encouraged American investment in the region as a result of disagreements between French and English speaking Canadians.

Entry #64(4/4/3) referring to the expansion of the middle class in Canada, stated that part of the increase in consumer wealth arose from new discoveries in raw resources and closer economic relations with the United States. Entry #66(4/4/3) referred to the discovery of oil at Leduc, Alberta, stated that central Canada had access to “cheap American oil and gas” but that Alberta had no access to this market in central Canada.

Entry #67(5/4/4) referred to the economic boom of the United States following World War II: the Canadian economy had faltered, but access by Canadian industries to the American economy, along with an eagerness to consume American goods made both countries each other’s “most important trading partners.” Entry #68(3/4/4) portrayed the building of the St. Lawrence Seaway as symbolic of the expanding nature of U.S./Canadian economic interaction. The entry went further to state that each country agreed to pay for construction of the seaway inside its own territory. Entry #69(3/4/3) also referred to the St. Lawrence Seaway, describing which parts were built by Canadians and which were built by the United States. The entry stated that the seaway “was like a huge economic zipper knitting the two countries together.”

Entry #70(2/4/3) had features that were both positive and negative. The entry referred to the Auto Pact Agreement of 1965 between Canada and the United States, when the Canadian government wanted the number of cars produced in Canada to be equalized so that such an imbalance of trade would not occur. Positive features of this

entry stated that there were benefits to the automobile industry of Canada with the signing of this pact in 1965. A negative feature of the entry stated “that the Auto Pact brought real benefits to Canada, but it also tied the Canadian economy even more closely to the U.S. economy.” The implication in this entry revolved around a further loss of economic sovereignty.

Entry #80(4/4/4) referred to the Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA) that was dismantled by Prime Minister Brian Mulroney’s government in 1984. Another agency took its place and Prime Minister Mulroney is quoted as stating at the Economic Club in New York that “Canada is open for business again.”

Entry #82(3/4/3) referred to economic ties developed by Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau that continued into the government headed by Brian Mulroney. Both the United States and Canada were described as creating diverse trade ties with other countries, but in 1985, the Royal Commission on the Economic Union and Development Prospects for Canada called for a “leap of faith” into freer trade with the United States. Entry #83(4/4/3) further referred to reforms undertaken by the Mulroney government in the context of free trade agreements with the United States. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was also described as helping to do away with “about 80 percent of the tariff barriers that had existed.” The entry stated that the free trade agreements gave each country open access to each other’s markets and “committed the two countries to dropping cross border tariffs by the end of 1998.”

Entry #28(2/3/3) referred to the era of Prime Minister John MacDonal in the mid-nineteenth century and three initiatives in the national policy of the time that were intended to stem the threat of American dominance in the Canadian economy.

Entry #40(3/3/2) was a unit opener with a list of questions pertaining to the movement and consumption of goods across the Canadian border from the United States. These goods referred to transportation of and the consumption of media by the Canadian populace. The final question in the entry reads, “Was Canadian culture being threatened and influenced by the United States?” Entry #45(2/3/3) referred to the manufacture of the automobile. In this entry, Canadian manufacturers were described as not being able to compete with companies like the Ford Motor Company. Therefore, the text describes them as being “forced to make and sell American models.” Entry #46(2/2/2) referred to tariffs placed on Canadian goods, including fish and farm goods, by the United States. The entry concluded by stating that “about the only exports the United States accepted freely from the Maritimes were their sons and daughters.” This entry implies that the United States was more interested in acquiring human resources than trade.

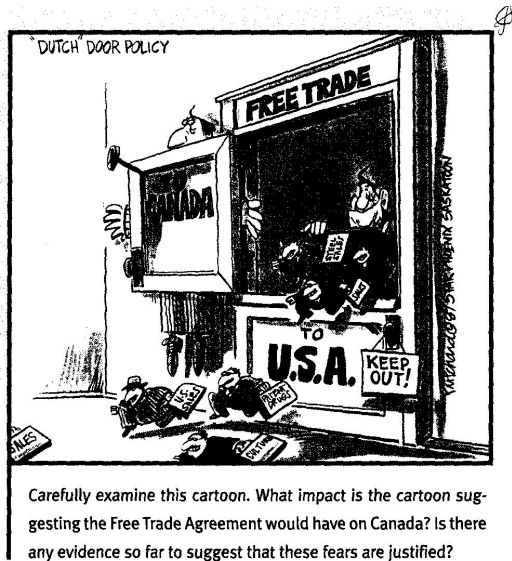
Entry #54(2/3/2) referred to the economic conditions following World War II. Following World War I, it stated, Canada began to pull away from its imperial ties. “At the same time, its relationship with the United States was growing stronger.” The entry concluded with the question: “How autonomous do you think Canada could ever really be?”

Entry #71(2/2/3) referred to the progression of American investment in Canada following World War II. Various public opinion polls and the Watkins Report of 1968 showed that “two-thirds of Canadians wanted the federal government to control American investment in Canada.” According to the text, there was a substantial degree of gain from the results of American investment into Canada, but foreign ownership remained an important concern to the population. Entry #78(2/3/3) further underscored

the Canadian concern of American participation in the workings of the economy by citing the Watkins Report of 1968 and the Grey Report of 1971. This concern was raised because “81% of the \$34.7 billion worth of foreign investment in Canada was from American sources.” Entry #79(2/2/2) showed a picture of a Canadian citizen exiting a Wal-Mart store. The caption under the picture stated, “American participation in the Canadian economy can be seen almost everywhere. Could the Canadian economy survive without American participation?” The fact that Wal-Mart is America’s largest chain distribution entity added to a seemingly bland stereotyping of what comes from America.

Entry #81(2/3/2) referred to comments by Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau regarding the American economy. “Living next to you is in some ways like sleeping with an elephant: no matter how friendly and even-tempered the beast one is affected by every twitch and grunt.” The entry referred to a 10 percent tariff imposed by the administration of President Richard Nixon on all imports, concluding that “Canadians were shocked to discover how economically dependent they were on the United States and how badly they could be hurt by changes in American economic policy.”

Entry #84(1/2/1) showed a political cartoon depicting the results of free trade between the United States and Canada. The cartoon showed a split door with Canada nailed behind the upper part. President Ronald Reagan is letting in lots of smaller men, referring to U.S. businesses, into Canada. On the door knob opening toward the United States a sign hangs saying “Keep Out!”, referring to Canada.



Entry #85(3/2/3) also referred to the North American Free Trade Agreement, but included Mexico. It stated that Canadian public opinion became polarized on the issue. The example was that the “United States would be the main winner, because American employers would take advantage of cheap Mexican labour and Canadian raw materials.” Entry #86(2/3/2) showed a demonstrator in a grim reaper costume pointing to a tombstone labeled NAFTA. The primary point of the illustration was that Canadian social programs could be put in danger through the adoption of NAFTA.

### Canadian National Identity

The theme of Canadian national identity had a total of 29 entries from the text. Of these, 9 were positive, 6 were negative, and 14 were neutral. One entry had both positive and negative features. This entry will be included for analysis with the positive entries. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B.

Entry #90(4/3/3) referred to World War II Jewish refugees seeking safe-haven in North America. The text stated “they found their way to Canada and, in even greater

numbers, to the United States.” This entry is similar to other entries in this time frame depicting the United States as being willing and able to absorb more refugees.

Entry #92(4/4/3) referred to Emily Stowe, a Canadian doctor who had been denied entrance to Canadian universities, but then earned her education in the United States. She became an influential figure in the Canadian Women’s Suffrage Association when she returned to Canada. Entry #93(4/3/3) referred to the organized labor movement that came to Canada after originating in the United States. The text stated that workers could easily be replaced, but that this movement was an important step.

Entry #95(4/3/3) referred to Emily Carr, a Canadian painter, who went to the United States, namely San Francisco, to study art. Upon returning to Canada, the style she had acquired made a positive impact on the way that Aboriginal peoples were portrayed. Entry #97(4/3/3) referred to TransCanada Air Lines being the first airline to be exclusively Canadian. The text stated that due to the absence of aircraft manufacturing in Canada, their first airplanes Lockheed Electra’s were purchased from Lockheed, an American company. This purchase enabled the operation of the company.

Entry #98(2/4/2) contained elements that were both positive and negative. The entry referred to the motion picture industry of the 1920s, stating that Canadians loved the movies that came out of the United States, but that the dominance of Hollywood “squeezed out both Canadian film production and the fledgling made-in-Canada chains.” The entry concluded by stating that the federal government took steps to foster Canadian film making, though these did not become successful until the advent of the National Film Board (NFB) in 1939.

Entry #99(4/3/3) referred to Jazz music as it came to Canada from the United States. The use of radio helped jazz to “spill over into Canada.” Jazz was described as a “revolutionary form of music.” Entry #100(4/4/3) also referred to American forms of entertainment that came to Canada. The “Chautauqua” took its name from a lake in New York where it first appeared. The text described the John Erickson Speakers as being the first to bring the entertainment to Canada. Combined with music, these forms of entertainment “were an important part of rural Canadian culture, especially in the West.”

Entry #108(4/3/3) showed a picture of Canadian actors Lorne Greene and William Shatner, both Canadians. Below the picture, a caption reads that both “went on to become major Hollywood stars” and followed with the question: “Why do Canadian actors often move to the United States?”

Entry #102(2/3/3) referred to the era of Prohibition in the United States. The text stated that numerous areas and locations sprang up in Canada where illegal liquor could be purchased and then smuggled into the United States. The entry also stated that the practice “quickly drew machine-gun-toting American mobsters, and they brought with them gang warfare, murder, and the corruption of police, judges, and government officials.” There was no mention of anything of this sort that may have already been present in Canada. Another example in the same entry was the situation involving the Canadian schooner *I'm Alone*, a ship used for smuggling. The text stated that the ship was pursued by the U.S. Coast Guard for two days and that “despite being well out in international waters, the *I'm Alone* was captured and sunk by cannon fire.” The emphasis on being “well out in international waters” stressed a sense of unfairness, in spite of the purposes of the voyage. The entry ended by stating that illegal bootlegging continued.

Entry #107(3/2/3) showed a photograph of a Vietnam War Protest in Edmonton in 1967. The caption beside the photograph stated it was “highly critical of the United States’ participation in the Vietnam War.”

Entry #112(2/3/2) referred to television programs from America as they were seen to impact Canadian culture. There were fears that “American-dominated television would blur the distinction between Canadians and Americans.” Entry #114(2/3/2) referred to “the Americanization of Canadian Culture.” The entry quoted Canadian author Robertson Davies describing Canada as “the attic of the North American continent.” “Upstairs was the unimportant little nation of Canada, and downstairs was the giant American superpower.” The quotes underscored the level of concern for American cultural influence on Canadians. The entry also stated that Canadians looked to their government to stem the tide of Americanization with which they were being entertained.

Entry #117(2/2/2) referring to higher education in Canada, stated that “Departments of Immigration severely restricted the hiring of foreign professors—mostly Americans—for Canadian university positions. It was hoped that these measures would help promote a distinctively Canadian Culture.” There was a substantial element of cultural protectionism in this entry which addressed one more node that Canadians saw as potentially coming under fire or threat by the default nature of their interactions with the United States.”

Immigration



The theme of Canadian immigration had only 1 entry and it was neutral and is listed in Appendix B.

#### Canada/U.S. Relations

The theme of Canada/U.S. relations had a total of 17 entries. Of these entries, 3 were positive, 7 were negative, and 7 were neutral. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B. The positive entries are listed first, followed by the negative.

Entry #124(4/4/3) referred to relations between Canada and the United States during the years of Prime Minister Wilfred Laurier. Relations were described as improving due to the deteriorating nature of national relations between European countries, which caused Britain, Canada, and the United States to draw closer together. The text stated that relations improved and that the Department of External Affairs was created in 1909.

Entry #131(4/4/4) referred to relations between the United States and Canada after Prime Minister Brian Mulroney succeeded Pierre Trudeau. The text described the Prime Minister as actively seeking a better relationship with United States President Ronald Reagan. Though the text did say that Canada “did not always follow the American lead,” as with the Strategic Defence Initiative (SDI), relations between the countries warmed as a result of the change in Canadian leadership.

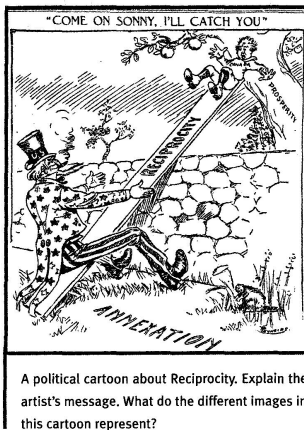
Entry #121(2/3/1) referred to Canadian/American relations from the time of the administration of Prime Minister Laurier through 1898. The entry stated that while Canada and the United States held a border that was common and practical for economic exchange and migration, “Canadians, however, were always nervous about the size and

military power of the United States.” The entry referred to American expansionism and manifest destiny. “Canada’s southern neighbour had never hidden its strong leaning toward expansionism, a policy that aimed to extend the United States across North America. American expansionists talked about America’s Manifest Destiny, its duty to form a continental nation that included Mexico and Canada. The United States had already acquired sizable portions of the North American continent. The British Empire League’s Colonel G.T. Denison was quoted as angrily stating that the Americans “wanted Florida, and they took it; Louisiana and Alaska they annexed; California and Mexico they conquered; Texas they stole.” The entry described the United States as being more interested in taking Canadian territory through politics and diplomacy.

Entry #122(2/3/1) referred to a dispute between Canada and the United States involving the Alaska boundary during the days of the Klondike Gold Rush and the joint commission that was set up to handle the dispute. The entry stated that Canada believed that Britain would support it since it had supported Britain during the Boer War. The entry stated that President Theodore Roosevelt “was known for his bullying. He appointed three pushy, expansionist U.S. commissioners and put pressure on Britain to settle in favour of the United States.” The end of the entry stated that “Canadians were left fuming at both the Americans and the British.” The implication here is that Britain betrayed Canada because of pressure from the United States, which is a bully.

Entry #126(1/2/2) showed a political cartoon addressing the reciprocity treaty signed by the United States and Canada. In the cartoon, the United States was represented by Uncle Sam and Canada was represented by a small boy. They were both sitting on a board across a stone wall. Uncle Sam was heavier and lifting the small boy

up into the air. The caption above the cartoon said “Come on, Sonny. I’ll catch you” and on the ground next to Uncle Sam is the word “annexation”.



A political cartoon about Reciprocity. Explain the artist's message. What do the different images in this cartoon represent?

This cartoon implied that the United States is a large bully and that Canada would not be able to compete, but eventually would be annexed by the United States.

Entry #127(2/3/2) referred to the election of 1911 in Canada, which the text presented as a direct attack by anti-Reciprocity politicians toward those in favor of the agreement. “Once Canada’s economy was strong, they said, the Canadian nation would be better able to keep Americans at bay.” Quotes were included from American politicians that reinforced the fear of eventual annexation by the United States through the Reciprocity Agreement. “An American member of Congress, Champ Clark, remarked that he was for the Reciprocity bill because he hoped ‘to see the day when the American flag will fly over every square foot of the British North American possessions clear to the North Pole.’ U.S. Senator Porter McCumber proclaimed: “Canadian annexation is the logical conclusion of Reciprocity with Canada.” That was enough to convince many nervous Canadians that although America might seem to smile on Canada and offer economic favours, its real aim was to draw Canada into an economic union and

then annex it.” Though this tactic did not work in the eventual outcome of the election, the text presented it as a bedrock issue in this particular election.

Entry #128(2/3/2) referred to relations between the government of Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau and the United States. Three examples were given when Canada did not follow the policies of the United States, in spite of standing agreements through the years of Prime Minister Pearson. The first example referred to a speech given by Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau stating that “he did not want Canada to be a mirror image of the United States.” “America was bogged down in an unpopular war in Vietnam; race riots in American cities were common and the image of American society.” A second example referred to the passage of the Arctic Waters Pollution Act, which occurred in response to the passage of an American oil supertanker through the Northwest passage in 1969. A third example was related in the official recognition by Canada of the People’s Republic of China, which broke ranks with American foreign policy. The entry revolved around the assertion of Canadian will, despite the position of the United States may be on particular issues of the day.

Entry #129(2/3/3) referred to the relations between the countries during the administration of President Ronald Reagan. The text stated that “the Reagan government pressed Canada to take a more active defence role because Americans felt that Canadians were taking a free ride on the American defence system. According to the entry, agreements were later signed that allowed for the testing of cruise missiles, but the agreement lasted for only five years in spite of “massive anti-nuclear protest and his [referring to Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau] personal dislike of nuclear arms.”

Entry #135(2/2/2) referred to an incident that became known as the Polar Sea Affair between Canada and the United States. A Coast Guard cutter planned to sail through the Northwest Passage and informed Canada of its intentions, but did not ask permission. This became an issue because Canada considered the waterway to be part of its sovereign territory, while the United States considered it an international waterway. The final question in the first paragraph was “Why would Canada consider this an unfriendly act?” The entry reported that “news of the *Polar Sea* prompted an unexpected public outcry in Canada.” Going further, the entry stated that the United States and Canada later signed an agreement binding the United States to ask permission to sail its vessels, be they government-owned or operated, through Arctic waters. This entry illustrated the serious nature of the issue to the Canadian government and citizenry. The entry revolved around the assertion of sovereignty.

## People

The theme of notable people had a total of three entries. Of these entries, one was positive and two were neutral. There were no negative entries. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B. Entry #137(4/4/3) referred to Dr. Leonora Howard King’s attempts to gain entry to medical school. She was denied entrance and “not easily hindered, she applied and was accepted into the University of Michigan’s Women’s Medical College.” The text stated that she went on to graduate with honours and spent most of her life in China.

## World Affairs

The theme of World Affairs had a total of 33 entries to it. Of these, 9 were positive, 11 were negative, and 13 were neutral. The neutral entries will be listed in Appendix B. Two entries had both positive and negative features. They are listed with the positive entries.

Entry #139(4/4/4) referred to the post World War II era and the subsequent influence and wealth of the United States. The text stated that the United States was the only nation that could equal the Soviet Union in terms of military strength and that the United States had assumed Britain's role as the world's greatest imperial power: "its presence was felt in almost every corner of the globe in the post-war years." In this entry, the text used the example of the Soviet Union in a negative fashion and the United States in a positive.

Entry #141(5/3/4) referred to the building of the United Nations. The text stated that the "so-called Big Five" nations "decided to attempt to shape a peaceful future for the world." This entry implies that through working together, these countries were thinking in global terms.

Entry #145(3/4/3), referring to the Gouzenko Spy Ring that emerged in Canada following the second world war. The text stated that Prime Minister MacKenzie King "immediately warned President Truman and the British Prime Minister Clement Attlee." This entry illustrated the nature of relations during this time. Entry #146(3/4/3) addressed the concerns of Canadian Prime Minister Louis St. Laurent regarding the spread of Soviet-style communism following World War II, stating that the United States was "the only country strong enough to oppose the Soviet Union." These concerns, or fears, were

shared by elements of America, “who were prepared to take on an expanded international role.”

Entry #147(4/4/3) referred to the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. The text stated that “although Canada encouraged the United States to oppose the Soviet Union, it still wanted to avoid being drawn into future U.S. wars without consultation.” The entry ended with the signing by the United States of a treaty in 1949. The results of this treaty made for the creation of “a pact to create an organization for mutual defence.” The entry implied that it was beneficial for both nations.

Entry #149(4/4/3) referring to the post-World War II reconstruction era in Europe, stated that “Canada and the United States jointly contributed \$13.5 billion in European economic aid, most of it from the United States” and called it “an amazing recovery of beyond the expectations of the people who had helped to engineer it.”

Entry #157(4/4/2) had elements that were both positive and negative. The entry addressed the anti-communism movement in America and Canada. The entry, negatively speaking, stated that Senator Joseph McCarthy abused his authority and caused “immense harm...both at home and abroad” to the citizens of the United States. Positive features of the entry referred to the fact that he was eventually censured and that his claims were “excessive and un-substantiated.”

Entry #158(4/4/3) referring to the Korean War, stated that the “United States demanded that the U.N. come to the military defence of South Korea” and that the forces were overwhelmingly American and sent “under American command.”

Entry #160(2/4/2) had both positive and negative features. The entry referred to the building of the Distant Early Warning (DEW) system between Canada and the United States during the Cold War. Positive features of the entry referred to the joint building of the system in order to protect both Canada and the United States. Negative features were references to the stockpiling of ballistic weapons by the United States and the Soviet Union. “The world did not have long to wait for the first super-power confrontation that might actually result in the total destruction of life on earth.” The negative features revolved around the fact that these two countries were described and presented in a way that depicted the rest of the world as the victims.

Entry #151(3/2/3) referred to the images of the Vietnam War and the protests that ensued. “Political protests by young Canadians against the Vietnam War and nuclear war became part of everyday life in the 1960s and early 1970s.” These were two areas that America was specifically involved in. Entry #152(3/2/3) showed a photograph of a Vietnam War protest in 1967 in Edmonton. The caption stated that “protests like this were highly critical of the United States’ participation in the Vietnam War.” The caption posed questions about whether protests like this were a good way to achieve one’s goals.

Entry #162(2/3/2) referred to the period through the 1950s during which Canada broke its partnership with the United States concerning foreign policy, NATO and NORAD. The text described this time period as putting “considerable strains on the uneven partnership.” The text then cited the cancellation of a Canadian fighter jet project and the installation of American Bomarc missile systems in Canada as situations that “rankled Canadian nationalists.” The text also gave the example of Canada recognizing



and becoming involved in the economies of Cuba and the People's Republic of China, which the United States protested against.

Entry #163(2/2/2) referred to the Bomarc missile system that was utilized as a part of the North American Aerospace Defense system (NORAD). Prime Minister John Diefenbaker agreed to accept certain weapon systems from the United States, but refused others. The "Americans were enraged at Diefenbaker's lack of enthusiasm for their plans," but this "was not the last time Diefenbaker turned a cold shoulder to the American President." Entry #164(2/2/2) showed a picture of a Bomarc-B missile which was part of a set of contentious issues between Canada and the United States. The caption below the picture stated, "Since Canada relied on the United States for its military strength, do you think it had an obligation to accept the U.S. missiles?" Both image and narrative of the relationship of the Canadian Prime Minister to the policies of the United States reinforced each other.

Entry #165(2/3/2) showed a political cartoon depicting the arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union. A grim reaper was holding up both hands in the shape of a peace sign. The caption under read "What message is this cartoon attempting to convey? Do you think the cartoon is overly pessimistic, or is it realistic?"

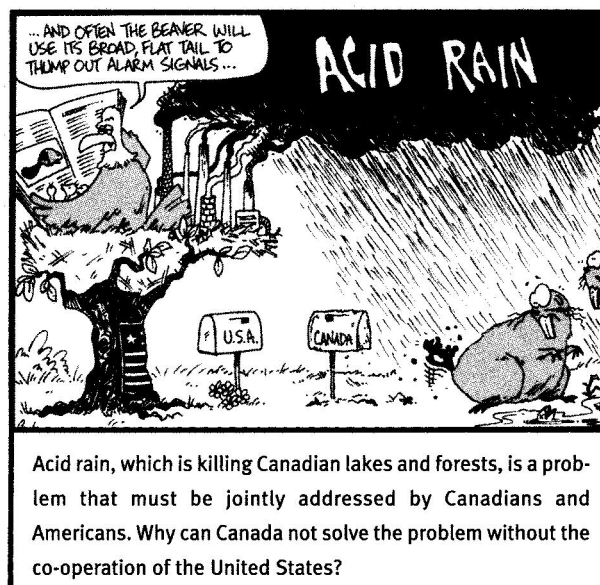
Entry #167(2/2/2) referred to conflicting views on the Vietnam War between Canadians and Americans. The text referred to Prime Minister Lester Pearson's prompting of American President Lyndon Johnson to "rethink their position on bombing raids over North Vietnam." Subsequent to the entry was the illustration that more Canadians began to speak out against the war. The text further stated that "American

protestors and draft dodgers...were welcomed in Canada.” Further, “Canadian officials refused all American efforts to force the return of draft dodgers to the United States.”

Entry #168(3/2/3) referred to Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau’s breaking with American foreign policy by recognizing and establishing economic relationships with countries such as Cuba and the People’s Republic of China, both of which were not recognized by the United States.

## Environment

There were a total of 2 entries for the theme of environment. Of these 2 entries, 1 was negative and the other neutral. The neutral entry is listed in Appendix B. Entry #173(1/2/2) showed a political cartoon that addressed acid rain.



The cartoon showed an eagle sitting in a tree saying, “and often the beaver will use its broad, flat tail to thump out alarm signals.” The cartoon then showed the beaver with its tail eaten away from acid rain. The caption under the cartoon read, “Acid rain, which is killing Canadian lakes and forests, is a problem that must be jointly addressed by

Canadians and Americans. Why can Canada not solve the problem without the co-operation of the United States?”

### Chapter Reviews

The theme of chapter reviews had a total of 8 entries. Of these entries, 2 were negative and 6 were neutral. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix B. Entry #174(2/3/1) contained references to relations held between Canada and the United States. Both entries began with “In this chapter we have seen...” The first entry stated how “Canada attempted to become more independent of Britain in foreign affairs without becoming entangled in the growing American empire” The second entry stated that “Canada had to realize that if Britain was at war, it was at war, and when economic issues were at stake, the United States would use political muscle to get its way.”

### American History Textbooks

For the American history textbooks, both had a total of 91 entries that depicted Canada culturally, economically, militarily, or politically. Of these entries, 9 were positive, 6 were negative, and 76 were judged to be neutral. The neutral entries for each theme are listed in Appendix C & D. Following is a list of the emergent themes from each textbook. As with the Canadian textbooks, there was some overlap in the emergent themes from the two texts, but due to the grade level and degree of depth and complexity of the material, the themes were not exactly the same.

#### *Making America* (Appendix C)

1. National Expansion

2. Military Conflict
3. Economic Activity
4. World Affairs
5. Social Order

*America: Pathways to the Present (Appendix D)*

1. First Settlements
2. Military Conflict
3. Economic Activity
4. Immigration
5. World Affairs

*Making America*

The text *Making America* contained a total of 69 entries. Of these, 5 were positive, 5 are negative, and 59 were neutral. The positive are listed first, followed by the negative, and the neutral depictions are listed in Appendix C. The themes generated through analysis of the text were not as numerous as those of the Canadian text. They are listed below:

1. National Expansion
2. Military Conflict
3. Economic Activity
4. World Affairs
5. Social Order

## National Expansion

This theme contained a total of 5 entries with 4 being neutral, 1 negative, and none positive. The neutral entry is listed in Appendix C. Entry #1(2/2/3) referred to a confrontation 1838 when “Canadians began logging and building a railroad through an area claimed by the state of Maine.” Militias from both Maine and New Brunswick were mobilized, but the conflict originated from a disagreement between the British and the Americans over the Treaty of Paris in 1783. This entry also stated that conquering Canada had been advocated during the War of 1812, but that “events thwarted this ambition.” In this entry, the British were the primary parties addressed in regards to the conquest of Canada.

## Military Conflict

This theme contained a total of 48 entries. Of these entries, 2 were positive, 3 were negative, and 42 were neutral. The positive are listed first, followed by the negative. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix C.

Entry #24(4/3/3) referred to the defeat of General John Sullivan in upstate New York by a combination of “Indian and loyalist forces.” The general took revenge in a series of acts that “deeply embarrassed George Washington.” This entry regards Canada in a positive light through the subsequent conduct of the military commander following his defeat.

Entry #25(4/3/3) referred to confrontations between revolutionaries and loyalist guerillas in the colonial south. The end of the entry stated that, following “British victory

at Charleston,” loyalist guerillas continued fighting and “the revolutionaries were now the resistance and the loyalists were in control.”

Entry #6(2/2/3) referred to the French military activities in Canada and state the lessons learned from the war. The second of these three lessons stated that “No New Englander could ever feel secure until the French had been driven out of Canada.” Use of the word “ever” implies that this was not a negotiable perception of relations between the two groups across the border.

Entry #7(2/2/3) referred to military conflicts between Canada and the Colonies. The text stated that the colonies called for British assistance in protecting the borders between the colonies and Nova Scotia and Port Royal. British assistance never arrived to assist in the “much-needed offensive against Canada.” The entry stated that the colonists raised their own army and “triumphantly took control of Port Royal and with it all of Nova Scotia.” The emphasis on “triumphant” implies that it was an end to the problems perceived on the part of the colonists toward the French.

Entry #13(3/2/3) referred to the defeat of the French by the British and changeover in government. According to the text, the “new Canadian territory posed serious governance problems,” through the French and Indian populations. This problem was attributed to their resistance to change their culture or pledge their allegiance. This danger existed in their relationship(s) with the British Empire.

### Economic Activity

The theme of economic activity had a total of 12 entries. Of these entries, 1 was positive, 11 were neutral, and none were negative.

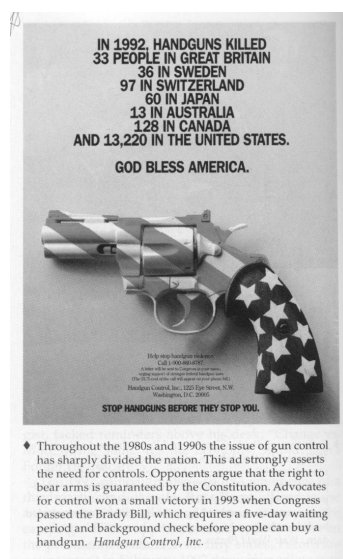
Entry #65(4/3/3) referred to the North American Free Trade Agreement and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. The entry described NAFTA as being designed to “reduce and eliminate trade barriers and to increase international trade” between the United States, Mexico, and Canada. This entry casts a positive light due to the use of “reduce” and “eliminate” in referring to the national economies.

### World Affairs

For this theme, there were 2 entries: 1 positive and 1 neutral with none being negative. The neutral entry is listed in Appendix C. Entry #67(4/3/4) referring to the Iran hostage crisis, stated that “Diplomatic efforts through the Canadians [and Algerians]” resulted in the eventual release of the hostages.

### Social Order

This theme had a total of 2 entries: 1 positive and 1 neutral with none being negative. Entry #69(4/4/4) was a picture of a gun control poster citing countries by numbers of people killed by handguns.



The entry lists the United States with 13,220 and Canada with 128. The bottom line of the poster states, “God Bless America.”

#### America: Pathways to the Present

This textbook had a total of 22 entries. Of these, 4 were positive, 1 was negative, and 17 were neutral. The themes generated by analysis of this textbook were:

1. First Settlements
2. Military Conflict
3. Economic Activity
4. Immigration
5. World Affairs

Of the themes that emerged from the analysis of this textbook, four had no entries that were either positive or negative, but neutral. These three were first settlements, military conflict, and immigration. The themes having entries which ranked either positive or negative were economic activity and world affairs. The neutral entries from this text are listed in Appendix D.

#### Economic Activity

The theme of economic activity had a total of 9 entries. Of these, 3 were positive, 1 was negative, and 5 were neutral. The neutral entries are listed in Appendix D. The positive entries are listed first, followed by the negative.

Entry #9(4/4/3) referred to the North American Free Trade Agreement: “The main purpose of NAFTA is to stimulate economic growth in the United States, Canada, and



Mexico.” Entry #10(4/4/5) also referring to the North American Free Trade Agreement, quoting President John F. Kennedy stating, “Geography made us neighbors. History made us friends.” The text then stated that Canada and the United States were already “each other’s largest trading partner.” Entry #12(4/4/4) also referred to the North American Free Trade Agreement by stating that “benefits for the United States include a net increase in jobs and a 57 percent growth in exports to Mexico and Canada(....)Both Canada and Mexico have enjoyed an increase in exports, too.”

Entry #11(3/2/3) referred to the Helms-Burton Act which followed the signing of the North American Free Trade Agreement. This act penalized “foreign companies that do business with Cuba.” The entry further stated that Latin American countries, Canada, and Mexico “loudly objected” to this, as “they saw the Helms-Burton Act as an abuse of United States power and the latest example of Uncle Sam’s muscle-flexing in the Western Hemisphere.”

## World Affairs

The theme of world affairs had a total of 2 entries. Of these entries, 1 was positive and the second was neutral. The neutral entry is listed in Appendix D. Entry #20(4/3/3) referring to the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), listed Canadian Prime Minister Louis St. Laurent’s proposal to create an “association of democratic peace-loving states.” The entry stated that “American officials expressed great interest in St. Laurent’s idea” and that Canada’s role was “vital” for any American support for the formation of the organization.

## Mutual Areas of Depiction in Both Nation's Texts

While the history of both Canada and the United States is intertwined in numerous ways, the areas of mention within the four textbooks examined do not significantly overlap. The number of entries referring to the United States in Canadian textbooks was significantly higher than the number in the United States textbooks referring to Canada. Situations, both general and specific, that were mentioned in each country's textbooks are examined. It is important to note that these areas do not balance outright, due to the fact that Canadian textbooks paid much more attention to the United States than with the United States texts. For this section of the chapter, the areas of mention are described as they occurred through various situations within the texts. The primary focus of this inquiry was to see where negative and positive evaluations were, so the neutral entries are not examined.

## North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)

The American history texts presented this agreement as an advantage to all the economies involved, namely Canada, the United States, and Mexico. The agreement was described in terms that were either positive or neutral. The Canadian texts, however, depicted NAFTA in different terms. While they did not decry the agreement in an outright sense, there was consistent mention throughout the texts that many were worried that this agreement formed an advantage for the United States that Canada and Mexico did not have. The Canadian texts also presented political cartoons (see entry #86 2/3/2 in *Canada: A Nation Unfolding*) which imply that the adoption of NAFTA would mean loss

of jobs, etc. for Canadians. The use of a cemetery headstone along with NAFTA illustrates this public perception.

## War of 1812

In Canadian texts, the War of 1812 was described in terms that affected the Canadians and British loyalists. Both Canadian texts point out expansionist tendencies on the part of the United States during this time and that these tendencies engendered danger to Canadians, thus necessitating their resistance. In numerous examples, Canadians described themselves in terms of being Canadians, along with their British support. The United States was often described as aggressive and land-hungry. Quotes from American diplomats and cabinet-level officials in the American government were used as a way of describing a certain inevitability toward the eventual union or annexation of Canada to the United States.

The American texts depicted the War of 1812 as taking place primarily between the United States and Britain, but on Canadian and American soil. British loyalists were described as a factor in the conflict, but there was an obvious difference in how both sets of texts perceived these relationships. The entries in the American texts relating to the War of 1812 were all neutral in their description of Canada during the conflict.

## The Trent Affair

John Slidell and James Mason were two spies for the confederacy during the Civil War. The American texts describe them as being captured in international waters and

brought back to the United States. In these texts, the British government was depicted as threatening war over the arrests, but that President Lincoln ordered their release.

The Canadian texts related this same incident, but emphasized that, following its peaceful settlement, many back in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia “realized how vulnerable the Atlantic region was to an American attack and takeover” (see *Defining Canada*, entry #82). This Canadian entry depicted the Americans as being potentially dangerous and unpredictable.

#### North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

The American texts depicted NATO and Canada’s role in its formation in ways that were positive. Credit was given to Canadian Prime Minister Louis St. Laurent and the text stated that the American “expressed great interest in St. Laurent’s idea” (see *Pathways to the Present*, Entry #20 4/3/3). The Canadian texts treated this situation as one in which Canadians might have an influence on the shaping of American defense policy (see *Canada: A Nation Unfolding*, Entry #147 4/4/3). The other Canadian textbook entry regarding NATO was neutral in its depiction of the United States.

#### Cold War

The American texts presented this era of history as an outgrowth of World War II. They further described it as a time of rising tensions between the superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union. The Canadian texts described this era as one in which the United States contributed to the tension through its actions and attitudes toward the Soviet Union. The Canadian texts further described the introduction of nuclear weapons

onto Canadian soil through Canada's defensive partnership with the United States. The texts described this partnership as being highly resented on the part of the Canadian populace, but did not go so far as to describe any support or benefit for it on the part of the Canadians.

### National Expansion

Both sets of texts described national expansion. *Making America* (see Entry #1 2/2/3) depicted a border dispute involving the state of Maine which stemmed from the Treaty of Paris of 1783. Canadian lumberjacks were depicted as moving into the area out of frustration with their lack of access to resources for the logging industry. The Canadian textbooks depicted the United States as overly aggressive and land-hungry, a position that Canadians were always sensitive to. Canadian textbooks focused on the Alaska Boundary Dispute (see *Defining Canada*, Entry #183, 184) as a prime example of their dealings with the United States in these matters. In other examples, government officials were quoted in their references to the eventual absorption of Canada into the United States.

Nova Scotia was also mentioned in both sets of texts as a focal point of conflict. In *Making America* (see entry #7 2/2/3), the text described the taking of Port Royal in Nova Scotia as "triumphant" on the part of the colonists of the future United States. In the Canadian texts, Nova Scotia was described in several ways that applied to the United States. It was at the center of an incident involving bootlegging to the United States and was described at another point as being at a place of military conflict between the colonists of Canada and the Thirteen Colonies. The instance of colonial conflict from the

Canadian textbooks also portrayed this instance as one where the Canadians were victorious in defending what they perceived to be their territory.

### British Loyalists

The subject of British loyalists was also addressed in the textbooks. The Canadian textbooks depicted British loyalists as a group of people who were forced out of the colonies for refusing to relinquish their British heritage. They were described as people of all levels of society who were turned into refugees, but were also being active in the struggle against the colonies and were persecuted when they lived in the Thirteen Colonies.

American textbooks depicted British loyalists as people who were persecuted in the colonies, but who chose to migrate to Canada. The depiction of British loyalists in the American textbooks were neutral, except for one (see *Making America*, Entry #18 2/3/3) stating that loyalists within Carolina were “decisively defeated.”

### War Hawks

The topic of the War Hawks referred to particular government officials within the United States government. The textbook *Making America* presented the topic in two different entries (see Entries #46 & 58), but in both these entries the War Hawks were presented in neutral terms. The Canadian textbook *Defining Canada* presented this topic within the context of the War of 1812. The War Hawks were presented as a group of “aggressive American nationalists” that included Thomas Jefferson. The text quoted a congressman from Kentucky named Richard Johnson as stating that, “I shall never die

contented until I see [Britain's] territories incorporated into the United States," referring to Canada (see Entry #32).

#### General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)

This topic was presented in Canadian and American texts, to include *Canada: A Nation Unfolding* and *Making America*. In the Canadian text, the entry was positive as it was a dimension of the economic trade between Canada and the United States. The American text also presented it as a positive feature. Both texts described this agreement as one of the factors that gradually lowered the impediments to increased economic trade between the countries.

#### Manifest Destiny

This topic was addressed in both Canadian and American textbooks. Since Manifest Destiny is an American concept, the sets of texts treated it differently. The American texts (see *Making America*, entry #1) presented this concept as being thwarted by the fact that other European countries already controlled large parts of the northern continent. The Canadian texts presented this concept as one that drove aggressive behavior on the part of the United States. *Defining Canada* (see entry #13) presented it as an indicator of American intent that Canada was nervously anxious about. *Canada: A Nation Unfolding* (see entry #121) presented Manifest Destiny in terms that described the acquisition of Louisiana, Florida, Texas, Mexico, and California in pejorative terms such as "acquisition", "taking", and "stealing".

## Quebec

Quebec was mentioned in several instances in all the texts. The American texts described it in terms that were economic and military and these entries were neutral. Canadian texts, of course, included much more detail where Quebec was concerned, as it is part of their country and history. These entries depicted the United States in ways that were negative regarding the War of 1812 and the Revolutionary War.

## Inter-Rater Reliability

Throughout the evaluation of text entries for this study, there was not 100% agreement between the researcher and both the raters. It was never expected that this would be the case. The individual entries for each textbook from both countries are listed in Appendix A-D. Below is a table listing the percentage of times that each rater concurred with the evaluation of the researcher for each text used according to the particular emergent theme.

<b>Defining Canada</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
Thirteen Colonies	80.00	60.00
National Expansion	50.00	33.30
Military Conflict	67.80	53.50
Economic Activity	60.80	63.00
Canadian National Identity	73.60	78.90
Immigration	56.20	75.00
People	62.50	50.00
Political Sovereignty	68.00	64.00
World Affairs	80.00	55.00
Communications/Entertainment	39.10	47.80
Religion	100.00	100.00
Slavery	66.60	33.30
Chapter Objectives	100.00	100.00

<b>Canada: A Nation Unfolding</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
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<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
Cultural Protectionism	75.00	100.00
Military Conflict	91.30	86.90
Economic Activity	63.90	72.10
Canadian National Identity	62.00	68.90
Immigration	100.00	100.00
Canada/U.S. Relations	64.70	70.50
People	100.00	66.60
World Affairs	72.70	84.80
Environment	50.00	50.00
Chapter Reviews	87.50	75.00

<b>Making America</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
Colonies/National Expansion	100	80
Military Conflict	93.7	91.6
Economic Activity	91.6	91.6
World Affairs	50	100
Social Order	75	100

<b>America: Pathways to the Present</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
First Settlements	100	100
Military Conflict	100	100
Economic Activity	88.8	77.7
Immigration	87.5	87.5
World Affairs	100	100

#### Number and Percentage of Depictions According to Text

Each text had a different number of references to the opposite country and these entries did not address the same information as each other. While the textbooks from either Canada or the United States did not present the opposite country in overly negative terms, in the case of Canada, there were themes where the majority of references to the United States were negative in nature. Listed below is a table showing the total number

of references to the opposite country in each textbook and the percentage of references that were positive, neutral, and negative.

<b>Defining Canada</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
Thirteen Colonies	10	0.00	50.00	50.00
National Expansion	6	0.00	0.00	100.00
Military Conflict	57	12.28	28.07	59.65
Economic Activity	47	17.02	48.94	34.04
Canadian National Identity	19	21.05	26.32	52.63
Immigration	16	18.75	43.75	37.50
People	16	12.50	31.25	56.25
Political Sovereignty	25	20.00	36.00	44.00
World Affairs	20	25.00	40.00	35.00
Communications/Entertainment	23	13.04	17.39	69.57
Religion	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Slavery	3	0.00	33.33	66.66
Chapter Reviews	17	0.00	94.12	5.88

<b>Canada: A Nation Unfolding</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
Cultural Protectionism	4	0.00	75.00	25.00
Military Conflict	23	13.04	82.61	4.35
Economic Activity	61	37.70	32.79	29.51
Canadian National Identity	29	31.03	48.28	20.69
Immigration	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Canada/U.S. Relations	17	17.65	41.18	41.18
People	3	33.33	66.66	0.00
World Affairs	33	27.27	39.39	33.33
Environment	2	0.00	50.00	50.00
Chapter Reviews	8	0.00	75.00	25.00

<b>Making America</b>				

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
Colonies/National Expansion	5	0.00	80.00	20.00
Military Conflict	48	4.17	87.50	6.25
Economic Activity	12	8.33	91.67	0.00
World Affairs	2	50.00	50.00	0.00
Social Order	2	50.00	50.00	0.00

<b>America: Pathways to the Present</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
First Settlements	2	0.00	100.00	0.00
Military Conflict	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Economic Activity	9	33.33	55.56	11.11
Immigration	8	0.00	100.00	0.00
World Affairs	2	50.00	50.00	0.00

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION

#### Summary

As described in chapter 2, Atkinson and Coffey (1997) assert that cultures and nations are self-documenting in their histories; that is to say that the normative narratives are usually presented in best case scenarios and not at the expense of the particular culture or country from which they originate. The results of this analysis agree with that assertion. While each country covered its own history in seemingly great detail, there were still omissions from the greater historical account between both nations. One indicator of omission was the extent to which the Canadian texts included influences from United States in the shaping of Canadian written history, and also the extent to which the United States textbooks did not include Canada. Another indicator was the nature of the depictions by Canadian texts toward the United States, as well as the reverse. Regardless of the exact historical accuracy of the accounts for both countries, Canadian history books were consistent in presenting the United States in negative terms when the relationship between the two countries referred to certain areas: national expansion, military conflict, economic activity, Canadian national identity, communications/entertainment, and the environment. It is important to note that not all entries from the Canadian texts were negative as they referred to the United States. The neutral entries depicted the U.S. as being the other country with which Canadians, either

as citizens or as a culture or country, were interacting with at the particular time. Though this neutral depiction did not victimize American culture in any overt way, as was the intent of this inquiry to ascertain, the statements within the texts are still value-laden as they serve to reinforce and document the experience of Canadians.

While the American texts did not include as much information or references relating to Canada as the Canadian texts did with the U.S., the references were overwhelmingly positive or neutral terms. Again, these references were value-laden and served to reinforce the historical tale of the United States.

#### Considerations for Civic Education and Economic Reality

Several factors discussed in chapter 1 and 2 regarding the use of textbooks in both countries should be kept in mind as broader generalizations are developed. First, neither country uses a standardized national history curriculum. For this reason, numerous texts are available for use by the school systems of both countries, so textbooks will not all cover the same material in the same way, be it in positive, negative, or neutral terms. Second, as described in chapter 2, distributors of textbooks expect a return on their investment. Since both Canada and the United States have de-centralized textbook adoption policies, the responsibility lies with the district, committee, or individual to select the text they desire to use, so long as the text is compatible with existing educational objectives and outcomes. And since the accompanying ancillary materials for classroom use may weigh in substantially on the choice of text, these materials may directly affect the nature of the material(s) studied. One text may not be as accurate,

unbiased, or in-depth as another, so students and teachers will primarily have the use of the texts assertions from to use within the curriculum.

Third, the texts were written by individual teams of authors with a lead author. Since these texts were not approved by a central governmental or other authority, the teams of authors had a degree of artistic license in choosing to represent circumstances, situations, and their outcomes in ways they deemed most accurate. This setting applies directly to the social construction of knowledge, whereby the collective generation and transmission of knowledge is the end result (see Crotty, 1998 and Patton, 2002). Therefore, the experiences, scholarship and writing of the authors for each text is embedded in their cultural experience. This brings about a fundamental tone and orientation to the information conveyed. While a substantial degree of work went into editing and revision, the result was still a primary civic and historical orientation within the texts themselves.

Fourth, each text also engendered a substantial degree of civics education. As described in chapter 2, the broader goal of civics education is to develop a particular civic mindset and allegiance and the civics curriculum is largely included, by default, within the history curriculum. Civics education accomplishes no real civic goal if it undermines prevailing national truths. A particular civic mindset primarily applies to the nation itself, not other nations. Although there were obviously other nations were involved in the history of both Canada and the United States, the goal of both their histories was and is to preserve and promote distinctive cultural identities.

Fifth, all textbooks included in this study would be considered canonized; that is they do not address an extended number of the contradictions that naturally arise in the

socio-historical tale of either nation. Examples of this included treatment of Aboriginal peoples and the examination of cause/effect as it relates to war, economic interaction, and cultural heritage. Stating that the texts are canonized means that neither set of texts addressed the larger contradictions that a reader would find by reading revisionist history.

### The Rule of Ownership and Nationalism

With the telling and teaching of any historical narrative, the nation or people need a sense of owning their own historical account, whether of a nation or a smaller minority or other group. In this, the particular history becomes legitimate in the perception of those who subscribe to a particular version of events, as described in chapter 1 & 2. Legitimizing a particular version of events can be problematic, even contradictory, when one considers that many of the students studying particular national histories may not be from the country in which they attend school, or they may be members of a minority group whose presence or history is not adequately portrayed in mainstream historical accounts. As described in chapter 2, the presence, depth, and duration of mention for different groups within history textbooks of various countries changes over time and is subject to a variety of influences, be they political, economic, or other. Here, the rule of ownership could be said to apply in a broadly nationalistic manner. It is a matter of building a perception of what did or did not happen within the experience of a particular country.

While this study does not apply to all the forms of nationalism described in chapter 2, it is applicable to some. Canada falls into the category of traditional nationalism (see Ozkirimli, 2000) in that the population held fast to its British and/or

French cultural, economic, and governmental ties long after the Thirteen colonies chose a different path, even though these ties have changed over time as Canada gradually became independent of Great Britain. Canada would also fall into what Leslie Bash (2001) referred to as a siege culture in that “a culture whose adherents perceive to be under siege is endowed with a certain kind of legitimacy” (p. 8). This occurred as a response to their perception of social and economic threat due to the proximity and nature of social and economic interaction with the United States. There are certain aspects of the Canadian national narrative that are guarded closely and others which are not guarded quite so closely. Those parts of the narrative guarded the closest are the facts and distinctions that make ‘Canadian-ness’ distinctive from that of American. This applies to their arts, media, nature of citizenship, literature, cultural traditions, etc. The most appropriate category for the United States is liberal nationalism (Ozkirimli, 2000), since the focus was to move away from the sovereign rule of a monarchy and towards a more decentralized form of government focusing on the rights of smaller groups and their perception of oppression.

#### Orientation of the Texts

The two Canadian texts had substantially different orientations in their depiction of the United States, than did the United States’ texts in their depiction of Canada. If one were to place them on a rating scale from liberal to moderate to conservative, *Defining Canada* would be considered a conservative textbook by Canadian standards, but quite liberal by American standards because the extensive and sometimes pejorative manner in which it describes the avenues and intentions of the United States in growing as a nation



and achieving what it has. *Canada: A Nation Unfolding* would be considered more moderate in its description(s). It focused more on economic activity between the two nations, and paid much less attention to military conflict and cultural protection than *Defining Canada*. The two American texts had a much smaller amount of content addressing Canada than was the case with the Canadian texts addressing the U.S. In terms of their depiction of Canada, placing them on the same rating scale would reveal a moderate rating for both.

In the following sections I will discuss two themes present in all the texts that better illustrate their respective orientations.

#### Economic Interaction between the Nations

A recurring theme within the Canadian texts was the changing nature of Canada's economic relationship with the United States. While the American texts presented this relationship in positive or neutral terms and free of a cultural dimension, the Canadian texts went to great lengths to state the concerns and realities of continued economic interaction with the United States. Reading the Canadian texts might put one on guard against the constant possibility of economic and cultural manipulation by the United States of Canada. A protectionist mindset on the part of the Canadian populace would be a natural consequence of studying this form of history. Areas the Canadian texts addressed include the distribution of media, to include print, television, and movies, and the nature of their economic sovereignty as they became more closely intertwined with the United States. A consistent observation through the Canadian texts related to the population's appetite for the media. The forms of media that were closest and most

abundant came from the United States. The fact that this media was not oriented around Canadian identity, but rather American popular culture, caused and still causes great concern for the potential results in the absence of Canada, but the overwhelming presence of the United States in the images that people consume. In a basic sense, the concern is that Canada will be drowned out through the sheer volume and presence of the American media.

The nature of economic interaction was another theme that consistently emerged throughout the texts. The notion that Canada could not survive on its own without the United States was present in much of the information referring to Canadians seeking economic ties with countries other than the United States. This pursuit of economic sovereignty sometimes went against U.S. foreign policy and accounted for disagreements between the United States and Canada.

### Military Conflict

Military conflict was a natural theme due to the countries' history and proximity to each other. While both Canadian texts did not address conflict to the same degree, there was substantial mention of Canadians as they perceived themselves to be pitted against the Americans in various periods of history, including the establishment of borders and the results of various conflicts beginning with the Revolutionary War. Canadian history, in this context, revolved around the need to maintain Canada's political and cultural sovereignty in the face of perceived or real American encroachment. The American texts, in a majority of instances, did not present conflict during this period as ensuing between Americans and Canadians, but rather between Americans and the

British or the French. The American texts fell short of fully addressing this gap in the perception of distinctive Canadian identity as separate from being strictly British.

#### Importance of Omission or Dilution

In light of the orientation of civics education, as described earlier, the omission, distortion, or dilution of events that occurred presents a valid factor for consideration. Joseph Tohill (2003), as described in chapter 2, observes that centering the historical tale on the nation-state presents the real possibility of a polarization of perception on the part of the reader and of the omission or dilution of facts and events between the two countries. This approach is present in both sets of texts and the existing relationship between both countries helps us better understand possible reasons for it.

Canada and the United States are extensive trading partners. This does not mean, however, that the relationship has always been smooth. Reviewing the Canadian texts, one finds that in certain areas, Canadians have historically operated from a concerned point of view. The United States, however, does not have this same need for cultural protectionism. It could be considered arguable that the United States represents the dominant economic, political, and cultural force for the North American continent, and Canada does not. This being the case, the history of the United States is not seen as a set of facts to be guarded so closely against Canadian influence: the opposite is true for Canada.

Speaking summatively, Canada and the United States both see themselves differently as nations and this directly affects the way they see each other. Canadians view their country as a mosaic, that is to say a place where groups of very different

backgrounds come together. As findings have confirmed, their history has been one based on the idea of compromise in order to bring the population together as a larger and more cohesive whole. Through the textual depictions, Canadians see the United States as a melting pot whereby group differences are marginalized or quashed in favor of a more singular way of thinking. As stated in chapter 2, the nature of extended interaction arising from this makes for a bully of sorts that is somewhat constant in its attempt to overrun Canadians and their cultural and economic sovereignty as they relate to self-determination. In a basic sense, Canadians want to be left to manage their own affairs on all levels, but are concerned and protective against the efforts of the United States and regard them as intrusive to varying degrees.

The United States, as shown through both sets of texts, has come to comprise the cultural and economic hegemon of North America. The mainstay of interaction between the U.S. and Canada is economic and this provides numerous venues for cultural exchange. The resources and economic focus of the United States mean that it is on the constant lookout for opportunity as it is perceived to be available. Part of the disparity in seeing opportunity between the United States and Canada lies in that culture is an inevitable companion to economic exchange. When one country, in this case Canada, sees economic exchange as a threat to their cultural identity, and the opposite country sees the same economic interaction as a natural extension of economic activity; hence, one will perceive a threat and the other will not. The United States sees Canada primarily as a trading partner. Through the extensive nature of their interaction, the products or services, and these are in some way related to culture, that find their way into Canadian markets do so for economic reasons and not for cultural. The United States sees itself as

a country unto itself and the cultural dimensions of its history revolve primarily around what it has done internally. While the interaction with different countries or cultures is not absent, it does occur at the fringes of the historical account. For example, the mainstay of the U.S. texts referred to England rather than Canada in terms of territories and peoples. That is to say, the texts do not observe the differences in the populations to the degree that Canadian texts did.

The structure of history, as it is told, forms a framework of cultural and historical assumption that guides the perceptions and civic sensibilities for students of either nation. It would be illogical to assert that these perceptions are static and never subject to further refinement, but the manner in which they are built does give individuals a place from which to start to see certain parts of the world around them. As described in chapter 1, and within numerous educational contexts, canonized books such as these may not always apply. Examples include home-schooling, private or religious schooling, and cultural schools operated by various groups. For this reason, along with de-centralized textbook adoption policies in the public schools, one cannot say that every single student reads the information in these particular sets of texts.

Were schools interested in the bare historical truths between nations, they would most likely opt for revisionist history books. However, revisionist history is also concerned with correcting what is incorrect in what people know by presenting a broader and more inclusive account of events that occurred. This depiction still provides multiple dimensions of social constructionism, but not the kind that narrowly fit into canonized books or courses. Such books are not conducive to a civics education program, primarily due to the inevitable historical contradictions inherent with any nation.

## A Social Aesthetics Perspective

At this point in the analysis it is appropriate to propose a constructional framework to account for differences in emphasis between the texts. Two concepts converge to form this framework: sociology and aesthetics, or social aesthetics. Fundamental components of sociology that address the building of culture are beliefs, values, norms, and rituals. All of these features play an important role and the varying ways each are constructed and converge determine the makeup of a particular cultural setting, making it distinctive from, or similar to, others. This framework is then reproduced through additional means such as technology and communication, which allows the particular culture to streamline itself so that it is disseminated more efficiently to the general population.

In the context of schooling, which would be considered an institutional subsystem of cultural reproduction, information relating to the building of culture is taught repetitiously so that people emerge from school with similar civic sentiments. The important feature here is that the production and reproduction of culture occurs partially through the process of schooling. Within the context of civic and social orientation, history, as discussed in chapter 2, serves as a primary vehicle of delivery. For the individual who is not an original member of the particular culture in which they may attend school, the process of acculturation becomes important in that it helps to bring them into the fold the same as most other people.

The material culture of a group of people or larger population is greatly determined by their nonmaterial culture, of which the previous elements directly address. Nonmaterial culture includes practices and traditions utilized by a group of people that

make the practice of daily living unique to them, although parts of it can be borrowed from other groups and subsequently changed or modified. The orientation of nonmaterial culture can have profound effects on what is seen as advantageous or even necessary to the dimensions of material culture. Within the context of schooling, nonmaterial culture informs the sentiment that alters or refines the social systems by which the population operates. These include not only teaching practices, but also the very laws upon which the society is founded.

Aesthetics relates to the character and form upon which a particular practice or orientation is founded. Art, as a metaphor, has a useful and descriptive quality in helping to understand culture and how it is reproduced and disseminated in the context of people who come from various schools of interpretation. While there are many styles, dimensions, and elements of art, they all provide a means of communicating to the observing participant the intent behind the efforts and results of the artist. While these efforts are sometimes abstract and other times not, they are often utilized as a means of communicating observations or statements of the socially constructed world. The participant observer then interprets the image(s) before them and they make broaden or reinforce the existing framework of interpretation the viewer uses. This is to say that there is not one single way of interpreting a work of art, regardless of the intent of the artist or the framework of interpretation used by an observer.

Elliot Eisner (1998) offers insight into the *aesthetics* aspect of social aesthetics. He observes that that numerous traditions have been employed by people to describe and interpret their constructed world(s). These include history, art, literature, dance, drama, poetry, and music as the most common forms and the style in which they occur. The

metaphor of art is also useful here in that it also readily applies to the concept of aesthetics and history building. There are numerous elements and principles involved in aesthetics of art. Among the elements are color, form, line, shape, texture, and value. The principles of art include balance, contrast, emphasis, proportion, pattern, rhythm, unity, and variety. Through the convergence of these elements and principles, different styles of art emerge. Styles such as abstract, baroque, neoclassist, surrealism, luminist, pre- and post-impressionism emerge and are disseminated to those who would view them, hence consuming the images they present. The observer and student of art may then fancy a number of different styles that are available, but their tastes inevitably find some preferences over others. The resulting preferences are then oriented around the acceptance of certain genres and the rejection of others, which they may find aesthetically unfavorable for any number of reasons. Through the convergence of these factors of social aesthetics, the individual or group then develop a multi-faceted lens through which they interpret and subsequently navigate the world before them. This lens of a particular genre helps them to make sense of their surroundings. Even though these various genres emerge from the convergence of the same principles and elements, the particular forms they take are not universally accepted by all. Even within the same culture and population, individuals are sure to like some and not like others, and those they have tastes for are not always going to be the same as their peers.

According to Neys and Molenaars (1999), cultural theory relates to the manner in which a group of people defines itself and constructs its social reality. In constructing this definition, each group will take a different path and utilize dissimilar criteria in order to define itself as unique. This is likened to the dissimilar convergence of elements of



both sociology and art in the building of a larger, more inclusive, and precisely defined social system. The knowledge produced may have certain qualities that are uniform and common, but it is not interpreted or acted upon across the entire population in the exact same manner. There are subgroups within the larger group that define themselves differently from others, even though they may be members of the same cultural or social fabric.

The definition and construction of culture is synthesized through the interaction the group has with others historically and the culture they already possess. This brings about a continual drive to refine in order to remain cohesive as a group, either in the context of survival or the competition for dominance or influence. This interactional synthesis may also occur through experiences of subjugation by others or the act of oppressing others.

Neys and Molenaars also assert that within groups of the same culture, there are self-adjusting mechanisms across different sub-groups which cause the orientations and hierarchy of values for culture to change over time. This is to say that a smaller subgroup, possibly with fewer resources or advantages can affect the makeup and orientation of a larger, more powerful group. This can explain why certain social values change over time. It also explains why a population may move back and forth between liberal and conservative and even change the meaning of these designations as time passes. Neys and Molenaars' contention is also that this change does not occur as a result of external pressure from other groups, but as the result of tensions between members of the same group, in this case that of nations. This assertion as it relates to various cultural groups is valid, but also partially incomplete. While nations are certainly the most

obvious manifestations of it, the same assertion discounts smaller and more localized variations across smaller populations and the means by which those populations can eventually persuade change on the part of the larger population.

Part of the makeup for any civic orientation comes through the efforts of the different groups that compete for policy-making influence of the larger whole itself, or fight for the increased or autonomous rights of certain constituencies. Within this ongoing inter-group tension, the framework of sociology and aesthetic convergence, or social aesthetics, becomes important. The construction of this social-aesthetic heavily influences the hierarchy of priorities and actions that are seen as best for the group in question.

Though there is competition for influence, in the end the group will pursue for itself what it sees as the best course of action, especially as this relates to the relationship it has with others, be they smaller groups or even other nations. Naturally, there are substantial differences between the liberal, moderate, and conservative elements or individuals within the groups of any nation and within the differences of these liberal, moderate, and conservative points of view, the concept of a non-uniform synthesis of aesthetics is further reinforced. This goes back to the assertion by McCullagh (2000) and Yack (1999) in chapter 1 & 2 in that members of a particular school of thought will be predisposed to think along certain lines.

People may speak the same language and share much of the same lifestyle and cultural belief, but what they believe is important and that which constitutes the best decision or course of action will change substantially from one setting to another. While younger students who learn the orientation of this historical or social aesthetic may not

always adhere to the information passed along from their peers or elders in the strictest sense of the word, they still have it, in the least, as an introductory orientation to their view of the world and their place in it, either as part of a culture or as an individual. This aesthetic is, therefore, also located within the structure of the curriculum in schools. Individuals may accept or refute what they are taught. It is also subject to verification and/or reinforcement through the ongoing nature of their experiences in the larger socially constructed world.

As stated previously, the manifestation of value systems and their civic orientation is not a concept or experience translated uniformly from one setting to another, be it on a national or smaller scale. The values that groups or individuals consider to be the most important, or indispensable, are considered dominant to *them*. These values revolve around what they see as ‘best’ for them, in both the material and non-material sense of the word. These values are based partly on the result of agreement or disagreement between different sub-groups competing for influence on the whole, regardless of the context of that competition. This dominant value system, or hegemony, is located within various fragmented groups, or individuals, within and across cultures and on varying scales of population. Nussbaum (2003) refers to these types of social choice options as “preferences about preferences” (p. 121). The context of her discussion centers around the treatment and place of gender in the world, more importantly women’s rights to social development, but the same idea is present here. This concept applies to the manner in which a person’s social reality is constructed, but they also continually exercise choice on the parts of that same social fabric with which they agree/disagree. Due to the fragmentation of these groups, the boundaries and civic rules of nation-states

may apply in terms of ‘preferences about preferences’, but not in an ultimate or decisive sense.

In this context, nationalism and bias again come into influential positions. For the purposes of social aesthetics, especially as they apply across the boundaries of different groups, nationalism and bias will be addressed as two dimensions of prejudice. In this context, these two dimensions are located within a smaller scale than simply that of nation states. In using the concept of prejudice, I am not strictly confining it to its pejorative meaning; rather using it to describe a system of preferences and dislikes as they apply to different areas of the social world within a person is located and subsequently participates. Since a person, in most circumstances, is in continuous participation with the surrounding world; they are continually moving. This movement and continuous interaction with other people, or in this case information, interacts with the framework of value and knowledge they employ. The synthesis which results continuously modifies what they know and results in knowledge that is changed, be it narrowed, broadened or reinforced from what its original form was.

The prejudices that make some things acceptable, and others not, amount to fragmentation as it occurs and is observable between different groups and individuals. Another part of the reason for this fragmentation lies in the result of varying points of view of the world and interpretation of particular events or relationships. Different groups of individuals will prioritize characteristic features of their own hegemonic or civic orientation in ways that are also dissimilar from each other as fellow members. This dissimilarity comes about through various influences such as generational change, use of and belief in education, socio-economic status, and numerous other factors. This

dissimilarity not only marks the difference between groups and individuals, but also the difference between liberal, moderate, and conservative elements within those groups. An example would be the perception of Native American tribes whose members may live in both Canada and the United States, not to mention other minority groups located on both sides of the border. Another example would be where the members of these groups reside, in cosmopolitan, rural, affluent, poverty-stricken, or other settings. The sheer number of different groups of individuals and their experiences with others do not allow for a singular point of view, even within members of the same cultural group, for how they see themselves in relation to the larger, more mainstream culture.

In terms of nation-states, bias and prejudice are representative within the civic building of the citizen's point of view. An unresolved question from this would be just where the limits of this should lie, so that the historical tale of one group or nation does not victimize the other? Nation states are not going away any time soon and are still the major economic and social forces in the world. Nationalism, being a necessary prerequisite for allegiance, carries with it the effect of determining a degree of open-mindedness for how people see the world and where or to whom their loyalties lie.

This dissemination of a particular civic or aesthetic orientation may be successful and it may not for the particular group(s) for which it is intended. Its construction may be based on culture, but not strictly confined to it. Factors such as race, ethnicity, gender, religious orientation, and economic or political influence are subcomponents of it. The description of tensions within the group described by Neys and Molenaars (1999) are factors that can be acted on by the particular group when they see it as being within the scope of their best interests. While these subcomponents are important in the overall

sense of group cohesion and success, they are interpreted in varying ways by the members. An excellent example of this lies in the perspective of the Canadian textbooks towards the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). While there were supporters for the passage of NAFTA, the Canadian textbooks delineated much more concern for its negative effects on the Canadian population. While the American texts did not describe NAFTA in these terms, during the time it was being debated there was much debate as to the potential negative results it might have.

Because the canonized versions of history books are used in secondary schools in both countries, members of different groups will be likely not to believe a particular version of events if the cause/effect relationship of these events contradict their own experience(s). Where these lines are drawn depends on the information presented and the manner in which it agrees with or refutes their own experiences. Regardless of the amount of information available, the facts presented in the textbook may serve as an assault on version(s) of truth they know.

In chapter 1, possible limitations were discussed for students who might come from another country or culture and what their reaction may be to the way their group or culture is presented within the school's history text(s). If a text like this is used in which a group is marginalized or absent from the historical account when they had an active role, the particular group member may object or remain silent when the information is presented. With this, the process of acculturation is limited in its success. The disadvantage for the student is that their classroom peers may read the same information and form an 'as is' perspective of the historical account, since it came from the textbook. This situation does not describe the dynamic role the teacher plays in this situation, but

teachers cannot address and finely scrutinize every detail presented in the book(s) they use in class.

Samuel Huntington's (1997) clash of civilization theory asserts that core elements within various cultures will always be at odds with other cultures in one area or another. This orientation is not strictly based on religion, though this forms the bulk of his argument, but also ethnicity and varying cultural mores. They form varying and highly influential degrees for the orientation of individuals within these groups, informing a range of civilizational referent points that guide the ways in which people experience and interpret the world around them. Huntington asserts that "the interactions between peoples of different civilizations are increasing; these increasing interactions intensify civilization consciousness and awareness of differences between civilizations and commonalities within civilizations" (p. 4). Addressing these differences and commonalities refers to Gadamer's concept of the horizons of understanding. The different concepts utilized by civilizational groups in defining themselves account for their particular horizon. The 'horizons' that are constructed for any particular group account for part of the view they hold of the social world. In this the conditions that go with being part of a particular group and the knowledge that is employed within that same group bring with them certain conditions. Meeting these conditions means that one is, therefore, part of the group itself since knowledge of the social aesthetic also means adherence to some or most of its doctrines.

Edward Said (2001) referred to Huntington's theory as inelegant thinking, claiming that all individuals across national or cultural borders do not strictly conform to this approach and with each other. Said argues for the pragmatic nature of interaction

between peoples, not just in groups or cultures, but also, and much more importantly, individuals. Personal interaction is generally what counters the perceived threat from different groups because it changes opinion and perception in a grass-roots manner, one individual, or more, at a time, and it accomplishes this change in a variety of interactions, such as economic participation and the perceived value of reward. While the civic or history curriculum learned in school may provide a point of reference, that point of view must deal with social realities in the outside world. If, therefore, information learned by members of different groups in school is seen as wholly incompatible with their experiences, then they will be likely to disregard or refine the information to accommodate the new reality.

In their positions, Said and Huntington were both correct, but also incorrect to the ultimate extent of their assertions. The positions of both authors assume that there will be a singular way of thinking and acting by the individuals or groups from one setting toward those of another. While this does occur, it does not always occur in a uniform sense across and between members from any and all group(s). Both positions, however, present a polarized view of the interactions that occur across and between members of larger populations. With this, another dimension of social aesthetics is necessary. While individuals within smaller cultural groups may still be allied with the larger group (e.g. conservatives agreeing with liberals on some points, but not others), the presentation of certain kinds of information or experience may change that allegiance and cause some within the group to fall away or to change their point of view. Thus, there will be 'nodes' of agreement and disagreement between different parts, referring to groups or



individuals, of the same social whole. For this reason, the common elements that tie groups together are not static and subject to societal changes over time.

This contradiction may come from a variety of sources: perhaps the teaching of family or smaller cultural groups with which individuals have relationships, or it may be that their own experience contradicts it in an outright fashion. While the values of these groups or individuals are certainly flexible and perhaps accommodating to a degree, there is a limit to tolerance before the cohesion of the group itself may be perceived to be threatened. While this change in allegiance will not necessarily make a person or group stop believing in what the larger whole stands for or how it sees the world, such a change will affect their orientation, perhaps making them more compatible, even pragmatic, with other groups or serving to alienate them even more.

Another dimension of social aesthetics is that members of groups, or the groups themselves, may revert to prior systems of value, beliefs, or operations used historically during times of stress or duress. This is done in order to guard or protect the integrity of the group, giving rise to a form of ‘renaissance’ so that what they are does not radically depart from what they were. In this context again, nationalism and bias come to the fore as they are factors that work for the cohesive identity of the group and guard against outside intrusions.

Lastly, in terms of the curriculum of history, the presentation of particular materials or information will favor the establishment and propagation of a particular hegemonic or civic orientation. Therefore, the schools, as sites for the reproduction of social culture (i.e. beliefs, values, norms, and rituals), will systematically teach and evaluate students based on the particular forms of information they teach. While this

information does change slightly with each text used, the continued use of institutional textbooks and their lack of breadth and depth serve to advantage some and marginalize, omit, and possibly misrepresent others to varying degrees. With this, the breadth of the historical account is narrowed or summarized in its truthful dimensions.

A framework of social aesthetics accounts for numerous interpretations of the same events and the different nature of sentiments that result. These events can apply to the experiences of different individuals, the resulting relationships from those experiences, or, in the case of a history textbook, the information they read. A central theme of this research has been to show prejudice or victimization as it occurs through the telling and retelling of a historical tale while in the context of the national historical narrative. It has been shown that in times where a country or culture is on guard against a perceived cultural threat by another, the historical narrative will reflect that perception and that same perception will be what is taught in school.

This analysis does not assert that wrongs are or never have been done by one population to another, but constructing the building blocks of the historical narrative on those events may not be beneficial as part of the relations held between the two countries to the present day. A question to ask is ‘what end is being served by the historical victimization or omission of information in textbooks utilized within the public school?’ This analysis contributes to the existing research in that it provides tangible dimensions of the historical tale that are the potential objects of negative depiction from one culture to another. It also provides a useful illustration for the relations held between two countries that are situated in close proximity to one another and are extensively involved with each other at numerous levels of their socio-economic structures. It is useful for the

reader to better understand the tendencies in canonized history books as they relate to other countries, and not just members of their own populations.

#### Recommendations for Further Study

A study such as this could be extended or amplified in a number of ways. It would be useful to analyze history texts from different countries having relations marked by different kinds of interactions to include conflict or economic trade. Whether a country, at a certain point of history, was one who resisted in the conflict or who became victorious, its national narrative will reflect that experience to some degree, be it limited or extensive. Depending on the kind of relationship, the history or civics education taught would be a reflection of the events of the relationship. This would provide a useful litmus test to gauge how civics education is used to reinforce a particular civic orientation as it is taught by the schools. Examples of candidate countries such as this would be Mexico and the United States, Poland and Germany, the island country of Cyprus, Israel and Syria, as well as Iraq and Iran, to mention only a few.

Staying within the confines of a nation-state, one could also examine the attitudes of members of minority groups that take the same mainstream history courses as other students. Ascertaining where they believe bias exists and how it is perpetuated would grant better understanding as to just where the larger gaps are and the best ways to address them. Harry Dhand (1988) compiled the results of numerous studies that examined the treatment of minority groups within the texts of various countries. As of 2006, this research is 18 years old and it would be useful to acquire a fresh understanding of how much progress has been made.

An additional extension would be to conduct research to gain understanding into the meanings that students take from the texts they read in school as part of their history classes. The article by James Tagg (2004) in which Canadian undergraduate students' civic and national attitudes were examined was highlighted in chapter 1. The genesis of those attitudes came from somewhere and it is reasonable to conclude that the history taught in high school had a realistic part in shaping it. In pursuing such a study, employing the use of Mary Douglas' grid-group theory (see Neys and Molenaars, 1997) would provide valuable insights, as it provides a useful instrument for understanding the overall civic mindset of people toward the country they live in. These civic mindsets apply to the relations people feel they have toward the culture in which they live. While the Canadian populace considers itself to be a mosaic, the United States has historically utilized a melting pot approach. Though this has changed in recent times and been cast in the metaphor of a salad bowl.

Yet another useful test would be to better understand the mindset of the teachers of history courses in the particular countries being studied. Asking whether they consciously reinforce or undermine the assertions of the texts would provide further understanding as to how the information in a civic and canonized school text may be interpreted not only by the teacher, but also through them as a filter as the information is delivered to the student.

An additional study would be to evaluate the compatibility of the civics education that students received in their schooling with the experiences they have following school.

The use of revisionist history books in school, where they are used, would be yet another useful study in better understanding how this form of historical teaching affects the civic attitude of people that who read and study it.

## Conclusion

This study has shown there are certain national/cultural truths that nations seek to protect or advance through the practice of self-documentation and the manner in which this manifests in the teaching of history. While Canada and the United States agree in numerous areas, there are still some, it would appear, Canada is sensitive to regarding the potential influence of the United States. The United States, comprising the hegemon of North America, either does not feel the need to protect and promote those same cultural truths as Canada does, or simply omits them from the texts.

Historically, as seen in the texts, the United States regarded Canada in terms more closely associated with Great Britain than with a country or culture by itself. It has also regarded Canada in terms that are economic, rather than cultural for the most part. This is not the case with Canada's attitude toward the United States since, through the existing economic relationship, culture is inevitably transferred through media forms such as movies, music, television, radio, sports, transportation, and the like.

In referring to the texts, I am addressing those utilized for this study. Issues relating to sovereignty, whether political, international, economic, or militaristic, are guarded closely and open to a limited degree of self-examination in terms of the texts studied. Examination of the texts from both countries reveals that while Canada and the U.S. share a large degree of common history and culture, Canada considers itself quite

different from the United States culturally, but the United States does not appear to do the same. The United States certainly has its own distinctive culture, but the texts studied approach Canada in economic terms and do not imply any level or threat from the north.

In the greater landscape of institutional textbooks, there will always be contradictions and information that are part of one text, but not another. The nature of this information influences the way people see themselves, their country, and the larger world. Viewing history in terms of a system of aesthetics would help in better understanding what some groups deem important to include in the national historical tale and what information they do not consider to be important. Like sociology and art, the convergence and practice of certain common concepts brings about very different results. It would also be important to understand what kinds of information are included and disseminated to larger segments of the population. Neither country that was part of this study has one strict ethnic or cultural composition. In fact, both are quite diverse in terms of their respective populations and inevitably groups or individuals will compete for the right to influence what is learned in school. This competition, combined with the resulting emphases will affect the foundation and assumptions upon which the culture of each is built and a substantial part of how the populations of each regard one another.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture

##### Thirteen Colonies

###### Entry #1

###### Chapter 7 (p. 176)

Both of the early British governors of the colony of Quebec—first General James Murray and then his replacement Brigadier General Guy Canton—tended to be fairly lenient toward the conquered people. They had to be concerned about the expense of running a large military establishment and they were also very aware of the discontent in the Thirteen Colonies and feared the possibility of French and/or Aboriginal uprisings.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

###### Entry #2

###### Chapter 7 (p. 177)

Most of the French-Canadian clergy vilomenter their people to submit to British rule, knowing that if they didn't offer this advice they might be removed from their positions and replaced with more obedient ministers. The British governors recognized that the Catholic Church and the seigneuries also represented an aristocratic and hierarchical ideal at a time when the Thirteen Colonies were growing in their republican demands for more power.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

###### Entry #3

###### Chapter 7 (p. 178)

In the regions to the west of the Thirteen Colonies, instead of settlers being removed from the land as had been promised, they continued to move into Aboriginal territory. No matter what the British assurances to the Aboriginal Peoples, land speculators—including George Washington and Benjamin Franklin—were not going to be prevented from taking over Aboriginal lands and selling it in parcels to those who wanted to move west into what was still known as Indian territory.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #4  
Chapter 7 (p. 180)

The Royal Proclamation of October 7, 1763 set the boundaries and governmental policies of the colony of Quebec, along with those of East Florida, West Florida, and Grenada. The ultimate authority in the colonies would be the governors who were appointed by the English monarch, his or her council, and the British parliament and House of Lords. While the colonial governors were directed to work with elected representatives of the people, the appointed council had seniority over any elected assembly. The monarch, English government, and appointed governors were to have the power to “make, constitute, and ordain Laws, Statutes, and Ordinances for the Public Peace, Welfare, and good Government of our colonies.”

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #5  
Chapter 7 (p. 182)

In the Thirteen Colonies, the proclamation was viewed as an attempt to hold back expansion westward. But, for the Aboriginal Peoples, it was recognition of their right to a share in the lands of North America. The Ohio valley, over which the French and the British had fought before and during the Seven Years War, was designated as part of the “Indian reserve” and would remain so until the Treaty of Paris of 1783, which ended the American War of Independence.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #6  
Unit 3 Opener (p. 186)

During the century between the conquest of New France and the birth of Confederation, immigrants continued to arrive in the British colonies of North America. They came mainly from the British Isles and from the United States, fleeing civil unrest, oppression, famine, poverty, and slavery. They arrived hoping to find a better life, and they contributed their cultural identities to the society of their new land. Meanwhile, the Aboriginal Peoples, who were not considered in the various treaties between France, Britain, and the United States, lost ground. More Aboriginal land was taken by settlers, more of their people died in epidemics, and their way of life was changed forever as a result of their trade and military alliances.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #7  
Chapter 8 (p. 188)

In the years following the conquest, British administrators in Quebec remained cautious in their treatment of French Canadians, especially in light of the growing discontent in the Thirteen Colonies.

To the outrage of the Thirteen Colonies, the Quebec act also limited their takeover of more western Aboriginal territory. The American Revolution tore apart the society in the Thirteen Colonies with neighbour fighting against neighbour, revolutionary against British loyalist.

After the Revolution, thousands of refugees fled north to the remaining British colonies; they were soldiers, farmers, city dwellers, merchants, artisans, assemblymen, slaves, and Aboriginal Peoples.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #8  
Chapter 8 (p. 192)

The British believed that if they could win the support of the religious leaders in Quebec, they would be more likely to keep French Canadians from joining the rebellious subjects of the Thirteen Colonies to the south. But this provision of the Act also gave the Catholic Church the political and economic power that it would use in the next century to acquire even greater status and influence than it had had under the French regime.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #9



## Chapter 8 (p. 192-93)

### Reactions in the Thirteen Colonies

Britain's decision not to give Quebec an elected assembly, even an assembly with limited powers such as those that existed in Nova Scotia and the Thirteen Colonies at the time, raised suspicions among the English colonists that their assemblies could also be revoked. By passing the Quebec Act, Britain reminded people in the older, established North American colonies that their elected assemblies were a privilege, not a right. People who had become accustomed to having input into their own political affairs could, at the whim of their colonial rulers, come under the complete rule of the British governor and his appointed council.

The importance of elected assemblies, and the growing independence of those assemblies, were significant causes of the American Revolution. Over the previous century and a half, Britain had left the Thirteen Colonies alone, for the most part, to sort out their own internal affairs. This neglect had led the colonists to believe that indeed they did have the right to govern themselves without interference from Britain.

The resistance to British rule intensified when Britain tried to impose a series of taxes to help defray the debt they had acquired during the Seven Years War and the costs of keeping a standing army of ten thousand soldiers in the forts of the West, which at this time was the land west of the Ohio Valley taking in the western United States and Canada. The colonists rejected the measures on the basis that there should be "no taxation without representation." In the "Declaration and Resolves" of the First Continental Congress of 1774, the writers made it clear that in their eyes:

The foundation of English liberty, and of all free government, is a right in the people to participate in their legislative council, and as the English colonists are not represented, and from their local and other circumstances cannot properly be represented, in the British Parliament, they are entitled to a free and exclusive power of legislation in their several provincial legislatures, where their right of representation can alone be preserved.

The "representation" was by no means universal since only free, male, Protestant landowners had a right to vote in the elected assemblies: no women, no slaves, no Aboriginal Peoples, no Jews, and no Catholics were allowed to vote or hold public office.

The suspicions of the colonists in the Thirteen Colonies were further confirmed by those sections of the Quebec Act that annexed land west of the Ohio valley and around the Great Lakes to Quebec, thereby creating a large Aboriginal reserve in the region. The

colonists already felt that the Royal Proclamation of 1763 hemmed them in and kept them from lands in which they believed they had a right to settle. Now, not only were those lands placed under the rule of the governor of Quebec, but the Catholic Church was confirmed in its situation of power in the colony. The British were granting privileges to the Roman Catholic Church at a time when the practice of the Catholic faith in England, Ireland, and Scotland still carried severe penalties. In the opinion of the July 1775 Continental Congress, the terms of the Quebec Act demonstrated “a despotism dangerous to our very existence.”

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #10

Chapter 10 (p. 242)

Garneau’s (referring to François-Xavier Garneau) history is considered by many to be the beginning of literature in French Canada. He called his work, *Histoire du Canada*, and published it in four volumes between 1845 and 1852. He wrote about the history of French Canadians as a struggle for survival against the untamed wilderness and Aboriginal Peoples in the early days, then against the early settlers of the Thirteen Colonies, against the British conquerors, and then against the English-speaking inhabitants of Lower Canada. His work was very influential and helped inspire a sense of national pride in French Canadians.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

### National Expansion

Entry #11

Chapter 8 (p. 202)

John Graves Simcoe was appointed the first lieutenant governor of Upper Canada. He had served as an infantry officer with the British during the American Revolution and then as a British member of parliament. His dream for Upper Canada was that he would make it a model of England and by so doing would encourage settlers to come from the United States. He believed that many Americans would eventually grow tired of the democratic culture in the United States, and would be persuaded to come to his colony if

it embodied “British Customs, Manners and Principles in the most trivial as well as serious matters.”

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #12

Chapter 9 (p. 217)

This was quite a different story from the movement west in the United States, where land companies owned by private individuals laid claim to huge tracts of Aboriginal lands and where pioneers trekked looking for land on which to settle. The difference between the settlement processes in Canada and the U.S. had a profound impact on the future development of both nations.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #13

Chapter 12 (p. 279)

Looking West

Westward expansion had long been of concern and interest, especially to those living in Canada West where it was widely believed that the best available farmland had already been claimed. A decade before Confederation, the Canada West government sponsored the 1857—58 Hind expedition to map the prime agrarian areas in the prairies and to site the optimal route for future roads and railway lines.

For decades there existed a major concern that if Canadians did not establish a physical presence in the west, it would not be long before the Americans did. Macdonald was clear to point out the American threat: “[The Americans] are resolved to do all they can, short of war, to get possession of our western territory, and we must take immediate and vigorous steps to counteract them.”<sup>3</sup> The 1858 Gold Rush along the Fraser River brought in thousands of Americans seeking their fortune. Most came up empty-handed but many of the influx remained and settled in British Columbia. The American Civil War (1861—65) briefly relieved the fear of an American annexation of the prairies. As the Union and Confederacy fought one another in hundreds of battles, they had no time or energy to entertain notions of a land-grab to the north. However once the war ended, Americans could once more look northward. Canadians were anxiously aware of the powerful American philosophy of Manifest Destiny (the belief that the United States was intended by God to eventually cover all of North America). That idea was shockingly reinforced when in 1867,

American Secretary of State William Seward negotiated the purchase of Alaska from the Russians for \$7.2 million. It raised fears of American encirclement and spurred the new

Canadian government into action. The colony of British Columbia was now squeezed between American territories. Seward was confident of what the future held as he complimented Canadian colonists on their hard work, "You are building excellent states to be hereafter admitted into the American Union." Perhaps equally disturbing was the American government dispatching of a consul to the Red River area in the hopes of acquiring that territory.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 1

Entry #14  
Chapter 12 (p. 283)

Many Aboriginal Peoples had already been displaced onto reservations through a series of treaties. The Canadian government wanted to open up the prairies to agriculture, settlement, and the railway. South of the border the Americans were fighting a costly series of battles against the Plains Indians. Learning from that experience, the financially strapped Canadian government set out to acquire the land west of Manitoba before the railway and settlers/ arrived. The first of seven numbered treaties, signed between 1871 and 1877, gave Canada the land through which the railway would pass. (There would be eleven treaties in all, the last one signed in 1921.)

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #15  
Chapter 13 (p. 298)

A "National" Policy?

The benefits of the National Policy were very unevenly distributed. Central Canada, the industrial heartland of the nation, prospered but many alleged that it did so at the expense of eastern and western Canada. The Maritimes suffered a severe economic downturn. Having relied on the lucrative trade of staple products to both the United, States and Britain, they could not make an easy' transition when those markets disappeared.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #16  
Chapter 13 (p. 298)

The western region did not fare any better. They too were on the periphery of the country with a small population and little political clout. Initially, they suffered because the

western settlement envisioned by Macdonald never materialized during his lifetime. In 1891, the year of his death, the population of the West had only grown to about a quarter of a million. Land in the American west was still available on more favourable terms and appeared to be a more attractive destination for prospective immigrants than the largely deserted Canadian prairie. The post-Civil War years saw an unprecedented economic boom in the United States. The American “Gilded Age” witnessed a tremendous industrial expansion that was a magnet for both immigrants and capital. Although over 1.5 million immigrants did come to Canada during the decade of the 1880s, the country’s overall population rose very modestly, as there was a net migration of almost two million out of Canada to the United States between 1871 and 1891.

With the return of world prosperity by the mid-1890s and the belief that the American frontier had closed up, immigration to Canada grew substantially and the prairies became more populated.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

### Military Conflict

Entry #17  
Chapter 7 (p. 167)

In the Lake Champlain area, the French captured Fort William Henry. There were heavier losses among the British and the militia of the Thirteen Colonies than among the French-Canadians and their allies. The fighting was bloody, with scalps being taken on both sides.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #18  
Chapter 8 (p. 188)

In the years following the conquest, British administrators in Quebec remained cautious in their treatment of French Canadians, especially in light of the growing content in the Thirteen Colonies. The Quebec Act confirmed that French Canadians would retain their language, religion, and hierarchical structure of society.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #19  
Chapter 8 (p. 188)

To the outrage of settlers in the Thirteen Colonies, the Quebec Act also limited their takeover of more western Aboriginal territory. The American Revolution tore apart the society in the Thirteen Colonies with neighbour fighting against neighbour ; revolutionary against British loyalist. Many Aboriginal Peoples found it impossible to remain neutral; leaders such as Josef Brant knew that they would lose more land if the revolution succeeded.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #20

Chapter 8 (p. 188)

After the Revolution, thousands of refugees fled north to the remaining British colonies; they were soldiers, farmers, city-dwellers, merchants, artisans, assemblymen, slaves, and Aboriginal Peoples. In settling the refugees, the British governors faced great challenges. Land-owning practices were reformed in order to find land for the new arrivals.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #21

Chapter 8 (p. 189)

Chronology listing events in British Canada relating to the Revolutionary War  
Thirteen Colonies Continental Congress writes a letter to the Inhabitants of Canada to try and convince them to join the American Revolution (1775).

Bishop of Quebec, Jean-Olivier Briand issues “Mandate to Rebellions Subjects During the American War” and warns inhabitants of Canada not to rebel against Britain (1776).

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #22

Chapter 8 (p. 194)

As it had been during the years of the French Empire, the key to economic health for the mother country was a favourable balance of foreign trade. ‘When Britain’s exports were greater than its imports, its reserves of gold and its percentage of the world’s wealth increased. The colonies in North America were to provide the sugar, tobacco, timber, and furs from which British manufacturers would make products and help maintain a positive balance of trade. Britain would tax and sell manufactured goods back to the colonials at a profit. In the days of the British Empire, the colonies existed for the economic benefit of

Britain, to increase its wealth and prestige. There was to be no competition from the colonies in to a higher standard of living for many people than they could have had in any other country at that time. But, by the late 1700s, the Thirteen Colonies were ready to chart their own economic future.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #23

Chapter 8 (p. 194)

The American Revolution (French-Canadian Neutrality during the American Revolution)

During the revolutionary war, the policies of the Thirteen Colonies tended to alienate what little support the revolutionaries had within Quebec.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #24

Chapter 8 (p. 194)

French Canadians were subjected to the propaganda of the Thirteen Colonies' Continental achieving that purpose. In the beginning, the mercantilist system had suited the colonists well enough. It had helped the development of the colonies and had contributed.

By the introduction of your present form of government, or rather present form of tyranny, you and your wives and your children are made slaves. You have nothing that you can call your own, and all the fruits of your labour and industry may be taken from you, whenever an avaritious governor and a rapacious council may incline to demand them.

The letter went on to remind French Canadians that even the enjoyment of their religion depended "on a legislature in which you have no share, and over which you have no control." Perhaps the next king or queen of England would not be as lenient as George III, and "should a wicked or a careless king concur with a wicked ministry in extracting the treasure and strength of your country, it is impossible to conceive to what variety and to what extremes of wretchedness you may... be reduced." But French Canadians remained suspicious of the promises of friendship and civil rights.

However, Jean-Olivier Briand, the Bishop of Quebec, in his "Mandate to Rebellious Subjects During the American War, 1776," warned his people that if they rebelled against

British rule and joined the American revolutionaries, they would suffer the most “rigorous punishment.” He asked them to consider whether “an empire as powerful as the British Empire, whose navy can resist the united navies of Europe, will be denied, and that it will not accomplish the task which it has set itself?” He called on them to defend their country and the British king with all the strength they possessed.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

#### Entry #25

#### Chapter 8 (p. 195)

#### Quebec Attacked Again

By 1775, battles between American militia and British troops had taken place on what was soon to become American soil. The Continental Congress decided it that it was time to attack Quebec to rid them of that threat and possibly to gain allies among the French Canadians who had so recently been conquered by the British. In the summer one arm of the militia started up Lake Champlain and along the Richelieu River. In late September another group started up through Maine and advanced towards the St. Lawrence River.

When Carleton got word of the advancing armies, he was concerned about how ill-prepared the colony was to defend itself. As he reported to his superiors in Britain, he had “not six hundred Rank and File fit for Duty upon the whole Extent of this great River, not an armed Vessel, no Place of Strength.” As for the military force in the colony, it was weak “and broke to pieces.” Military discipline had been lost, and “the Minds of the People poisoned by the same Hypocrisy and Lies    ilometer with so much Success” in the Thirteen Colonies t the south.<sup>11</sup> Even Bishop Briand’s directions could not shake the neutrality of the French Canadians, and he realized to his shock and dismay how little control the Catholic hierarchy had over the average habitant. However, Colonel Allan Maclean, a Canadian army officer of Scottish descent, was able to gather together two battalions of Scottish Highlanders from New York and Nova Scotia who fought to defend British Canada.

In spite of the military weaknesses of the Quebec forces, the Americans were unable to take Quebec City or Montreal. Their leaders, General Richard Montgomery and Benedict Arnold, tried to keep discipline and order among their militia who came from different colonies and had different loyalties. But as the weeks passed and smallpox, the harsh weather of late fall and early winter and scarce supplies took their toll, more and more of the Americans returned home. By the time the Americans arrived at Quebec, Colonel Maclean had convinced some French Canadians to join his defensive force, telling them that their fate under the Americans would be much worse than it was under the British.



When the Americans attacked on New Year's Eve, the combined British forces and French Canadians managed to hold their city successfully against the Americans. By May of 1776, British reinforcements arrived up the St. Lawrence, and this show of force convinced the Americans that the conquest of Canada was not \worth the effort it would take to accomplish.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #26

Chapter 8 (p. 196)

Patriots/Rebels and Loyalists/Tories

In the Thirteen Colonies, the American Revolution meant civil war. One side was loyal to Britain, calling themselves "loyalists" and their opponents "rebels." The other side wanted to rid themselves of Britain's restrictive policies and taxes and called themselves "patriots" and their opponents "Tories." The two sides had very different political goals and were developing different cultural identities. Often, opponents lived in the same region or even on adjoining farms, holding opposing allegiances and fighting for their respective sides. There was disorder in the society at every level, not because of the threat of outside conquest, as had been the case in Quebec ten years earlier, but because of the struggle within their own country.

People whose families were firmly established in the cities and rural areas of the colonies suddenly found their property, their families, and their own lives threatened. Some loyalists tried to wait out the storm quietly; some were sent into exile; many lost their property and were harassed by patriot neighbours; some fought with the British against the rebels; others were put in prisons such as the infamous Simsbury Mines; They –were the descendants of Scots, English, Irish, and Germans who had come to the colonies to build a better life for themselves, but they were content, more or less, to remain under British colonial rule and have the benefits of British trade. Among the warring parties on both sides were slaves. According to historian Christopher Moore, "By 1770, forty per cent of Virginians were slaves." George Washington, who was to become the first president of the U.S. after the revolution, was from Virginia and owned hundreds of slaves.

Over time, the people in the Thirteen Colonies became more independent of British colonial rule. Although there were colonial governors and administrators, the peoples' assemblies in the Thirteen Colonies had more power than the French colonials had had in Quebec under French rule. But in Britain, William Pitt was elected prime minister and his attitude was to bring the colonists under control: They must obey and we must prescribe."

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #27

Chapter 8 (p. 196)

#### British Aboriginal Allies

During the American Revolution, the Mohawk, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Seneca Peoples of the Six Nations Iroquois Alliance fought alongside the British because they believed it was their only hope of retaining any claim to their territory in the Ohio Valley and the Great Lakes regions. These people were fighting for survival, the battlefields were their homelands, and the casualties were often their families.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #28

Chapter 8 (p. 198)

#### The United Empire Loyalists

The forty to fifty thousand United Empire Loyalists who came to Canada were a wide-ranging group. Some were British soldiers and colonial militia who had fought with Britain against the American revolutionaries. Others were civilians who had joined the royal British regiments when they were expelled from their hometowns or regions because they wouldn't join the rebels. There were city dwellers and farmers, successful merchants, newspaper owners, blacksmiths, silversmiths, and shop owners. Entire families came; sometimes the families were made up only of women and children, without husbands and fathers who had been killed in the American war. They were all refugees, people who had become embroiled in the conflict and who fled or were exiled from their homeland.

Some of the Loyalists had been leaders in their communities, members of the elected assemblies, who had firm ideas of their rights as citizens under British colonial rule. Although they had rejected revolution, some of the new arrivals held republican ideas and believed that they should have a chance to be represented in their government. These ideas would have an effect on how white, male, property-owning loyalists viewed their rights as citizens in Canada.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #29

Chapter 8 (p. 199)

The British Crown reclaimed title 1.1 hectares in Nova Scotia and so had land available for the incoming refugees from New York. Male heads of households would receive 40.47 hectares of land plus an extra 20 hectares for each member of the household. Retiring senior British military officers received additional acres.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #30

Chapter 9 (p. 206)

The War of 1812 was yet another conflict between the British colonies and the United States. One of the main causes of the renewed hostilities was American determination to take over more western territory from the Aboriginal Peoples. American politicians expected an easy victory in the war, especially in sparsely populated Upper Canada, but the American invasion failed.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #31

Chapter 9 (p. 207)

Chronology showing events relating to

The United States declares war on Britain (1812)

British and Canadian forces defeat American forces at the Battle of Chateaugay near Montreal (1813)

Treaty of Ghent is signed, ending the War of 1812 (1812)

Chapter Objective: “By the end of this chapter you will be able to analyze how conflicts and compromises between Canada and the United States have helped to shape Canadian identity.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #32

## 1812: Canadian-American Conflict

### The Causes of the War

Less than thirty years after the American Revolution, Britain and Canada were again at war with the U.S., as unresolved issues continued to strain relations between the two countries. Neither the British nor the Americans had fulfilled all of the terms of the 1783 Treaty of Versailles, signed at the end of the American Revolution. The British pay the compensation.

The British also delayed giving up the western forts because they hoped to create an Aboriginal buffer zone between Canada and the U.S. They hoped that the buffer would protect Canadians from the U.S. and prevent reprisals from the Aboriginal Peoples over Britain's failure to consider them in the Treaty of Versailles. But the Americans believed this was all a ruse, convinced that the British and Canadians were deliberately preventing them from opening up the west for settlement. However the British did surrender these western fur-trading posts in 1794. The Americans also blamed the British and Canadians when Tecumseh, the great Shawnee chief, and the Aboriginal Peoples in the American midwest fought to try to keep their lands from the hordes of settlers moving into Aboriginal territory. The Americans remained very suspicious of any alliance between the Aboriginal Peoples and the Canadians.

The Americans also accused the British of kidnapping American citizens. By 1803, the British were fighting a war against Napoleon, and they augmented their forces—especially the navy—by “pressing into service” any able-bodied civilian or seaman they could get their hands on. In those days, a sailor's life was very difficult with low pay, long and dangerous voyages, and often, brutal discipline from naval officers. Some British sailors had deserted into New York and other American ports and onto American ships, and the British claimed that they were only capturing these deserters. However; when the British went after the deserters, they sometimes—accidentally or intentionally—pressed American citizens into service as well.

A group of aggressive American nationalists, the War Hawks, wanted war with Canada in order to acquire more land and to avenge national honour over issues from the previous war. One of these Hawks, Richard Johnson, the congressman from Kentucky, declared, “I shall never die contented until I see [Britain's] territories incorporated with the United States.”<sup>1</sup> Some Americans, including Thomas Jefferson, mistakenly believed that the conquest of Canada would be “a mere matter of marching.” They also believed that once the British were ousted, Canada would be part of the U.S., and the Americans would be free to take over Aboriginal lands.

### The War in Canada

When the United States declared war on Britain on June 18, 1812, it was still in its infancy and was not well prepared, militarily, to take on the task. Nonetheless, American military officers believed that they would be able to defeat the British and that Canadians would be quite willing to help them do so. The Americans decided to attack Upper

Canada first as it was sparsely populated and not very well defended. Once they took Upper Canada, the Americans hoped their Aboriginal enemies would be cut off from their source of military supplies.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #33

Chapter 9 (p. 209)

Upper Canada

Major-General Isaac Brock was military commander of British forces and of the Canadian militia. He was well aware of the warlike attitude of the Americans towards the British and the Canadians. "Every American newspaper teems with violent and hostile resolutions against England," he wrote, "and associations are forming in every town for the . . . purpose of attacking these provinces."

Many of the people of Canada, as Brock well knew, were not much interested in joining the militia. And yet, to Brock the situation was critical; Canada could be defeated. Even the demographics were against a successful defence of the colonies. Canada at the time had only 500 000 people while the U.S. had seven million and it was difficult to rouse the populace to defend itself. In Upper Canada, many of the recent immigrants from the U.S. were still adjusting to life in their new country. Survival, in what was for many, a hostile wilderness was their first concern. Most of the new Canadians were occupied clearing their land, building their homes, and establishing themselves on the farms that would become the main source of livelihood of Upper Canadians for years to come. And there were others among the recent immigrants from the U.S. who sympathized with the Americans' goal and joined the fight against the British.

In 1812, Brock put his forces into play first by surprising and capturing the American garrison at Michilimackinac, near the head of Lake Huron. Even though the victory was not terribly important in and of itself, it was significant because it convinced the Aboriginal Peoples of the region that by allying themselves with the British they might be able to win back some of their lands that were being taken over by the Americans. In mid August, Brock and his ally Tecumseh, succeeded in taking Fort Detroit with no loss of life on either side. This second victory convinced at least some Canadians that the fight against the Americans could be won, and there was greater interest in joining the militia to defend Canada. All in all, throughout the years of the war, about eleven thousand Upper Canadians joined the militia.

In October, the Americans attacked Queenston Heights on the Niagara River but with a rather disorganized and uncommitted militia army. Many of the American soldiers were not especially committed to the war, some believed that they had no right to attack Canada and some deserted when they had the opportunity to do so. Others refused to cross the Niagara River into Canadian territory because they had not been recruited to fight on foreign soil. Even their commander, Major John Lovett, deplored the war, saying that “History, while recording our folly, will dress her pages in mourning, ... for the sponge of time can never wipe this blot from the American name ...

The British, the Canadians, and Tecumseh’s warriors won this bloody battle, however, General Brock was killed, picked off by a rifle shot in the early stages of the fight. The Canadian victory at Queenston Heights showed the Americans—who lost thirteen hundred men to the Canadians one hundred—that Upper Canada could not be conquered easily. Nor would the invaders necessarily be welcomed as liberators.

The Battle of Queenston Heights. British, Canadian, and Aboriginal Warriors defeated the United States in 1812. Although Brock had not lived to see the end of the battle, he and the battle for Queenston Heights became part of the mythology of Upper Canada. Brock became an heroic figure for those who preached maintaining the British hierarchical social structure for Canada and who hated anything that sounded in the least like American republicanism.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #34

Chapter 9 (p. 210)

Lower Canada

In Lower Canada, the Bishop of Quebec, Joseph Octav Plessis, preached to the French Canadians a stern message of support for the British and a horror of the republican ideas of the Americans. Those “godless” ideas were too much like the cries of the French revolutionaries who had so recently declared that they would turn France from a Catholic into an atheistic country. France had gone through its own revolution just a few years before and the atheism of the new order horrified the Catholic hierarchy in Canada. Whether the bishop’s message influenced the French Canadians or not, the Americans met with little success in their battles for Lower Canada.

Tecumseh, like Joseph Brant before him, tried to unite the Aboriginal Peoples—the Delaware, Wyandot, Kickapoo, Seneca, and Potawatomi—to prevent the American takeover of their lands in the Ohio valley. Tecumseh was a respected ally of Isaac Brock; Brock said of him, “A more ... gallant Warrior does not I believe exist.”

Once the British had promised to help the Aboriginal Peoples regain their lands in the Ohio valley, Tecumseh traveled from village to village trying to convince his people to ally themselves with the British and the Canadians. He well knew that the loss of Aboriginal lands was inevitable unless they could defeat the land-hungry Americans.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #35

Chapter 9 (p. 211)

Tecumseh was a brilliant military strategist and was a contributing factor in the Canadians being able to defend their land against the Americans. At the battle for Fort Detroit, for example, he paraded his warriors in front of the fort three times to give the Americans the impression that his force was larger than it actually was. General Brock, who was present, also used subterfuge, dressing his militia in red coats so that the Americans would think they were dealing with professional British troops. Not only did Tecumseh's friends, like Brock, respect him but also so did his enemies. William Harrison, who had acquired land title to large areas of what is now Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Illinois and who wanted the Aboriginal Peoples out of the territory, said of Tecumseh that he was "one of those uncommon geniuses which spring up occasionally to produce revolutions."

Tecumseh was killed when he and his warriors stayed to fight the Americans after the British-led retreat from the battle near Moraviantown (present day Thamesville). Tecumseh had been thoroughly disgusted with what he saw as the cowardice of the British commander, General Henry Proctor, who retreated as soon as the Americans attacked. Tecumseh and his five hundred warriors faced the American force of three thousand alone. Tecumseh died, still fighting for his people and his cause. Proctor was later court-martialed for his actions on that day.

With Tecumseh died his dream of an Aboriginal Confederacy with sufficient strength to rid their land of the invaders. With the end of the War of 1812, there was no stopping the American expansion west. The real losers of the war of 1812 were the Aboriginal Peoples.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #36

Chapter 9 (p. 211-12)

By 1814 both sides were tired and at a stalemate. On December 24, 1814, the Treaty of Ghent was signed to end the war. Once the War of 1812 was over, the British authorities in Canada strengthened the defences of the colonies and encouraged immigration and economic development, while at the same time pursuing a policy of peace and/ expanded trade with the Americans. The War of 1812 has been commonly portrayed as the “seedtime” of British Canadian nationalism, especially in Upper Canada. The war gave the young colony of Upper Canada its own folklore, which held that its Loyalist population turned back the American threat almost single-handedly in the face of treasonable behaviour by non-Loyalist settlers and the indifference or incompetence of British authorities. This Loyalist myth unified and helped to legitimize the authority of the small Loyalist elite. However, some historians have pointed out that not only were some of the Upper Canadian leaders undeserving of their reputation but that most of the general population refused to volunteer for active service.

Nevertheless, the men who had led Upper Canada during the war believed they should continue to lead it afterward. Known as the “Family Compact,” they would use the myth of their by loyalty as a powerful political weapon in the years to come, opposing land reform and increased power for elected assemblies on principle. Their bonds with Britain—and their suspicions of anything that seemed American republicanism—were strengthened as a result of the war.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #37

Chapter 9 (p. 212)

The years between 1812 and 1850 were a time of economic growth in Canada. Wheat and lumber became the staples of the St. Lawrence colonial economy; the Montreal-based fur trade pushed farther and farther into the northwest regions; Nova Scotia and New Brunswick became centres of trade with the U.S. More immigrants were arriving from Britain and the United States, settling especially in Upper Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #38

Chapter 10 (p. 237)

In Upper Canada, John Strachan helped form the Loyal and Patriotic Society of Upper Canada at York in 1812. The initial purpose of the society was to provide warm clothing for the militia who were defending Upper Canada's borders against the Americans.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #39

Chapter 10 (p. 240)

Literary Culture in Upper Canada

During this time, the colonial literary culture of Upper Canada was still heavily influenced by British culture. There were not many homegrown productions; most books came from England and the northern American states.

John Richardson, an Upper Canadian who had fought in the War of 1812 alongside Tecumseh, wrote and published *Wacousta*, a romanticized and rather bloody fiction based on the siege of Detroit and the capture of Michilimackinac in 1763 when Pontiac and his warriors were fighting against British domination.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #40

Chapter 11 (p. 257)

The Macdonald-Cartier Coalition

By the 1860s the Civil War had broken out in the United States and Canada was once again threatened with invasion from the south. The Americans believed that Britain was siding with the southern Confederate states against the northern states. And some Americans were talking, yet again, of annexation of the Canadian colonies to the United States. There was widespread fear of invasion, both in Canada East and West as well as in the Atlantic colonies.

Georg-Etienne Cartier was an urbane, sophisticated French-Canadian lawyer who was equally comfortable in French or in English, and with merchants, politicians, and clergymen. In his youth, Cartier had been a member of the Parti Patriote and had been a rebel, but he had fled to the United States early on. After swearing allegiance to the British Crown, he had been allowed to return to Montreal.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #41

Chapter 11 (p. 262)

But with the adoption of freer trade with Britain and that country's desire to give more power to the colonial assemblies to govern themselves, Howe was out of step with British wishes. Then in November 1861, Americans from the northern states boarded the British ship, the *Trent*, in neutral waters and captured two Confederate officials who were on their way to Europe. The English were outraged and threatened war and sent troops to reinforce the border between the United States and the Atlantic colonies. Although the incident was settled peaceably, there were some in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, including Joseph Howe, who realized just how vulnerable the Atlantic region was to an American attack and takeover. The combined force of pressure from the British colonial office and of the threat of American aggression eventually persuaded many Nova Scotians that union might be a good deal for them after all. However, Joseph Howe remained an opponent of Confederation.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #42

Chapter 11 (p. 262)

Through the 1840s and 1850s, for the most part, the path to responsible government progressed quietly in New Brunswick. By the 1860s the question of an Intercolonial Railway became an issue to both proponents and opponents of union with the rest of the British North American colonies, with some powerful forces arguing for a railway link to the United States rather than to the Canadas.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #43

Chapter 11 (p. 265)

The Quebec Conference

A group of Confederate agents had robbed banks in the St. Albans in Vermont and had fled across the border to Canada. They had been arrested but had been freed on a legal technicality. The outraged northern American' were again threatening war against Canada. To the delegates gathered in Quebec—some of whom had been children during the invasion of the war of 1812—the threat of American invasion was very real.

Challenges to Confederation

The American cancellation of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866 left New Brunswick without a viable alternative to Confederation and in open defiance of Britain's wishes. The real of exaggerated threat of Fenian raids further led to New Brunswick's reversal in the June 1866 election. On the last day of June, the new assembly voted in favour of Confederation.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #44

Chapter 12 (p. 276)

Anti-confederate emotions ran high in many colonies, but economic troubles and the constant threat of annexation by the United States forced many colonies to reconsider. Determined to expand the boundaries of Canada, Macdonald and his successors would see their dream of a nation come true, but at the cost of wounds that even today, remain unhealed.

Economically, 1867 was a time of unease the Atlantic colonies as the age of "wind, and wood" had been replaced by one of steam and steel. Their monopoly in the production of wooden ships was fast disappearing and it was questionable if they could successfully make the transition. Industry and trade with the United States stagnated at the end of the American Civil War and it was felt that the promised federal tariffs would kill what was left of their lucrative trade with New England. The old idea of combining the four Maritime colonies was offered as the solution to their problems. It had been the original idea for the convening of the Charlottetown Conference at the beginning of September 1864.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #45

Chapter 12 (p. 282)

The joys of the Métis victory; however were short-lived. To appease the outraged Canadians, Macdonald ordered federal troops, under the command of Colonel Garnet Wolseley, out to Red River. Macdonald sent the military troops to Red River to both discourage American attempts of taking over Canadian territory; and to control any further uprising from the Métis. The military expedition terrorized the Métis, forcing Riel to flee to the United States.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #46

Chapter 12 (p. 288)

Symbols and Signs of the New Canada

Even at this early point in its history, Canada was developing some of the symbols of nationhood. These new national symbols developed and evolved rejected.

Parliament Hill

Perhaps one of the earliest symbols of identity this period was the Parliament Buildings in Ottawa. After Queen Victoria had decided on compromise of Ottawa (Bytown) as the colonial capital in 1857 rather than the more established Toronto, Kingston, Montreal, or Quebec City, construction of the elaborate and impressive buildings began. Farther from the border, her surprise choice of Ottawa appeared much safer from the potentially threatening Americans.

The North-West Mounted Police

As Metis hunters pushed further west, they infringed on the territory of the Cree, who in turn, were forced onto the hunting grounds of the Blackfoot Confederacy. An intense war raged between the two in 1869, with hundreds dying. The troubles compounded as a smallpox epidemic killed hundreds more in the early 1870's. The final straw may have been the influx of ruthless American traders who offered in return for the buffalo. The environment among the people of the prairies became turbulent. It had already exploded with the Red River Rebellion and new uprisings were on the horizon.

Macdonald and the federal government were responsible for keeping the peace and maintaining law and order in the west. The Lieutenant- Governor of Manitoba, Alexander Morris, warned Macdonald of the urgent need for a police force in the new Canadian West, but the law creating such a force was stuck in Parliament. However when news of the Cypress Hill massacre reached Ottawa in 1873, the politicians were spurred into action. On May 31, 1873, about a dozen drunken American “wolfers”—hunters who poisoned buffalo carcasses and then harvested the fur from the wolves that fed off of them—attacked a defenceless band of Assiniboine Indians. Incorrectly believing that the natives had stolen a horse from them, the “wolfers” murdered twenty Assiniboine, including the elderly and children. In a horrific display of brutal lawlessness, one elderly tribesman was clubbed to death and his severed head tied on to a pole. Canadians demanded action, as they feared the lawlessness was an open invitation for American annexation. The formation of the North-West Mounted Police was the government’s solution. Modeled on a police force in Ireland, they were to be the quasi-military arm of the Canadian government on the prairies. In the planning stages, the force was originally to be called the North-West Mounted Rifles. However when the United States objected, claiming the name was too aggressive, Macdonald simply crossed out “Rifles” and substituted “Police.”

Their mandate was extensive: end the illegal whisky trade, patrol the border, end smuggling, gain the respect and confidence of the Aboriginal Peoples, and maintain law and order. On July 8, 1874, a contingent of three hundred officers and men, equipment, and six months of provisions left Manitoba on the famous “Great March” west under the command of George Arthur French. It was to be a sixteen hundred kilometer trek from Ontario out west during which they had to endure the elements and starvation. After three months and only 430 kilometres, French decided to break his procession in two. The healthiest went to Fort Whoop-Up country close to the American border, while the other journeyed north to Fort Edmonton. Almost another three months of hunger, insects, mud, and cold had to be endured before the latter reached its destination.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 1      Rater #2: 1

Entry #47

Chapter 15 (p. 351)

Relating to World War I

Within the first year of World War I, German U-Boats sank over two hundred British supply ships. On May 7, 1915, a German U-Boat sank a British luxury passenger ship, the *Lusitania*, killing over 1000 innocent civilians, 128 of whom were American. The sinking of the *Lusitania* was a catalyst for the Americans to join the war in 1917.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #48

Chapter 15 (p. 363)

Relief poured in almost immediately from the rest of Atlantic Canada, central Canada, and New England. The Halifax Relief Commission was established in December 1917, to administer the \$30 million in funds raised. A significant amount of aid, \$750 000 in cash and goods, came from the Massachusetts Relief Committee. Pressure to rebuild the city led to a number of innovations, including Canada's first public housing project, the Hydrostone Development, which was administered by the Commission. In 1948, the Halifax Relief

Commission became a pension board to disburse the remaining funds to disabled dependants. Halifax has not forgotten the generosity of others and sends an annual Christmas tree to the city of Boston. They have also not forgotten the loss of lives and damage to the city. Every December 6 at 9 a.m. there is a service by the Memorial Bells at Fort Needham, close to where the *Mont Blanc* exploded.

Researcher: 5 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #49

Chapter 15 (p. 363)

The United States had remained neutral during the first three years of the war. Many Americans were isolationists who believed that the United States should not be entangled in a distant conflict. Isolationists saw the United States as an example for other countries, remaining peaceful while others resorted to war. As the conflict waged on, however, it became more difficult for such a large and powerful country to remain neutral. Spurred on by the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the United States declared war on Germany on April 6, 1917.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #50

Chapter 15 (p. 368)

Borden (referring to Prime Minister of Canada) insisted that he have a seat at the Peace Conference. The United States was angered by the idea, arguing that a seat for Canada meant more power for Britain. Canada barely played a role in these negotiations, but Borden insisted that Canada sign the Treaty of Versailles independent of Britain. Canada also joined the newly formed League of Nations, dedicated to collective security and preservation of peace, and the International Labour Organization.

American President Woodrow Wilson played a very decisive role at the Peace Conference. However; the United States refused to join the League of Nations, partly in protest of the British colony's new voice, and partly due to public pressure from a growing group of American isolationists who wanted to avoid American involvement in European conflicts.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #51

Chapter 18 (p. 436)

The World in Conflict

Following World War I, some countries adopted a policy of isolationism, preferring to distance themselves from world affairs. The United States, for example, refused to join the League of Nations, partly because they believed that Britain was using it for its own means, and partly because they wanted to avoid implication in distant conflicts in which they were not directly involved. It is ironic that the U.S. did not join the League, even though the organization had been a vision of American President Woodrow Wilson, and was outlined in his "Fourteen Points." In the years following the Great War a series of events unfolded that tested the strength and influence of the League of Nations.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #52

Chapter 18 (p. 442)

Referring to World War II

The British Commonwealth Air Training Plan (BCATP) was arguably one of Canada's greatest contributions to the Second World War. Britain knew, from the outset, that it was necessary to concentrate great resources and energy on built a powerful Allied air force; Britain also knew it was much too small and too close to the war undertake large-scale training. On the other ha Canada was a perfect location for the training program, as it was far enough away from the scene but close enough to Britain to manoeuvre. Canada also had the capacity to support the production of new aircraft, easy access to American industry, and the space to build new schools train crew.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #53

Chapter 18 (p. 444)

Although still not officially involved in the war, by September 1941, the United States was active in the Battle of the Atlantic. While preoccupied on other missions, the British put an American Commander in charge of the war effort in the Atlantic. Rear-Admiral L.W. Murray, the Commander of the Canadian Navy, was not even consulted. By December of that same year, however, when the U.S. officially joined the war, they withdrew many of their boats from the Atlantic and moved to the Pacific arena. Germany saw this as a point of weakness and redirected efforts to the American coast. The Canadian with two years of experience behind them, was to lead the protection of the U.S. coastline.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #54

Chapter 18 (p. 451)

Canadians in the  
Normandy Campaign

By 1943, the events of the Second World War had taken a turn for the better for the Allies. By winter, Russian forces, now fighting against Germany, had stopped the Nazi Army at Stalingrad and 330 000 German troops were killed or captured. In May, Germany and Italy were defeated in North Africa and another 300 000 troops surrendered. By July 10, British, Canadian, and American troops captured Sicily.

That same year the Allies began to plan their second large-scale amphibious attack for the coast of France. On June 6, 1944, *Operation Overlord* was launched on the beaches of



Normandy. Called the “greatest combined operation in history” by Canadian historian Desmond Morton, D-Day involved the collaboration of 130 000 British, American and Canadian troops, 800 warships and 11 000 aircraft. Hard-learned lessons of Dieppe were on their side and, this time, the Allies were well-organized and had the advantage of surprise. Fourteen thousand Canadians from the 3<sup>rd</sup> Canadian Division and the 2<sup>nd</sup> Canadian Armoured Brigade, assisted by ten thousand men from the Royal Canadian Navy were committed to Juno Beach on D-Day. The Canadian infantry covered more ground in one day than all of their Allied counterparts. One thousand and seventy-four Canadians were dead, wounded or missing in one day.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #55

Chapter 18 (p. 452)

Fighting continued in the Pacific and Japanese troops refused to admit defeat. Eighty thousand Canadians volunteered to aid in the Pacific, but war ended before their help was needed. U.S. President Harry Truman gave Japan an ultimatum to surrender or be destroyed. Japan refused and on August 6, the U.S. dropped an atomic bomb on the city of Hiroshima. The effects were devastating; nearly half the city was destroyed and seventy thousand people were killed. A second bomb dropped on Nagasaki three days later. On August 14, 1945, Japan surrendered and World War was officially over. Few people knew at the time that much of the research for the A-bomb had been carried out in Canada by British and French Scientists, and that Canadian uranium was used in its creation.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #56

Chapter 18 (p. 462)

Undoubtedly, other Allied countries, such as Britain and the U.S., had fought in far greater numbers than Canada. But Canada had made a considerable contribution as a newly independent power with a comparatively small population.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #57

Chapter 19 (p. 470)

For geographical reasons, Canada was an inevitable ally of the United States during the Cold War—but it was also a willing one. Most Canadians believed in liberal democracy rather than communism. However the alliance with the United States created many complex political problems. The key problem was finding a way to benefit from U.S. protection while retaining an independent foreign policy. U.S. protection was itself equivocal: Canada was at risk during the Cold War principally because it lay between the United States and the Soviet Union. Canadian leaders tended to feel that the United States was overly aggressive in dealing with the Soviet bloc and that it created unnecessary confrontations. This view, when expressed, was a major source of tension between the two countries.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #58

Chapter 19 (p. 471-72)

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

One of Canada's major strategies for postwar peace and self-defence was the promotion of a defensive military alliance against the Soviet Union that would include Canada, the United States, Britain, and the nations of Western Europe.

On April 4, 1949, twelve countries signed the NATO agreement: Canada, Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United States. Canada succeeded in getting a few words into the treaty about cooperation on nonmilitary issues to eliminate economic conflicts. Canada had grander plans for NATO than mutual self-defence: Canada was hoping that NATO would evolve into a general dispute-resolving mechanism for the western nations. However, nothing much came of this "Canadian article" as it came to be called.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #59

Chapter 19 (p. 472-73)

The Korean War

After World War II, Korea had been divided into two territories: North Korea, under the control of the Soviet Union, and South Korea, under the control of the United States. The Soviet Union established a well-armed communist regime in the north. The United States supported a weak democracy in the south. Once the Soviets were confident that the north was militarily superior, they withdrew their own troops. The Americans then had to do the same in the south.

On June 25, 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea. Led by the United States, the United Nations passed a resolution asking its members to “furnish such assistance to the Republic of Korea [South Korea] as may be necessary to repel the armed attack and to restore international peace and security in the area.” The Soviet Union would have vetoed this move at the Security Council level, but it was in a weak negotiating position at the time—it was boycotting the Council because the People’s Republic of China had not been given a seat.

Most Canadians feared communist expansion.

Even so, Lester Pearson, then Canada’s secretary of state, was concerned that the Americans were getting both themselves and their allies too deeply embroiled in foreign conflicts. Canada’s first response was to send only three destroyers and an air-transport squadron to South Korea. The Americans thought that contribution wholly inadequate and pressed for more assistance. In August, the Canadian government agreed to send ground troops. Though the United States was clearly in command of the war, Canada was careful to maintain the formal understanding that it was fighting under the direction of the United Nations.

The main effect of the Korean War on Canada was that it forced the Cabinet to reflect carefully on the “increasingly troubling” character of American leadership. General MacArthur, for example, had talked about expanding the war into China. Although MacArthur was dismissed by President Truman in 1951, concern persisted that American foreign policy was overly aggressive and that the Americans risked nuclear confrontation over situations that neither Americans nor Canadians fully understood.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #60

Chapter 19 (p. 472-73)

The Price of Security: Nuclear Weapons in Canada?

A possible nuclear attack by the Soviet Union on the United States was a major concern in postwar Canada. The shortest route for Soviet bombers to take to the United States was over the North Pole, and hence, over Canada. Canada formed unprecedented partnerships with the United States to build military outposts to detect Soviet bombers.

## Distant Early Warning (DEW) Systems and Missiles

Canada had wanted to establish a chain of radar stations in the far north as early as 1946, to provide early warning of a possible Soviet attack. After the Soviet Union developed its own atomic bomb in 1949, the American government announced its intention to place radar stations on the American border with Canada. It made obvious sense for the two nations to work together on a chain of radar stations placed for strategic geographical advantage, rather than worry about border issues. However, much negotiation was required. Many Canadians were very sensitive to the idea of an American military presence on Canadian soil. In 1954, the Pinetree Line was completed (thirty-three radar stations from Vancouver Island through to the Labrador coast). Of the \$450 million, Canada paid \$150 million. An all-Canadian project of ninety-eight unstaffed radar stations was also completed in 1957. The chief benefit of this Mid-Canada Line, as it was called, was that it had not required cooperation with the Americans. However, “going it alone” was not going to be realistic for Canada over the long term, because of the high costs of effective defence.

In the same year, the 1957 Distant Early Warning (DEW) Line, which stretched from Alaska to Baffin Island, was also completed, but the terms- involved close work and tough negotiations with the United States. The U.S. government bore the entire cost and was required to use Canadian firms and employ Aboriginal Canadian workers. Canada also retained ownership of the sites, and major stations were commanded by Canadians. Still, national sovereignty issues persisted; access to DEW stations was controlled by American authorities, for example, even though the stations were on Canadian soil.

By the early 1960s, all these radar lines had become obsolete. The Soviets had developed inter- continental and submarine-launched missiles, against which radar stations were useless. The lasting effect of the construction of these lines was that they introduced and intensified defence cooperation with the United States even when Canada was not at war. That created a constant challenge to maintain Canadian sovereignty. This challenge became a hot issue when the American government started to pressure the Canadian government to accept nuclear weapons on Canadian soil, a policy that many Canadians strongly opposed.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #61

Chapter 19 (p. 475-76)

NORAD

In 1958, Canada and the United States created the North American Air Defense Command (NORAD). It integrated the air-defence forces of the two countries, to intercept attacks instead of simply detecting them. The agreement stipulated that an American would always be the commander, and a Canadian would always be the deputy commander. The headquarters are buried beneath a mountain in Colorado. Prime Minister Diefenbaker's decision to go ahead with NORAD in 1957 was controversial, because it integrated Canada's national defence organizationally with that of the United States.

In 1981, NORAD changed its name to North American Aerospace Defense Command, to emphasize its role in detecting missiles. Its key roles today include detecting drug smugglers flying into North America and monitoring space for objects whose orbits may be decaying, resulting in their falling to Earth.

#### The Avro Arrow

Cold War defence strategies sparked the creation of an airplane that has become a legend in Canada. The Avro Arrow provokes debate today, more than half a century after it disappeared. To some it is a symbol of clear thinking by the Canadian government. To others, it symbolizes the heartbreaking collapse of Canadian willingness to pursue the best. In 1949, A.V. Roe Canada started building the Arrow (officially the CF-Lo5), which was to be the world's most advanced jet fighter. It could fly faster and higher than any other. However, it also cost much more than the government had anticipated. The original estimate of \$2 million per plane rose to \$12.5 million during the project, and the government scaled back its order from six hundred to one hundred. Unless Canada could sell the Arrow to the United States, the project could not continue.

The Americans were not eager to purchase the Arrow; they were promoting Bomarc missiles instead. In any case, the Soviet Union had just launched its first intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM). The value of a fighter jet declined dramatically because military threats now came from space, not from pilot-flown bombers.

On February 20, 1959, Prime Minister John Diefenbaker said, "The Arrow has been overtaken by events. There is no purpose in manufacturing horse collars when horses no longer exist." And with that, he cancelled the Arrow program. A.V. Roe Canada promptly fired 14000 employees and ordered the destruction of all planes, parts, and design papers. Bob Johnson, an employee of A.V. Roe Canada, remembers the kilometer of the Avro Arrow:

The thing that always bothered me was the way it was done; the cold, callous, deliberate way it was cancelled. Not *that* it was cancelled, but the way it was cancelled.... We salvaged nothing. We scrapped everything. Five million dollars worth of parts—brand new instruments, equipment, laboratories, simulators—we're just cut up and scrapped with nothing salvaged. Even the drawings had to be burnt.... They should have saved those drawings. Even the information itself could have been used by the British aviation industry and the States, because, let's face it, the Arrow was the most advanced aircraft of

its day. Yet all that knowledge, all that development, years and years of study, was wiped out. Deliberately wiped out. No salvage.

The employees included some of the best aerospace engineers in the world. Many went to the United States to continue to work on advanced technologies.

The decision to cancel the Arrow was bitterly controversial, and many Canadians worried that it signalled a willingness on Canada's part to settle into "branch plant" status, where Canadians would no longer participate in the development of innovative technologies. Dennis McDermott of the United Auto Workers Union, who represented the employees of A.V. Roe Canada, said, "We will now lose the cream of our skilled aircraft technicians to the United States. You just don't open and shut an industry like a workhouse. History will prove this to be one of the most colossal blunders made by a prime minister in the history of Canada."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #62

Chapter 19 (p. 477)

The Bomarc Missile Crisis

In 1958, the Canadian government decided to meet the threat of Soviet attack by installing the American-made Bomarc intercontinental missiles in Canada. At first, Diefenbaker was willing to accept the B-series Bomarcs that were to be fitted with nuclear warheads. However, he became increasingly reluctant as Canadian nuclear disarmament groups protested when they discovered that warheads were part of the deal. The Americans were completely baffled by Canada's mixed signals on this issue.

At a face-to-face meeting between Diefenbaker and U.S. President John F Kennedy, the prime minister seemed to indicate that Canada was willing to take the missiles, because that was its duty under the NORAD agreement. However, Diefenbaker actually accepted the missiles *without* the warheads. The United States, furious at this outcome, released a statement that accused Canada of refusing to live up-to its responsibilities. It stated that Canada was playing a dangerous game, saying one thing but doing another: "The Canadian government has not as yet proposed any arrangement sufficiently practical to contribute effectively to North American defence." The rebuke was so public, so extraordinary, that Canada's ambassador to the United States was recalled as a diplomatic protest, the first time that had ever occurred.

When Lester Pearson became prime minister in 1963, he accepted the warheads, because he believed that Canada had promised to take them. Then he immediately began negotiating for their removal. By 1969, under Pierre Trudeau, it became official Canadian policy that no nuclear weapons would be located in Canada and that the country's armed forces have no nuclear role in NATO. In 1971, the Bomarc missile was phased out.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

### Entry #63

Chapter 19 (p. 477-78)

#### The Cuban Missile Crisis

The Bomarc dispute had made the United States so mistrustful of Canada that the Canadian government was given just one-and-a-half hours' notice of President Kennedy's crucial speech on October 22, 1962, announcing that the Soviets were installing offensive missiles in Cuba and that the United States was blockading Cuba. The Americans and the Soviets—seemed poised for nuclear war. The American government asked Canada to put its NORAD forces on high alert and send its Navy to sea on anti-submarine patrol. The Canadian Cabinet responded by debating the issue for two days, because the ministers were concerned that U.S. policy and behaviour provoked the Soviet Union unnecessarily and heightened the danger. In reality, the Canadian forces had already been quietly put on high alert while Cabinet debated. On October 24, the alert was made official. After a few days, the Soviet Union backed down and removed the missiles, and the crisis subsided.

Many Canadians blamed Diefenbaker for antagonizing the Americans by his delay over the Cuban missiles, which probably contributed to his 1963 election loss to Pearson. Diefenbaker himself blamed his loss on American interference in the election. However, if the Americans had hoped that Pearson would be easier to deal with on Cold War issues, they were probably disappointed. In 1965, Canada did not give the United States the support it demanded for the Vietnam War, and by 1967, the Canadian government was openly expressing disagreement with American policy in Southeast Asia. Canadian cooperation with the United States for nuclear defence against the Soviet Union during the postwar period did not mean support for American policies and initiatives around the globe.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

### Entry #64

Chapter 21 (p. 556)

Picture showing Canadian protestors of the Vietnam War in Ottawa, Canada.



Canadians protesting the Vietnam War: A demonstration on Parliament Hill in Ottawa against the war in Vietnam. Fighting broke out between Ottawa Police and the protesters.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #65

Chapter 21 (p. 557)

### American Draft Dodgers

Thousands of young Americans who did not want to fight in the Vietnam War had significant influence on Canadian campuses in the late 1960s. At least twenty thousand draft dodgers and twelve thousand deserters from the U.S. army came to Canada for refuge. Many attended university here and encouraged other students to consider radical or anti-establishment ideas that were popular in the United States.

Canada's relationship to the Vietnam War was complex; although Canada was not at war with Vietnam, it helped the Americans in many covert ways. Approximately ten thousand young Canadians did fight in the war with the U.S. forces. The herbicide Agent Orange was tested at CFB Gagetown in New Brunswick and American bombers carpet-bombed over Suffield, Alberta, and North Battleford, Saskatchewan. After U.S. President Jimmy Carter pardoned the draft dodgers in 1977 (the war had ended in 1973), many went home, but others stayed in Canada permanently.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 2

Entry #66

Chapter 21 (p. 557)



Fifty years ago, Canadians began to realize that their culture was being starved, as increasing numbers of American musicians, television shows, movies, books, and magazines fed the Canadian appetite for entertainment. Although realizing that economic ties to the United States helped put food on the table, Canadians also began sensing the dangers of relying on their southern neighbour to provide food for their souls.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #67

Chapter 24 (p. 615)

Chronology showing September 11 terrorist attacks on the United States

Terrorist attacks on the United States launch the war on Terrorism, in which Canadian troops are involved.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #68

Chapter 24 (p. 631)

On August 2, 1990, troops\ from Iraq invaded neighbouring Kuwait. The United States organized a United Nations coalition that delivered several ultimatums to Iraq's president, Saddam Hussein. When Saddam refused to withdraw, the coalition moved ahead with a military campaign to force him out.

Canada was part of that coalition, which\ included the United States (the biggest force in the coalition), Afghanistan, Argentina, Australia, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Honduras, Italy, Kuwait, Morocco, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Niger, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Korea, Spain, Syria, Turkey, the United Arab Emirates, and the United Kingdom. Prime Minister Mulroney called Saddam\_a criminal of historic significance and said Canada was ready to do its part to liberate Kuwait.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #69

Chapter 24 (p. 633)

As the Canadian troops left for Somalia in December, the United States was sending 30 000 marines into the country to get food moving and deal with any gangs that tried to stop it. The Canadians took charge of the town of Belet Huen. They spent a good deal of their time keeping warring factions apart and stopping break-ins at their compound.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #70

Chapter 24 (p. 633-4)

September 11

Most Canadians know the significance of the date September 11, 2001—it will forever be known simply as 9-11.

The sequence of events is now familiar through extended media coverage during and after the attacks on the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. In the immediate aftermath the United States closed its airspace and airliners en route to the United States were diverted to Canada. Three days later, a service of remembrance on Parliament Hill attracted more than 100 000 people. Prime Minister Chrétien said Canadians could not stop their tears. And he told the Americans, “Do not despair. You are not alone. We are with you.”

American President George Bush said there were now only two groups of people in the world: those who supported American efforts to root out terrorists and those who did not.

NATO quickly invoked article 5 of its charter, which states that an attack on one NATO country is an attack on all. As a NATO member, Canada began to prepare to join the war against terrorism. It sent patrol frigates, a supply ship, and a destroyer to the Arabia Sea. It sent air surveillance planes and supply planes to Afghanistan. It also sent members of its highly secretive commando force, JTF-2. And it sent a battalion of the Princess Patricia’s Canadian Light Infantry (PPCLI). About three thousand members of the Canadian Forces became part of the war, the largest commitment of Canadian troops to any operation since the Korean War.

An Ipsos-Reid poll in January 2002 found that more than 100 000 people. Prime Minister Chrétien two-thirds of Canadians supported the idea of said Canadians could not stop their tears. And he Canadian troops in combat. Of those opposed, some said it was better for Canada to continue to play its traditional peacekeeping role. But some were opposed more strongly. A group called “Lawyers Against the War” said the war was illegal because the United Nations prohibits the use of force to overthrow a sovereign government.

The September Eleventh Peace Coalition was formed with the support of the Canadian Labour Congress, the Council of Canadians, Science for Peace, the Canadian Peace Alliance, and the Canadian Federation of Students, among others. The Coalition's "Statement of Unity" reads, in part, "We utterly abhor the acts of terrorism of September 11. The perpetrators must be brought to justice through the rules of national and international law. We likewise abhor indiscriminate military assaults that inflict injuries and cause suffering, death, and the displacement of people."

Though the government of Afghanistan fell very quickly, it was impossible to root out every Al-Qaeda fighter immediately from the thousands of caves in the country. Canadians stayed in the country to continue the search. In April 2002, four members of the PPLCI were killed. They were on a training exercise when they were killed by "friendly fire"—an American pilot mistakenly dropped a bomb on them. They were the first Canadian soldiers to die during a combat mission in almost fifty years.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 4

#### Entry #71

Chapter 24 (p. 634)

Picture showing victims from the World Trade Center collapse running for cover after the collapse of the buildings.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3



After the World Trade Towers collapsed, thousands of people ran for cover from falling debris.

Entry #72

Chapter 24 (p. 635)

Picture showing the remembrance service for victims of September 11, on Parliament Hill in Ottawa

Researcher: 5      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 5



A Remembrance service for victims of September 11, on Parliament Hill, in Ottawa.

### Economic Activity

Entry #73

Chapter 8 (p. 194)

During the years following the Royal Proclamation of 1763 and the Quebec Act of 1774, mercantilism remained the main economic principle for Britain in its relationship with all its colonies in North America. As it had been during the years of the French Empire, the key to economic health for the mother country was a favourable trade of balance of foreign trade. When Britain's exports were greater than its imports, its reserves of gold and its percentage of the world's wealth increased. The colonies of North America were to provide the sugar, tobacco, timber, and furs from which British manufacturers would make products and help maintain a positive balance of trade. Britain would tax and sell manufactured goods back to the colonies at a profit. In the days of the British Empire, the colonies existed for the economic benefit of Britain, to increase its wealth and prestige. There was to be no competition from the colonies in achieving that purpose.

In the beginning, the mercantilist system had suited the colonists well enough. It had helped the development of the colonies and had contributed to a higher standard of living for many people than they could have had in any other country at that time. But, by the late 1700s, the Thirteen Colonies were ready to chart their own economic future.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #74  
Chapter 9 (p. 212)

Wheat and lumber became the staples of the St. Lawrence colonial economy; the Montreal-based fur trade pushed farther and farther into the northwest regions; Nova Scotia and New Brunswick became centres of trade with the U.S. More immigrants were arriving from Britain and the United States, settling especially in Upper Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #75  
Chapter 9 (p. 217)

This was quite a different story from the movement west in the United States where land companies owned by private individuals laid claim to huge tracts of Aboriginal lands and where pioneers trekked looking for which land to settle. This difference between the settlement processes in Canada and the U.S. had a profound impact on the future development of both nations.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #76  
Chapter 9 (p. 218)

Eventually the company (referring to the Hudson's Bay Company) even controlled parts of British Columbia from which it joined American companies trading with China, sending sea otter pelts in exchange for silks, porcelain, and spices, which were taken back to England.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #77  
Chapter 10 (p. 235)

Montreal was still a mercantile city, thriving on trade with Britain. Wheat from both Upper Canada and the U.S. was shipped from Montreal to Britain.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #78  
Chapter 10 (p. 235)

French Canadians and newly arrived immigrants worked in the timber and ship-building industries and on the bridges, canals, and railways that were now being constructed to link Montreal with the United States and Upper Canada.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #79  
Chapter 10 (p. 243)

The closeness of both timber supplies and open water were contributing factors to the development of shipbuilding as an important industry throughout the Atlantic colonies. The region became a major producer of ocean-going vessels that were sold in Britain, the Canadian colonies, and in the United States.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #80  
Chapter 11 (p. 248)

With the repeal of the Corn Laws that had protected Canadian exports through preferential tariffs, the British North American colonies became more independent from Britain and started to look to the United States for economic alliances.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #81  
Chapter 11 (p. 252)

The construction of canals, the development of the Great Lakes shipping, and the great enthusiasm for railroad construction all seemed to make trade with the United States a viable alternative to colonial trade with Britain.

With the possibility of greater trade with the United States, some Canadians in Canada East and West argued for reciprocity: a cooperative agreement granting trade privileges or freer trade between the United States and Canada. The idea of reciprocity was also

popular in the Atlantic colonies. New Brunswickers looked forward to trading more timber and to opening a larger market for their ships if prices could be reduced as a result of lower tariff duties in the United States. Nova Scotians and Prince Edward Islanders thought reciprocity would provide them with new markets for their agricultural products. In 1854, Canada and the United States did sign a Reciprocity Treaty, which lasted until 1866. However, the freer trade was limited to relatively few products, and these were mainly raw materials such as grain, fish, and coal.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3  
Entry #82  
Chapter 11 (p. 262)

But with the adoption of freer trade with Britain and that country's desire to give more power to the colonial assemblies to govern themselves, Howe was out of step with British wishes. Then in November 1861, Americans from the northern states boarded the British ship, the *Trent*, in neutral waters and captured two Confederate officials who were on their way to Europe. The English were outraged and threatened war and sent troops to reinforce the border between the United States and the Atlantic colonies. Although the incident was settled peaceably, there were some in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, including Joseph Howe, who realized just how vulnerable the Atlantic region was to an American attack and takeover. The combined force of pressure from the British colonial office and of the threat of American aggression eventually persuaded many Nova Scotians that union might be a good deal for them after all. However, Joseph Howe remained an opponent of Confederation.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #83  
Chapter 11 (p. 266)

Britain strongly approved of the union scheme, convened a conference to expedite it, and quickly passed the necessary legislation to implement it. The American cancellation of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866 left New Brunswick without a viable alternative to Confederation and in open defiance of Britain's wishes. The real or exaggerated threat of Fenian raids further led to New Brunswick's reversal in the June 1866 election. On the last day of June, the new assembly voted in favour of Confederation.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #84  
Chapter 12 (p. 287)

### The Entrance of British Columbia

British Columbia became Canada's sixth province on July 20, 1871. Originally the smallest British North American colony, with a scattered population of ten thousand people, the gold rush of the 1850s had brought an influx of people to the area sending the colony's population to over thirty thousand. Many of those people were American and ties of geography, trade, and commerce resulted in a strong southern pull within British Columbia. In the 1860s, the gold rush ended, leaving the colony over \$1 million in debt, as it had borrowed heavily from British banks during the previous boom times to build roads and provide other services. The diminishing population could not support this debt as half of colonial revenues went to discharge the interest payments alone and something clearly had to be done.

One option, supported by a dwindling number of merchants, was to accept annexation to the United States. Prominent Americans such as William Seward, former secretary of state for Presidents Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson, and Massachusetts Senator, Charles Sumner, welcomed such a prospect with open arms. A legislative petition requesting annexation to the United States was sent from Victoria to U.S. President Ulysses S. Grant. However the very "Britishness" of the colony, coupled with a multitude of other obstacles, made annexation unlikely.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #85

Chapter 12 (p. 283)

Much has been written about the incredible struggle to construct the CPR (referring to the Canadian Pacific Railway). The problems were legion, beginning with obtaining the requisite financing and charting the optimal route. Having originally awarded the contract to Sir Hugh Allan and his American partners in 1873, the project languished amid internal squabbling and insufficient funds. Finally, in February 1881, the Canadian government agreed to a new Montreal Syndicate, again headed by Allan, to complete the project.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #86

Chapter 13 (p. 296)



The National Policy was Sir John A. Macdonald's response to the claim of Canadian manufacturers that they could not compete against Americans. It would also help to alleviate the effects of the global depression, which had begun in 1873. This worldwide depression reduced the world market for Canadian wheat and other staples and also discouraged immigration.

Although enacted in 1879, the effects of the National Policy became obvious once the CPR was completed in 1885 and the global downturn ended by the mid-1890s. Many new industries were established, tens of thousands of jobs were created, a few fortunes were made, and the relationship between government and business was firmly cemented. Trade with the United States soared, rising more than 50 percent between 1878 and 1896.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #87

Chapter 13 (p. 298)

Central Canada, the industrial heartland of the nation, prospered but many alleged that it did so at the expense of eastern and western Canada. The Maritimes suffered a severe economic downturn. Having relied on the lucrative trade of staple products to both the United States and Britain, they could not make an easy transition when those markets disappeared.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #88

Chapter 13 (p. 298)

In 1891, the year of his death, the population of the West had only grown to about a quarter of a million. Land in the American west was still available on more favourable terms and appeared to be a more attractive destination for prospective immigrants than the largely deserted Canadian prairie. The post-Civil War years saw an unprecedented economic boom in the United States. The American "Gilded Age" witnessed a tremendous industrial expansion that was a magnet for both immigrants and capital. Although over 1.5 million immigrants did come to Canada during the decade of the 1880s, the country's overall population rose very modestly, as there was a net migration of almost two million out of Canada to the United States between 1871 and 1891.

With the return of world prosperity by the mid-1890s and the belief that the American frontier had closed up, immigration to Canada, grew substantially and the prairie became more populated.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #89

Chapter 13 (p. 299)

The reorientation of Canadian trade and economic policies caused by the British repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846 and the American abolition of reciprocity in 1866, necessitated a transportation revolution.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #90

Chapter 15 (p. 356)

By 1917, Britain could no longer afford Canadian goods, and the IMB (referring to the Imperial Munitions Board) turned to the United States as business partners, since they had recently joined the war. However, this new business relationship made Canada increasingly dependent on America for supplies.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #91

Chapter 16 (p. 385)

In the twenties, Canada experienced unprecedented growth in industrial development. But it was unevenly distributed and did not entirely occur as Canadian economic nationalists would have wished.

As Canada's economic welfare depended largely on exports, when wartime demand for raw materials disappeared, the Canadian economy went into depression. The situation was made worse by the introduction of American tariffs in 1921 and 1922. In 1921 the Canadian gross national product slipped by 20.1 percent and the value of exports dropped 60 percent in the years from 1920 to 1922. Virtually every sector of the Canadian economy was affected. Businesses closed and unemployment rose. High inflation rates hampered business investment and consumer spending. The government refused to act saying that interfering with economic laws would only prolong hardship. Only in 1924 did it become apparent that economic growth had returned. U.S. loans to Britain and other European countries opened the markets for Canadian goods, such as grain and pulp and paper, once again.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #92

Chapter 16 (p. 387)

General Motors, and Chrysler set up manufacturing plants in Canada. They were drawn to Canada in order to avoid a 35 percent Canadian tariff on foreign-built cars and to take advantage of preferential Canadian international tariffs in order to sell cars to Britain and other Commonwealth countries. In 1929, GM and Ford made 250 000 cars in Canada. Of these 100 000 were exported to other countries. Cities, especially in Ontario and Quebec, used tax breaks and other incentives to attract consumer goods manufacturers such as auto, household appliance, radio, and furniture manufacturers. Between 1918 and 1930, Americans had established 641 branch plants in Canada. Most of them were located in Ontario and Quebec, close to most of the consumers in the country. This was the beginning of the branch plant system that still flourishes today. In Quebec, Henri Bourassa was troubled by the increasing amount of American money and ownership in the Canadian economy:

At this rate, American capital will soon run Canada and Canadians. ‘We could and should be alarmed. It’s not surprising. It’s the direct result of the folly of our wartime spending spree. We wanted to play the part of a grand nation. We’ve gone bankrupt to save “civilization” and “democracy”.

By the 1930s Americans controlled almost’ one-quarter of Canadian manufacturing, easily outstripping British investment and this development would have both good and bad lasting implications. As King was gaining more political independence, Canada was becoming increasingly dependent on American economic interests. King’s quest for political autonomy had to be reconciled with economic reality.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #93

Chapter 17 (p. 404)

Financial markets had fluctuated earlier in 1929, but each downturn was accompanied by a strong rally. All this changed on Thursday October 24, 1929. That day, the stock market of the world began to drop at a sharper rate than analysts had seen in some time. In New York, 12 894 650 million shares were traded. In Montreal, nearly 400 000 shares were traded—a significant jump from the 25 000 that were normally traded each day. The slide leveled out on Friday and investors were given the weekend to contemplate.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #94

Chapter 17 (p. 417)

When the world markets began to collapse after 1929, countries raised tariffs on imported goods in an attempt to protect their industries from foreign competition. Canada too placed tariffs on imports. The United States, Canada's main destination of exports, instituted the Smoot-Hawley Tariff on foreign goods in 1930 that placed tariffs and duties ranging from 30 percent to 60 percent on a wide range of foreign imports. For Canada, the Smoot-; Hawley Tariff had devastating results.

In July 1932, Bennett hosted the Imperial, Economic Conference in Ottawa. At the conference, Bennett proposed that Britain tax the products of non-commonwealth nations and allow the import of Canadian products without tariffs. In this way Canada could export its raw materials to commonwealth countries, (principally Britain) thus providing relief from the devastating consequences of American tariffs on the Canadian economy. Bennett, however, offered little to the commonwealth nations in return.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #95

Chapter 19 (p. 496-97)

Stelco Strike in Hamilton, 1946

The strike at the Steel Company of Canada (Stelco), based in Hamilton, Ontario, showed just how far labour, management, and the government were prepared to go to win postwar economic battles. United Steelworkers of America (USWA) had asked for a forty-hour workweek (down from forty-eight hours) and other demands that mirrored settlements that were current in many other industries, including a pay raise of nineteen cents an hour and more vacation time. The company thought it could not make a profit under those conditions and refused to meet the demands.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #96

Chapter 20 (p. 504)

In 1927 U.S. President Herbert Hoover said, "I know of Building the St. Lawrence Seaway. Nothing that should so appeal to the imagination of the people of North America as the final consummation of the struggle of generations to open these Great Lakes as part of the 'Seven Seas.'" But nothing came of the grand idea until 1951, when the Canadian government threatened to build a seaway entirely within Canadian territory if the United States did not want to participate.

In 1954, a final agreement was signed between the two countries. Canada agreed to pay three-quarters of the \$470 million cost, and construction began that year on the section

that stretched from Montreal to Lake Ontario. In 1959, the St. Lawrence Seaway, also called the Great Lakes Waterway, was officially opened by the Queen, Prime Minister Diefenbaker, and U.S. President Dwight Eisenhower.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #97

Chapter 20 (p. 506-07)

In 1965, the federal government negotiated the Canada—U.S. Automotive Products Agreement, usually called the Auto Pact. Under this agreement, if a U.S. car manufacturer wants to sell cars duty-free in Canada, it must also build cars in Canada. The value of vehicles produced must meet or exceed a specified proportion of the manufacturer's annual sales. The Auto Pact helped to make the Canadian auto industry one of the most powerful sectors in the country during the postwar period. It survived the Free Trade Agreement negotiated with the United States in 1989 but was struck down by the Trade Organization in 2000.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #98

Chapter 20 (p. 507)

Taking a Stand Against the Risk of the Branch Plant Economy

Throughout the twentieth century, Canada had a unique economic relationship with the United States. Besides Canada, no other country has ever allowed a foreign power to own so much of its economy. Allowing a large amount of foreign investment dated from the days when Canada was a British colony and British investors provided the capital for its development.

Far from protecting businesses from foreign ownership, Canadian governments often encouraged it. For example, when American firms wanted to buy timber from Canada, provincial governments refused to simply let them buy logs. They made them build branch plants in Canada to create local employment and tax opportunities.' Similarly, the development of the Canadian mining industry was largely financed by American capital.

This arrangement worked to the United States' advantage as well as Canada's. During the 1920s, American manufacturers realized that if they set up branch plants to serve the Canadian market, they could avoid both freight costs and import duties. Aside from the benefits they gained when marketing to Canadians, the American firms also profited from reduced tariff rates when they shipped from Canada to countries that were still part of the British Empire. To the extent that these arrangements created jobs and cheaper consumer goods, most Canadians were comfortable with them during the first part of the twentieth century.

After a standstill during the Great Depression and World War II, American investment in Canada increased rapidly during the postwar period. For example, between 1950 and 1995, American investment increased from \$3.4 billion to more than thirty times that figure.<sup>2</sup> American firms began to buy established Canadian firms as well; Canadians preferred to sell to Americans because they tended to get the highest prices from them.

However, during the postwar period, Canadians began to recognize that there were real dangers to a branch plant economy:

- Unless the smaller power manages the relationship carefully, its economy will come to be operated in the interests of the nation that houses the head office.
- If foreign companies are large enough or united enough, they may be able to dictate to the government, even on domestic and foreign policy.
- Critical research and development that provides opportunities for national advancement does not take place in the branch plant economy. It usually takes place in the head-office economy.
- Talented young workers may be forced to emigrate to be part of cutting-edge projects. Quite apart from the fact that they may not want to emigrate, their ability to do so depends on the immigration laws of the head-office country.
- During a downturn, the foreign-owned firm will close the Canadian branch plant rather than the plant in the head-office country.

Recognizing these dangers and dilemmas, many Canadians began to advocate government supervision of business transactions that increased foreign control of Canada's economy. They were especially concerned about foreign control of cultural industries.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #99

Chapter 20 (p. 510)

Such a pipeline would be very expensive, especially because the stretch between Winnipeg and Sudbury would not serve many customers. In 1951, Howe put together a group of Canadian and American business investors to create TransCanada Pipelines and to raise money. Both the Cooperative Commonwealth Federation (predecessor to the New Democratic Party) and the Progressive Conservative Party opposed the idea of allowing this group to build the pipeline, because American interests were dominant.

The Pipeline Debate, which lasted from May 8 to June 6, 1956, is remembered as one of the most bitter in Canadian history. Howe, who was well known for getting things done quickly, openly supported American involvement, because he felt that it would take far too long to assemble the necessary resources within Canada; Howe needed to pass his pipeline law quickly, so that construction could begin before the ground froze. To ensure success, the Liberals used the parliamentary procedure of closure to end debate. In other words, they had enough seats to shut down the debate. Construction proceeded and by October 1958 the 3700-km pipeline was completed.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #100

Chapter 20 (p. 511)

Selling Wheat to China

In 1954, the United States began subsidizing the production of wheat by American farmers. This practice allowed the grain farmers to export their crop at low prices. Canadian farmers, who were not receiving equivalent subsidies, could not compete with them. The Canadian farmers were growing more wheat than ever, but they were forced to store most of it instead of selling it.

Diefenbaker attempted to resolve the problem by marketing the wheat to the People's Republic of China, starting in 1958. He knew that because of strong opposition to communism, the Americans would not deal with the Chinese. Most Canadians opposed communism, but that did not necessarily mean that they would refuse to trade with any communist country. Nor did Canadian anti-communism necessarily imply support for American foreign policies with respect to communist nations. The Americans, however, expected Canada's support. When they learned that Canada was negotiating to sell wheat to the Chinese, the Americans made their opposition to trading with the "enemy communists" clear.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #101

Chapter 20 (p. 511)

#### Trade with Cuba

During the Suez Crisis, Canada was unable to support Britain on control of the Canal. Canada faced a similar problem with the United States over Cuba. In 1959, Fidel Castro overthrew the government of Cuba, which had been friendly to the United States. Castro's revolutionary government proceeded to expropriate many valuable American properties. In 1960, the United States imposed various trade sanctions on Cuba. In 1961, it severed diplomatic relations and launched the Bay of Pigs invasion, which failed. In 1962, the Soviet Union entered the conflict, precipitating the Cuban Missile Crisis.

To gain support for its continuing campaign, the United States tried to prevent Canada from trading with Cuba. For example, the U.S. government attempted to prevent American subsidiaries in Canada from trading with Cuba, because the American companies themselves were not allowed to do so. Many Canadians deeply resented these attempts, not because of great sympathy for Castro but because they did not feel that the United States had the right to impose its laws in Canada.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #102

Chapter 20 (p. 511-12)

The disagreement between Canada and the United States over trade with Cuba survived the collapse of the Soviet bloc in the late 1980s. In 1992, for example, the United States passed a law that allowed criminal charges to be brought against foreign subsidiaries of U.S. companies that did business with Cuba. Again, the U.S. law was widely resented in Canada, but by that time it had little practical effect. The Soviet collapse crippled the Cuban economy, so humanitarian aid is a more pressing concern than trade policy.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #103



Chapter 20 (p. 520)

Postwar prosperity sparked intense “store wars” between two of Canada’s biggest retailers: Eaton’s and Simpson’s. The battle and its outcome pointed out the growing interdependence of the Canadian and American economies.

In the early 1950s, Eaton’s had fifty department stores across Canada, as well as the biggest mail-order business in the Commonwealth. Simpson’s had five stores and a mail-order business about half the size of Eaton’s. (Mail order was a very important part of every store’s business because nearly half the population still shopped by catalogue.) In 1952, however, Simpson’s and Sears Roebuck each invested \$20 million to launch Simpsons-Sears. Sears-Roebuck brought worldwide connections and buying power to the deal. Simpson’s gave Simpsons-Sears its existing mail- order business. Then the new entity launched a big store-building program, which was tied into the newly established need for anchor stores at shopping plazas.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #104

Chapter 20 (p. 520)

Eaton’s was soon forced to follow suit, and new, generous credit policies paved the way for acceptance of the credit card. Meanwhile, nationalism came to the fore. Eaton’s attempted to cement customer loyalty by advertising its “all-Canadian” background. It called itself “Eaton’s of Canada” now, sending a subtle message about Simpsons-Sears. It also drew attention to the fact that many of its goods were British made. Simpsons-Sears downplayed the fact that its goods were U.S.-made. Both firms had their corporate headquarters in downtown Toronto, from which they were, in the words of *Maclean’s* reporter Fred Bodsworth, “eyeing each other’s movements like belligerent eagles on neighboring crags.”

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #105

Chapter 24 (p. 617)

Free Trade

Almost as soon as Brian Mulroney took office, he announced to an audience of more than fifteen-hundred Wall Street magnates at the prestigious Economic Club of New York that “Canada is open for business.” When he said he would pursue free trade with the United States, he set off a firestorm of protest that echoed from, Canada’s post. Mel Hurtig, a nationalist publisher, wrote a book called *The Betrayal of Canada* in which he stated that the result of free trade would be “as certain as the fact that you are now reading these words—the destruction and disappearance of our country.” Opponents of free trade argued that once Canada negotiated its economic sovereignty away, its political sovereignty would follow.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #106

Chapter 24 (p. 618)

Supporters of the policy believed that free trade with the United States was a wise move. Since the United States has the largest consumer market in the world, businesses were anxious to reduce any barriers that restricted access to that market. They said our exports would grow, increasing the number of jobs in Canada and improving the general health of our economy. The country was so divided on the issue of free trade that Mulroney called an election to settle the matter. Just as it was in the 1911 election, free trade was the central issue in the 1988 election. Mulroney emerged with a majority government. Although most Canadians voted for political parties such as the Liberals and the NDP that were opposed to free trade, the Conservatives’ 42.9 percent of the vote gave them 169 seats versus the combined 126 for the opposition parties. The Free Trade Agreement (FTA) was signed on January 1, 1989. Between 1989 and 1992, Canada’s exports to the United States increased by 62 percent.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #107

Chapter 24 (p. 618)

NAFTA

In 1994, Mexico was added to the free trade zone. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) pushed Canadian exports even higher. In the first five years after the agreement, exports to Mexico increased by 65 percent and to the United States by

another 80 percent. Supporters of free trade say NAFTA has protected Canada from economic hardship and that we have not experienced any loss of sovereignty.

The critics of NAFTA disagree. A group called the Council of Canadians points out that the Canadian dollar was worth 86 cents US in 1990, and now it is worth only 62 cents US. It reports that American takeovers of Canadian businesses have increased, and that the real disposable income of Canadians has decreased by 5 percent since the FTA was signed; in the United States, disposable income has increased by 12 percent.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #108

Chapter 24 (p. 619)

The overpowering economic dominance of southern Ontario, has continued to breed feeling of economic alienation in the Atlantic provinces. A 1997 document entitled "Atlantic Canada and the Future: Trends, Challenges and Opportunities" states: The increasing integration of Ontario into the US market and the immigrant stream into Toronto and environs are eroding the psychological links to the East in the same fashion that they are contributing to the erosion of interest in Quebec's problems. Atlantic Canada more and more resembles what Alaska and Hawaii or Iceland and Norway are in American and European maps.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #109

Chapter 24 (p. 622)

Huge machines are necessary. They are a kind of grim poetry roaring down a field during swathing and harvest, but the romance stops at the bank. They are a king's ransom to own, take forever to pay off, expensive to run, hard to maintain. And for now, for many, impossible to... Since 1980, the cost of combines has tripled while the price of grain has shrunk. The real menace is cost structure. The invisible machine that's devouring the family farm has three components: grain prices which are miserable; U.S. and European competition which is greatly subsidized; and the Canadian government policy of "Let our farmers do it on their own."

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #110

Chapter 24 (p. 624)

Since 1998, more than 50 000 people have left British Columbia for Alberta and Ontario. Between 2000 and 2002, British Columbia's economy was also crippled by the softwood lumber trade dispute between the United States and Canada. Arguing that the Canadian softwood lumber industry is heavily subsidized and is undercutting American wood, the United States government placed a 19.3 percent tax on softwood imports from Canada and added a "dumping duty" of 12.57 percent in 2001.<sup>16</sup> In 2002, the dispute was still going strong, and the American Trade Ambassador stated that the trade war would continue unless the Canadian government taxed its softwood exports. Since it affects one of British Columbia's biggest economic sectors, the softwood lumber trade war has cost thousands of jobs and created disagreements between the province and central Canada. The B.C. Lumber Trade Council believes that the Canadian government should accommodate the export tax, while the Free Trade Lumber Councils in Ontario and Quebec want to fight it out with the United States. Not only has the trade war further alienated British Columbia from central Canada, it has also greatly hampered British Columbia's economic recovery.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #111

Chapter 24 (p. 624)

Political cartoon relating to softwood industry

Researcher: 1      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2



Entry #112

Chapter 13 (p. 307)

In the 1880s, the American-based Knights of Labor (KOL) utilized a new organizing tactic. Rather than solely targeting skilled craft workers, the KOL wanted to organize skilled and unskilled workers into one big union. They managed to make significant inroads in major industrial cities such as Toronto and Hamilton, as well as in smaller communities.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #113

Chapter 13 (p. 308)

Another organization from the United States, the International Workers of the World (IWW), came north to try and organize the labourers. The “Wobblies” as they became known, rejected traditional unions and focused on using the strike as the bargaining tool to better the inhumane conditions of the workers.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #114

Chapter 13 (p. 309)

Like their urban cousins, farmers saw organizing and banding together as the solution to their economic plight. The Dominion Grange, an offshoot of the 1.5 million-member American National Grange, grew rapidly in rural Ontario and Manitoba. The Grange

championed cooperative action among farmers whereby they would own and operate their economic concerns.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #115

Chapter 19 (p. 477)

(Referring to the cancellation of the Avro Arrow Jet Fighter program in 1959)

The employees included some of the best aero space engineers in the world. Many went to the United States to continue to work on advanced technologies.

The decision to cancel the Arrow was bitterly controversial, and many Canadians worried that it signalled a willingness on Canada's part to settle into "branch plant" status, where Canadians would no longer participate in the development of innovative technologies. Dennis McDermott of the United Auto Workers Union, who represented the employees of A.V. Roe Canada, said, "We will now lose the cream of our skilled aircraft technicians to the United States. You just don't open and shut at' industry like a workhouse. History will prove this to be one of the most colossal blunders made by a prime minister in the history of Canada."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #116

Chapter 22 (p. 576)

The Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA) was established in 1973. FIRA had to approve the foreign takeover of a Canadian company if the deal was worth more than \$5 million. The agency determined whether a proposed takeover would actually benefit Canada. The United States government (most foreign investment in Canada since the end of World War II has been from the United States) protested that FIRA was a hindrance to good business, and Canada suddenly had a reputation for being unfriendly to capitalism. In fact, although FIRA reviews often delayed takeovers, more than 90 percent of the deals it examined were allowed to go through.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #117

Chapter 23 (p. 596)

In 1984, a Royal Commission chaired by Rosalie Abella tried to find ways to promote equality in employment for four designated groups: women, Aboriginal people, people with disabilities, and visible minorities. She concluded that equality does not always mean treating people equally, but rather “treating them as equals by accommodating their differences.”

In the United States, the concepts of “affirmative action” (ensuring that you make minority candidates successful) and “quotas” (ensuring that minorities win a certain percentage of positions) were perceived negatively. Any attempt to change the rules so that minorities emerged with a greater percentage of jobs or places in universities was seen as reverse discrimination. Abella, however, said her solution was different and she came up with a Canadian term: “employment equity.” In 1986, the Employment Equity Act was passed. Companies with more than one hundred employees were ordered to count women, Aboriginal people, people with disabilities, and visible minorities and report which groups were underrepresented as compared with their percentage of the overall population. The Act was amended in 1995 to include not just federal departments, but also agencies under federal control. If companies and departments see that minorities are underrepresented, they should take measures to improve the percentage, but they are not legally bound to do so.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #118

Chapter 25 (p. 668)

The Kyoto Agreement

In 1997, an international meeting in Kyoto, Japan, agreed to a series of measures to reduce greenhouse gases. Industrialized nations committed themselves to reducing emissions from 1990 levels by about 5.2 percent by 2012. The Kyoto protocol was signed by 84 countries, including Canada. The United States, which is by far the largest producer of greenhouse gases in the world, signed as well, but in 2002 President George W. Bush decided his country would not ratify Kyoto. Bush claimed it would be too harmful to the US economy.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

## Canadian National Identity

Entry #119  
Chapter 12 (p. 288)

### Symbols and Signs of the New Canada

Even at this early point in its history, Canada was developing some of the symbols of nationhood. These new national symbols developed and evolved within the context of what already existed and was accepted. This process of national building was markedly different from the American experience that witnessed British symbols and values being rejected. Nevertheless, they provided an early common reference point for Canada's first citizens.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #120  
Chapter 12 (p. 288)

### Parliament Hill

Perhaps one of the earliest symbols of identity this period was the Parliament Buildings Ottawa. After Queen Victoria had decided on the compromise of Ottawa (Bytown) as the colonial capital in 1857 rather than the more established Toronto, Kingston, Montreal, or Quebec City construction of the elaborate and impressive buildings began. Farther from the border, her surprise choice of Ottawa appeared much safer from the potentially threatening Americans.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #121  
Chapter 13 (p. 318)

### The Visual Arts

James Morrice of Montreal, inspired by the American painter James Whistler and French artist Henri Matisse, painted foreign scenes in bold colours.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #122  
Chapter 13 (p. 321)

Three years later in 1917, the NHA became the National Hockey League (NHL) and targeted larger Canadian urban , centres. It was not too long before expansion into the United States would change the face of hockey. Many, from Ken Dryden to Roy MacGregor have seen hockey as the enduring Canadian metaphor. If that is the case, arguably at no time was it more valid than turn-of-the-century Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #123  
Chapter 19 (p. 468)

After World War II, the world changed greatly—and so too did Canada’s position in it. Even before the Allies had split into two hostile camps: the liberal western democracies and the communist Soviet bloc. The hostilities between the United States (the dominant nation of the western world) and the Soviet Union (the dominant nation of the communist world) threatened to start World War III, a war that would be fought with nuclear weapons.

Canada was longer seen as an inevitable ally of Britain. Britain was preoccupied with rebuilding after the devastation of World War II. As a result, Canada’s relationship with Britain, France, and the United States underwent dramatic changes, as did its role in the Commonwealth.

Under these circumstances, Canada sought to develop an independent peacekeeping role, principally through the United Nations, of which it was a key founder. The peacekeeping role had major advantages for Canada: It enabled the country to avoid complete identification with the United States, and it offered a genuine opportunity to work for peace, perhaps even to help prevent a nuclear war.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #124  
Chapter 19 (p. 514)  
Key Postwar Social Changes

After World War II, Canada experienced a huge increase in the annual birth rate, an increase that came to be called the Baby Boom. More than 400 000 babies were born each year, peaking at 479 000 in 1959. In comparison, only 253 000 babies were born in 1940. In fact, Canada experienced the largest proportionate increase in births in the western world, nearly “half a baby” per person more than the United States. This trend

had a major effect on Canada's economy and social life throughout the postwar period and even today.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #125

Chapter 21 (p. 530)

Canadian Culture on the Brink of Extinction?

The commissioners' resulting 1951 report was a wake-up call to government. They reported, "No novelist, poet, short story writer, historian, biographer, or other writer of non-technical books can make even a modestly comfortable living by selling his work in Canada. No composer of music can live on what Canada pays him for his compositions. Apart from radio drama, no playwright, and only a few actors and producers, can live by working in the theatre in Canada." In other words, Canadians either starved at home or went abroad. The commissioners also warned that unless Canada acted to enable Canadians to make a living in homegrown cultural industries, the country would soon be overwhelmed by American culture. A distinctive Canadian cultural or intellectual life would cease to exist.

Canada is anemic, it must be nourished, and this 'will cost money.' The commission's report also revealed an embarrassing fact: Most support for the arts in Canada actually came from American foundations such as Carnegie and Rockefeller.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #126

Chapter 21 (p. 531)

Report on the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters, and Sciences

In the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters, and Sciences, the introduction deals with the growing dependence of Canada on the United States for its money and culture. In these excerpts, the Commission discusses the infusion of American money into the development of Canada's cultural institutions, which was needed for a country that is so vast and has a sparse population. But as the report states, "We have

gained much. In this preliminary stock-taking of Canadian cultural life it may be fair to inquire whether we have gained a little too much.”

9. We are thus deeply indebted to American generosity. Money has flowed across the border from such groups as the Carnegie Corporation, which has spent \$7,346,188 in Canada since 1911 and the Rockefeller Foundation, to which we are indebted for the sum of \$11,817,707 since 1914. . Applied with wisdom and imagination, these gifts have helped Canadians to live their own life and to develop a better Canadianism.... Many institutions in Canada essential to the equipment of a modern nation could not have been established or maintained without money provided from the United States....

11. Finally, we benefit from vast importations of what might be familiarly called the American cultural output. We import newspapers, periodicals, books, maps and endless educational equipment. We also import artistic talent, either personally in the kilometer artist or company, or on the screen, in recordings and over the air. Every Sunday, tens of thousands tacitly acknowledge their cultural indebtedness as they turn off the radio at the close of the Sunday symphony from New York and settle down to the latest American Book of the Month.

12. Granted that most of these American donations are good in themselves, it does not follow that they have always been good for Canadians. We have not much right to be proud of our record as patrons of the arts. Is it possible that, beside the munificence of a Carnegie or a Rockefeller, Canadian contributions look so small that it seems hardly worth while making them? Or have we learned, wrongly, from our neighbour an unnecessary dependence on the , contributions of the rich? A similar unworthy reliance on others appears in another field. Canada sends a number of students abroad, many of them. On fellowships provided by other countries;’ Canada offers very few of her own fellowships to non-Canadians, none at all until very recently., Perhaps we have been tempted by a too easy benevolence, but this leaves us in an undignified position, unworthy of our real power and prestige.

13. Canada has, moreover, paid a heavy price for this easy dependence on charity and especially on American charity. First, many of our best students on completing their studies at American institutions, accept positions there and do not return. The United States wisely relaxes its rigid immigration laws for all members of “learned professions” and profits accordingly....

18. It may be added that we should also have been forced to produce our own educational materials— books, maps, pictures and so forth. As it is, the dependence of English-speaking Canada on the United States for these publications is excessive. In the elementary schools and high schools the actual texts may be produced in Canada, but teachers complain that far too much of the supplementary material is American with an emphasis and direction appropriate for American children but unsuitable for Canadian.

As an illustration of the unsuitability of even the best American material, -- the statement was made in one of our briefs that out of thirty-four children in a Grade VIII class in a Canadian school, nineteen knew all about the significance of July 4 and only seven could explain that of July 1...

25. The American invasion by film, radio and periodical is formidable. Much of what comes to us is good and of this we shall be speaking presently. It has, however, been represented to us that many of the radio programmes have in fact no particular application to Canada or to Canadian conditions and that some of them, including certain children's programmes of the "crime" and "horror" type, are positively harmful. News commentaries too, and even live broadcasts from American sources, are designed for American ears and are almost certain to have an American slant and emphasis by reason of what they include or omit, as well as because of the opinions expressed. We think it permissible to record these comments on American radio since we observe that in the United States many radio programmes and American broadcasting in general have recently been severely criticized. It will, we think, be readily agreed that we in Canada should take measures to avoid in our radio, and in our television, at least those aspects of American broadcasting which have provoked in the United States the most out-spoken and the sharpest opposition....

26. American influences on Canadian to say the least are impressive. There should interfering with the liberty of enjoy them. Cultural exchanges are excellent in themselves. It cannot be denied, however, that a vast and disproportionate amount of material coming from a single alien source may stifle rather than stimulate our own creative effort; and, passively accepted without any standard of comparison, this may weaken critical faculties. We are now spending millions to maintain a national independence which would be nothing but an empty shell without a vigorous and distinctive cultural life. We have seen that we have its elements in our traditions and in our history; we have made important progress, often aided by American generosity. We must not be blind, however, to the very present danger of permanent dependence.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 2

Entry #127

Chapter 21 (p. 533)

The Maturing of the Canadian Publishing Industry

However, in the late 1950s English Canadian publishers found that their customers still read three American or British books for every one Canadian. And Canadians did not read much anyway.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #128

Chapter 21 (p. 537)

Canadian publishers continued to encounter traditional problems throughout the postwar period: the relatively small size of the Canadian population, competition with the United States and Britain, competition from other media, and the expenses of marketing to a widely distributed and diverse population. Nonetheless, during the 1960s, Canadians began to read more books. Between 1969 and 1985 the size of the Canadian market for books rose from \$222 million to \$1.4 billion.

Morely Callaghan (1903-90)

He was probably better known abroad than in Canada, in part because his novels explore universal themes such as time and eternity, the physical versus the spiritual, and the plight of the common people. During the postwar era, many expected a Canadian writer to deal with "Canadian" issues. When the leading American critic Edmund Wilson called him "unjustly neglected" in 1960, many of his earlier works were reprinted.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #129

Chapter 21 (p. 548)

By the 1960s, Canadians were beginning to feel as if they were succeeding with the difficult problem of defining a national identity separate from Britain and the United States. Two public events that testified to this new awareness were the Great Flag Debate and the Centennial Year, whose centrepiece was Expo '67.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #130

Chapter 21 (p. 554)

Many of Expo's 113 foreign, provincial, industrial, and theme pavilions were also architectural achievements. Inside, they provided visitors with state-of-the-art movies, first-of-their-kind products, art, delicacies, and ideas. Many people waited more than five hours to get into the most popular pavilions, such as the United States' stunning geodesic dome, through which the Expo monorail ran.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #131

Unit 7 Opener (p. 562)

The three decades before the turn of the twenty-first century saw a growing number of Canadian artists, scientists, actors, and businesspeople reach international success. Yet Canada remains cautious about the enormous cultural influence of the United States.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #132

Chapter 22 (p. 578)

Pierre Trudeau went to Washington in 1969 and" made a speech in which he said, "Living next to you is like sleeping with an elephant. No matter how friendly and even-tempered is the beast, one is affected by every twitch and grunt. That was his humorous way of describing a serious dilemma. Canada is affected by everything the United States does. In terms of culture, Canada has decided to fight the American influence. Since the movies at our theatres, the songs on our radios, the magazines on our newsstands, and the programs on our televisions are overwhelmingly American, the conclusion may be that Canada is losing the fight. Since the 1930s, however, Canada has tried to protect and nurture the development of its own culture, and in the second half of the twentieth century, that protection became even stronger.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #133

Chapter 22 (p. 579)

In 1971, the CRTC introduced the first requirement for Canadian content on radio stations. The CRTC ruled that 30 percent of the music played on Canadian radio stations between 6 a.m. and midnight had to be Canadian. Radio station owners were convinced that the new CRTC regulations would ruin them as they were making tidy profits by playing American music. Occasionally, they would play a song by Paul Anka (*Diana, Puppy Love*) or The Four Lads (*Moments to Remember, Standing on the Corner*), but most of the time, they played anything but Canadian music.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #134

Chapter 24 (p. 617)

**Free Trade**

Almost as soon as Brian Mulroney took office, he announced to an audience of more than fifteen-hundred Wall Street magnates at the prestigious Economic Club of New York that “Canada is open for business.” When he said he would pursue free trade with the United States, he set off a firestorm of protest that echoed from 7 Canada’s post. Mel Hurtig, a nationalist pub usher, wrote a book called *The Betrayal of Canada* in which he stated that the result of free trade would be “as certain as the fact that you are now reading these words—the destruction and disappearance of our country.” Opponents of free trade argued that once Canada negotiated its economic sovereignty away, its political sovereignty would follow.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #135

Chapter 24 (p. 626)

Cultural sovereignty refers to Canada’s ability to make laws and policies that can effectively protect and promote its culture and cultural industries. Protecting Canada’s cultural sovereignty has been an issue for more than one-hundred years, and as Canada moved toward the twenty-first century, efforts continued to ensure that cultural industries were not overwhelmed by foreign influences. Government initiatives such as the Federal Book Publishing Policy (1972), the Book Publishing Industry Development Program (1986; renewed in 1993), and the Cultural Industries Development Fund (1990) were just three of many policies dedicated to promoting and protecting Canadian culture.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #136

Chapter 24 (p. 627)

The Canadian Football League (CFL) is dear to many Canadian hearts. It has become special to the country because the three-down game is played nowhere else. (The United States plays a four-down game. That means a team has four chances to move the ball ten yards before it has to give up the ball to the other team.) Teams in the CFL are required to employ a fixed number of Canadian players.

Just how important the league is as a symbol was made clear in 1974. The World Football League (WFL) was established with all its teams in the United States, except one—Toronto had a team called the Northmen. The federal government saw this as a threat to the CFL and forced them out. The team moved back to the United States and became the Memphis Southmen.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #137

Epilogue (p. 673)

Canada's peacekeeping have become a respected world police force. As the proverbial mouse keeps the elephant at bay, undaunted by the elephant's size, so too has Canada kept at bay U.S. cultural dominance. Our artists, singers, songwriters, actors, authors, comedians, and athletes are world renowned and respected for their talents.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

### Immigration

Entry #138

Unit 3 Opener (p. 186)

During the century between the conquest of New France and the birth of Confederation, immigrants continued to arrive in the British colonies of North America. They came mainly from the British Isles and from the United States, fleeing civil unrest, oppression, famine, poverty, and slavery. They arrived hoping to find a better life, and they



contributed their cultural identities to the society of their new land. Meanwhile, the Aboriginal Peoples, who were not considered in the various treaties between France, Britain, and the United States, lost ground. More Aboriginal land was taken by settlers, more of their people died in epidemics, and their way of life was changed forever as a result of their trade and military alliances.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #139  
Chapter 8 (p. 198)

#### The United Empire Loyalists

The forty to fifty thousand United Empire Loyalists who came to Canada were a wide-ranging group. Some were British soldiers and colonial militia who had fought with Britain against the American revolutionaries. Others were civilians who had joined the royal British regiments when they were expelled from their hometowns or regions because they wouldn't join the rebels. There were city dwellers and farmers, successful merchants, newspaper owners, blacksmiths, silversmiths, and shop owners. Entire families came; sometimes the families were made up only of women and children, without husbands and fathers who had been killed in the American war. They were all refugees, people who had become embroiled in the conflict and who fled or were exiled from their homeland.

Some of the Loyalists had been leaders in their communities, members of the elected assemblies, who had firm ideas of their rights as citizens under British colonial rule. Although they had rejected revolution, some of the new arrivals held republican ideas and believed that they should have a chance to be represented in their government. These ideas would have an effect on how white, male, property-owning Loyalists viewed their rights as citizens in Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #140  
Chapter 8 (p. 199)

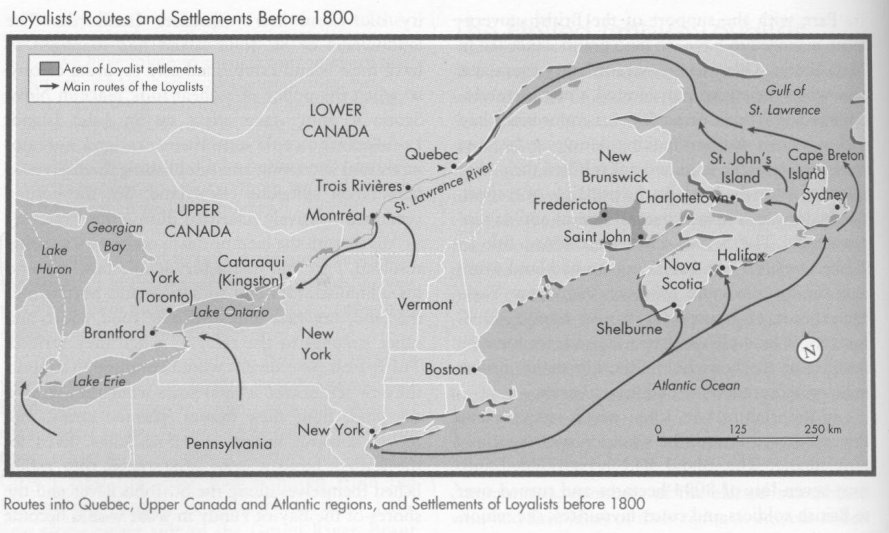
The British Crown reclaimed title to 1.1 hectares in Nova Scotia and so had land available for the incoming refugees from New York. Male heads of households would receive 40.47 hectares of land plus an extra 20 hectares for each member of the household. Retiring senior British military officers received additional acres.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #141  
Chapter 8 (p. 200)

Map showing migration of British loyalists before 1800

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #142  
Chapter 8 (p. 200)

### The Black Loyalists in Nova Scotia

The writers of the American Declaration of Independence and the patriots who demanded freedom for themselves seem not to have noticed the irony in their being, in many cases, slave owners. Though slavery was prohibited in Britain by this time, it was still in effect in the Thirteen Colonies and the economies and wealth of many of the southern plantations depended on slave labour.

Many slaves, including those owned by George Washington, sought refuge among the British. Estimates say that as many as 100 000 African Americans may have fled from their owners during this time. Many were recaptured, and their punishment for escaping was severe. David George, who was born of African slaves in Virginia and who later became a powerful Baptist minister in Nova Scotia, related what happened to his brother when he was caught. "After he had received 500 lashes, they washed his back with salt

water, and whipped it in, as well as rubbed it in with a rag; and then directly sent him to work in pulling off the suckers of tobacco.”

At the end of the war, when George Washington met with Guy Carleton to negotiate the articles of peace between the United States and Britain, one of the first things on Washington’s agenda was his concern that the British should remove any slaves who were the “property” of American citizens. As J.M. Bumstead reports, “every Wednesday between May 30 and August 7, 1783—from 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.—blacks who already held certificates as refugees were liable to be challenged at board meetings at New York City’s Fraunces Tavern.” As a result of these meetings, many African Americans were returned to their slave-owners. Eventually, approximately three thousand free black Loyalists made their way to Nova Scotia. But among the white Loyalist refugees fleeing the Thirteen Colonies were former plantation owners who still owned the slaves they brought with them.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #143

Chapter 8 (p. 201-02)

Many of the refugees had been farmers in the pioneer regions of northern New York, New England, and Pennsylvania. They were accustomed to establishing homes and farms on land that had been forest. Nonetheless, settling the land in the region was difficult, back-breaking and lonely work.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #144

Chapter 8 (p. 203)

Aboriginal Loss of Land

By the terms of the peace between Britain and the United States, all the lands west of the Ohio River and south of the Great Lakes became American territory. During the late 1700s and 1800s, thousands and thousands of American settlers moved westward until they had taken over almost all of the Aboriginal territory that makes up today’s United States.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 2

Entry #145  
Chapter 10 (p. 228)

Some people lived on isolated farms where the roads were poor and communication between places almost nonexistent. New immigrants arrived in one centre swelling the ranks of that locale for a time, and then moved on to Upper Canada or to the United States. For example, in 1831 fifty thousand immigrants from Britain landed in Quebec, but there are no records of where they eventually settled.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #146  
Chapter 10 (p. 228-29)

Landowning was still a source of power and status. In Lower Canada the majority of seigneurs were no longer French-Canadian Catholics but rather English Protestants who had come from England or the United States. In all the colonies, there were also retired military officers on half-pay who tried to establish landed estates with tenant farmers.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #147  
Chapter 13 (p. 298)

The post-Civil War years saw an unprecedented economic boom in the United States. The American “Gilded Age” witnessed a tremendous industrial expansion that was a magnet for both immigrants and capital. Although over 1.5 million immigrants did come to Canada during the decade of the 1880s, the country’s overall population rose very modestly, as there was a net migration of almost two million out of Canada to the United States between 1871 and 1891.

With the return of world prosperity by the mid-1890s and the belief that the American frontier had closed up, immigration to Canada grew substantially and the prairies became more populated.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #148

Chapter 14 (p. 326)

Annual Immigration to Canada

The world-wide depression had earlier restricted Canada's immigration, and the population increased by less than 25 percent between 1881 and 1891. Canada experienced a net outflow of immigration in the 1880s to the United States. Between 1890 and 1910, however, Canada's population increased by almost two thirds. In the first twenty years of the new century, Canada's population went from 5.4 million to 10.4 million.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #149

Chapter 14 (p. 330)

At the turn of the century, Clifford Sifton, Laurier's Minister of the Interior recognized that the time was ripe to attract permanent European settlers and he launched a massive advertising campaign to promote Canada. Using the phrase "The Last Best West," Sifton and his department spent over \$1 million in Britain, continental Europe, and the United States using pamphlets, hundreds of speeches, newspaper articles, and tours to sell the virtues of the Canadian prairies.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #150

Chapter 14 (p. 331)

Sifton (referring to Clifford Sifton) may have articulated an "open door" immigration policy but in reality, by labeling some as "desirable" (British, European, and American), he implicitly was rejecting many others.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #151

Chapter 18 (p. 458)

In the 1930s, German Jews fled Nazi Germany, seeking refuge in the western world. Frederick Blair, in charge of immigration during Mackenzie King's administration, effectively "shut the doors" on Jewish immigrants. Fewer than five thousand Jewish people were allowed into Canada during Hitler's reign, a significantly smaller number than allowed into the United States.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #152

Chapter 23 (p. 592)

Table showing the number of immigrants entering Canada by place of origin and time period.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Definitions and notes	Total – Immigrant Population	Period of immigration				
		Before 1961	1961–1970	1971–1980	1981–1990	1991–1996
		Number				
<b>Total – Place of birth</b>	<b>4 971 070</b>	<b>1 054 930</b>	<b>788 580</b>	<b>996 160</b>	<b>1 092 400</b>	<b>1 038 990</b>
United States	244 695	45 050	50 200	74 015	46 405	29 025
Central and South America	273 820	6 370	17 410	67 470	106 230	76 335
Caribbean and Bermuda	279 405	8 390	45 270	96 025	72 405	57 315
United Kingdom	655 540	265 580	168 140	132 950	63 445	25 420
Other Northern and Western Europe	514 310	284 205	90 465	59 850	48 095	31 705
Eastern Europe	447 830	175 430	40 855	32 280	111 370	87 900
Southern Europe	714 380	288 145	244 380	131 620	57 785	52 455
Africa	229 300	4 945	25 685	58 150	64 265	76 260
West-central Asia and the Middle East	210 850	4 975	15 165	30 980	77 685	82 050
Eastern Asia	589 420	20 555	38 865	104 940	172 715	252 340
South-east Asia	408 985	2 485	14 040	111 700	162 490	118 265
Southern Asia	353 515	4 565	28 875	80 755	99 270	140 055
Oceania and Other	49 025	4 250	9 240	15 420	10 240	9 875

Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census Nation Tables.

Number of immigrants entering Canada by place of origin and time period.

Entry #153

Chapter 23 (p. 594)

In 1965, John Porter, a University of Toronto sociologist, wrote *The Vertical Mosaic*. Porter analyzed the ethnic backgrounds of the elites in Canadian society and found that those with a British background were overrepresented. He also found that in Quebec, French-speaking people were rapidly gaining similar power. The idea of Canadian society as a “mosaic” was already popular. Unlike the American “melting pot,” where immigrants were encouraged to adopt the habits and traditions of people already in the country, the mosaic described people with cultural “differences coming together to make a country.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

### People

Entry #154  
Chapter 7 (p. 166)

Vaudreuil (referring to Pierre de Rigaud de Vaudreuil), a native French Canadian, knew the country and believed that his strategies would keep Quebec from being conquered by the British. He wanted to strengthen the Canadian militia with thirty-six hundred French regular troops, co-ordinate large numbers of Aboriginal war parties with the French force, and launch a series of surprise guerrilla raids at various points along the wide American frontier.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #155  
Chapter 7 (p. 178)

In the regions to the west of the Thirteen Colonies, instead of settlers being removed from the land as had been promised, they continued to move into Aboriginal territory. No matter what the British assurances to the Aboriginal Peoples, land speculators—including George Washington and Benjamin Franklin—were not going to be prevented from taking over Aboriginal lands and selling it in parcels to those who wanted to move west into what was still known as Indian territory.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #156  
Chapter 8 (p. 190)

Guy Cadeton, Governor of Quebec  
Sir Guy Carleton, an Irish army officer and the 1<sup>st</sup> Baron of Dorchester, became lieutenant governor of Quebec in 1766 and governor in 1768. In his early years as

governor, he was very concerned about the security of the colony. Worried that the growing discontent in the Thirteen Colonies might spread to Quebec, he also faced the threat that France might try to reclaim its territory, and a possible revolt by the French-Canadian majority. Only 1627 British troops and 500 British immigrants lived in Quebec compared to 69 275 conquered French and 7400 Aboriginal People.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3  
Entry #157  
Chapter 8 (p. 200-01)

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Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #158



Chapter 8 (p. 202)

John Graves Simcoe was appointed the first lieutenant governor of Upper Canada. He had served as an infantry officer with the British during the American Revolution and then as a British member of parliament. His dream for Upper Canada was that he would make it a model of England and by so doing would encourage settlers to come from the United States. He believed that many Americans would eventually grow tired of the democratic culture in the United States, and would be persuaded to come to his colony if it embodied “British Customs, Manners and Principles in the most trivial as well as serious matters.”

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #159

Chapter 10 (p. 210)

In Lower Canada, the Bishop of Quebec, Joseph-Octave Plessis, preached to the French Canadians a stern message of support for the British and a horror of the republican ideas of the Americans. Those “godless” ideas were too much like the cries of the French revolutionaries who had so recently declared that they would turn France from a Catholic into an atheistic country. France had gone through its own revolution just a few years before and the atheism of the new order horrified the Catholic hierarchy in Canada. Whether the bishop’s message influenced the French Canadians or not, the Americans met with little success in their battles for Lower Canada.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 1      Rater #2: 3

Entry #160

Chapter 9 (p. 210)

**Tecumseh**

Tecumseh, like Joseph Brant before him, tried to unite the Aboriginal Peoples—the Delaware, Wyandot, Kickapoo, Seneca, and Potawatomi—to prevent the American takeover of their lands in the Ohio valley. Tecumseh was a respected ally of Isaac Brock; Brock said of him, “A more ... gallant Warrior does not I believe exist.”<sup>5</sup>

Once the British had promised to help the Aboriginal Peoples regain their lands in the Ohio valley, Tecumseh travelled from village to village trying to convince his people to ally themselves with the British and the Canadians. He well knew that the loss of Aboriginal lands was inevitable unless they could defeat the land-hungry Americans.

Researcher: 1 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #161

Chapter 9 (p. 211)

Tecumseh was a brilliant military strategist and was a contributing factor in the Canadians being able to defend their land against the Americans. At the battle for Fort Detroit, for example, he paraded his warriors in front of the fort three times to give the Americans the impression that his force was larger than it actually was. General Brock, who was present, also used subterfuge, dressing his militia in red coats so that the Americans would think they were dealing with professional British troops. Not only did Tecumseh's friends, like Brock, respect him but also so did his enemies. William Harrison, who had acquired land title to large areas of what is now Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Illinois and who wanted the Aboriginal Peoples out of the territory, said of Tecumseh that he was "one of those uncommon geniuses which spring up occasionally to produce revolutions."

Tecumseh was killed when he and his warriors stayed to fight the Americans after the British-led retreat from the battle near Moraviantown (present day Thamesville). Tecumseh had been thoroughly disgusted with what he saw as the cowardice of the British commander, General Henry Proctor, who retreated as soon as the Americans attacked. Tecumseh and his five hundred warriors faced the American force of three thousand alone. Tecumseh died, still fighting for his people and his cause. Proctor was later court martialled for his actions on that day.

With Tecumseh died his dream of an Aboriginal Confederacy with sufficient strength to rid their land of the invaders. With the end of the War of 1812, there was no stopping the American expansion west. The real losers of the war of 1812 were the Aboriginal Peoples.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #162

Chapter 11 (p. 264)

Sir John Macdonald

Macdonald knew the reality of the threat that the American Civil War brought to the colonies and hoped they would be better able to defend themselves if they were united.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #163

Chapter 12 (p. 288)

Queen Victoria

After Queen Victoria had decided on the compromise of Ottawa (Bytown) as the colonial capital in 1857 rather than the more established Toronto, Kingston, Montreal, or Quebec City, construction of the elaborate and impressive buildings began. Farther from the border, her surprise choice of Ottawa appeared much safer from the potentially threatening Americans.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #164

Chapter 12 (p. 291)

Calixa Lavallee, Adolphe Routhier, and Robert Stanley Weir

A musical symbol of early Canadian identity appeared in 1880. After an adventuresome life that included fighting and being wounded in the American Civil War and musical performances in the United States, South America, Mexico, and the West Indies, Calixa Lavallee wrote the score for what would become *O Canada*. In 1880, he received a request to set to music a patriotic poem written in French by Adolphe-Basile Routhier. It was a rousing success at its initial performance on the Plains of Abraham for the 1880 St. Jean Baptiste celebrations. It would be exactly one hundred years, less fourteen days, when on July 1, 1980, the composition, with Lavallee's music, French lyrics by Judge Adolphe Routhier, and English lyrics by Robert Stanley Weir, was officially proclaimed the Canadian national anthem. Interestingly, Weir, another Quebec judge, penned the English lyrics thirty years after Routhier had written the French version, but the English version is not a direct translation of the original French.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #165

Chapter 17 (p. 407)

Prime Minister MacKenzie King

In April 1930, rankled by Conservative calls for federal assistance to alleviate the crisis in the provinces, King declared that he would not give them a “five-cent piece.” Why should he give assistance to provinces, often led by Conservative governments that were opposed to his policies? King’s views on the role of government assistance might well have echoed those of U.S. President Calvin Coolidge who declared, “the business of government was business.” King believed that any solution to the crisis would have to come in the form of a business-led recovery. In his “five-cent speech” King claimed that in drawing attention to the unemployment problem the opposition would only highlight the negative state of the economy and discourage foreign investors from investing in the Canadian economy.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #166

Chapter 17 (p. 418)

Prime Minister R.B. Bennett

In January 1935, Bennett addressed the nation in a series of radio broadcasts. Astonished Canadians listened as the Conservative prime minister announced that the old Toryism was dead, that the free competition in the market place they had known had lost its place and had to be replaced by government regulation and control. He proposed a “New Deal” fashioned after Franklin Delano Roosevelt’s in the United States. In this excerpt from Bennett’s “New Deal” speech that he delivered to the nation over the radio, Bennett endorsed a proposed a government program of unemployment insurance.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #167

Chapter 21 (p. 537)

Morley Callahan

**Morley Callaghan (1903-90)**

Callaghan, who worked as a journalist in Toronto and Montreal, published novels from 1928 to 1983. He received the Governor General's Award for *The Loved and the Lost* in 1951, which is thought by many to be his masterpiece. He was probably better known abroad than in Canada, in part because his novels explore universal themes such as time and eternity, the physical versus the spiritual, and the plight of the common people. During the postwar era, many expected a Canadian writer to deal with "Canadian" issues. When the leading American critic Edmund Wilson called him "unjustly neglected" in 1960, many of his earlier works were reprinted.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #168

Chapter 21 (p. 538)

**Hugh MacLennan (1907-90)**

MacLennan, who was born in Nova Scotia but taught at McGill University in Montreal (1951—81), is remembered as the first significant English-speaking writer to deal with Canada's "national character." His writings explored the Halifax Explosion (*Barometer Rising*, 1941), which he survived when he was ten years old, English—French conflict in Quebec (*Two Solitudes*, 1945), and the differences between Canada and the United States. *Two Solitudes* is probably his best-known novel, and its title has been widely used to describe the conflict between English and French identities in Quebec.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #169

Chapter 25 (p. 657)

National Chief Matthew Coon Come

During this opposition campaign, Coon Come displayed a commanding grasp of both politics and public relations. In 1990 he masterminded a canoe trip by Cree elders from James Bay, down the Hudson River to a press conference in New York. The publicity helped generate public opposition to the project. As a result, New York State cancelled contracts to purchase electricity from Hydro Quebec. In 1992 the Cree succeeded in forcing Hydro Quebec to conduct an environmental assessment on Great Whale. The

Cree won the environmental battle in November 1994 when the Quebec premier announced the suspension of the Great Whale project. For this important environmental achievement, in 1994 Coon Come was awarded the international Goldman Prize, which is considered the Nobel Prize of environmental awards.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

### Political Sovereignty

Entry #170  
Chapter 9 (p. 213)

The political system then in place throughout the colonies of Canada gave the real power to the British governor and to his executive and legislative councils who were appointed for life. Colonial” governors might come and go, but the councils remained. These men—many of whom had arrived as Loyalist refugees after the American Revolution— formed an oligarchy. Not only did they make up the governor’s councils, but they also held the highest bureaucratic and judicial positions. They were well-connected men of property with commercial interests to defend.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #171  
Chapter 9 (p. 213)

#### Reform in Upper Canada

Historian David Mills states that the Family Compact members of Upper Canada drew upon Loyalist beliefs that the ideal society would be “strengthened by its imperial connection and hostile to the U.S. It idealized British institutions such as a balanced constitution, a hierarchical society and an established church.”

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #172  
Chapter 9 (p. 214)

After facing more blocks from the executive councils, Mackenzie and a committee of other reformers wrote a report documenting abuses of government power and recommending political reform. Mackenzie began to advocate an American- style

democracy in which the legislative councils as well as the assembly would be elected by the people.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #173  
Chapter 9 (p. 216)

However, the larger forces of trained British troops had little difficulty defeating the Patriots at St. Charles on the Richeheu River. Before the rebellion was over St. Denis had been destroyed and at St. Eustache, fifty-eight Patriots were killed and “their homes burned. The British declared martial law in the colony and the rebel leaders, including Papineau, fled to the United States.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #174  
Chapter 11 (p. 255)

The British North American reform movements early in the nineteenth century may have led to rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada, but most people in the colonies wanted neither rebellion nor the republican form of government of the United States. The reform movements of the 1820s, 1830s, and 1840s were generally quite conservative in spirit with most reformers wanting to reform the colonial system and preserve the older traditions that were being threatened by economic and social conditions.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #175  
Chapter 11 (p. 267)

However, the Canadian government that was created with Confederation was the product of political, regional, and cultural compromises. It combined aspects of both the British and American systems, and it tried to address the needs of both French and English cultures and several different regional identities.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #176  
Chapter 11 (p. 268)

Pointing to the American Civil War and its roots in the principle of states' rights, Macdonald had argued that the American started their republic "at the wrong end." Because they had "declared by their Constitution that each state was a sovereignty in itself, and that all the powers incident to a sovereignty belonged to each state, except those powers which, by the Constitution, were conferred upon the General Government and Congress" they were doomed to civil war. Macdonald went on, Here we have adopted a different system. We have strengthened the General Government. We have given the General Legislature all the great subjects of legislation. We have conferred on them, not only specifically and in detail, all the powers which are incident to sovereignty, but we have expressly declared that all subjects of general interest not distinctly and exclusively conferred upon the local governments and local legislatures, shall be conferred upon the General Government and Legislature.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #177  
Chapter 12 (p. 272)

Chapter opener  
In this unit you will analyse how Canada's changing relationships with France, Britain, and the United States have influenced the formation and transformation of Canada's identity.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #178  
Chapter 12 (p. 276)

To Join or Not to Join

The Canadian government soon realized that not only had the work of building a nation just begun, it also had to fight to keep the provinces that had already joined Confederation from repealing their decision. Anti-confederate emotions ran high in many colonies, but economic troubles and the constant threat of annexation by the United States forced many colonies to reconsider. Determined to expand the boundaries of



Canada, Macdonald and his successors would see their dream of a nation come true, but at the cost of wounds that even today, remain unhealed.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #179  
Chapter 12 (p. 276)

Industry and trade with the United States stagnated at the end of the American Civil War and it was felt that the promised federal tariffs would kill what was left of their lucrative trade with New England. The old idea of combining the four Maritime colonies was offered as the answer to their problems. It had been the original idea for the convening of the Charlottetown Conference at the beginning of September 1864.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #180  
Chapter 12 (p. 306)

The new machines were not limited to wheat farming. The cream-separator, designed in 1900, revolutionized the dairy industry. The perfecting and popularizing of canning as a means of food preservation was another important advance. So too were refrigerated railway cars. Perhaps the single greatest technological improvement in the quality of rural life was Bell's telephone. It helped end countryside isolation. Again, as with farm machinery, phones were not quickly or easily installed in rural Canada, and even until fairly recently, many rural western settlements shared phone lines.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #181  
Chapter 13 (p. 308)

Another organization from the United States the International Workers of the World (IWW), came north to try and organize the labourers. The "Wobblies" as they became known, rejected traditional unions and focused on using the strike as the bargaining tool to better the inhumane conditions of the workers. While the IWW did not find a large audience in Canada, they did have a strong following of railway construction workers from western Canada and northern Ontario.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #182

Chapter 13 (p. 314)

Taking their cue from well-publicized American “muckrakers” (Teddy Roosevelt applied the label to writers who exposed evil and corruption) such as Jacob Riis (*How the Other Half Lives*), Lincoln Steffens (*The Shame of the City*), and Upton Sinclair (*The Jungle*), Canadian reformers attempted to expose and attack the same urban ills.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #183

Chapter 14 (p. 336)

Growing Ties and Tensions with the United States

Canada had experienced an earlier foray into the intricate world of international diplomacy that had served to point out its need for autonomy. As Canada began to move away from Britain, it became increasingly involved with the United States in a series of contentious issues.

Alaska Boundary Dispute

The most serious tension occurred in 1903 with the Alaska Boundary dispute. At issue, particularly after the Klondike gold rush, was the location of the international boundary between Canada and Alaska, stretching one thousand kilometers down the coast of Yukon and British Columbia. Exactly where the line was drawn would determine how the Lynn Canal was divided and who would own the valuable port town of Skagway. American President Theodore (Teddy) Roosevelt, recognizing that Britain wanted to maintain good relations between their two countries, took the offensive. It was decided that resolution would be sought through a six-man joint commission. Three “judges” on the panel would be American, two Canadian, and one, Lord Alverstone, would be British. Given the fact that the American judges were anything but neutral—they had all in fact come out publicly in favour of the American position—the result was a largely a foregone conclusion: four to two for the U.S. claim. Lord Alverstone, not wanting to antagonize Roosevelt, voted with the U.S. secretary of war and two American senators.

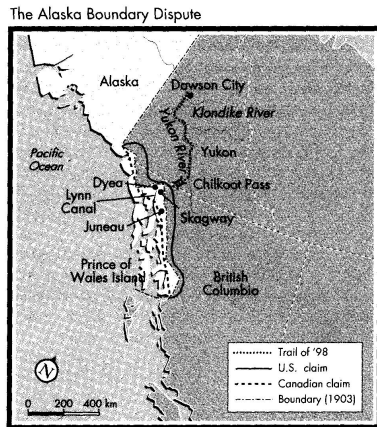
Many Canadians were outraged that their national interests had been sacrificed by

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

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #184

Chapter 14 (p. 339)



Map of Alaska Boundary Dispute

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #185

Chapter 14 (p. 339)

Picture of placards relating to reciprocity agreement and trade with the United States

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3



Before the 1911 general election, the windows of the offices of the *Toronto Star* and *Toronto News* newspapers echoed the arguments for and against reciprocity in trade with the United States.

Entry #186

Chapter 16 (p. 385)

King was proud of his new autonomous foreign policy. A more independent Canadian identity had been forged. He had no reservations about an independent Canada with close association with both Britain and the United States. In his view, Canada could act as a crucial mediator between the two, ensuring that Canada would emerge on the world stage as a vital and useful nation. Unfortunately, for King, the western world in the interwar years was isolationist and Britain and the United States were not eager to have the young nation play such a vital role. Nevertheless, the role of mediator between Britain and the United States would remain central to King's foreign policy for years to come.

#### Industrialization and Americanization

In the twenties, Canada experienced unprecedented growth in industrial development. But it was unevenly distributed and did not entirely occur as Canadian economic nationalists would have wished.

As Canada's economic welfare depended largely on exports, when wartime demand for raw materials disappeared, the Canadian economy went into depression. The situation was made worse by the introduction of American tariffs in 1921 and 1922. In 1921 the Canadian gross national product slipped by 20.1 percent and the value of exports dropped 60 percent in the years from 1920 to 1922. Virtually every sector of the Canadian economy was affected. Businesses closed and unemployment rose. High inflation rates hampered business investment and consumer spending. The government refused to act saying that interfering with economic laws would only prolong hardship. Only in 1924 did it become apparent that economic growth had returned. U.S. loans to Britain and other European countries opened the markets for Canadian goods, such as grain and pulp and paper, once again.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #187

Chapter 19 (p. 493)

Meanwhile, the Jehovah's Witnesses, a religious sect that had been persecuted in Quebec after World War II, had been floating the idea of a bill of rights that would guarantee freedom of religion and other civil rights. Drawing on his law experience, Diefenbaker proposed such a Bill of Rights for Canada. The Bill recognized the right of individuals to life, liberty, personal security, and enjoyment of property, as well as equality before the law, freedom of religion, speech, assembly, association, the press, and the right to legal counsel and to a fair hearing. Under the Bill, laws were not to be interpreted in such a way as to undermine these rights and freedoms.

Diefenbaker would have preferred a Bill of Rights that was part of Canada's Constitution, in the way that the U.S. Bill of Rights was part of the American Constitution. Such a bill is difficult to change, set aside, or undermine. However, in 1960, Canada's Constitution was still the British North America (BNA) Act and under the control of the British Parliament. Because of federal—provincial conflict, bringing the Constitution to Canada and changing it would be no simple matter, as Pierre Trudeau later discovered. Diefenbaker settled for what he knew he could get at the time—a Bill of Rights that was simply legislated by Parliament.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #188

Chapter 20 (p. 521)

The Growth of Government Social Programs

During the postwar period, Canadians began to expect government to play an increasing role in promoting their health and well-being. They were comfortable with government intervention—as long as it worked. After all, governments had intervened heavily in wartime, and it *had* worked, in the sense that the Allies had won the war. By contrast, during the early part of the Great Depression, the federal government had trusted the economy to right itself, but it had not. Because of this historical experience, the Canadian public was ready to turn to the government for solutions to social problems—and government was ready to provide them.

In that respect, Canada differed significantly from the United States. The United States had ten times the population, a much stronger economy, and thus a much stronger tradition of free enterprise. Canada could seldom prevail in direct competition with much larger nations. Canadians turned to their government to forge a high standard of living so that they could market talents and resources effectively in a world where Canada was a middle power.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #189

Chapter 20 (p. 522)

Comprehensive health care is regularly cited by Canadians as a way in which Canada differs favourably from the United States, which has not been able to enact such a system.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #190

Chapter 24 (p. 624)

Political cartoon relating forest industry and trade tariffs with Canada

Researcher: 1      Rater #1: 1      Rater #2: 1



Entry #191

Chapter 24 (p. 624-25)

Since 1998, more than 50 000 people have left British Columbia for Alberta and Ontario. Between 2000 and 2002, British Columbia's economy was crippled by the softwood lumber trade dispute between the United States and Canada. Arguing that the Canadian softwood lumber industry heavily subsidized and is undercutting American wood, the United States government placed a 19.3 percent tax on softwood imports from Canada and added a "dumping duty" of 12.57 percent in 2001. In 2002, the dispute was still going strong, and the American Trade Ambassador stated that the trade war would continue unless the Canadian government taxed its softwood exports. Since it affects one of British Columbia's biggest economic sectors, the softwood lumber trade war has cost thousands of jobs and created disagreements between the province and central Canada. The B.C. Lumber Trade Council believes that the Canadian government should accommodate the export tax, while the Free Trade Lumber Councils in Ontario and Quebec want to fight it out with the United States. Not only has the trade war further alienated British Columbia from central Canada, it has also greatly hampered British Columbia's economic recovery.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #192

Chapter 24 (p. 624-25)

### Arctic Sovereignty

Protecting Canada's waters was at issue in the summer of 1985, when the United States sent a Coast Guard cutter, *Polar Sea*, through the Northwest Passage from Greenland to Alaska. Canada has always claimed the Northwest Passage as internal waters, which means that any other country that wants to sail a vessel through them needs Canada's permission. The *Polar Sea* did not have that permission.

The United States considers the Passage an international waterway, free to use. Canada argues that the area is unique in that the water is frozen much of the year and used as land, and the Indigenous peoples of the area are economically dependent on the water. That being the case, says Canada, it is justified in claiming sovereignty.

Canada told the United States it considered the *Polar Sea* incident an "unfriendly act." It promised to build the world's most powerful icebreaker to patrol the surface of the Arctic Ocean and buy nuclear submarines to patrol beneath it, but it did neither. Still, in 1988, the United States, without accepting Canada's claim of sovereignty, signed the Agreement on Arctic Co-operation, in which it agreed to ask for Canadian permission for U.S. government-owned or government-operated ships to use the Northwest Passage.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

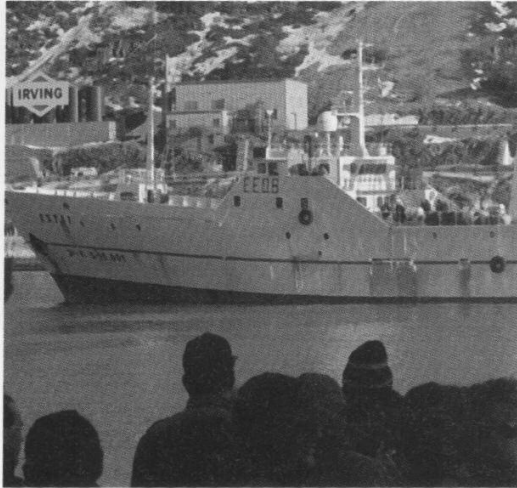
Entry #193

Chapter 24 (p. 625)

Picture of Coast Guard cutter *Polar Sea* traversing the Northwest Passage

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3





The US ship *Polar Sea* traversing the Northwest Passage

Entry #194

Chapter 25 (p. 644)

In the early 1970s, the federal government began developing plans to build a pipeline that would carry American oil and gas from the Prudhoe Bay field in Alaska, through the Mackenzie River Valley, and into the United States. Under increasing pressure from the Dene to examine the effects of the pipeline on the local people and the environment, the Trudeau government appointed Justice Thomas Berger to head an inquiry into the potential impact of a pipeline.

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### World Relations

Entry #195

Unit 6 Opener (p. 466)

Before World War II ended, the Allies had split into two camps — democratic states and their allies versus communist states and their allies. Canada occupied an uneasy middle position between the United States and the Soviet Union. Canada, which was slowly becoming a multicultural society, sought to develop an independent peacekeeping role in a nuclear-armed world. However, Canada was also challenged at home by Quebec's Quiet Revolution, workers rights, and the need for human rights policies to overcome past injustices.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #196

Chapter 19 (p. 468)

After World War II, the world changed greatly—and so too did Canada’s position in it. Even before the war ended, the Allies had split into two hostile camps: the liberal western democracies and the communist Soviet bloc. The hostilities between the United States (the dominant nation of the western world) and the Soviet Union (the dominant nation of the communist world) threatened to start World War III, a war that would be fought with nuclear weapons.

Canada was no longer seen as an inevitable ally of Britain. Britain was preoccupied with rebuilding after the devastation of World War II. As a result, Canada’s relationships with Britain, France, and the United States underwent dramatic changes, as did its role in the Commonwealth.

Under these circumstances, Canada sought to develop an independent peacekeeping role, principally through the United Nations, of which it was a key founder. The peacekeeping role had major advantages for Canada: It enabled the country to avoid complete identification with the United States, and it offered a genuine opportunity to work for peace, perhaps even to help prevent a nuclear war.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #197

Chapter 19 (p. 479)

The Cold War, like World War II, was the source of many inventions. For example, in 1962, the U.S. Air Force asked a RAND Corporation employee to develop a way to maintain control of Air Force operations in the event of a nuclear attack. The employee suggested a computer telecommunications network in which each computer would communicate as an equal, sending a packet of data exactly as if it were a letter in an envelope. Such a system would be hard to destroy because it did not require a central computer, whose destruction would shut down the system. A network of this type was built for the U.S. Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) in 1968 and was called the ARPANET. Because many people found this method of sending information very

convenient, the network quickly grew beyond ARPA, at which point it became known as the Internet.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #198

Chapter 19 (p. 479)

#### Evolution of Canada's Peacekeeping Role

Canada's identity as a peacekeeping nation arose in large part from the Cold War. Being sprawled between two hostile powers and being much weaker than either, Canada could not afford to be hostile or neutral. Its interest lay in identifying with the United States and using the opportunity to promote peace and workable compromises in world affairs. One way of promoting peace was through the United Nations.

#### Canada's Role in the United Nations

The expression "United Nations" first referred to a group of twenty-six nations, including Canada, who pledged in 1942 to continue to fight the Axis powers. It was understood that once the enemy had been defeated, the world had to find a better way to settle disputes than world wars. In 1945, fifty countries, including Canada, drew up a UN Charter in San Francisco. Most Canadians subscribed to what the new organization stood for: cooperation among sovereign states to promote their common interest in international peace and security, friendly relations, and solutions for international economic, social, cultural, and humanitarian problems.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #199

Chapter 20 (p. 517)

In 1947 and 1953, Canadians were struck by epidemics of polio, a contagious disease of the spinal cord, which left many of its victims paralyzed. Some died; others survived but never left their "iron lungs," large tubular structures that enabled paralyzed survivors to breathe. The American president during World War II, Franklin Roosevelt, was paralyzed in both legs because of the polio he contracted in 1921.

Canadian scientists played a key role in eradicating polio. American physician Jonas Salk had developed a vaccine against the disease, but there was no simple way of safely

producing enough virus to manufacture sufficient quantities of vaccine. The “Toronto Method” developed at the University of Toronto in 1953, used a synthetic medium to grow enough virus to start a vaccination program. The polio program that followed was the largest field trial in medical history, and the Toronto method proved its worth. In Canada, the number of polio cases shrank from 4755 in 1952 to 1886 in 1959. By 1962, thanks to vaccination, polio had all but disappeared.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #200

Chapter 22 (p. 576-77)

The agency (referring to the Canada Development Corporation) determined whether a proposed takeover would actually benefit Canada. The United States government (most foreign investment in Canada since the end of World War II has been from the United States) protested that FIRA was a hindrance to good business, and Canada suddenly had a reputation for being unfriendly to capitalism. In fact, although FIRA reviews often delayed takeovers, more than 90 percent of the deals it examined were allowed to go through.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #201

Chapter 22 (p. 577-78)

Creating a New Foreign Policy

The NEP and FIRA were points of contention in Canada’s relationship with the United States—our most important international partner—but there were many other irritants. Generally, sharing a border with a country as friendly as the United States is a blessing for Canada, and that was certainly acknowledged throughout the Trudeau years. In a speech to a joint session of the American Congress in 1977, Trudeau said, “The friendship between our two countries is so basic, so non-negotiable, that **it** has long since been regarded as the standard for enlightened international relations. No Canadian leader would be permitted by his electorate consciously to weaken it. Indeed, no Canadian leader would wish to, and certainly not this one.” But the American president from 1969 to 1976, Richard Nixon, did not return the sentiment, saying that he found the Canadian prime minister too much of a pacifist, too much of a “small-I” liberal.

In 1970, Canada startled the world by recognizing the People’s Republic of China as the legitimate government of China, rather than the Taiwan regime. It had been twenty years

since communist Mao Zedong had seized power in Mainland China, but most of the world, and particularly western democracies such as the United States, still recognized Taiwan as the legitimate government. Canada's recognition of the People's Republic of China signalled that Trudeau was steering a foreign policy course independent from the United States. Trudeau was also the first NATO leader to visit and establish trade with Cuba since Fidel Castro had taken control in 1959. The Americans considered Canada's trade ties to communist Cuba an affront to the Western Hemisphere.'

Trudeau further infuriated Americans with his attitude toward NATO. He actually considered pulling Canada out of the alliance and thought about declaring Canada a neutral country, supporting neither the communists nor the west. In the end, the government did not go so far as to leave NATO, but **it** did reorder its defence commitments, listing NATO third in priority after national sovereignty and peacekeeping. Ottawa cut the number of Canadian troops in Europe in half, to about five thousand. Canada was then contributing less per capita to NATO than any other member.

In 1971, during a visit to the Soviet Union, Trudeau stated that the American giant next door posed, "a danger to our national identity from a cultural, economic and perhaps even military point of view." President Nixon, in Ottawa in 1972, was just as blunt: "It is time for us to recognize that we have very separate identities; that we have significant differences; and that nobody's interests are furthered when these realities are obscured." The United States would not provide Canada with special treatment as long as Canada was willing to go against U.S. foreign policies.

As it tried to distance itself economically and culturally from the United States, Canada looked to relationships with other countries.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 4

Entry #202

Chapter 22 (p. 577)

Picture of Pierre Trudeau and Richard Nixon with caption

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2



Canada-U.S. relations—like sleeping with an elephant?  
Pierre Trudeau and Richard Nixon meet in Canada.

### Entry #203

Chapter 22 (p. 578)

#### Cultural Sovereignty

Pierre Trudeau went to Washington in 1969 and made a speech in which he said, “Living next to you is like sleeping with an elephant. No matter how friendly and even-tempered is the beast, one is affected by every twitch and grunt.” That was his humorous way of describing a serious dilemma. Canada is affected by everything the United States does. In terms of culture, Canada has decided to fight the American influence. Since the movies at our theatres, the songs on our radios, the magazines on our newsstands, and the programs on our televisions are overwhelmingly American, the conclusion may be that Canada is losing the fight. Since the 1930s, however, Canada has tried to protect and nurture the development of its own culture, and in the second half of the twentieth century, that protection became even stronger.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

### Entry #204

Chapter 24 (p. 627)

#### Saving Canadian Football

The Canadian Football League (CFL) is dear to many Canadian hearts. It has become special to the country because the three-down game is played nowhere else. (The United States plays a four-down game. That means a team has four chances to move the ball ten

yards before it has to give up the ball to the other team.) Teams in the CFL are required to employ a fixed number of Canadian players.

Just how important the league is as a symbol was made clear in 1974. The World Football League (WFL) was established with all its teams in the United States, except one—Toronto had a team called the Northmen. The federal government saw this as a threat to the CFL and forced them out. The team moved back to the United States and became the Memphis Southmen.

Even with government help, the CFL has had a shaky history. The league has never had a team in Atlantic Canada, reasoning that the market is too small. But in 1993, the CFL expanded into the United States, adding a team in Sacramento, California. It later moved into Las Vegas, Shreveport, Baltimore, San Antonio, Memphis, and Birmingham.

The foray into the United States was a failure, and it certainly did not seem like much of a Canadian league when Baltimore won the Grey Cup in 1995. (The Cup was donated to the Canadian Rugby Union in 1909 by Governor General Earl Grey. It has been the CFL's trophy since 1954.) In 1996, all the American teams folded and the CFL was all-Canadian again. The league still teeters periodically on the verge of collapse. Still, the Grey Cup telecast is usually the highest rated sports program of the year on television in Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #205

Chapter 24 (p. 627-28)

Still, when Marc Garneau flew on a U.S. space shuttle, it marked an important milestone for the country, making **it** part of the most “glamorous” aspect of space exploration.

Canada was much more aggressive in its pursuit of space than it is usually given credit for. It did not compete with the Russians or the Americans in the “space race” to the moon in the 1960’s in the “space race” to the moon in the 1960s, but it quietly built a record of achievement. In 1962, Canada launched a research satellite, *Alouette 1*. Canada was the third country after the Soviet Union and the United States to design and build its own satellite. (No launches happened in Canada; the American space agency, NASA,

provided those facilities.) In 1972, compelled by its large territory to find better ways of communicating from one end of the country to the other, Canada launched the world's first commercial geostationary communications satellite, *Anik Al*.

Canada and Canadian astronauts have also played important roles in the Space Shuttle flights; Canadian technology is used on almost every mission. Perhaps the most well known Canadian contribution is the Canadarm. In 1981, a robotic manipulating suit of space than it is usually given credit for. Its arm, built in Canada, made its first successful flight did not compete with the Russians or the Americans on a U.S. shuttle. The Canadarm (officially the Shuttle Remote Manipulator System) became the symbol of Canada in space, instrumental in helping the shuttle perform crucial missions such as delivering satellites into space. Canadarm 2 (the Mobile Servicing System), a more flexible and manoeuvrable arm, was put into space in 2001. The Canadarm has gone on every Space Shuttle mission since 1981 and has recently been used to make major repairs to the Hubble Space Telescope.

Canada's astronaut program was initiated in 1983, when the United States invited Canada to send Canadian astronauts on some of its missions. The Canadian government established the Canadian Space Agency and has since sent eight Canadian astronauts into space. Marc Garneau became the first Canadian to go into space in 1984. In 1992, Dr. Roberta Bondar became the first Canadian woman to go into space. In 1999, Julie Payette became the first Canadian astronaut to participate in an International Space Station assembly mission and to board the Station when she went up in the Space Shuttle *Discovery*. In 2001, Chris Hadfield became the first Canadian astronaut to walk in space.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #206

Chapter 25 (p. 664)

U.S. President George Bush says that, "for those around the world who live in poverty, globalization is their best hope for escaping." Prime Minister Jean Chrétien says Canada looks at globalization as an opportunity to make the world better by "strengthening democracy, creating prosperity, and realizing human potential."

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #207



Chapter 25 (p. 665)

Critics of globalization say the pursuit of profit will destroy jobs, incomes, and the environment. They point out that corporations such as General Motors, Ford, and Wal-Mart are already richer than most countries, and although their profits grow more rapidly when trade barriers fall, there is no guaranteed benefit to the employees of those companies or to the people who buy their products.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #208

Chapter 25 (p. 665)

Who Speaks for the People?

Beginning with a meeting of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in Seattle in 1999, protesters have taken to the streets to make their position heard at every international gathering. They have gone far beyond the point of carrying signs and chanting; they have tried to shut down the meetings. Clashes with the police have become routine.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #209

Chapter 25 (p. 667)

Concern for the environment in the last years of the twentieth century, and the first years of the twenty-first, may have started in 1962 when Rachel Carson, an American biologist, wrote *Silent Spring*. The book told of the dangers of chemicals polluting the Earth's air and water, killing plants and marine life, and affecting the health of humans. The book was an eye-opener, awakening a realization in many people that abusing the planet would have-term consequences.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #210

Chapter 25 (p. 667)

In 1969, two major groups were established in order to fight for environmental protection, and they are both still active today. The Sierra Club, founded in 1892 in the United States, came to Canada and began working on five areas: the protection of wildlife and plant species, the protection of oceans and air quality, the protection of wilderness lands, fighting the proliferation of toxic chemicals, and fighting population growth and over-consumption. In 2002 it had about 3000 members in Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #211

Chapter 25 (p. 667)

Greenpeace

Perhaps the best-known environmental group in the world is Greenpeace. It is well-known because it attracts media attention by engaging in highly visible actions. The group was born in Vancouver in 1971. A small group of people rented a boat and set course for Amchitka, Alaska. That was where the United States was planning to test nuclear weapons. The testing went ahead, but before too long the United States shut down the site. Since then Greenpeace has become a world-wide organization with about 2.5 million members.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #212

Chapter 25 (p. 668)

The Kyoto Agreement

In 1997, an international meeting in Kyoto, Japan, agreed to a series of measures to reduce greenhouse gases. Industrialized nations committed themselves to reducing emissions from 1990 levels by about 5.2 percent by 2012. The Kyoto protocol was signed by 84 countries, including Canada. The United States, which is by far the largest producer of greenhouse gases in the world, signed as well, but in 2002 President George W. Bush decided his country would not ratify Kyoto. Bush claimed it would be too harmful to the US economy.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #213

Chapter 25 (p. 668)

Canada is moving increasingly deeper into multinational agreements. After all the angst that swirled through the 1980s when free trade with the United States was contemplated and then accomplished, it has become easier for the government to sign new deals, first with Mexico, then Chile, and fairly soon it seems with all of Central and South America. There is talk of making the border with the United States more of a meeting place than a barrier and of Canada accepting the American dollar as its unit of currency.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #214

Epilogue (p. 674)

Shame, forgiveness, and humility about our mistakes must become as necessary to us as the pride and passion that we feel in celebrating our victories. The history of Canada is often looked on as unexciting and bland. Granted, Canada is a relatively young country, with no civil wars, no dictators, and no assassinated leaders to add dramatic ‘—highlights to its story. Yet, in what Governor General Adrienne Clarkson called a “*450-year-old* experiment,” Canada has developed a reputation as one of the best countries in which to live.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Communications/Entertainment

Entry #215

Unit 5 Opener (p. 372)

As Canadians embraced the new radio programs and going to movie theatres, there were also questions about how much American content was being absorbed by Canadian listeners and viewers. With the 1930s came the beginnings of efforts to protect and foster Canadian cultural programs and attempts to stop the growing influx of American influence.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #216  
Chapter 16 (p. 394-95)

### American Influence on Canadian Culture

The “Roaring Twenties”, sandwiched between the horrors of the Great War and the greyness of the Great Depression is often characterized as a carefree period of release from rigid social mores and conventions, in an effort to try forget the pain and troubles of the war generation. The twenties were an age of adventure. Charles Lindbergh made the first solo flight over the Atlantic in 1927 and Richard E. Byrd was the first to fly over the North Pole. Thousands were drawn to barnstorming exhibitions of acrobatic bi-planes, many of them flown by world war flying aces. This was an age of stunts and endurance contests. Dance marathons and flagpole sitting contests captured the escapist imagination of Americans and Canadians.

In the twenties, America dominated the popular culture scene. One of the main paths for its entry into Canada was radio. The first radio broadcast in Canada was transmitted in 1920. By 1929 Canadians owned 297 000 radios. From the beginning American programs dominated the airwaves. Canadian nationalists were dismayed by the dominance of American commercial radio. In 1929 the government commissioned the Aird Report recommending a government-supported noncommercial radio network.

The same applied to the movie industry. Canadians flocked to see Hollywood movies being produced in a feverish pace. With admission prices ranging from five to twenty-five cents the price was right for Canadian moviegoers. They were enthralled by the change from silent to talking pictures. As with radio, Canadians preferred American films to more artful ones produced in Europe and Canada. While Canadians did attempt to produce feature films they generally were not well received.

Moreover, Canadian film producers had difficulty distributing their films in cinemas owned by American movie theatre chains. By 1929, ninety percent of movies were being produced by American filmmakers.

American magazines owned the Canadian market. The circulation rates of *MacLeans* and *Chatelaine* were dwarfed by *McCall's* and *Saturday Evening Post* from south of the border.

It was only in subsequent decades that Canadians took measures to protect Canadian culture. The National Film Board of Canada (1939), and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (1936) were created to guarantee a place for Canadian film, radio, and later television programming. In 1936 the Board of Broadcast Governors (1936) and later the Canadian Radio-Television Commission (1967—69) were created to regulate all aspects of the Canadian broadcasting system. Tariffs to protect Canadian publications were all attempts to ensure Canadian culture was preserved. However, today, as in the twenties, Canadian regulators have always struggled with a public that is often more attracted to the lure of American popular culture.

There were some notable exceptions to the American dominance of Canadian entertainment and popular culture. Sport is one of these exceptions. For decades, hockey has been a national preoccupation of Canadians. The National Hockey League was formed in 1917 with four Canadian teams, the Ottawa Senators, Montreal Canadiens, Toronto Arenas, and the Montreal Wanderers. In the early years, the winners of the NHL would play for the Stanley Cup against teams from western Canadian leagues that included Vancouver, Calgary, Edmonton, Regina, and Saskatoon.<sup>22</sup> In 1924 the Boston Bruins was the first American team to join the NHL. By 1926 the NHL re-organized to include ten teams, six of which were from the United States. Gradually, many star members from western Canadian teams migrated to the NHL. Even though from that point on, American NHL teams outnumbered Canadian ones, the overwhelming majority of players were Canadian born. Players like Howie Morenz, Eddie Shore, Charlie Conacher, Bill Cook, and George Hainsworth were the “Canadian superstars” of their age.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #217  
Chapter 16 (p. 395)

The vast majority of movie theatres in Canada during the 1920s were owned by American Corporations.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



The vast majority of movie theatres in Canada during the '20s were owned by American corporations.

Entry #218  
Chapter 16 (p. 399)

Canada forged a new cultural identity, but American popular culture threatened to overwhelm it. On the political-economic front, Canada was freeing itself from Imperial constraints only to struggle with the attractions and perils of being drawn into an American orbit. Prime Minister Mackenzie King, who personified complexity and ambiguity, used cautious and pragmatic measures to answer the demands of reformers and satisfy his important base of support amongst financiers and industrialists. This state of ambiguity would reside in Canada for many years to come. As Canadians faced the grey decade ahead, the forces of ambiguity would only be aggravated by declining resources to cope with them.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #219  
Chapter 21 (p. 528)

After World War II, government involvement in the promotion of Canadian culture became much more common. Royal commissions showed that there was an increasing danger of Canadian culture becoming dependent on American culture. Music, television, publishing, and radio were already dominated by American content. Unless something was done, a distinctive Canadian culture would cease to exist.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #220  
Chapter 21 (p. 540)

World War II greatly increased the circulation of magazines that provided information and opinion. *Maclean's* circulation was 275 000 in 1940. *Time "Canada*, a Canadian edition of the American magazine *Time*, was introduced in 1943. After the war, the sheer number of American magazines in English Canada was seen as eroding the circulation of Canadian magazines. The advent of television advertising in 1952 also cut seriously into Canadian magazine revenues.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #221  
Chapter 21 (p. 540)

The O'Leary Commission reported in 1961 that 75 percent of the general-interest magazines sold in Canada were American. Worse, the American publications *Time* and

*Reader's Digest* received 40 percent of the money from magazine advertising. There were only five Canadian general-interest magazines, and two of them were in bad shape financially. O'Leary recommended tax measures to encourage advertisers to use Canadian publications; advertising in U.S. publications would not be deductible.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #222  
Chapter 21 (p. 541)

#### The Canadian Content Dilemma

Even as Canadian composers and performers were increasingly sought after by American and European recording companies, Canadian radio stations during the postwar period were playing the top American or British music. Canadians still had to go to the United States to be recognized in Canada. The stations argued that the public only wanted to hear music that was already big in the United States or Britain. Performers, however, argued that the stations were suffering from a "colonial" mentality. They meant that the stations wanted to import a culture from a dominant country rather than invest in the increasingly vibrant culture at home.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #223  
Chapter 21 (p. 542)

In 1936, the year in which the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) was founded, one million Canadian homes had a radio. However, when the eight CBC radio stations and their sixteen privately owned affiliates started broadcasting, they were only reaching 49 percent of the country. In urban areas, the signal suffered constant interference from American stations with more powerful signals. In 1937, the CBC did two things: it built new transmitters in Montreal and Toronto that increased coverage to 76 percent of the population, and it organized a North American conference in Havana on radio channels. At that conference, Canada was allocated a number of both clear and shared channels to aid in cross-country radio development. By 1952, the CBC provided radio coverage across Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #224  
Chapter 21 (p. 543)

Generally, during the postwar period, the CBC's efforts to provide all-Canadian programs were hampered by the fact that carrying popular American TV programs was the only way to generate the advertising money needed to produce Canadian programs. When the private CTV network *La Famille Pbouffe* premiered on French CBC Television in 1953 and then on English CEC a year later. *La Famille Pbouffe* was the saga of a traditional family in the 1950s was licensed in 1961, the pressure increased. By 1967, the CBC was coming under even heavier criticism than usual for having far too much American programming. In response, it increased Canadian content from about 52 percent to about 68 percent by 1974. New Canadian shows included *The Beachcombers*, *Performance*, and *the fifth estate*.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #225  
Chapter 21 (p. 543)

The first Canadian films were produced in 1897, depicting life on the Prairies. Most filmmaking in and around Canada before World War I focused on landscape and legends (rolling prairies, noble Mounties, villainous lumberjacks, etc.). A boom in independent production during World War I was snuffed out by the quick assertion of financial control by Hollywood. Unlike European governments, the Canadian government took no action to protect its domestic industry, and the Canadian industry had nearly died out by the end of the Great Depression.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #226  
Chapter 21 (p. 544)

Some discussion ensued again after WWII about limiting the Hollywood monopoly on the distribution of films in Canada, but no action was taken. The Canadian industry remained small until the mid-1960s, and most talented Canadians emigrated to pursue



their craft.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #227

Chapter 21 (p. 544)

Picture showing Canadian comedians with Ed Sullivan.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 4



The Canadian comedy duo Wayne and Shuster were favourites of Ed Sullivan, whose show from New York reached millions of Canadians and Americans every Sunday night for decades.

Entry #228

Chapter 21 (p. 544)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



*Front Page Challenge* aired on CBC Television from 1957 to 1995. The quiz show and current affairs panel was a landmark in Canadian broadcasting. In this episode, panellists are interviewing their guest, Malcolm X.

#### Entry #229

#### Chapter 21 (p. 544)

Fifty years ago, Canadians began to realize that their culture was being starved, as increasing numbers of American musicians, television shows, movies, books, and magazines fed the Canadian appetite for entertainment. Although realizing that economic ties to the United States helped put food on the table, Canadians also began sensing the dangers of relying on their southern neighbour to provide food for their souls.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

#### Entry #230

#### Chapter 22 (p. 580)

Rock and roll arrived in Canada with Ronnie Hawkins. He came to Canada from Arkansas in 1958 and he had enormous influence with Canadian musicians. An early version of his group The Hawks later became The Band. In 1966, they left Hawkins to tour with Bob Dylan. They released two albums (*Music from Big Pink*, 1968, and *The Band*, 1969) that were a mix of rock, folk, gospel, soul, and country.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #231

Chapter 22 (p. 580-81)

Today, Canadian television networks are required to devote 60 percent of their day to Canadian material. They are supposed to deliver 50 percent Canadian content between 6 p.m. and midnight. Most Canadian networks still overwhelmingly show American content during the peak evening viewing time. They achieve their Canadian content quota mostly during the fringe hours between 6 p.m. and 7p.m., and then after 11 p.m.).

Some argue that the government has no role to play in broadcasting. They believe the free market alone should decide what gets to air. To that argument the CRTC replies,

The relationship between broadcasting and the development of a shared or common Canadian identity lies essentially in the quantity, quality, and diversity of the programming, more particularly in programming that is made in Canada by Canadians about Canadians. It is this programming that can directly influence and shape the listening and viewing public's collective sense as a distinctive Canadian society. It can enlighten Canadians about our history, our shared attitudes and values as a society and, in doing so, give us both individual and collective pride and a stronger national consciousness.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #232

Chapter 22 (p. 583)

The greater presence of American and British music on Canada's English airwaves has left less room for songs of the above-mentioned traditions, but that has perhaps made those who sing about us stand out even more. From the 1960s on, huge audiences have been reached by the likes of Stompin' Tom Connors (*The Good Old Hockey Game*, *The Blue Berets*, *Sudbury Saturday Night*), The Guess Who (*Runnin Back To Saskatoon*), Gordon Lightfoot (*Canadian Railroad Trilogy*, *The Wreck of the Edmond Fitzgerald*), Stan Rogers (*Barrett's Privateers*), Bruce Cockburn (*If I Had A Rocket Launcher*), The Tragically Hip (*Bobcaygeon*) and more recently Maestro (*416-905*), Choclair (*T.Dot Anthem*) and Great Big Sea (*Rant & Roar*). If one looks a little further, a huge wealth of modern material is waiting to be discovered. There are hundreds of established and newer acts writing lyrics about who they are, what they see, and what needs changing in 21<sup>st</sup> century Canadian society.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #233

Chapter 22 (p. 584)

At the Olympic Winter Games of 2002, a younger generation experienced a similar jolt of hockey excitement when both the Canadian men's and women's teams won gold medals against teams from the United States. The final game for the men was seen on television by more than 8.6 million Canadians and almost 38 million Americans. In Canada, the game was the most-watched TV program—sports or otherwise—in our history.

But since that game was against the Americans, there was no hint of the ideological battle so central to the 1972 series—this one was NHL player against NHL player. The victory sparked celebrations from coast to coast, and Canada's identity once again became intertwined with hockey. Prime Minister Jean Chrétien remarked:

I have just returned from a Team Canada trade mission to Russia, where, in the company of team members from both sides, we marked the 30<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the Summit Series of 1972— a series that transfixed Canadians from sea to sea to sea. In the past two weeks, in homes and schools, at work and at play, Canadians have once again been united in a way that only hockey can bring us together. And their victories have triggered a nationwide party of celebration.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #234

Chapter 22 (p. 584-85)

Calgary-born and Juno-award winning country singer Paul Brandt rewrote the lyrics to his hit *Canadian Man* and called it *Ode to Team Canada*. It was played on radio stations across the country for weeks after the victory:

*Team Canada*

*At your service from the land of the chill*

*If they can't thrill you baby, nobody will*

*Make way, here comes*

*Team Canada*

*Strong and free,*

*Lead by our fearless hero, Gretzky*

*He should be the prime minister if you ask me*

*Oh, thank you*

*Team Canada*

*Well it's hush hush*

*Three man rush rush*

*Iginla, Sakic and Lemieux*

*He shoots, he scores*

*And all of Canada roars*

*From the warmth of our igloos*

*Sorry, eh,*

*We put the hurt on you, Team USA*

*And showed the whole world that it's still our game*

*Three cheers for Team Canada*

*We'll slide and glide*

*Skate over any line*

*Red or white or blue*

*What makes it nice*

*Is that we did it twice*

*'Cause our women beat you too*

*Gold at last*

*50 years sure took a long time to pass*

*So tip your hat or raise your glass*

*For the heroes of Team Canada*

*What a great game, Team Canada*

*You did us proud, Team Canada*

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #235

Chapter 22 (p. 587)

(Referring to sponsors in professional hockey league)

Corporate sponsors came on board, but not all saw the potential. Imperial Oil replaced General Motors in 1936 when the new president of GM Canada, freshly transferred from the United States, declared that he “did not believe hockey would sell cars.”

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #236

Chapter 23 (p. 610)

We have come a long way in terms of cartoon portrayals of our national identity and our comic book super heroes. During the nineteenth century, political cartoonists created symbols for nations. The domineering John Bull represented the colonizing power of Great Britain, while the towering Uncle Sam stood for the United States. The young and impressionable Canada, on the other hand, was frequently personified a young woman courted by John Bull or Uncle Sam.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #237

Chapter 23 (p. 611)

In the early 1970s Canadian alternative and underground publishers emerged, and with them a second generation of national super heroes. The first national super hero to appear in Canadian comics after the Golden Age was Captain Canada, who debuted in 1972 in the Ottawa-based satirical magazine *Fuddle Duddle*. Captain Canada’s adventures spoofed US super heroes and Canadian attitudes. For example, one story pitted him against the treacherous Media-Master, who was bent on world domination.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Religion

Entry #238

Chapter 10 (p. 236-37)

To British colonial officials in the early 1800s, the establishment of a strong Anglican Church in Upper Canada and the Atlantic colonies was essential to ensure political and social stability and to avoid the republican ideas that had brought about the American Revolution. In Quebec, Catholicism remained the religion of the majority of French Canadians. In the Atlantic region, the Anglican Church did not gain much headway against the Catholic and Evangelical religions (Baptist and Methodist). In Upper Canada, where the Anglican Church was stronger, its ties to the Family Compact meant that it had to spend considerable time and effort defending its privileged status. In addition, both established settlers and new immigrants belonged to a variety of Christian sects: Presbyterians, Quakers, Mennonites, Roman Catholics, and Evangelicals.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Institution of Slavery

Entry #239

Chapter 8 (p. 200-01)

The writers of the American Declaration of Independence and the patriots who demanded freedom for themselves seem not to have noticed the irony in their being, in many cases, slave owners. Though slavery was prohibited in Britain by this time, it was still in effect in the Thirteen Colonies and the economies and wealth of many of the southern plantations depended on slave labour.

Many slaves, including those owned by George Washington, sought refuge among the British. Estimates say that as many as 100 000 African Americans may have fled from their owners during this time. Many were recaptured, and their punishment for escaping was severe. David George, who was born of African slaves in Virginia and who later became a powerful Baptist minister in

Nova Scotia, related what happened to his brother when he was caught. "After he had received 500 lashes, they washed his back with salt water, and whipped it in, as well as rubbed it in with a rag; and then directly sent him to work in pulling off the suckers of tobacco."

At the end of the war, when George Washington met with Guy Carleton to negotiate the articles of peace between the United States and Britain, one of the first things on Washington's agenda was his concern that the British should remove any slaves who were the "property" of American citizens. As J.M. Bumstead reports, "every Wednesday between May 30 and August 7, 1783—from 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.—blacks who already held certificates as refugees were liable to be challenged at board meetings at New York City's Fraunces Tavern." As a result of these meetings, many African Americans were

returned to their slave-owners. Eventually, approximately three thousand free black Loyalists made their way to Nova Scotia. But among the white Loyalist refugees fleeing the Thirteen Colonies were former plantation owners who still owned the slaves they brought with them.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #240  
Chapter 10 (p. 226)

During the nineteenth century, the society of the North American British colonies changed as hundreds of thousands of immigrants brought their culture and traditions to their new land. As the new settlers arrived at the island Grosse-Ile, epidemics took thousands of lives as a result of the miserable conditions suffered by the Irish immigrants in the holds of the lumber ships in which they had crossed the Atlantic. Other immigrants—escaping slaves from the Thirteen Colonies—made their way along the clandestine routes of the Underground Railroad. In the towns and rural communities, society remained hierarchical in the early years. Women were believed by some to inhabit a “separate sphere” from that of the men, though this was often far from the reality of daily life.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #241  
Chapter 10 (p. 232)

#### The Underground Railroad

The road to freedom for more than thirty thousand African American slaves was named the Underground Railroad. Originally started by the Quakers of Pennsylvania in the early nineteenth century, the railroad was as much an idea as a physical fact. There were no stations, track, cars, engines, or rolling stock. The Underground Railroad was a secret operation carried out by thousands of courageous people who were linked by their hatred of slavery and their love of freedom. Harriet Tubman, known as “the Black Moses,” led more than two thousand slaves to freedom, resulting in an unheard-of bounty of \$40000 being placed on her head by the American authorities.

In order to deceive the bounty hunters, runaway slaves and those who helped them used a long series of safe havens along the route north into Upper Canada. An intricate system was developed where routes zigzagged, changed direction, and sometimes doubled-back to throw the hunters off the track.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3



Entry #242

Chapter 10 (p. 233)

Canadian Leaders: Mary Ann Shadd

Teacher, writer, editor, publisher, abolitionist, suffragette, integrationist, lawyer, and activist—these are just some of the words that describe Mary Ann Shadd. A tireless advocate of equal rights, Shadd displayed an unwavering commitment to integration between black and white races in Canada.

Although her ancestors were slaves, Shadd grew up free in Wilmington, Delaware, where her father's shoemaking store was part of the Underground-Railroad that helped escaped slaves flee to Canada. Since it was against the law to educate black people in Delaware, Mary Ann's parents sent her, at the age of ten, to a Quaker boarding school in Pennsylvania. Six years later, she returned to Wilmington to open a private school for black children.

In 1850 passage of the United States Fugitive Slave Act gave full legal support for the capture of slaves anywhere in America. Shadd joined the emigrationist movement in 1851 and with her brother Isaac, moved to Canada, settling in Windsor, and then in E Chatham, Ontario. While in Windsor, she fought for integrated education, battling both black and white segregationists to found Canada's first racially integrate school in an abandoned army building.

Shadd also made significant contributions as a writer and publisher. To discourage runaway slaves from fleeing to Canada, many lies were spread by southern slave-owners about former slaves starving in Canada or being eaten by cannibals. Shadd attempted to keep black people in the United States informed about the true conditions in Canada through a forty-four page pamphlet she wrote, entitled *Notes of Canada West*.

From these early writing efforts Shadd recognized the need for a newspaper for blacks, particularly fugitive slaves. She established a weekly newspaper, *The Provincial Freeman* in 1853 to discuss aspects of black life in Canada. In addition, Shadd wanted to spread her views in both the United States and Canada to "acquaint the white citizens with the noble deeds and heroism of the coloured American," and thereby justify the claim for "equal and exact justice." By creating *The Provincial Freeman*, Shadd became the first black woman in North America to found and edit a newspaper.

Some of Shadd's strongest opponents were Canadian black segregationists led by Henry Bibb, an escaped slave. Bibb saw black immigrants as fugitives in exile from America,

while Shadd viewed them as new Canadians with no home left in America. Bibb published a newspaper called the *Voice of the Fugitive* in which he frequently attacked Shadd's character and desire for assimilation.

Shadd believed that separate churches, schools, and communities would ultimately undermine the struggle for freedom. Through her editorials, she challenged not only Bibbs' views on segregation, but also the prevailing emigration views of abolitionists in Toronto. So influential was her opinion that an international debate about emigration followed. Shadd would eventually abandon her belief in emigration, but maintained her strong advocacy for integration. When the Emancipation Proclamation was declared in the United States in 1863, she returned to America and was appointed army recruiting officer to enlist black volunteers in Indiana to fight during the Civil War. After the war, Shadd moved to Washington, D.C. to enroll in Howard University Law School. She became the second black woman in the United States to earn a law degree in 1883 and began practicing law at the age of 60.

The legacy of Mary Ann Shadd's work in education, publishing, and law are a testament to her refusal to accept the socially-imposed limits based on colour, and, or, gender.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Chapter Objectives and Chapter Reviews

Entry #243

Chapter 6 Objective (p. 139)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to analyze how Canada's changing relationships with France, Britain, and the United States have influenced the formation and transformation of Canadian identity.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #244

Chapter 7 Objective (p. 163)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to analyze how Canada's changing relationships with France, Britain, and the United States have influenced the formation and transformation of Canadian identity.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #245

Chapter 9 Objective (p. 207)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to analyze how conflicts and compromises between Canada and the United States have helped to shape Canadian identity

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #246

Chapter 14 Objective (p. 325)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to analyze how conflicts and compromises between Canada and the United States have helped to shape Canadian identity

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #247

Chapter 16 Objective (p. 375)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to analyze the reasons for Canada's close political and economic relationship with the United States

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #248

Chapter 21 Objective (p. 329)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to analyze how American movies, television, music, advertising, professional sports, and other consumer products have posed challenges to the creation of a homegrown Canadian identity.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #249

Chapter 22 Objective (p. 565)

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to assess the effectiveness of attempts to protect Canadian culture from American domination.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

### Chapter Reviews

Entry #250

Chapter 9 (p. 224)

Identify six of the following people, concepts, and events and explain their historical significance to Canadian history and the development of its culture and identity.

Buffer zone

Aboriginal Confederacy

Family Compact

Isaac Brock

Tecumseh

David Thompson

War of 1812

Battle of Queenston Heights

Rebellion in Upper Canada

Rebellion in Lower Canada

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #251

Chapter 11 (p. 270)

Identify six of the following people, concepts, and events and explain their historical significance to Canadian history and the development of its culture and identity.

Thomas Coltrin

Keefer

John A. MacDonald

George Brown

Georg-Etienne

Cartier

Free trade

Responsible government

Railway construction

American Civil War

Charlottetown

Confederacy

Quebec Conference

Chapter 14 (p. 341)

Identify these people, places, and events and explain their historical significance to Canada's developing culture and identity:

Manitoba's Schools Act

Laurier's "Sunny ways"

Clifford Sifton

Frank Olivier

*Komagata Maru*

Chinese Head Tax

Reciprocity

Alaska Boundary Dispute  
Boer War  
Naval Service Bill

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #252

Chapter 16 (p. 401)

Explain the cultural struggle waged in the 1920s between the emerging Canadian cultural and the “siren call” of the American culture? In what ways was it similar to the struggle being waged today? How was it different?

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #253

Chapter 19 (p. 501)

Identify these people, places, and events and explain their historical significance to Canada’s developing culture and identity:

Canadian Citizenship Act

Asbestos Strike

Korean War

Lester Pearson

Canadian Bill of Rights

NORAD

Avro Arrow

National Indian Brotherhood

Peacekeeping

DEW line

Africville

Application Question:

You are an American diplomat in Canada during the Cuban Missile Crisis. Write a confidential memo to President John Kennedy, explaining why you think that the Canadian government behaved in an ambivalent way. Use your knowledge of Canada’s postwar position up to 1963.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #254

Chapter 20 (p. 527)

Identify these people, places, and events and explain their historical significance to Canada's developing culture and identity:

St. Lawrence Seaway  
TransCanada highway  
Trade with Cuba  
Oil  
Equalization payments  
Family allowance  
Polio  
Old age security  
The Pill

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #255

Chapter 21 (p. 559-60)

Identify these people, places, and events and explain their historical significance to Canada's developing culture and identity:

Massey-Levesque Commission  
Jack McClelland  
CBC Television  
O'Leary Commission  
Stratford Festival  
Les Automatistes  
Centennial Commission  
Expo '67  
Sir George Williams University Riot  
Oscar Peterson

Application Question:

Study the photograph in this chapter of Canadian comedians Wayne and Schuster with American variety show host Ed Sullivan in 1959.

What impression of Canadians do the comedians convey to American viewers?

- a) Do you think that the American government had the same impression at that time? Explain.
- b) In what ways did Canada gain or lose during the Cold War from the impression the comedians conveyed?

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #256

Unit Six Research Activity (p. 560)  
Interpretation and Analysis

Was the demise of this important airplane (referring to the Avro Arrow) the fault of the Canadian government or American pressure, or what it truly obsolete in a new era of ballistic missiles?

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #257

Chapter 22 Review (p. 589)

Identify these people, terms, places, and events and explain their historical significance to Canada's developing culture and identity:

Just society

October Crisis

Official Languages Act

Royal Commission on the Status of Women

National Energy Program

Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA)

Canadian content

Hockey

Pierre Trudeau

Junos

Under the direction of Pierre Trudeau, the Canadian government began to map out its own path for foreign policy rather than simply following the United States' policies.

Write a well-written paragraph that describes how this different path helped to shape the Canadian identity.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #258

Chapter 24 Review (p. 639)

Identify these people, terms, places, and events and explain their historical significance to Canada's developing culture and identity:

Free Trade Agreement

North American Free Trade Agreement

Brian Mulroney

Jean Chrétien

Estai

Somalia Inquiry

September 11

Canadarm

Global village

Telefilm Canada

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

## APPENDIX B

Canada: A Nation Unfolding

### Cultural Protectionism

Entry #1

Chapter 1 (p. 8-9)

#### Resisting the Influence of the United States

The history of Canada is intertwined with the history of the United States. Shortly after New France was handed over to the British, the thirteen British colonies along the Atlantic seaboard erupted in revolution against Britain. As a result of that revolution, the United States of America was born. This new nation was unlike any other in the Western world at the time: it was to be a republic, in which the people ruled through a democratically elected president, and in which everyone, whether rich or poor, was to be protected by a constitution. Upper Canada (now Ontario) was created after ten thousand British Loyalists fled the newly created United States of America. They were loyal to the British King and fiercely resisted the values of the new republic.

In 1812, while Britain was preoccupied with the Napoleonic wars in Europe, the Americans saw their chance to invade the Canadas and expand the boundaries of their republic. Many Americans were convinced that Canada could be easily invaded because the citizens of both Upper and Lower Canada would welcome their American liberators. To their surprise, Canadians poured into the streets to drive out the unwanted Americans. It appeared that the United States government had forgotten that not even thirty years earlier, thousands of Loyalists had clearly chosen British values over the new American republicanism.

Even Confederation in 1867 was a clear rejection of American values and a symbol of support for strong ties to Britain. When the shape of the new Dominion government was debated, the Americans served as an inspiration — of what not to do. The bloody American Civil War, which had raged from 1861 to 1865 and claimed over 600 000 lives, was seen as evidence of the failure of the American political system. Too much power in the hands of the states had led to the tragedy that engulfed the United States. In Canada, it was believed a strong federal government would ensure that no such disaster would occur.



Resistance to American influence began increasingly difficult in the twentieth century. Television, American movies and magazines, and the increasing American economic power in Canada brought the two countries closer together. At the same time, as Canada's population became more culturally diverse, the close British ties weakened. Has Canada become a strong, independent country? Are Canadians as anti-American as they were in the past, or is there an emerging North American culture that is shared by the two countries? Should the Canadian government actively promote a distinctive Canadian culture? These questions, as you will see, have run throughout the twentieth century and have provided fuel for heated debates over the past few decades.

Researcher: 1      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 1

Entry #2

Chapter 1 (p. 9)

*Canada's Emerging International Status*

When the United States successfully defeated the British in the Revolutionary War, it immediately severed ties with Britain and established clear and unquestionable independence. For Canada, however, the growth of autonomy has been a long, evolutionary process. In fact, it can be argued that Canada was not fully independent until its constitution was repatriated (brought home) in 1982, 115 years after Confederation! Although Canada's autonomy evolved over time, the move toward full independence was steady.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #3

Chapter 25 (p. 403)

Throughout the late twentieth century the world has increasingly become a global village. Advanced telecommunications allow television and radio programs to be beamed into Canada from the United States. With the development of affordable and powerful satellite dishes, more and more Canadians are tuning in to American programs and listening to American music. Also, the increasingly multicultural nature of Canada has led some people to question Canada's national identity. Although sovereignty usually refers specifically to legal issues, in recent years it has also come to be used in relation to a country's ability to control its economy and cultural development.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #4  
Chapter 25 (p. 403)

Aside from producing Canadian-made programs, the CBC imports a large number of programs from the United States. Some feel the CBC should receive much less funding and should generate more revenue by showing the programs the public wants to see regardless of whether they are Canadian or American. Costs could be lowered by importing American programs, since it is far more expensive to produce episodes of Canadian programs than it is to buy existing American shows. Others feel that the CBC should be given more funding and show exclusively Canadian programs.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Military Conflict

Entry #5  
Chapter 7 (p. 100)

When the United States entered the war (referring to World War I) and needed to buy a whole range of new weapons, the Canadian munitions industry blossomed. By 1918, Canada was manufacturing airplanes and airplane engines, guns, cargo ships, chemicals, and many other weapons of war. Fifteen hundred factories in ninety Canadian cities employed more than 300 000 people.

Researcher: 5      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #6  
Chapter 8 (p. 115-16)

The German government had announced that passenger ships would be sunk on May 2, 1915, the British ocean liner *Lusitania*, sailing from New York City to Liverpool, was sunk by a German torpedo off the coast of Ireland. Nearly 1200 people went to a watery grave. Among the dead were 128 American civilians, most of whom were women and children. Americans seethed with rage at the attack on U.S. civilians. The U.S. government had so far been officially neutral in the war, and until the attack many American citizens had been actively pro-German. Germany insisted that it had sunk the *Lusitania* because the ship was armed and carrying explosives, although it apparently had only a small amount of rifle ammunition on board. American sentiment shifted sharply, and everything German was despised. The sinking of the *Lusitania* prepared the way for the American declaration of war on Germany in 1917.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #7  
Chapter 8 (p. 117)

*The United States Declares War on Germany*

Ironically, the success of German U-boat attacks helped bring about Germany's defeat. The U.S. president, Woodrow Wilson, was so angry at Germany's policy of unrestricted submarine warfare that he broke off diplomatic relations with Germany. Then the American ships *City of Memphis* and *Illinois* were torpedoed. On April 6, 1917, the U.S. Congress declared war on Germany. The declaration marked a turning point in the war. Just when nations on both sides of the battlefield had almost exhausted their personnel and resources, the entry of the United States changed the balance of power.

The Americans, however, were not yet ready to join the fighting. Their army had fewer than 200 000 soldiers, and most of its weapons were badly outdated. It would take months for the Americans to gear up for war. The Germans began a race against time. They hoped to win a decisive victory before the Americans were ready to fight. Germany's chance for a quick success suddenly looked promising: its war with Russia on the Eastern Front was coming to an end, and Russia was ready to make peace with Germany.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #8  
Chapter 8 (p. 121)

German was finding it almost impossible to replace the thousands of soldiers it had lost in the war. At the same time, American troops had arrived in force to fill out the Allied ranks. Now the Allied army had the superior forces. The tables were turned; it was time to mount a final Allied offensive.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #9  
Chapter 9 (p. 128)

*The Treaty of Versailles and the New Face of Europe*

After strong resistance, especially from the United States, Canada was given two seats at the Paris Peace Conference. The Canadian delegates had no votes, and the peace treaties

were written by the major powers. But Canada won a symbolic victory. It signed the Treaty of Versailles, which applied to Germany, and the four other treaties applying to the other losing nations, in its own right as an independent country.

Participation in the peace conference also guaranteed Canada a seat and this time a vote too in the new League of Nations, which had been created by the Treaty of Versailles. The league's role was to guarantee the peace and to punish aggressive nations. The Treaty of Versailles was meant to ensure that World War I would indeed be "the war to end all wars" and that Europe would enjoy a lasting peace. In 1918, Canada stepped onto the world stage as a mature nation both in its own eyes and in the eyes of the world.

A new Europe emerged from the ashes of World War 1. The old Russian, German, and Austrian empires disappeared. Britain, France, and the United States — "the Big Three" — took their pencils to the map of Europe and redrew its nations' borders. They left Germany a crippled nation, stripped of its wealth and most of its armed forces. They also made sure that Germany was humbled; in signing the Treaty of Versailles, it was forced to accept all blame for the war.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

#### Entry #10

Unit 4 Opener (p. 205)

Throughout the 1930s, Canada—like Britain and the United States—had hoped to avoid being drawn into another deadly conflict. This reluctance would allow Italy, Germany, and Japan to aggressively expand their military forces and their borders. In 1939, the Western powers took a stand against fascism, and thus began World War II.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

#### Entry #11

Chapter 14 (p. 210)

Desperate for a refuge, the Jews aboard the *St. Louis* turned to Canada and the United States, only to find their pleas again rejected. Frederick Blair, director of the Canadian Immigration Branch, claimed that no' country could "open its doors wide enough to take

in the hundreds of thousands of Jewish people who want to leave Europe; the line must be drawn somewhere.” Eventually, the passengers aboard the St. *Louis* had to return to Europe, where many died in Nazi death camps. By 1945 Canada had accepted a mere 4000 Jewish immigrants, while Britain had taken in 85 000 and the United States, 240 000. Canada did not have a good record of providing a safe haven for European Jews.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 4

Entry #12

Chapter 15 (p. 233)

In August 1942 five thousand Canadian troops stationed in England were picked for a raid on the French port of Dieppe. They had been trained in England for almost three years. Along with another thousand British commandos (troops specially trained for hit and run raids) and American Rangers, the Canadians were to attack the strongly defended port. The raid on Dieppe was launched to find out what was needed to make a full-scale Allied invasion across the English Channel a success. It was also intended to draw German forces away from the Russian front.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #13

Chapter 15 (p. 236)

By early June, more than thirty thousand Canadians were ready to do their part on “D-Day,” the day scheduled for the Allied invasion of Europe. The invasion plan called for five divisions to land along an eighty-kilometre front. American forces were to attack at the western end of Normandy Beach, and British and Canadian troops were to land farther to the east. The 3<sup>rd</sup> Canadian Division was to land with the first wave of attackers in an area called Juno Beach. The sky above Juno Beach was to be protected by RAP bombers, many of which were flown by Canadian bomber crews. The invasion force also included 171 air squadrons to knock **Out** the German Luftwaffe and destroy enemy tanks. More than seven thousand Allied ships of all descriptions navy landing craft, destroyers, cruisers, corvettes, frigates, torpedo boats, and minesweepers were also scheduled for the invasion.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #14

Chapter 15 (p. 238)

Furthermore, post-war Germany was to be divided into four zones of occupation. Britain, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union would each occupy one of the zones.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #15

Chapter 15 (p. 241)

By 1944 the United States had retaken New Guinea the Solomon Islands, and the Philippines Japan. By early 1945 the British Commonwealth forces, with the support of China, had retaken Burma.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #16

Chapter 15 (p. 241)

When American forces invaded Okinawa in March 1945, the 100 000 Japanese soldiers fought almost to the last person. Japanese pilots flew suicide missions called kamikaze attacks. They deliberately crashed aircraft crammed with dynamite into U.S. warships, killing themselves as well as many U.S. sailors.

Some U.S. military leaders believed that Japan too proud to surrender. To invade Japan, they argued, would mean huge military and civilian casualties. But the United States had a terrifying new instrument of war — the atomic bomb. American President Harry Truman believed that the atomic bomb could force Japan to surrender without an invasion that might cost half a million American lives.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #17

Chapter 15 (p. 243)

*Making the Atomic Bomb*

The American government had earlier decided to work on the invention of an atomic

bomb by forming the top-secret Manhattan Project. Working under tight security a group of scientists led by the brilliant physicist Robert Oppenheimer attempted to solve a wide range of problems relating to the atomic bomb. Their aim was to have the bomb ready by mid-1945. It was a race against time, because Nazi Germany was thought to be working on the same problems.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #18  
Chapter 15 (p. 243)

By July 1945 word had reached President Truman that the atomic bomb was ready. On July 26, he called for Japan to surrender or accept “prompt and utter destruction.” He promised that if Japan surrendered, its economy, culture, and traditions would remain unchanged. Japanese Prime Minister Kantaro Suzuki replied that his government would *mokusatsu* the Allied demand — “kill it with silence.” Truman and his military advisers decided against a demonstration of the bomb’s awful powers to scare the Japanese into surrender. Instead, Truman decided to drop the bomb on a Japanese city.

On August 6, 1945, an American B-29 bomber, the *Enola Gay*, flew over Hiroshima, Japan’s seventh-largest city. The *Enola Gay* carried an atomic bomb called “Little Boy.” At 8:15 am. The United States dropped “Little Boy” on Hiroshima. It was the first nuclear bomb ever used in war. More than 70 000 people were killed and 61 000 injured; 20 000 of the dead and missing were schoolchildren. Only 10 percent of the Japanese who had been within five hundred metres of the centre of the blast lived through the day. Some people in the streets were vaporized. Only their shadows remained, imprinted on walls. Others were scorched by radiation burns, killed by flying debris, or buried in the rubble of collapsed buildings. Many survivors of the first day later died of radiation sickness from deadly gamma rays. In later years, survivors had a higher risk of cancer and other diseases. The not-yet-born children and grandchildren of the atomic-bomb victims were also at risk from birth defects.

Again the United States issued an ultimatum, and again no reply was given. Three days later, on August 9, 1945, a second nuclear bomb, called “Fat Man,” was dropped on the Japanese city of Nagasaki. Another forty thousand people were killed. That night, Emperor Hirohito told the Japanese military that “the time has come when we must bear the unbearable.” Japan agreed to unconditional surrender on August 10, 1945, a day remembered as VJ (Victory over Japan) Day. The surrender was signed aboard the U.S. battleship *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay.; World War II was over at last.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #19

Chapter 15 (p. 244)

Most Canadians are unaware of the crucial role Canada played in the development of the atomic bombs that destroyed Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Bombs that destroyed Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

From the outset of the Manhattan Project, the Canadian government co-operated with the British and American governments to ensure that the Allies would develop the nuclear bomb before the Axis powers.

A key ingredient of an atomic bomb is uranium, a heavy radioactive metallic element. The Nazi conquest of Europe had the result that all European uranium refineries were under Nazi control. Only one uranium refinery was left for the Allies to use—the Eldorado Refinery in Port Hope, Ontario. It was here that all the uranium used in the Manhattan Project was refined.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #20

Chapter 16 (p. 250)

On August 27, 1942, the American ship *Chatham* was sunk in the St. Lawrence, the first time an attack had taken place in Canadian waters. During the summer and fall of 1942, German U-boats sank twenty-one ships in the St. Lawrence and claimed 259 lives while sustaining no casualties of their own.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #21

Chapter 16 (p. 252)

However, the Japanese did occupy the Aleutian Islands off Alaska in mid-1942; they were later pushed off by a combined Canadian and American force.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #22



Chapter 16 (p. 255)

Although production remained largely concentrated in the industrial heartland of southern Ontario and Québec, several new plants were established across Canada. Winnipeg, for example, became a major supplier of munitions and communication technology, while a Boeing aircraft factory and new shipbuilding facilities appeared in Vancouver.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #23

Chapter 16 (p. 259)

One Crown corporation, Eldorado Mining and Refining in Port Hope, Ontario, secretly processed uranium for the U.S. atomic bombs that were dropped on Japan in 1945. Never before had a Canadian government taken such wide-ranging control over private enterprise.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #24

Chapter 16 (p. 259)

The Hyde Park Declaration

One of the most important Crown corporations was War Supplies Limited. This corporation sprang from a meeting between Prime Minister Mackenzie King and his friend, U.S. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, at Roosevelt's family estate in Hyde Park, New York. Mackenzie King explained that Canada, in trying to help Britain, would soon be in financial difficulty if it did not balance the trade deficit with the United States. As the war escalated, Canada increasingly relied on American supplies to fuel the factories. This led to a huge trade deficit with the United States. However, if the United States bought products from Canadian industries worth roughly as much as the products that Canada was buying in the United States, King said, Canada's problem would disappear. Roosevelt liked Mackenzie King's proposal, and the two leaders signed an agreement known as the Hyde Park Declaration. More than \$1 billion worth of Canadian goods were eventually sold to the United States. The declaration marked the beginning of a new era of close economic ties between the two nations.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #25

Chapter 17 (p. 265)

Robert Oppenheimer, the director of the laboratory that built the first atomic bomb, once said to U.S. President Harry Truman, “I have blood on my hands.” But he also later said that he believed that developing atomic weapons made achieving peace “more hopeful ... because it intensifies the urgency of our hopes — in frank words, because we are scared.”

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #26

Chapter 17 (p. 265)

Despite massive aid from Canada and the United States, Britain would take years to become part of the, world economy again.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #27

Chapter 17 (p. 266)

On the other side of the world, Japan had accepted defeat after the U.S. atomic bomb blasts in Hiroshima and Nagasaki and accepted a U.S. occupation force. China was a huge but crippled giant. Not only had it suffered under wartime occupation by the Japanese, but the civil war between the Nationalists, led by Chiang Kai-shek, and communist rebels, led by Mao Zedong that had ravaged China since the 1920s returned in full force after the war.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Economic Activity

Entry #28

Chapter 1 (p. 11)

The National Policy included three initiatives:

- high tariffs to protect Canadian manufactures,
- the settling of the West to serve as Canada’s breadbasket and to provide markets for industries in Central Canada,
- a transnational railway to move settlers and manufactured goods to the West and to

move wheat to the East.

Underlying Macdonald's strategy was a belief that by developing an agricultural West and an industrial East, and by encouraging East—West trade, the threat of American dominance in the Canadian economy could be avoided.

Since the time of Macdonald's National Policy there has been much debate about its effectiveness. Did it block American expansion into Canada or merely promote the establishment of branch plants (American-owned plants operating in Canada) to avoid the tariffs?

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #29

Unit 1 Opener (p. 14)

“Canada has been modest in its history. In my estimation, it is only commencing. It is commencing in this century. As the nineteenth century was that of the United States, so, I think the twentieth century shall be filled by Canada.” Wilfrid Laurier, 1904

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #30

Chapter 1 (p. 20-21)

By 1900, major changes were taking place in Canada economy. Growth in the natural-resources industries increased the need for transportation systems, especially railways. Foreign investment from Britain and the United States helped industry expand to meet the need for manufactured goods as the population panned in the cities and as the West opened up. Factory workers and service industries became major employers. A worldwide economic boom was underway, and Canada rode into the twentieth century on this wave of prosperity.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #31

Chapter 1 (p. 21)

The Canadian economy was growing in the area of raw materials and natural resources. The northern areas of New Brunswick, Québec, Ontario, and British Columbia were important sources of timber, and the lumber industry was growing. Pulp and paper mills

were being built to export newsprint to Europe and especially to the United States. Fishing on both the East and West Coasts remained strong.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #32

Chapter 1 (p. 21)

The Canadian economy was mature enough in 1900 that it did not have to rely completely on external trade with Britain. In fact, the United States was gradually becoming Canada's most important trading partner.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 4

Entry #33

Chapter 1 (p. 23)

In countries where Canada's agents were unwelcome, Sifton (referring to Clifford Sifton) used undercover agents operating as part of the North Atlantic Trading Company. To attract immigrants from the United States, advertisements were placed in American farm journals and rural newspapers.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #34

Chapter 1 (p. 23-24)

Canada must have seemed like a dream come true. Soon Germans, Americans, Swedes, British, Ukrainians, Dutch, Icelanders, Norwegians, Russians, and more were coming by the thousands. Canada's population swelled by two million in the decade of the twentieth century.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #35

Chapter 1 (p. 25)

Canada at the beginning of the twentieth century was a country that felt for the first time that it could begin to live up to its motto and stretch “from sea to sea.” The boundary with the United States had been settled in the 1800s and there had long been European settlement on both the Atlantic and Pacific) coasts, but it was at this time that population growth occurred on the Prairies.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #36

Chapter 2 (p. 32)

Various types of valuable salmon made the fishing industry attractive for investment, and by 1902 the industry was dominated by an American-owned firm, the British Columbia Packers' Association.

British Columbia was also expanding its economy by investing in its other primary industries. The province was the new frontier in forestry, and Canada was soon to become the world leader in the production of newsprint. Mining also benefiting from investment from Central Canada, Britain, and the United States. Less than a generation after the discovery of copper and gold deposits in the Kootenay region in 1887, the Cominco company is one of Canada's largest mining companies.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #37

Chapter 3 (p. 36)

British Columbia was “too far away” to be able to establish a diverse and solid economic base. At the centre of it all, and near the industrial centres of the United States, were the booming towns of southern Ontario and Quebec. Whatever the cause, these regional economic differences created tensions in the provinces of Canada.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #38

Chapter 3 (p. 42)

Meanwhile, more and more of the land was coming under cultivation from the flood of newcomers moving north from the United States or coming west from overseas.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #39

Chapter 4 (p. 54)

Many female reformers were especially concerned with women's issues, and many groups made headlines in their fight for women's rights. The campaign for women's suffrage — the right to vote — was launched in Ontario by the Toronto Women's Literary Club. The club was led by Emily Stowe, a doctor who had been denied access to university in Canada and then, after training in the United States, was denied entry to the College of Physicians and Surgeons. As the popularity of women's suffrage spread across the country; the club changed its name to the Canadian Women's Suffrage Association. Women's organizations took up the cause on the Prairies with a particular vigour. Leaders like Nellie McClung, Emily Murphy, and Henrietta Edwards crusaded tirelessly with speeches, meetings, and petitions.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #40

Unit 3 Opener (p. 145)

Airplanes and automobiles made transportation easier, the world of entertainment was revolutionized by the development of the radio and film industry, and Canada made enormous strides toward establishing independence from Britain. But did all Canadians share in the prosperity of the 1920s? Was Canadian culture being threatened and influenced by the United States?

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #41

Chapter 10 (p. 147)

Until 1924 the effects of the Great War continued to depress Canadian economic activity. Because of the huge war debts of European countries, export markets for Canadian products fell dramatically. This, combined with near-drought conditions in the southern Prairies, hurt Western farmers badly. Higher tariffs in the United States also made it difficult for Canada, whose economy depended on reign trade. There was simply no market for Canadian goods. The result was high unemployment and increased bankruptcies, which led many Canadians to abandon their country for the United States, where the negative effects of the war had not been as great. In the 1920s nearly a million Canadians moved to the United States from the rural areas of Eastern Canada.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #42

Chapter 10 (p. 147)

By 1924, however, conditions were much improved. Britain and Europe were again able to buy Canadian produce, partly because loans from the United States were helping them to rebuild their economies. Because the United States, like Canada, had escaped the war without suffering from any destruction, its strong economy allowed it to lend funds to the ravaged European countries.

Recovering European economies would then create a demand for American and Canadian products. The value of wheat exports climbed from \$45.5 million in 1911 to \$353.1 million in 1928. At the same time, industries such as pulp and paper, hydro-electricity and mining were developed and expanded as demand for their products grew in the United States and other countries. American investment in Canada soared, and people once again immigrated to Canada to take advantage of the new opportunities. The demand for newsprint, especially in the United States, was incredible. Investment in Canadian paper mills increased by more than 350 percent between 1918 and 1928, as did production. By the end of the 1920s Canada was the world's leading maker of paper. Pulp and paper mills were soon built in British Columbia, Manitoba, Ontario, Québec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. The 1920s saw greatly increased competition among the leading newsprint companies, such as the American-based International Paper Company and Abitibi Power and Paper.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #43

Chapter 10 (p. 148)

Huge copper finds led to the creation, almost overnight, of Noranda, in northern Québec. Aluminum production using bauxite ore imported from the West Indies also expanded, contributing to the growth of towns such as Shawinigan, Québec. The Aluminum Company of Canada (Alcan), an offshoot of the Aluminum Company of America (Alcoa), became the world's second-largest producer. Mining communities such as Kirkland Lake, Flin Flon, and Trail began to flourish. But other industries began to prosper as well.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #44

Chapter 10 (p. 148)

1926 Canada was second only to the United States in its number of privately owned automobiles. Twelve thousand workers made 200 000 cars eleven Canadian auto plants every year. By the end of the decade there were more than 1.25 million motorized vehicles in the country.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #45

Chapter 10 (p. 148-49)

However, Canadian entrepreneurs who aimed at the automobile market itself met with mixed results. In 1927, when the American Ford Model T was selling for under \$500, the last distinctively Canadian car, the Brooks Steamer (made in Stratford, Ontario), was selling for \$3885. With such a difference in price, Canadian automobile manufacturers could not compete, and by the end of the decade they were forced to make and sell American models. In 1926, however, a more lasting and distinctive Canadian vehicle made its appearance in Québec's Eastern Townships. Armand Bombardier, a twenty-year-old garage owner in the village of Valcourt, sold his first snowmobile.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #46

Chapter 10 (p. 151)

A further blow came when the United States raised tariffs on fish and farm goods, keeping Nova Scotia apples and Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick potatoes off American dinner tables. New U.S. regulations also thwarted the Maritime fishing industry. About the only exports the United States accepted freely from the Maritimes were their sons and daughters, as over 100 000 of them emigrated during the 1920s to the northeastern states.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #47

Chapter 10 (p. 152)

Of course, the more money that people invested, the greater the market value of stocks increased. The shares of Canadian Marconi, a radio company that had not been very profitable, should have sold at \$1 each, but market value inflated them to \$28 each. 'Although Marconi had real assets of only \$5 million, the New York Stock Exchange valued the company at nearly \$130 million. One Canadian investment company, which bought and sold stocks of all kinds for investors, went from having two employees, one office, and \$17 000 in capital in the mid-1920s to a huge forty-office business with fifteen hundred employees and thousands of kilometers of wire linking them to the important stock changes by the end of the decade.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #48

Chapter 10 (p. 155)

The Great Depression, which began at the end of the 1920s, demonstrated the limitations of Canada's independence. The nation's economy was closely tied to world conditions, especially those in Europe and the United States. Much of the prosperity of the 1920s was based on the production and sale of primary products, especially wheat, wood products like lumber and newsprint, and minerals. Eighty percent of this production was sold in international markets.

But Canada was not the only nation to suffer. The Great Depression was a worldwide economic disaster that affected countries as diverse as Germany, Chile, Japan, Australia,

and the United States. The loss of these foreign markets would affect not only the agricultural, forest, and mineral sectors of the Canadian economy, but everything that was linked these key industries as well.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #49

Chapter 10 (p. 157)

As the United States tried to keep its own economy healthy, Americans stopped investing in places like Canada and focused on the home market. American bankers also demanded payment on loans that had helped rebuild the European economies that had been devastated by World War I. Many European countries found it difficult or impossible to repay the loans. The result was that they could no longer afford to purchase Canada's products.

In most countries, including Canada and the United States, there was another basic problem that was largely ignored during the 1920s. The average wage in Canada in 1929 was \$1200. The Department of Labour's 1929 estimate of the amount required to maintain an average Canadian family at a "minimum standard of health and decency" was \$1430.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #50

Chapter 11 (p. 163)

Prime Minister Mackenzie King could not to lose the support of the Western provinces, so the higher tariff was not granted to the Maritimes. This allowed cheaper American coal, iron, and steel to flood the Canadian market. Maritime resources could not compete, so King set up a royal commission (the Duncan Commission) to look into the group's complaints. The commission recommended several major changes, including reduced rail rates increased federal subsidies. King's Liberals, however, agreed to only a few minor changes.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #51

Chapter 11 (p. 165)

Prime Minister Bennett realized that if he was going to win the 1935 election, his government had to make a change. On January 3, 1935, he made a coast- to-coast radio speech that shocked many Canadians. "I am for reform," he told listeners, "and, to my mind, reform means government intervention, it means government control and regulation, it means the end of laissez-faire." In several more radio addresses, he introduced what became known as his "New Deal." Bennett's promises were patterned on the new economic program of U.S. President Franklin Roosevelt, who had promised "a new deal for the American People." Bennett's New Deal included promises and laws to regulate hours of work, to provide a minimum wage, to improve working conditions, and to provide insurance against sickness, industrial accidents, and unemployment.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 4

Entry #52

Chapter 11 (p. 166)

Mackenzie King led Canada through the last years of the Great Depression. His government continued Bennett's policy of financial aid to Prairie farmers and passed the Prairie Farm Rehabilitation Act (PFRA). The PFRA gave money to develop new farming methods, seed vacant land, and relocate some families to better farming areas further north. King also introduced lower tariffs and signed a new trade agreement with the United States. But his main goal was to slash government spending and balance the federal budget.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #53

Chapter 12 (p. 180)

Although there were many Canadian aviation companies in the 1930s, Canada did not have an official national airline system until the federal government established Trans-Canada Air Lines (TCA) in 1937. When Trans-Canada Air Lines began commercial service in 1937, passengers flew in these luxury ten-seat Lockheed Electras. By 1939, TCA had fifteen American-made ten passenger Lockheed planes, since there was no Canadian airplane manufacturing industry. On April 1, 1939, TCA's first passenger flight took off from Vancouver for Montreal.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #54

Chapter 13 Opener (p. 192)

After World War I Canada began to pull away from the imperial ties that bound it tightly to Britain. At the same time, its relationship with the United States was growing stronger. How autonomous do you think Canada could ever really be?

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #55

Chapter 13 (p. 193)

At the same time that Canada was gradually achieving independence from Britain, it was developing closer economic and cultural ties to the United States. Although most Canadians enjoyed this growing influence, there were some concerns, especially in the area of public broadcasting, about its long-term effects. Close economic ties meant that whatever happened to the American economy would happen to Canada's as well. The 1920s and 1930s revealed both the positive and negative effects of this relationship.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #56

Chapter 13 (p. 198)

Soon Canada and the United States also exchanged representatives and Canada established diplomatic relations with France and Japan. All that remained was for Britain to formally recognize full Canadian independence.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #57

Chapter 13 (p. 200)

### Closer Canadian—American Relations

At the same time that Canada was moving away from Britain's control, it was coming increasingly under the influence of the United States. The proportions of other nations' investment in Canada became much smaller, as the following table shows.

**FOREIGN INVESTMENT IN CANADA, 1900–1930 (PERCENT)**

Country	1900	1910	1920	1930
Britain	85	76	51	36
United States	13	20	45	61
Other	2	4	4	3

Source: *Historical Atlas of Canada, Vol. 3. Addressing the Twentieth Century* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press; 1990), plate 3.

However, most American investment in the 1920s was in the outright ownership of Canadian businesses. This is known as direct investment, and it resulted in a loss of Canadian control of Canadian business.

Another result of direct investment was increasing number of “branch plants,” American manufacturing and commercial firms that were located in Canada to avoid the import tariffs they were part of the National Policy. American investors also bought huge tracts of land for timber and mineral rights that came with them. By 1930, over 30 percent of Canada's pulp and paper industry, and 40 percent of the mining industry was American-owned. Few Canadians seemed to care that this might undermine Canada's newly won independence, as provinces competed for vast sums of development money from their southern neighbour. The United States replaced Britain, not only as Canada's main source of foreign investment but also as its main trading partner.

The 1920s and 1930s saw Canada become a more North American nation. The country weakened both its economic and political ties to Britain and increased its ability to act independently. At the same time, it developed closer economic and cultural ties with the United States. Whether these ties would undermine Canada's newly gained political independence was not clear as the 1930s ended.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 2

Entry #58

Unit 5 Opener (p. 281)

The Canada of 1945 and the Canada of 1968 had many things in common. The nation still enjoyed its connection to Britain; it continued to welcome immigrants and refugees; its population and economy continued to prosper with new technologies and industries; the United States was its most important trading partner; and Canada continued to expand its international role as a referee and peacekeeper.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #59

Chapter 18 (p. 285)

But the car was more than a means of transportation. Canadians fell in love with the “chrome boats” being churned out by Chrysler, Ford, and General Motors in Windsor, Oakville, and Oshawa. The bigger, faster, and fancier these cars were, the better. Many teenagers spent months customizing old cars to turn them into fantastic “road machines.”

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #60

Chapter 19 (p. 300)

By 1945, however, economic conditions in Newfoundland had become desperate. The Newfoundland fish and lumber industries had recovered from the Depression, and post-war Britain could not afford financial subsidies to its colony. The United States, however, was interested in the strategic military and economic potential of Newfoundland and Labrador.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #61

Chapter 19 (p. 301)

When St. Laurent's government announced that contract to build a pipeline to carry oil and natural gas from Alberta to Eastern Canada — and a loan of \$80 million — had been awarded to a company that was 83 percent American-owned, many Canadians were outraged. Why, they asked, should the contract and government money go to an American company? Why not a Canadian one? There was a storm of controversy over the TransCanada pipeline bill in Parliament. The Liberal government managed to push the bill through by cutting off debate and forcing a vote. But its reputation was shattered by what many Canadians saw as arrogant tactics in Parliament.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #62

Chapter 19 (p. 310)

Duplessis believed Québec had to avoid English influence on its society by refusing federal programs that affect Québec life. For example, he refused sizable federal grants for health care and education because he them as threats to the traditional Québec society.

But Duplessis saw no problem in encouraging mostly English-speaking businesspeople, especially Americans, to establish industries in Québec. He offered businesses special privileges and tax break American and English Canadian money built the hydro-electric power dams and factories that appeared alongside the French Canadian churches on the St. Lawrence River. Young French Canadians left family farms to work in the new peacetime industries.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #63

Chapter 20 Opener (p. 314)

Timeline showing Auto pact signed between Canada and United States in 1965.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #64

Chapter 20 (p. 315)

Canada's economy was expanding by leaps and bounds. Ordinary Canadians were earning more money, and the middle class was swelling. More money meant more buying power, and Canadians went on a national shopping spree. They began buying more consumer goods than their parents had ever dreamed of owning. This consumer spending helped fuel the expansion of Canadian industries. New resources were discovered and mined in Canada's northern regions, bringing prosperity to many provinces. New trade agreements and joint projects with the United States tied the Canadian economy closer to the United States' economy. One writer called it the decade when Canadians "learned to live with bigness."

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #65

Chapter 20 (p. 317)

The coal and steel industries, which had been part of the backbone of the Maritime economy, collapsed due to falling demand and cheaper sources of raw materials in Central Canada and the United States. This collapse pushed thousands of workers either to find new jobs or leave the Atlantic provinces altogether. During the 1950s more than eighty thousand people left the region to find work elsewhere.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #66

Chapter 20 (p. 318)

Natural resources also brought some wealth to the Prairie provinces. One late afternoon in the winter of 1947, a jet of oil, gas, and mud spewed fifteen metres into the Alberta sky. Oil — "black gold" — had been discovered at Leduc, Alberta, near Edmonton. Imperial Oil's fabulous strike at Leduc set off an oil and natural gas boom in Alberta, and the exploration and production of oil provided many jobs. The main market that Alberta oil needed was Central Canada. But Central Canada had easy access to cheap American oil and gas, and there was no easy way to get Alberta oil to this large market.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #67



Chapter 20 (p. 320)

Britain had always been an important trading partner for Canada. But after World War II its economy had faltered, and trade relations between Canada and Britain dropped off. Meanwhile the American economy was booming. Canada was right next door, and many Canadian industries found it easy to sell their products on the American market. Canadian consumers and industries were also eager to buy American goods. The two countries became each other's most important trading partners.

Researcher: 5      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 4

Entry #68

Chapter 20 (p. 320-21)

The construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway symbolized the expanding economic relations between Canada and the United States. The seaway was a massive construction project that would enable large, ocean-going freighters to sail past the dangerous rapids of the St. Lawrence River and into the Great Lakes. The two nations had been discussing the building of a seaway for decades, but without result. In 1949, however, the Canadian government decided to build the seaway, with or without American help. In 1954 the United States agreed to take part in the project. Each country agreed to pay for the portions of the seaway inside its own territory.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 4

Entry #69

Chapter 20 (p. 321)

The St. Lawrence Seaway was planned, designed, and largely built by Canadians. The size of the project was staggering. Huge rapids were dynamited, whole towns were flooded, and 6500 people were relocated in new homes elsewhere. Railways and highways were rerouted around the new flood zones. Seven new locks were built, five of them Canada. The seaway was officially opened in a joint ceremony in June 1959, with Queen Elizabeth II representing Canada and President Dwight Eisenhower representing the United States. One Canadian observer commented that the new St. Lawrence Seaway "was like a huge economic zipper knitting these two countries together."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #70

Chapter 20 (p. 321)

Another agreement signed in 1965- — the Auto Pact also tied the Canadian and American economies more closely together. By the mid-1960s, Canadians had become upset by a growing trade imbalance with the United States: Canada was spending more money to buy American goods than it was making by selling Canadian goods to the United States. The biggest trade deficit existed in automobiles and automobile parts. For example, in 1962, while Canada exported \$62 million worth of “automotives” to the United States, it imported \$642 million worth from the United States. The Canadian government argued that Canadians needed a new deal in the cross-border automotive industry. Although Canadians bought more than 7 per- cent of the cars produced by America’s “Big Three” automobile manufacturers — Ford, Chrysler, and General Motors — the Big Three plants in Oakville, Windsor, and Oshawa, Ontario, produced only 4 percent of these) manufacturers’ cars.

The Canadian government wanted the number of cars bought and produced in Canada to be equalized. Talks with the United States began in July 1964, and by January 1965 the Auto Pact was signed. The pact guaranteed free trade in automobiles between the two countries. The automobile manufacturers could locate their plants wherever they wanted and sell their cars duty-free in either country. The only major qualification was that the Big Three manufacturers had to build one car in Canada for every car they sold in Canada. The pact also put a tax on cars imported from Japan, Germany, and Britain. The Auto Pact brought real benefits to Canada, but it also tied the Canadian economy even more closely to the U.S. economy.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #71

Chapter 20 (p. 324)

American Investment in Canada

After World War II Canada found that it had many of the natural resources that the United States needed to keep its economy in high gear. The Americans needed oil, and Alberta’s newly discovered Leduc oil field gave them what they needed. They bought aluminum from Kitimat, B.C., and uranium from northern Saskatchewan and Elliot Lake, Ontario. They also bought nickel, natural gas, and a host of new chemical products.

Resource development has always been risky. For instance, Imperial Oil spent \$23 million and drilled 133 dry wells before it struck “black gold” at Leduc in 1947. Most

often, it was American rather than Canadian investors who were willing to take risks. Because American companies invested money in Canadian resources, they also collected most of the profits. Still, the growth of American-backed industries helped Canada to prosper. New industries meant more jobs and a higher standard of living for many Canadians.

It is not surprising that many Canadians welcomed the flow of American money into Canada in the 1950s. But in 1957 the Gordon commission — the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects — published its findings on the foreign ownership of Canadian industries and resources. The commission's report denounced the huge scale of foreign — especially American — ownership of Canada's industries and resources. Critics noted that Canadian “branch plants” were under American direction and funneled most of their profits to investors back in the United States. By 1967, 81 percent of the \$34.7 billion worth of foreign investment in Canada came from American sources. Public opinion shifted: a 1967 poll showed that two thirds of Canadians wanted the federal government to control American investment in Canada. Several other government reports, including the Watkins Report of 1968, raised concerns about the extent of the foreign ownership of Canadian firms.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #72

Chapter 20 (p. 324)

The 1950s and 1960s brought an incredible growth in economic well-being for most Canadians. These were the years of optimism, as Canadians — both governments and private citizens — worked to create economic and material prosperity. American investment in Canadian resources was welcomed, but what consequences would this have for Canadian businesses? There can be no question that, from 1945 to 1970, “big” was a good word to describe Canada's economy. But it is also important to remember that not all Canadians shared in these years of economic good times.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #73

Chapter 22 Opener (p. 343-44)

Timeline stating the creation of a trading bloc including Canada, the United States, and Mexico in 1992.

Timeline stating that the Agreement on Arctic Co-operation soothes tensions between the United States and Canada over sovereignty in the Arctic in 1988.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #74

Chapter 23 (p. 359)

A freer international financial took shape after World War II. Large multinational companies, based in the United States and in Europe, expanded into other parts of the globe.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #75

Chapter 23 (p. 359)

The buoyant economy of the 1960s became turbulent in the 1970s. A variety of national and international crises put serious strains on the Canadian economy, resulting in high unemployment, rising prices, and, by the end of the decade, interest rates of nearly 20 percent. The election of a separatist government in Québec in 1976 frightened foreign investors, leading to a significant decline in the value of the Canadian dollar from nearly on par with the U.S. dollar to about \$0.70 (U.S.).

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #76

Chapter 23 (p. 359)

The interconnectedness of global economies became very apparent in the fall of 1973. During the Arab—Israeli War of October 1973 many Western countries, including Canada and the United States supported Israel. Following the war the oil cartel known as the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) retaliated by placing an embargo on oil shipments to all countries that had supported Israel.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #77

Chapter 23 (p. 359)

After Canada had endured several years of volatile oil prices and uncertain supply from abroad, the Canadian government decided to protect Canadians from the whims of the global economy. It created the National Energy Program (NEP) in 1980 to ensure Canada's future oil supply, control oil prices, and achieve 50 percent Canadian ownership of the oil industry by 1990. The NEP gave Canadian oil and gas companies special grants and special terms for northern exploration. Plans were made to build pipelines to bring Western crude oil to the East. It also gave the federal government a bigger share of oil and gas revenues. American oil companies were shocked and angry but oil producers in Alberta and Saskatchewan were also outraged as the NEP established a fixed, made-in-Canada price for oil.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #78

Chapter 23 (p. 360)

American Participation in the Canadian Economy

Many Canadians welcomed the flow of American money into Canada in the 1950s. But by 1967, 81 percent of the \$34.7 billion worth of foreign investment in Canada was from American sources. Public opinion shifted: a 1967 poll showed that two thirds of Canadians wanted their government to control American investment in Canada. Several government reports, including the Watkins Report of 1968 and the Grey Report of 1971, raised concerns about the extent of the foreign ownership of Canadian firms.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #79

Chapter 23 (p. 360)

Picture showing a Wal-Mart in Canada

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2



American participation in the Canadian economy can be seen almost everywhere. Could the Canadian economy survive without American participation?

#### Entry #80

Chapter 23 (p. 361)

The FIRA was scrapped by the Mulroney government in 1984 and replaced by Investment Canada. Investment Canada's role was more limited; it reviewed takeovers of Canadian companies only if a company's selling price exceeded \$5 million. Investment Canada kept the power to review all takeovers in cultural industries, but its main goal was to welcome American investment. During his first major speech in the United States, Prime Minister Brian Mulroney told the Economic Club in New York that "Canada is open for business again."

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 4

#### Entry #81

Chapter 23 (p. 361)

Making investments in Canada was not the only way in which the United States played a major role in the Canadian economy. Seventy percent of all Canada's exports went to the United States. Canada was also the biggest customer for American goods. Any change in American economic policy sent major shock waves through the Canadian economy. In a famous comment, Pierre Trudeau described Canada's uncomfortable dependence on the U.S. economy: "Living next to you is in some ways like sleeping with an elephant: no

matter how friendly and even-tempered the beast one is affected by every twitch and grunt.”

Just a few months after Trudeau’s comment, the elephant twitched and Canadian businesspeople trembled. In 1971 U.S. President Richard Nixon ordered a 10 percent tariff on goods imported into the United States. This came to be known as the, Nixon shock. As a result, Canadian-made goods cost more in the United States, and Canadian businesses faced the prospect of losing \$300 million in exports. Although worldwide pressure forced the United States to cancel the 10 percent tariff a few months later, Canadians were shocked to discover how economically dependent they were on the United States and how badly they could be hurt by changes in American economic policy.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 2

Entry #82

Chapter 23 (p. 361)

After the “Nixon shock,” Canada had three choices: it could maintain its present relationship with the United States, move toward even closer relations, to try to create a more independent Canadian economy. Trudeau’s government chose the third option. Canada began to look for new trading partner around the world as a way of lessening its dependence on the United States.

During the 1970s, Canada tried to forge new trade links in Europe, Asia, and Africa, but by the mid-1980s it looked as if the only important market willing to take Canadian goods was the United States. The United States, however, was thinking about creating its own trade barriers to keep out goods from other nations.

Ottawa began to worry that Canada would be locked out of global markets, including the American market. Trudeau seriously considered developing closer trade ties with the United States. In September 1985 the Royal Commission on the Economic Union and Development Prospects for Canada called for a “leap of faith” into free trade with the United States. By this time Prime Minister Trudeau had retired, and it would be up to Brian Mulroney and the Progressive Conservatives to steer Canada into free trade.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #83

Chapter 23 (p. 361 & 363)

Once he was in office, Prime Minister Mulroney proposed a full-fledged free-trade deal between Canada and the United States. Because of GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) negotiations since World War II, about 80 percent of the tariff barriers that had existed between the United States and Canada in 1935 had been removed. The Free Trade Agreement (FTA) gave Canada and the United States open access to each other's markets for most goods, and committed the two countries to dropping cross border tariffs by the end of 1998. It also dealt with other trade concerns, including energy the movement of people for business purposes, investment, and financial services. Free trade became the issue of the 1988 federal election, just as it had been in the 1911 election. Arguments for and against free trade raged across the country. In the election the Progressive Conservatives won a majority government, and the FTA became law on January 1, 1989.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #84

Chapter 23 (p. 363)

Political cartoon depicting fears of free trade between Canada and the United States

Researcher: 1      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 1



Carefully examine this cartoon. What impact is the cartoon suggesting the Free Trade Agreement would have on Canada? Is there any evidence so far to suggest that these fears are justified?

Entry #85

Chapter 23 (p. 363)



Shortly after the FTA came into effect, Mexico wanted to become a close trading partner of Canada and the United States. In 1992, after another round of trade talks, the leaders of Mexico, the United States, and Canada signed the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which included Mexico in the free-trade region created by the FTA. It created a large free-trade bloc linking 370 million people in three countries, with 31 percent of the world's wealth, into a single trade region. Again Canadian public opinion became polarized over free trade. Opponents of the deal claimed that the United States would be the main winner, because American employers would take advantage of cheap Mexican labour and Canadian raw materials. Despite opposition, however, NAFTA came into effect in 1993.

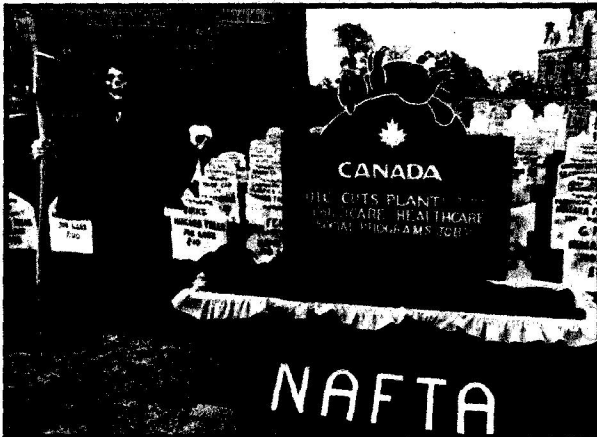
Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #86

Chapter 23 (p. 363)

Photograph showing worries about NAFTA

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 2



Many Canadians were worried that NAFTA would not only lead to job losses but that it would put Canada's social programs in jeopardy. Why would they think this?

Entry #87

Chapter 23 (p. 363 & 365)

What was the outcome of free trade, ten years later? Was the “leap of faith” justified? The results were uncertain. Statistics from 1998 showed an increase in Canadian exports to the United States. The greatest increase in exports was from Ontario, followed by Québec and Alberta. It should be noted, however, that the surge in exports was also due to a low Canadian dollar. Except in Ontario and Québec, where automotive parts were the major export, the exports continued to be from the resource sector. In other words, a longstanding pattern in Canadian economic history remained the same. There was an increase in north—south trade for all regions, integrating the Canadian economy more closely into that of the United States. Only Prince Edward Island exported more to the rest of Canada than it did abroad. Manufacturing increased, though not as much as the FTA’s supporters expected. Nor was it clear that the NAFTA led to an increase in the number of jobs; wages had not risen as a result of the agreement.

NAFTA may also limit a country’s power to protect its environment. A controversial provision in the agreement allows a company to sue if it loses business because of environmental legislation. When the Canadian government banned the use of MMT, a gasoline additive, the Ethyl Corporation of Virginia sued for damages. Rather than proceed with the lawsuit, Ottawa paid the company \$19 million and agreed to withdraw the ban on MMT. The action raised the possibility that a country might not be able to pass laws relating to environment and health issues.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #88

Chapter 23 (p. 368)

When some investors began to return their money to Hong Kong after realizing that the communist takeover would not threaten their assets, Vancouver’s booming economy slowed considerably. Other areas of the province also encountered difficulties. The forestry industry was forced to battle with American interests opposed to Canada exporting softwood lumber, while salmon fishing, like cod fishing on the East Coast, was placed in jeopardy by overfishing.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Canadian National Identity

Entry #89

Chapter 3 (p. 33)

Only half of French Canadians still lived in the countryside; many had been forced to leave their childhood villages to make a living in larger communities, including cities in the United States. Those who remained in Québec were afraid that their language and culture might not survive.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #90

Chapter 3 (p. 37)

With other refugees facing anti-Semitism (discrimination against Jews), they found their way to Canada and, in even greater numbers, to the United States. The Jewish population of Canada rose from 2500 in 1881 to over 75 000 by 1914. The largest Jewish community formed in Montréal, but other solid communities existed in Saint John, Quebec City, Toronto, Hamilton, and Winnipeg. Hoping for the promised land of freedom, however, they were sometimes disappointed.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #91

Chapter 3 (p. 37)

The 1800s were a time of Black migration to Canada. Escaping slavery in the southern United States and racial discrimination in the northern U.S. cities, Black people came to Canada via the Underground Railway and established communities across Canada.

Although they had escaped from slavery Blacks in Canada still faced racism. Many city councils actively encouraged them to return to the United States after the Civil War, and many Blacks took up the offer as land opened up and the long-delayed end of slavery finally occurred.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #92

Chapter 4 (p. 54)

Many female reformers were especially concerned with women's issues, and many groups made headlines in their fight for women's rights. The campaign for women's suffrage the right to vote was launched in Ontario by the Toronto Women's Literary Club. The club was led by Emily Stowe, a doctor who had been denied access to university in Canada and then, after training in the United States, was denied entry to the College of Physicians and Surgeons. As the popularity of women's suffrage spread across

the country, the club changed its name to the Canadian Women's Suffrage Association. Women's organizations took up the cause on the Prairies with a particular vigour.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #93  
Chapter 4 (p. 54)

Immigration brought experienced unionists to Canada from Europe, and in the late 1880s the American-based Knights of Labor mobilized thousands of workers, especially in Ontario and Québec.

Another American organization, the International Workers of the World (IWW), was founded in 1951 and went even further to try to organize all workers into one giant union. The IWW wanted the one giant union to call a strike and use the only weapon that workers had at their disposal: withdrawing their labour. The problem with this approach was that strikers could easily be replaced by other workers. There was no law against this practice, and employers actively brought in strikebreakers (or "scabs") whenever they needed them.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #94  
Chapter 5 (p. 58)

Chapter Opener Inquiry Questions

Why did Canada feel caught between the power of Britain and that of the United States?  
What were the key characteristics of Canadian-American relations during the Laurier years?

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #95  
Chapter 12 (p. 176)

Emily Carr

Born in Victoria, British Columbia, in 1871, Emily Carr became one of Canada's best-known painters. After studying art in San Francisco and making trips to England and France, Carr returned to Victoria, where her style began to take shape. By the late 1920s, Carr's paintings were becoming very popular. Influenced by the Group of Seven, Carr captured the wilderness and the way of life of Aboriginal people in the Queen Charlotte Islands.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #96

Chapter 12 (p. 178)

This experimental national network did not ease the serious concerns about the effects of the inflow of American culture on Canada. The Aird Commission, established in 1928 to review the broadcasting situation, made recommendations that led to the creation of the Canadian Radio Broadcasting Commission in 1932. In 1936 this commission was reorganized as the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation — the CBC — which provided quality programming that focused on national, educational, and non-commercial purposes. The creation of the CBC began the process of developing and focusing on Canadian content in the electronic media.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #97

Chapter 12 (p. 180)

By 1939, TCA had fifteen American-made ten passenger Lockheed planes, since there was no Canadian airplane manufacturing industry. On April 1, 1939, TCA's first passenger flight took off from Vancouver for Montreal. The trip, including several stops, took fifteen hours — compared with three days and four nights by train — but the one-way fare was \$130.90, a price only the well-off could afford.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #98

Chapter 12 (p. 180-81)

Motion pictures, already known as “movies,” had been showing to paying customers since 1896. By the 1920s, big American producers were emerging, and their control of the distribution of films through “chains” of movie theatres squeezed out both Canadian film production and the fledgling made-in-Canada chains. One Canadian company, the Allen chain, began in 1906 in Brantford, Ontario, and by 1919 owned forty-five movie theatres. By 1923, however, it had been overtaken by the American distribution network Famous Players Canadian Corp.

Canadians loved Hollywood movies and idolized American film stars like Charlie Chaplin, Rudolph Valentino, and Greta Garbo. Many talented Canadians headed for Hollywood, seeking — and sometimes finding — fame and fortune. Mary Pickford, known and loved across North America as “America’s Sweetheart,” was born Gladys May Smith in Toronto in 1893. She became the most popular film actress of the 1920s. With her husband, Douglas Fairbanks, and Charlie Chaplin, Mary Pickford founded the motion-picture studio United Artists in 1919.

In an effort to encourage a Canadian film industry the federal government funded agencies to make Canadian films, but most of the resulting movies were expensive failures like the movie *Fishing Just for Fun*. Major success for the Canadian film industry did not come until the National Film Board (NFB), a crown corporation, was founded to produce Canadian films in 1939.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 2

Entry #99

Chapter 12 (p. 181)

The term Jazz Age is often used to describe the culture of the United States in the 1920s. One of the reasons is that jazz, as a revolutionary form of music, became tremendously popular during these years. A blending of European and West African musical traditions, it originated among Black American artists in New Orleans in the 1800s and had evolved into a variety of forms by the early twentieth century including the blues and ragtime. Jazz artists like Louis Armstrong, Bessie Smith, and Duke Ellington became famous and, with the help of radio, helped the Jazz Age to spill over into Canada. The first Canadian jazz recording, “St. Louis Blues,” was made by the Gilbert Watson Orchestra of Toronto in 1926. Although the musical jazz age ended around this time, its rhythms continued to emerge in popular music.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #100

Chapter 12 (p. 183-84)

The Jazz Age was generally an urban middle-class phenomenon. In the countryside, the “big show in town” was more likely to be a kind of kilometer variety show called Chautauqua. Under a big brown tent, one might find a lecturer showing off the latest wonder of the world — the radio — or magic acts, puppets, and live theatre. Taking its name from the lake in New York state where it began, Chautauqua was brought to Canada in 1916 by John Erickson. Speakers were the core of the program, and their topics ranged from the new technologies to talks on war, peace, exploration, women’s suffrage, and politics. Music, an important part of the program, ranged from classical to popular numbers and from Swiss bell-ringers and Hawaiian groups to Scottish bagpipers. From the last years of the Great War until the mid-1930s, these three- to six-day shows were an important part of rural Canadian culture, especially in the West.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #101

Chapter 12 (p. 184)

In the 1920s larger cities, more leisure time, the return of a measure of prosperity, and the creation of mass markets through radio and newspapers provided the context for a virtual explosion of professional sport, both in the United States and in Canada. In the United States, fans in the thousands watched as George Herman “Babe” Ruth hit home run after home run for the New York Yankees.

By 1927 the National Hockey League (NHL) was big business in the growing cities. It began with ten teams: two in New York two in Montréal, and one each in Ottawa, Toronto, Detroit, Boston, Pittsburgh, and Chicago. Football, lacrosse, baseball, and track and field were also very popular in Canada in the 1920s.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #102

Chapter 12 (p. 186)

Much of the Canadian criminal activity in 1920s and early 1930s resulted from American Prohibition, which was in effect in the United States from 1919 to 1933. By law, the United States was a “dry” country. But many “dry” Americans were thirsty and willing to pay for illegal alcohol. Even during Prohibition, Canadian liquor laws allowed distilleries on the Prairies to make liquor for “non-drinking” purposes, such as medical uses. Much of this alcohol was sold illegally to the “dry” Americans.

Profits from bootlegging (the illegal sale of alcoholic beverages) were enormous. A case of twelve bottles of liquor could be bought in Saskatchewan for about \$50 and sold for \$300 south of the border. Smuggling Canadian bootleg liquor into the United States — sometimes called rum-running—became big business. Blind pigs—places where liquor could be bought illegally—popped up across Canada. Some of Canada’s wealthiest families got their start by selling illegal alcohol during American Prohibition.

The attraction of huge profits from the illegal trade quickly drew machine-gun-toting American mobsters, and they brought with them gang warfare, murder, and the corruption of police, judges, and government officials. The lawlessness spilled across the Canadian border. Prohibition began to look like as much of a social evil as the drunkenness it tried to stop.

The determination of the American government to stop the smuggling peaked in 1929, when the Nova Scotia schooner *I’m Alone* attempted to sneak alcohol into the United States. As long as the schooner remained outside the territorial waters of the United States, it could not be arrested by the U.S. Coast Guard. After being pursued for two days, and despite being well out in international waters, the *I’m Alone* was captured and sunk by cannon fire. Despite the controversy created by this incident, Canadians continued to smuggle alcohol into the United States until Prohibition ended in 1933.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #103

Chapter 12 (p. 186)

Many “rum-runners” looked for creative ways to smuggle liquor into the United States. How many bottles of liquor do you think this man could smuggle while wearing a large overcoat?

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3





Many "rum-runners" looked for creative ways to smuggle liquor into the United States. How many bottles of liquor do you think this man could smuggle while wearing a large overcoat?

Entry #104

Chapter 12 (p. 188)

It is not surprising that in these conditions Black Canadians looked to themselves for encouragement and support. Everywhere in Canada, as well as in the United States, Black people found relief and comfort in their churches. Black women were the driving force behind the church-sponsored social services that kept the community together. Church leaders were also often the spokespersons who worked for change in the larger community.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #105

Chapter 18 (p. 286)

Wherever they gathered, they listened to the tunes of the latest rock n'roll sensations, including Elvis Presley, Chuck Berry, and Ottawa's Paul Anka. Rock'n'roll became a subculture for the youth of North America. In the 1950s adolescence was recognized for the first time as a distinct stage in a person's growth.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #106

Chapter 18 (p. 288)

Countering the Influence of American Culture

During the 1950s and 1960s the rising tide of American culture turned into a flood, and American radio and television programs, movies, books, and magazines poured into Canada. At the same time, the Canadian government reduced funding for the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) and the National Film Board (NFB). The combination of these two factors led many Canadians to become worried about the increasing influence of the United States on Canadian culture.

In terms of popularity, American motion pictures far outpaced Canadian films. In music, although some Canadian artists and bands such as Paul Anka, the Diamonds, Joni Mitchell, Neil Young, and Buffy Sainte-Marie found success with American audiences, Canadian demands for popular music by American artists such as Elvis Presley, Jerry Lee Lewis, Bob Dylan, Janis Joplin, and Jimi Hendrix almost silenced Canadian artists. American television broadcasts swept across Canada in the 1950s, and only *Hockey Night in Canada* could compete with American programs like *I Love Lucy* and the *Ed Sullivan Show*.

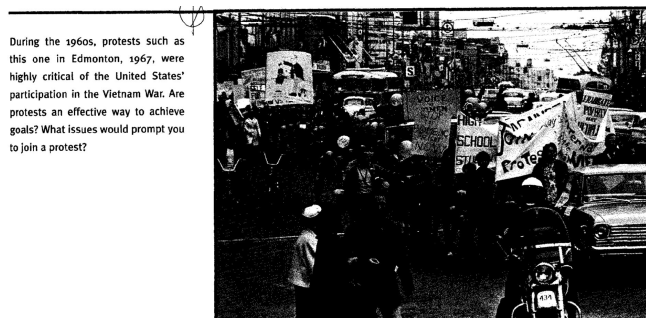
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #107

Chapter 18 (p. 289)

Picture showing Vietnam protest in Edmonton, 1967

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3



Entry #108

Chapter 18 (p. 289)

Picture showing picture of Lorne Greene and William Shatner, both Canadian actors

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Many Canadian actors began their careers on stage at the Stratford Festival Theatre performing in Shakespearean plays. Both Lorne Greene, left, and William Shatner, right, went on to become major Hollywood stars. Why do Canadian actors often move to the United States?

Entry #109

Chapter 18 (p. 289)

### *The Massey Commission*

As early as 1949 the Canadian government established the Massey Commission (headed by Vincent Massey) to investigate the Canadian development of the arts. The Massey Commission called for increased government support for the CBC and the NFB, as well as the establishment of a federal agency to provide funds and support for the arts in

Canada. Six years later the government created the Canada Council to do such a job. Canadian arts organizations such as the Stratford Shakespearean Festival, Niagara-on-the-Lake's Shaw Festival, and many symphony orchestras began to flourish with the help of the Canada Council.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #110  
Chapter 18 (p. 294)

Johnny Wayne (1918—1990) and Frank Shuster (born 1916) formed the popular Canadian comedy team Wayne and Shuster. They made their first appearance on Canadian television in 1952. In 1958 they made their first of a record sixty-seven appearances on the highly popular U.S. program, *The Ed Sullivan Show*. Despite being one of Canada's first successful television comedy exports, Wayne and Shuster chose to live and work in Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #111  
Chapter 19 (p. 302)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

#### Guy Lombardo and His Royal Canadians

As the world watches the New Year's celebrations from Times Square in New York each year, at the stroke of midnight, we hear the strains of the Robert Burns ballad, "Auld Lang Syne", played by a big band called The Royal Canadians. This traditions, which has become such an important part of the annual New Year's celebration, is rooted in the lives of three brothers, born in London, Ontario.

The Lombardo brothers, Guy, Carmen, and Lebert, were born in the early years of the twentieth century. All of this Italian Canadian family's seven children studied music. When the boys were teenagers, their father formed the Lombardo Brothers Concert Company, which played at socials and parties around London.

In 1923 the Lombardo brothers and their band left Ontario to "conquer the world" in the United States. In order to sound more distinctive, in 1924 the band changed its name to

Guy Lombardo and His Royal Canadians. They went on to great success in Chicago, finally settling in New York in 1929. There they were the house band at the Roosevelt Grill, a popular Manhattan restaurant. Throughout World War II, in what has come to be known as the “Big Band Era,” Guy Lombardo and His Royal Canadians (often referred to as “the sweetest orchestra this side of heaven”) played in a number of popular movies and became well known for their recordings.

Even after World War II the band’s success continued. In 1964 the Royal Canadians staged the biggest New Year’s Eve party ever held in North America. They hired New York’s Grand Central Station for the night of December 31 and held a charity benefit for two thousand guests. Naturally, at midnight they played their signature tune, “Auld Lang Syne.” Guy Lombardo continued to work until his death in 1977. The band had been a New York Institution for over four decades. The Royal Canadians continue to tour and perform under the leadership of Guy Lombardo’s son, Bill.



Entry #112  
Chapter 20 (p. 316)

Despite the best efforts of the CBC and the Massey Commission, Canadians fell in love with American television programs. A generation of Canadians and Americans grew up sharing a fascination with programs such as *I Love Lucy*, *Howdy Doody*, and *Your Hit Parade*. Television introduced many new American stars and heroes—including Davy Crockett, Ed Sullivan, and Elvis Presley—to Canadians. Although Canadian broadcasters did not have the money to compete with American programs, several successful Canadian programs hit the airwaves in the 1950s, including *Front Page*, *Challenge*, *Tugboat Annie*, and *Hockey Night Live in Canada*.

Many Canadians had grave reservations about what the coming of the television age would mean to Canadian society. They feared that American-dominated television would undermine the Canadian identity by blurring the distinction between Canadians and Americans. There was also a fear that Canada’s youth would cease to excel in school and would spend too much time in front of the television, becoming passive receivers of information.

Today the number of channels available to many Canadians is virtually limitless. To what degree have the fears of early critics been realized? How do you balance your television viewing with other activities in your life? What, if anything, should be done to ensure that quality Canadian programs continue to be available to Canadians?

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #113  
Chapter 24 (p. 378)

Throughout the years I played with all my heart. I broke a few junior scoring records along the way, but never got drafted into the National Hockey League (NHL). I finally made the NHL as a walk-on—and with a lot of luck and hard work, I managed to stay in. Although I played nine years in the NHL and won a Stanley Cup with the New York Rangers in 1994, nothing could compare to the feelings of returning home to Toronto, wearing a Leafs jersey, and playing in Maple Leaf Gardens when I was traded to Toronto.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #114  
Chapter 25 (p. 402 & 404)

*The Americanization of Canadian Culture*

Canadian author Robertson Davies once described Canada as the “attic” of the North American continent: upstairs was the unimportant little nation of Canada, and downstairs was the giant American superpower. Even though Canada occupies an enormous part of North America, Davies is not the only Canadian who sees this country as a small and unrecognized nation perched atop the huge United States. After the centennial celebrations of 1967, Canadians looked to the federal government to stem the tide of American culture flooding over Canada. In 1968 the government created the Canadian Radio—Television Commission (CRTC) to control radio and television licensing. The CRTC announced in 1970 that radio and TV stations would have to broadcast a certain percentage of Canadian content or risk losing their licences.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #115  
Chapter 25 (p. 403)

Throughout the late twentieth century the world has increasingly become a global village. Advanced telecommunications allow television and radio programs to be beamed into Canada from the United States. With the development of affordable and powerful satellite dishes, more and more Canadians are tuning in to American programs and listening to American music. Also, the increasingly multicultural nature of Canada has led some people to question Canada's national identity. Although sovereignty usually refers specifically to legal issues, in recent years it has also come to be used in relation to a country's ability to control its economy and cultural development.

Aside from producing Canadian-made programs, the CBC imports a large number of programs from the United States. Some feel the CBC should receive much less funding and should generate more revenue by showing the programs the public wants to see regardless of whether they are Canadian or American. Costs could be lowered by importing American programs, since it is far more expensive to produce episodes of Canadian programs than it is to buy existing American shows. Others feel that the CBC should be given more funding and show exclusively Canadian programs.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #116

Chapter 25 (p. 404)

For the past several decades, comedy has been a major Canadian export. Toronto's Second City comedy theatre has spawned the careers of Dan Aykroyd, John Candy, Rick Moranis, Dave Thomas, Catherine O'Hara, and Martin Short. Canadian-bred comedians Jim Carey and Mike Myers have also enjoyed phenomenal box-office success with their off-beat characters.

During the early 1980s, SCTV (Second City Television) was a popular and critically acclaimed Canadian comedy show. A favourite skit involved actors Dave Thomas and Rick Moranis as Canadian characters Bob and Doug McKenzie. In his book *SCTV Behind the Scenes*, Dave Thomas tells how the sketch idea was born.

Bob and Doug McKenzie were an accidental creation of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. The CBC show was two minutes longer than the American syndicated show because it had less commercial content. So the CBC asked for two minutes of distinctive Canadian programming. Andrew (the executive producer) had the hideous job of coming in and telling us this ... Rick and I railed at him. 'What do you want us to do? Throw up a map of Canada and sit there wearing kilome and parkas?'

After the centennial celebrations of 1967, Canadians looked to the federal government to stem the tide of American culture flooding over Canada. In 1968 the government created the Canadian Radio—Television Commission (CRTC) to control radio and television licensing. The CRTC announced in 1970 that radio and TV stations would have to broadcast a certain percentage of Canadian content or risk losing their licences. For

example, 30 percent of all music played on the radio had to be Canadian. Radio stations turned to Canadian singers like Anne Murray and Gordon Lightfoot and groups like Rush and Bachman—Turner Overdrive to meet the new “Canadian content” rules. Sixty percent of prime-time TV productions had to be made in Canada, and no more than 30 percent of programming could come

Andrew sat back, smiled, and said, “Yeah, and if you could have a Mountie in that would be great too.” Not long after, we were back on the set in front of a Canadian map, wearing ilome and parkas, flying back bacon, with a Mountie mug sitting in front of us...

The “Great White North” sketches became immensely popular across North America, and the duo even made a movie about their misadventures. Soon Canadians, and even some Americans, were using the lingo of these “typical” Canadians— “Take off, eh!”

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #117

Chapter 25 (p. 404 & 406)

Canadian-studies programs were established in the universities, and the Department of Immigration severely restricted the hiring of foreign professors—mostly Americans—for Canadian university positions. It was hoped that these measure would help promote a distinctive Canadian Culture.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

### Immigration

Entry #118

Chapter 24 (p. 393)

Since the late 1970s Canada has absorbed between 200 000 and 250 000 immigrants annually. Of these immigrants, 60 percent have come from countries other than the United States or the European nations. Many recent immigrants are non-Whites, sometimes called “visible minorities” Many are well educated and highly skilled. Of the immigrants who came between 1981 and 1991, 17 percent had university degrees.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Canada U.S. Relations

Entry #119

Chapter 5 Opener (p. 58)

Timeline showing Occurrence of Alaska Boundary Dispute between Canada and the United States in 1903.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #120

Chapter 5 (p. 60)

Old European rivals were becoming dangerous contestants in a race to own the most colonies. Even the United States, which itself had been a colony and had now been independent for over a century, was establishing an empire of strategic bases and trading areas around the world.

Canada was caught in the middle of these nationalist and imperialist trends. Both geographically and emotionally, it was situated between the British and the Americans. However, although Canada had economic ties with both nations and relied on them for its prosperity, Prime Minister Laurier did not want it to be dominated by either of the major powers.

The movement for imperial unity and strengthening British ties within Ontario and the Maritimes was strongest among businesspeople and descendants of the United Empire Loyalists. Many farmers and other workers, however, came from places other than the British Isles, and the stronger the Canadian economy became, the more they thought that Canada should increase its trading relations with the United States. French Canadians, too, wanted to ensure that the nation did not lose its identity by allying too closely with any other country.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #121

Chapter 5 (p. 65)

Throughout the Laurier years Canada had to juggle its relations with Great Britain and the United States. Living immediately north of the United States had always posed a dilemma for Canadians. On the one hand, there were natural ties of heritage and migration that brought the countries together. Year after year, trade and American

investment in Canada increased. Canadians, however, were always nervous about the size and military power of the United States.

Canada's southern neighbour had never hidden its strong leaning toward expansionism, a policy that aimed to extend the United States across North America. American expansionists talked about America's "Manifest Destiny," its duty to form a continental nation that included Mexico and Canada. The United States had already acquired sizable portions of the North American continent. The British Empire League's Colonel G.T. Denison angrily stated that the Americans "wanted Florida, and they took it; Louisiana and Alaska they annexed; California and Mexico they conquered; Texas they stole."

In the years since Confederation, the United States had seemed more interested in taking Canadian territory through politics and diplomacy than through open warfare, but Canadians remembered the War of 1812 and did not rule out the possibility of yet another American invasion. In 1898 a joint commission was established between Canada and the United States to solve minor disputes between the two countries. The two governments appointed officials to investigate complaints and issues. The Klondike Gold Rush, however, turned an old disagreement about a border into an emotional war of words.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 1

Entry #122

Chapter 5 (p. 65-66)

In 1825 a poorly worded treaty had created a vague boundary between Canada and the United States in the thousand-kilometre stretch of land down the northern coast of British Columbia, commonly called the Alaska Panhandle because of its shape on the map. During the Klondike Gold Rush of the late 1890s, Canadian and American merchants became rivals in selling supplies to the miners. These supplies had to be brought by ship and then taken inland. The key question was, who owned the coastal ports? The Americans claimed that they owned the Panhandle, including all the coastal inlets. If the United States' claim was accepted, Canada's convenient water access to the Yukon through the Lynn Canal would be cut off and American traders would benefit. The Canadians wanted a different boundary line, much closer to the coast.

Who actually owned the territory was an open question. In 1903 the dispute was referred to a joint commission of six officials — three from the United States, two from Canada, and one from Britain. Canada had stood by Britain during the Boer War; surely, Laurier thought, the British Foreign Office, which still handled Canada's foreign affairs, could be counted on to support Canada in the boundary dispute. But American President Theodore Roosevelt was known for his bullying. He appointed three pushy, expansionist U.S. commissioners and put pressure on Britain to settle in favour of the United States.

American goodwill was important to Britain, so at the end of the deliberations the British appointee on the tribunal voted with the Americans. Most of the Alaska Panhandle was awarded to the United States. Canadians were left fuming at both the Americans and the British. One newspaper claimed that Britain had led Canada “like a lamb to slaughter,” and a theatre crowd in Vancouver booed when “God Save the King” was played. The incident confirmed Canadian suspicions, both about American aggression and about Britain’s willingness to put its diplomatic interests before Canada’s. Many Canadians became determined to take their nation’s destiny into their own hands.

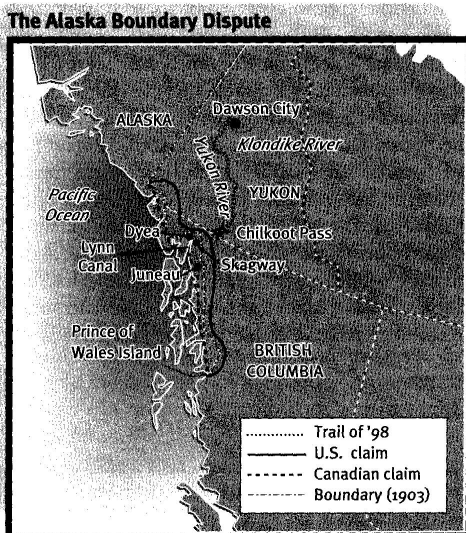
Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 1

Entry #123

Chapter 5 (p. 65)

Map showing the Alaska Boundary Dispute

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Disputed territory on the West Coast of Canada. Using the map, explain why the difference of a few kilometres either way made such a difference to the Americans and Canadians.

Entry #124

Chapter 5 (p. 66)

As the Laurier years progressed, relations between Canada and the United States improved and the bad feelings generated by the Alaska Panhandle decision were overshadowed by the growing storm clouds in Europe. As tensions rose between the great imperial powers in Europe the north Atlantic triangle of Britain, Canada, and the United States drew closer together.

In 1909 Canada established the Department of External Affairs. This was not only another small step toward autonomy from Britain, but an important step in working with the United States. Instead of having diplomatic messages go from Ottawa to London to Washington and from there to return to Ottawa through London, Canada and the United States could now negotiate directly for the first time.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #125

Chapter 5 (p. 66-67)

#### The Reciprocity Agreement

The next major step in Canada's relations with the United States came when Washington unexpectedly brought up the idea of a new Reciprocity treaty in which the two nations would negotiate a mutual exchange of trade privileges and formalize them in an agreement. Reciprocity would provide for free trade in the natural products supplied by Canadian farms, fisheries, and forests, but leave most of the protective tariffs on manufactured goods untouched. This seemed perfect for Canada's healthy farming community and industrial areas, and the Laurier government pursued the idea quickly.

The wisdom of Laurier's decision to pursue a free-trade agreement seemed to be confirmed during his tour of Western Canada in 1910. He was surprised at the depth of farmers' resentment toward the big-business interests of Central Canada, including banks, railways, grain elevator companies, milling companies, and manufacturers. Reciprocity was meant to make peace with Western farmers by giving them easier access to the vital United States grain market — and, of course, to secure their votes for the Liberals in the upcoming election.

Laurier was convinced that Reciprocity would be welcomed in the West and easily accepted in other regions of the country. The Conservatives thought so, too, and were in despair. It looked as if Laurier and his Liberals were destined to win the 1911 election. But the Conservatives were not about to give up. They raised the fear that other tariffs on manufactured goods would be stripped away and argued that Canadian industries needed tariff protection to remain prosperous.

The anti-Reciprocity forces were led by a group of unhappy Central Canadian manufacturers, bankers, and businesspeople. Under the leadership of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, the anti-Reciprocity campaign argued that the protective tariffs that had been in place allowed for a heavy flow of American direct investment into Canada in the form of branch factories. If Reciprocity were to go through, its opponents argued, Canada would lose this huge amount of American money, which was crucial to its economic growth.

Many other anti-Reciprocity activists were, surprisingly, prominent members of the Liberal Party, including Laurier's former Cabinet minister, Clifford Sifton. Other important Canadian businesspeople included J.C. Eaton, president of T. Eaton Co., R.J. Christie of the milling and biscuit company Christie and Co., and William Van Home of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Van Home was afraid that new north—south trade relations might ruin his east—west railway. He came out of retirement, he declared, just to “bust” the Reciprocity agreement.

Reciprocity had many defenders, however, especially farmers and many working people who were paying the price for high tariffs on imported food, clothing, and household items. They soon counterattacked. Under the slogan “Laurier and Larger Markets,” they argued that Canadian industries needed access to the huge American market to survive and prosper. They also said that the trade deal would mean cheaper goods for ordinary people.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #126

Chapter 5 (p. 67)

Political cartoon depicting the U.S. and Canada on the Reciprocity Agreement



A political cartoon about Reciprocity. Explain the artist's message. What do the different images in this cartoon represent?

Researcher: 1 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #127

Chapter 5 (p. 67-68)

The 1911 General Election

There was no radio or television campaigning in 1911, and although the political-party leaders crossed the country by train, much of the campaign was carried out in newspapers. Most of these papers supported one party or the other. The Liberal newspaper, the *Toronto Star*, and the Conservative newspaper, the *Toronto News*, even plastered their windows with banners about the benefits or harm that would result from Reciprocity. The anti-Reciprocity forces were so organized that they were able to distribute pamphlets and other literature to more than three hundred daily and weekly papers across the country.

Canadian continentalists counterattacked. They said that the only way to save the young country was to vote for Reciprocity, because it would make Canada's economic future brighter without endangering its political independence. Once Canada's economy was strong, they said, the Canadian nation would be better able to keep Americans at bay. Comments by American politicians, however, did not help the defenders of Reciprocity. An American member of Congress, Champ Clark, remarked that he was for the Reciprocity bill because he hoped "to see the day when the American flag will fly over every square foot of the British North American possessions clear to the North Pole." U.S. Senator Porter McCumber proclaimed: "Canadian annexation is the logical conclusion of Reciprocity with Canada." That was enough to convince many nervous Canadians that although America might seem to smile on Canada and offer economic favours, its real aim was to draw Canada into an economic union and then annex it.

The debate that began on economic issues soon expanded to include emotional appeals to Canadian patriotism and national survival. Canadian nationalists argued that, sooner or later, a trade deal would lead to a political takeover by the United States: Canada would be swallowed up. Meanwhile, in Québec, the election was fought mostly over the Naval Service Bill, and Canadian nationalists and francophone nationalists began to sway opinion against the Liberals.

On election day, September 21, 1911, almost a million and a half men voted for their parliamentary representatives — women could not yet cast a ballot. The Conservative Party won. The popular vote was close; Borden's Conservatives received only 52 percent of the votes cast. Laurier's Liberals won in Alberta, Saskatchewan, and the Maritimes, and they squeaked by in Québec. The party, however, crumbled under a landslide Conservative vote in Ontario. Robert Borden became the new Prime Minister of Canada.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #128

Chapter 22 (p. 344)

*Canadian—American Relations Under Trudeau*

Canada's relationship with the United States has always been important. During the Pearson years, the phrase "special relationship" was used to describe Canadian—American relations. Ottawa accepted American leadership in foreign policy and did not hinder American investment. The American State Department spoke up for Canada whenever legislation came up in Congress that threatened Canada's interests. Disagreements were to be resolved behind the scenes, through "quiet diplomacy," not public confrontation.

As the 1970s approached, however, Canadians were less willing to accept American leadership. Public-opinion polls showed that many Canadians were worried about the high level of American investment in Canada. The United States was bogged down in an unpopular war in Vietnam; race riots in American cities were common and the image of American society. Meanwhile Expo '67 had stimulated a sense of nationalism and desire for independence in the minds of many Canadians. On his first trip to Washington, Prime Minister Trudeau told a press conference that he did not want Canada to be a "mirror image" of the United States. It was a speech very much in tune with the Canadian national mood.

An occasion to test the new independent Canadian stand soon came up. In 1969 the

*Manhattan*, an American oil supertanker, steamed through the Northwest Passage to see if oil could be transported safely through Arctic waters. The voyage gave rise to fears about environmental pollution in Arctic waters. In response Parliament passed the Arctic Waters Pollution Act, which set a sixty-five-kilometre pollution zone under Canadian control.

In the following year Canada further tested its new independence by breaking with official U.S. policy on the communist People's Republic of China. The communists, led by Mao Zedong, had taken over the government of mainland China in 1949. The United States was hostile toward the new communist government and continued to support the exiled government in Taiwan. But Canada broke rank with the Americans by officially recognizing the People's Republic of China. It also supported communist China's membership in the United Nations.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #129

Chapter 22 (p. 349-50)

American Reactions

In the early 1980s the mood in the United States had changed. Ronald Reagan, who became President in January 1981, pledged to "make America strong again" by rebuilding U.S. military power. The Reagan government pressed Canada to take a more active defence role because Americans felt that Canadians were taking a "free ride" on the American defence system. Reagan wanted to test Cruise missiles in the Canadian North. Since North American defence was linked to NATO, Canada's NATO allies also supported Cruise missile testing.

When news of the proposed tests became public, Canadians raised a storm of protest. "Refuse the Cruise" signs sprang up all across the nation. Despite the massive anti-nuclear protest and his personal dislike of nuclear arms, Trudeau felt that his government could not say no. In explaining the government's decision he said that as a good NATO ally, Canada had to do its part to strengthen NATO defence. In 1983 Canada and the United States signed a five-year agreement that allowed the United States to make up to six tests a year of unarmed Cruise missiles in Canadian air space. The first Cruise missile test took place at the Primrose Lake test range, near Cold Lake, Alberta, in March 1984.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #130

Chapter 22 (p. 350)

*Trudeau's Peace Crusade*

By 1983, when Pierre Trudeau had been in office for nearly sixteen years, the Cold War heated up again. That year, a Korean Air Lines passenger jet was shot down when it flew into Soviet airspace. As a "war of words" flared up between the Soviet Union and the United States, Trudeau became alarmed at the prospect of a renewed Cold War. He drew up a series of proposals to end hostilities and travelled to many European capitals, Commonwealth countries, and China to seek support for his suggestions. He also contacted officials in the Soviet Union and the United States.

There was not much response from the two superpowers. The Soviet Union was in the midst of a leadership change, and President Reagan was suspicious of Trudeau. Though the impact of Trudeau's crusade was minimal, it received support from the Canadian public as well as from opposition-party leaders Brian Mulroney and Ed Broadbent.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #131

Chapter 22 (p. 350-51)

*Mulroney and Canadian—American Issues*

Pierre Trudeau's defence alliance with the United States was reluctant, and personal relations between Trudeau and Reagan were chilly. But when the new Progressive Conservative leader, Brian Mulroney, swept into office not long after Trudeau retired, Canada—U.S. relations warmed. Though he also came from Québec and also was a lawyer, Mulroney's background was different from that of Trudeau. He had been an executive for an American iron ore company and was sympathetic to business interests. His first order of business as prime minister was closer friendship with the United States. On September 24, 1984, he told an American journalist, "Good relations, super relations, with the United States will be the cornerstone of our foreign policy."

On Saint Patrick's Day, 1985, President Reagan flew to Québec City for talks with Prime Minister Mulroney. Both leaders were of Irish descent, and they ended their first day at a gala concert by singing "When Irish Eyes Are Smiling." Their talks were quickly nicknamed the "Shamrock Summit." They announced a number of agreements, including new defence arrangements and more joint ventures in space like the very successful Canadarm for the American space-shuttle program.

Although Mulroney believed that friendship with the United States produced direct benefits for Canada, he did not always follow the American lead. He did not, for example, accept Reagan's invitation to take part in the Strategic Defence Initiative (SDI), or "Star Wars," but he left the door open for Canadian companies to accept SDI defence contracts.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 4

Entry #132

Chapter 22 (p. 351)

Picture of Brian Mulroney and Ronald Reagan

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Prime Minister Brian Mulroney developed a close friendship with U.S. President Ronald Reagan. What potential benefits and dangers could result from close ties between the Canadian and American governments?

Entry #133

Chapter 22 (p. 351-52)

Next to declare its independence was Bosnia, where 40 percent of the population was Muslim. The Bosnian declaration of independence prompted a furious response from the region's Serb minority, and in 1992 Bosnia emerged as the main theatre of war. After three years of intense fighting the warring factions agreed to accept the Dayton Accords, which were negotiated with the aid of American diplomats. Under the Dayton Accords, Bosnia was split into a Muslim—Croat region and a Serb republic, and a single central government was established in Sarajevo. Despite the settlement, only the presence of a U.N. peacekeeping force (including a Canadian contingent) prevented a resurgence of violence.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #134

Chapter 22 (p. 352)

Picture of the Canadarm of the Space Shuttle

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Innovations such as the Canadarm showcase the talent of Canadian scientists. Can you think of other examples that have shown Canada to be a world leader in technological developments?

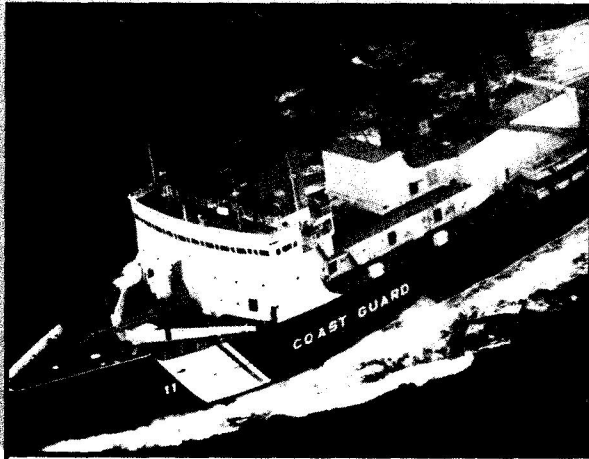
Entry #135

Chapter 22 (p. 352-53)

Polar Sea Affair

In 1985 environmental issues once again stirred up trouble between the United States and Canada. The U.S. Coast Guard ship *Polar Sea* planned to sail from Greenland to Alaska. As a courtesy, the U.S. Coast Guard had told Canadian officials about its plans, but the Americans did not feel they needed Canada's permission to make the voyage. Americans viewed the Northwest Passage through the Arctic as an international waterway. On the other hand, the Canadian government claimed that the Northwest Passage belonged to Canada and that foreign ships needed permission to sail through Canadian waters. The U.S. Coast Guard Ship *Polar Sea* planned to sail through the Northwest Passage without asking Canada for permission. Why would Canada consider this an unfriendly act?

News of the *Polar Sea* voyage prompted an unexpected public outcry in Canada. Opposition leader Jean Chrétien accused Prime Minister Mulroney of selling out Canadian interests. Mulroney's first action was to give the U.S. Coast Guard permission for the *Polar Sea* voyage, even though it had not asked for permission. Then he warned the Americans that failing to recognize the Arctic as Canadian territory was "an unfriendly act." He declared: "It is ours. We assert sovereignty over it." In addition to making strong public statements, his government also began talks with the United States on the Arctic. These talks resulted in the Agreement on Arctic Co-operation in 1988. The United States agreed to get prior permission every time a U.S. government-owned or – operated ship wanted to sail in the Arctic.



The U.S. Coast Guard Ship *Polar Sea* planned to sail through the Northwest Passage without asking Canada for permission. Why would Canada consider this an unfriendly act?

Picture of Coast Guard Cutter *Polar Sea* Picture (p. 353)

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

### People

Entry #136  
Chapter 4 (p. 46)

#### REGINALD FESSENDEN: CANAAS FORGOTTEN INVENTOR

The late nineteenth century was a time of tremendous change in North America. Many innovative ideas that radically altered life in North America flowed back and forth between Canada and the United States. Alexander Graham Bell, Thomas Edison, and Guglielmo Marconi are all familiar names in the history of invention. But what about

Reginald Fessenden? Despite his more than five hundred inventions and his profound contributions to

Reginald Fessenden was born in East Bolton, Québec, on October 6, 1866, and was educated at Trinity College School in Port Hope, Ontario, and Bishop's College School in Québec. His life-long fascination with mathematics and science and his incredible inventiveness led to numerous achievements. He once stated, "An inventor is one who can see the applicability of the means to supplying demand five years before it is obvious to those skilled in the art."

Persistence was one of Fessenden's greatest attributes. At the age of twenty, having found teaching to be unstimulating, Fessenden moved to New York City where he made numerous efforts to be hired by Thomas Edison, considered the leading inventor of the day. He was hired by Edison only after repeatedly knocking on his door. Impressed by Fessenden's ideas and abilities, Edison quickly promoted him to chief chemist after only three months. Following Edison's bankruptcy, Fessenden went on to work for Westinghouse, the United States Weather Service, and two American universities.

Fessenden's greatest efforts and achievements lie in the field of telegraphy, particularly in sending intelligible speech through air rather than wires. But he was a prolific inventor in many fields. For example, he invented a lamp that could be rolled up and down the inside of industrial chimney stacks so that workers could see the chimneys while repairing them. Following the sinking of the *Titanic*, Fessenden developed a system using electrical impulses to determine the location of icebergs. During World War I, he created a submarine-to-shore radio and the forerunner of today's sophisticated sonar.

Despite his numerous inventions and the respect he earned from his colleagues, Fessenden was snubbed by his own country. When McGill University established a department of electrical engineering, he was turned down for the position of chair of the department in favour of an American. Later, in 1909, when Fessenden and a group of Montreal businesspeople founded the Fessenden Wireless Telegraph Company of Canada to ensure that transatlantic communication remained in Canadian hands, the Laurier government granted sole wireless rights to the Marconi Wireless Telegraph Company of Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #137  
Chapter 4 (p. 53)

#### DR. LEONORA HOWARD KING

Ask most Canadians to create a list of fifty great Canadians and few, if any, will include the name of Dr. Lenora Howard King. Born Leonora Howard on a farm near Farmersville, Ontario (in the Kingston area) in 1851, Leonora dreamed of becoming a doctor but faced many obstacles in Canada because medical schools would not admit women in the 1870s. Not easily hindered, she applied and was accepted into the University of Michigan's Women's Medical College. Upon graduating with honours

(making her one of the first Canadian women to earn a medical degree), Dr. Howard applied to serve with the Women's Foreign Missionary Society and was posted to China. At the age of twenty-six, Dr. Howard sailed for China, where she would spend most of her life.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #138

Chapter 24 (p. 373)

Brian Mulroney

Brian Mulroney brought a very different style to Canadian politics; his government brought about a very businesslike attitude to government. During his nine years in office (1984—1993), Mulroney did not shy away from controversy. He attempted to tackle the huge national debt that Canada had amassed since the 1960s. When his government began to take away family allowances and old-age pensions from the wealthy, a heated debate was ignited: were social programs a right of all Canadians, or should they only be available to less well-off Canadians? Despite his efforts to deal with the yearly deficit, by the end of the Mulroney era Canada's deficit was nearly \$40 billion and its national debt was approaching \$600 billion. The Mulroney government also triggered passionate debates across Canada when it negotiated a free-trade deal with the United States, introduced the hated Goods and Services Tax (GST) to replace a hidden manufacturing tax, and made efforts to amend the Constitution to appease Québec. Despite his government winning back-to-back majorities in 1984 and 1988, when Mulroney left office, his popularity among Canadians was the lowest of that of any Prime Minister in Canadian history.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### World Relations

Entry #139

Chapter 17 (p. 268)

The only nation that could equal the Soviet Union in military strength was the United States. Like Canada, the United States had not suffered bombing or invasion during the war. It had been able to build up powerful armed forces, and its sole possession of the atomic bomb was enough to keep its potential enemies in line. The United States had also taken over Britain's role as the world's greatest imperial power. American military bases and colonies were scattered across the Pacific Ocean, the Caribbean Sea, and Latin America. Above all, the United States was the richest country in the world. With a huge

budget for both foreign aid and arms, its presence was felt in almost every corner of the globe in the post-war years.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 4

Entry #140

Chapter 17 (p. 268)

Norman Rockwell painting

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



This colourful poster was made for the United Nations by the famous American artist Norman Rockwell. It reads: "Do Unto Others As You Would Have Them Do Unto You." What do the picture and the statement tell you about the goals of the United Nations?

Entry #141

Chapter 17 (p. 268)

In 1945 the so-called "Big Five" nations — the Soviet Union, the United States, Britain, France, and China decided to attempt to shape a peaceful future for the world. The major Allied powers had started preparing for peace even before the war ended. In the fall of 1944, officials from the United States, Britain, the Soviet Union, and China gathered at

Dumbarton Oaks, a mansion in Washington, D.C. There they laid plans for a new international organization called the United Nations (U.N.).

Researcher: 5      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 4

Entry #142

Chapter 17 (p. 268-69)

In April 1945, delegates from fifty-one nations gathered in San Francisco to formally establish the United Nations. The opening words of the charter set out the U.N.'s most important goal. It reads, "We the peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind.. do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #143

Chapter 17 (p. 269)

Canada as a Middle Power

Canada's Prime Minister Mackenzie King was among the world leaders who attended the United Nations conference in San Francisco. Although Canada was not one of the "Big Five," it was only one rung down on the international ladder—' become a major middle power. With its booming economy, undamaged industries, and sizable armed forces, Canada was one of the most prosperous countries in the world in 1945. By the end of the war, more than one million Canadians were in uniform. Canada had also been an important wartime ally of Britain and the United States.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #144

Chapter 17 (p. 269-270)

The search for world peace was seriously threatened by growing tension between the two new – superpowers after World War II. For the first time in history, competing superpowers were ideologically opposed. Whereas the Soviet Union sought to implement communism wherever possible, the United States committed itself to promoting



American-style democracy, free elections, and free- market economies. In a major speech in 1947, U.S. President Harry Truman set out the guiding principles of what would come to be known as the Truman Doctrine:

*At the present moment in world history nearly every nation must choose between alternative ways of life one way of life is based upon the will of the majority.... The second way of life is based upon the will of a minority forcibly imposed upon the majority.... I believe that it must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures.*

This speech would shape American foreign policy in the post-war years.

Over the next few years the hostility between the United States and the Soviet Union deepened, and once again other nations began lining up with one side or the other. The term “Cold War” was first used in 1947 to describe this power struggle, which was being fought by every means short of all-out warfare. Both sides feared a nuclear war. So, instead of waging a “hot” war with troops and weapons, the Cold War was fought with propaganda, espionage, economic and political pressures, and limited military aggression. The Soviets and Americans used these tactics to win the support of uncommitted nations. Above all, the Cold War was fought with the scare tactics of an arms race: each side raced to stockpile larger, more destructive weapons in order to frighten its enemies.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #145

Chapter 17 (p. 270)

He (referring to Igor Gouzenko) said that the Soviets were especially interested in getting information about the atomic bomb, which Canada had worked on with Britain and the United States. Gouzenko also claimed that the Soviets had set up spy rings in Britain and the United States.

Soon, a shocked MacKenzie King was told the news of Gouzenko’s defection and his claims about the Soviet Union’s international spy ring. MacKenzie King immediately warned President Truman and the British Prime Minister Clement Attlee.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #146

Chapter 17 (p. 271)

Canada's new Prime Minister, Louis St. Laurent, was one of the leaders of the Western nations who feared the Soviet Union. In 1948 St. Laurent made impassioned pleas to put a stop to the spread of communism. For us there is no escape in isolation or indifference," he said. "Recent events have brought home to all of us the increasing threat to our democracy of the rising tide of communism." The only nation strong enough to oppose the Soviet Union was the United States. Canadian diplomats worried that the United States might retreat from its commitments in Europe now that the war was over. They wanted the Americans to stand fast against further Soviet expansion.

Many Americans shared St. Laurent's suspicions and fears. They were also prepared to take on a greatly expanded international role. American officials were already crafting a new foreign policy aimed at opposing the Soviet Union. The new American foreign policy, based on the Truman Doctrine, was built on a policy of containment. It aimed at "containing," or halting, the spread of communism in Europe and around the world. This would be accomplished in a variety of ways, from providing economic aid to countries to giving military support to anti-communist forces.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #147

Chapter 17 (p. 271)

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization

Although Canada encouraged the United States to oppose the Soviet Union, it still wanted to avoid being drawn into future U.S. wars without consultation. Canadian diplomats decided to propose an alliance of democratic nations in the North Atlantic region. They hoped that the new alliance would give Canada greater participation in the shaping of American defence policy.

Although Canadian hopes for having major influence on American military policy were never realized, Canada did persuade the United States to join Canada, Britain, France, and eight other nations in signing a treaty in 1949. The treaty contained clauses about trade and cultural exchanges among member nations, but it was primarily a pact to create an organization for mutual defence, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #148

Chapter 17 (p. 272)

The Soviets also pointed to expanding U.S. power as an attempt by the United States to extend its influence around the globe. The Soviet Union reacted by organizing its own defence alliance, the Warsaw Pact, in 1955.

On the Eastern side stood the communist countries under the control of the Soviet Union. On the Western side was the coalition of nations under the leadership of the United States. Winston Churchill hi declared in 1946 that “an iron curtain had descended on Europe.” The two new alliances — NATO and the Warsaw Pact — deepened the rift between East and West. The Cold War grew colder.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #149

Chapter 17 (p. 272)

One of the first skirmishes of the Cold War was an economic fight over the recovery of Western European nations. While Britain and the United States wanted to see their war-torn allies back on their feet again, it was in the best interests of the Soviet Union to prevent an economic recovery o the American allies in Western Europe.

In 1948 U.S. Secretary of State George Marshall proposed a European recovery plan that came to be known as the Marshall Plan. Canada had already loaned huge sums of money to Britain. Now it joined in the Marshall Plan and shipped \$706 million in food, equipment, and raw materials to Europe. Between 1948 and 1953 Canada and the United States jointly contributed \$13.5 billion in European economic aid, most of it from the United States. Western Europe made an amazing recovery of beyond the expectations of the people who had helped to engineer it. Within a decade, stability and prosperity had returned to Western Europe, including the former Axis powers, especially Germany.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #150

Chapter 17 (p. 273)

Map showing the original NATO member countries

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

**NATO Members and the "New Neutrals" from the former Warsaw Pact**

Original NATO members			Joined since 1949		
1 Belgium	5 Iceland	9 Norway	13 Greece		
2 Canada	6 Italy	10 Portugal	14 Turkey		
3 The Netherlands	7 Luxembourg	11 United Kingdom	15 West Germany		
4 France	8 Denmark	12 United States	16 Spain		
Warsaw Pact members until dissolution on April 1, 1991					
17 Bulgaria	19 East Germany	21 Poland	23 Soviet Union		
18 Czechoslovakia	20 Hungary	22 Romania			

NATO was originally developed as an organization for mutual defence to discourage the expansion of the Soviet Union. Following the end of the Cold War, NATO was restructured to allow it to participate in security issues for all of Europe. In March 1999, the former Warsaw Pact members, the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland joined NATO.

Entry #151

Chapter 18 (p. 288)

Social and Political Protest

The 1960s were also a decade of social and political protest, and hundreds of young Canadians waved banners and wore buttons with the new slogans of the Sixties, such as "Flower Power," "Power to the People," and "Peace." Both the rise of the nuclear arms race and the war in Vietnam became a major focus for their protests. In Southeast Asia, troops from communist North Vietnam were helping South Vietnamese guerrilla fighters to overthrow the American-backed government of South Vietnam. Fearful of the spread of communism, the United States sent over troops to help the government of South Vietnam. The war escalated sharply in the mid-1960s; by 1967 there were almost half a million American troops in Vietnam. It was a brutal and destructive war, and for the first time television brought the full horrors of war home to the watching world. Political protests by young Canadians against the Vietnam War and nuclear war became a part of everyday life in the 1960s and the early 1970s.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #152

Chapter 18 (p. 289)

Anti-Vietnam protest in Edmonton in 1967

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

During the 1960s, protests such as this one in Edmonton, 1967, were highly critical of the United States' participation in the Vietnam War. Are protests an effective way to achieve goals? What issues would prompt you to join a protest?



Entry #153

Chapter 21 (p. 326)

Timeline stating “The Cuban Missile Crisis brings the world to the brink of all-out nuclear war in 1962”

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #154

Chapter 21 (p. 327)

Caught in the Crossfire: Canada and the Cold War

In the years immediately after World War II a fierce power struggle developed between the two superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union. From 1945 to 1949 this conflict—the “Cold War” was centred in Europe, as the citizens of the war- devastated nations struggled to restore political stability and democracy and to revive their shattered economies. Canadians helped to support their efforts by contributing economic aid through the Marshall Plan to rebuild these economies Canada also joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a military alliance aimed at protecting Western Europe from a Soviet invasion. However, in 1949 two events changed and widened the scope of the Cold War. One result of these events was that Canada became more firmly located in a middle ground between determined rivals.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #155

Chapter 21 (p. 327)

In 1952, the United States detonated the world's first hydrogen bomb on a small island in the south Pacific. However, the Americans' lead was short-lived. In 1953 the Soviet Union detonated its own thermonuclear device. For the next forty years both sides rushed to amass huge stockpiles of more powerful bombs.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #156

Chapter 21 (p. 328)

The United States also demanded that the Taiwan government continue to officially represent China in all United Nations councils. From 1949 to the present day, American economic and military aid has poured into the small island republic to help it resist attacks from mainland China.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #157

Chapter 21 (p. 328)

Anti-Communism in Canada -

Canada's Gouzenko affair confirmed anti-communist fears in North America. In the United States the anti-communist investigations were led by Senator Joseph McCarthy and his "Red Scare" hysteria from 1950 to 1954.

Although the excesses of McCarthyism in the United States did not occur in Canada, the Red Scare was very real and had severe consequences for some people. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police responded to anti-communist sentiments by carrying out illegal and secret inquiries. People wishing to immigrate to Canada who were believed to be communists or sympathizers were denied entry. Known communists were often deported from Canada or denied even the opportunity to visit. Eventually, Joseph McCarthy's excessive and unsubstantiated claims against communists worked against him, and his "Red-baiting" campaign was broken. However, the damage he caused to American lives, liberty, and government policies were immense both at home and abroad.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 2

Entry #158

Chapter 21 (p. 328-29)

*The Korean War*

After World War II Japanese-held Korea was divided into two parts. North Korea was occupied by troops from the Soviet Union, and South Korea was occupied by U.S. troops. It was intended that the country would eventually be peacefully reunited as a single, independent nation. However, in June 1950, 100 000 North Korean troops armed with Soviet weapons invaded South Korea. Many Americans saw this invasion as another example of international communist aggression. The United States asked the United Nations (U.N.) Security Council to meet in a special session to discuss the Korean situation. The Soviets were boycotting the Security Council at the time to protest against the exclusion of the Peoples' Republic of China from the U.N. In their absence, the United States demanded that the U.N. come to the military defence of South Korea. The Security Council quickly voted to send forces, under American command, to defend South Korea. Although fourteen U.N. member-nations sent troops to take part, the U.N. fighting forces were overwhelmingly American.

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 3

Entry #159

Chapter 21 (p. 330)

By the mid1950s the American and Soviet militaries had amassed huge stockpiles of newer, larger, and far more devastating hydrogen bombs.

In 1956, an American strategist created a terrifying name and acronym for the stalemate that these huge stockpiles had created: Mutually Assured Destruction, or MAD.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #160

Chapter 21 (p. 330-31)

Throughout the 1950s Canada and the United States co-operated to build a system of radar stations, called the Distant Early Warning (DEW) line, and jet-fighter bases in the Canadian North to detect and intercept flights of Soviet bombers. A larger system called the North American Defence (NORAD) system was established in 1957 to co-ordinate these defence programs. In the same year the Cold War took another ominous turn. The Soviet Union used a ballistic rocket to launch the first human-made earth satellite, *Sputnik*. *Sputnik* proved that the Soviets could use missiles to send nuclear warheads deep into the American heartland. The United States scrambled to keep pace with the Soviets. Both the Soviet and American militaries worked feverishly to produce bigger ballistic missiles to carry even larger, deadlier payloads. The world did not have long to wait for the first super- power confrontation that might actually result in the total destruction of life on earth.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 2

Entry #161

Chapter 21 (p. 331)

*The Cuban Missile Crisis*

In 1959 Cuban communist forces, led by Fidel Castro, successfully overthrew the pro-American government of Cuba. Castro welcomed the economic aid and military support that the Soviet Union sent to Cuba, located only 150 kilometres south of the United States. From 1959 to 1962 relations between the United States and Cuba and its ally, the Soviet Union, steadily worsened. Then, in October 1962, the United States discovered that Soviet missiles with atomic warheads were being installed in Cuba. The world held its breath as the two leaders, U.S. President John F. Kennedy and the Soviet Union's Nikita Khrushchev, exchanged stern warnings and threats of all-out nuclear war. American and some Canadian air force units were put on "red alert," ready to launch attacks if the Soviet supply ships going to Cuba did not turn back. Fortunately, the Cuban Missile crisis ended suddenly, when the Soviets agreed to remove the missiles. Although the immediate tensions eased, everyone on all sides of the Iron Curtain knew that the age of the potential total destruction of life had arrived.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #162

Chapter 21 (p. 331-32)

Throughout late 1940s and 1950s Canada and the United States continued to co-operate in their foreign-policy objectives, especially the American anti-communist drive.



Canada's active membership in (NATO and NORAD supported American military and foreign-policy decisions. Its participation in U.N. peacekeeping in Egypt and Lebanon, which pacified potentially explosive situations, also seemed to support American foreign-policy decisions. By the end of the 1950s, however, considerable strains had developed in the uneven partnership. American pressure, which led to the cancellation of the Avro Arrow jet and the installation of American Bomarc missiles on Canadian soil, rankled Canadian nationalists. Increasingly, Canadian journalists broke with the American policy of criticizing communist governments. In 1959 the Canadian newspaper *The Globe and Mail* accepted China's offer to become the first Western newspaper allowed into the People's Republic. Despite American displeasure, Ottawa gave diplomatic recognition to Castro's communist government, and Canadian companies continued to be active in Cuba.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

Entry #163

Chapter 21 (p. 332 & 334)

*The Battle over Bomarc Missiles*

By the mid-1950s Canadians felt they could safeguard themselves from a Soviet nuclear-bomber attack only through joint air defence with the United States. Prime Minister John Diefenbaker had reluctantly agreed to join the NORAD system and to share in building the DEW line in the North. He also accepted U.S. Bomarc-B missiles for Canada, a battery of American-made "Honest John" missiles for the Canadian army in Europe, and CF-140 jetfighters for the Canadian NATO squadrons. But these weapons were effective only when armed with nuclear warheads. Diefenbaker's decisions seemed to commit Canada to a strong role in NORAD and NATO defence and to the use of nuclear weapons.

But the Prime Minister backed away from accepting American nuclear weapons to arm the missiles and aircraft of the Canadian armed forces. There had been a recent upsurge of protest against nuclear weapons in Canada. The Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF), the Liberal Party, women's groups, and many intellectuals raised a storm of protest against "nukes." Diefenbaker told U.S. President Kennedy that "in view of public opinion in Canada it would be impossible politically at the moment ... to accept nuclear weapons."

It was not the last time Diefenbaker turned a cold shoulder to the American President. During the 1962 Cuban Missile Crisis, American NORAD aircraft were put on immediate alert for a possible Soviet nuclear attack over the Canadian Arctic. Kennedy

counted on Canadian military support in the looming conflict, but Diefenbaker delayed putting Canada's NORAD aircraft on the alert until just before the crisis ended.

The Americans were enraged at Diefenbaker's lack of enthusiasm for their plans, as were many Canadians who supported Kennedy's action. By the end of 1962 it was time for a debate about Canada's defence commitments and nuclear weapons.

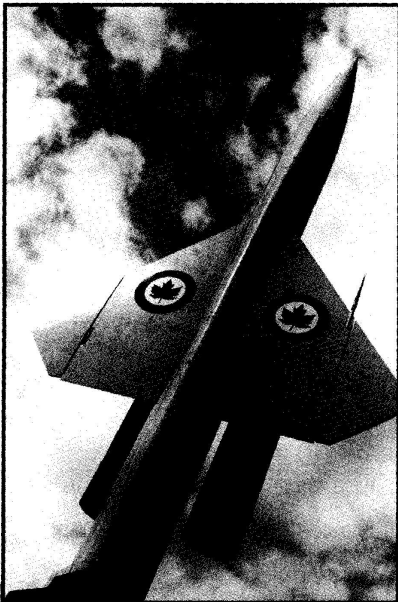
Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2

Entry #164

Chapter 21 (p. 335)

Picture of the Bomarc-B Missile

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 2



An America Bomarc-B missile in North Bay, Ontario. Since Canada relied on the United States for its military strength, do you think it had an obligation to accept the U.S. missiles?

Entry #165

Chapter 21 (p. 332)

Political cartoon conveying outcome of the arms race

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 2



What message is this cartoon attempting to convey about the arms race? Do you think the cartoon is overly pessimistic, or is it realistic?

Entry #166

Chapter 21 (p. 332)

Picture with John F. Kennedy and Prime Minister John Diefenbaker.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Despite this picture of friendliness, John Kennedy and John Diefenbaker did not get along. How did Canada's position on Cuba affect the leaders' relationship?

Entry #167

Chapter 21 (p. 334)

### Conflicting Views on Vietnam

Lester Pearson also encountered occasional rough spots in his relations with American leaders, especially during a head-to-head conflict with U.S. President Lyndon Johnson over American involvement in the increasingly bloody and unpopular war in Vietnam. In a speech at Temple University in Philadelphia in April 1965, Pearson gently prompted the Americans to “rethink their position” on bombing raids over North Vietnam and President Johnson was outraged. The matter was smoothed over, but tensions still remained as more and more Canadians began to speak out against American military actions in Vietnam. American protesters and “draft dodgers” — young men who fled compulsory military service — were welcomed in Canada. Canadian officials refused all American efforts to force the return of draft dodgers to the United States. These incidents reminded Canadians how difficult it sometimes was for their nation to keep an independent stance in foreign policy and still maintain friendly relations with the United States.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2

Entry #168

Chapter 21 (p. 335)

In 1968 Canada’s new Prime Minister, Pierre Trudeau, called for a complete review of Canada’s foreign policy. He began by reducing Canada’s defence spending and freezing Canada’s contribution to NATO. Reacting to the huge increases in American military involvement in the Vietnam war, Trudeau also wanted to loosen Canada’s ties with the United States. He became the first Western leader to visit the United States’ arch-enemy, Fidel Castro. As part of the visit, government officials established wider trade and tourist connections for Canada and Cuba. Trudeau also worked to create more profitable links with other nations, such as the members of the European Economic Community. Trudeau also signalled a new direction in Canada’s foreign policy by breaking with the long-standing U.S. policy that rejected the Chinese Communist Party’s claim to be the official government. In 1970 Canada officially recognized the People’s Republic of China and supported its admission into the United Nations.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #169

Chapter 21 (p. 335)

Likewise, Canadian and American forces worked together to expand the NORAD warning and defence systems in Canada's north. Canada also gradually extended its mediating role in other directions that were not focused on war.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #170

Chapter 22 (p. 345-46)

Détente and the End of the Cold War

After the Cuban missile crisis the superpowers realized the dangers of a nuclear standoff. They had stepped to the brink of nuclear war once and did not want to risk it again. In the late 1960s and early 1970s the Cold War began to thaw and a new era of détente — a relaxing of tensions began. A direct “hotline” was set up between Moscow and Washington, D.C., so that a nuclear war would not be sparked by a misunderstanding between the, superpowers.

The United States and the Soviet Union also signed a nuclear-test-ban treaty in 1963. This treaty was the first step in a new policy of co-operation and restraint. A series of arms-limitations talks began, aimed at disarmament — putting a stop to the arms race and reducing the stockpiles of Soviet and American nuclear weapons. As a result of these discussions the United States and the Soviet Union had signed two strategic-arms-limitation treaties by 1979 to set limits on specific types of nuclear arms.

The treaties were an important step in the march to world peace, but they did not bring an end to the Cold War. Rather than risk direct confrontation, the two nuclear superpowers resorted to lending military support to other countries engaged in struggles between communism and democratic capitalism. In this way the United States and the Soviet Union continued to oppose each other in “proxy wars” throughout Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

Vietnam, a divided nation in Southeast Asia, was probably the most hotly contested area. In the northern part of the country, Viet Cong rebels, supported by China and the Soviet Union, fought “a war of liberation” against French Imperial rule. When France pulled out of Vietnam, the United States stepped in. Americans feared that if Vietnam came under communist domination, then all of Southeast Asia would fall into the “Soviet camp”. At first, the United States tried to help the Vietnamese government by sending

military advisers, but it soon became obvious that this aid was insufficient. Eventually American troops were dispatched to Vietnam as well. By the end of the 1960s both sides were involved in a long drawn out war that did not end until 1975.

Foreign aid was also used as a weapon in the proxy wars. Southeast Asia was a major recipient of aid from the superpowers and their allies. Both the United States and the Soviet Union gave India, a neutral nation, billions of dollars in aid. Canada contributed \$35 million for the Colombo Plan, an aid program to assist the Commonwealth countries of Asia. Canadians approved of the aid for humanitarian reasons, but their support was also part of a policy to fight communism. Prime Minister Lester Pearson warned that “if Southeast and South Asia are not to be conquered by communism, we of the free democratic world must demonstrate that it is we and not the Russians who stand for national liberation and economic and social progress.”

In 1979 the Cold War heated up again, when the Soviet Union placed 350 missiles in Eastern Europe. In response, the United States announced plans to place Cruise missiles in Western Europe. That same year, the Soviet Union invaded neighbouring Afghanistan. In protest, Canada, the United States, and other Western nations boycotted the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games. (The Soviet Union struck back by boycotting the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics.) In 1981 U.S. President Ronald Reagan began loud verbal attacks on the Soviet Union, which he dubbed “the evil empire.” He also spoke about ways of “winning” a nuclear war and announced a \$180 billion increase in defence spending. Later he proposed the expensive Strategic Defence Initiative (SDI), nicknamed “Star Wars,” a space-based technology intended to destroy Soviet missiles attacking the United States.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #171

Chapter 22 (p. 346-47)

In 1968, Lester Pearson retired as Canada’s Prime Minister. His experience as an active diplomat after World War II convinced him that Canada should play an active role in international affairs. But as a middle power, Canada could not hope to have the same influence as bigger nations such as the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union. Instead, Canada could act as “a helpful fixer”. Canadian diplomats worked quietly behind the scenes at the United Nations (U.N.) to defuse international tensions, such as occurred in the Suez Crisis in 1956.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Environment

Entry #172  
Chapter 22 (p. 353)

Acid Rain: Canada-U.S. Negotiations

Until the 1990s Canadian lakes and forests were being poisoned by acid rain, a deadly shower of sulphuric and nitrous oxides produced by industries and automobiles across North America. Winds often carried the pollutants hundreds of kilometers from their source before they fell to earth in dust, rain, or snow. Because of wind patterns, more than half the acid rain in Canada came from the United States — much of it from the steel mills of Pennsylvania and Ohio. But acid rain was not just a Canadian problem; Canadian polluters also contributed.

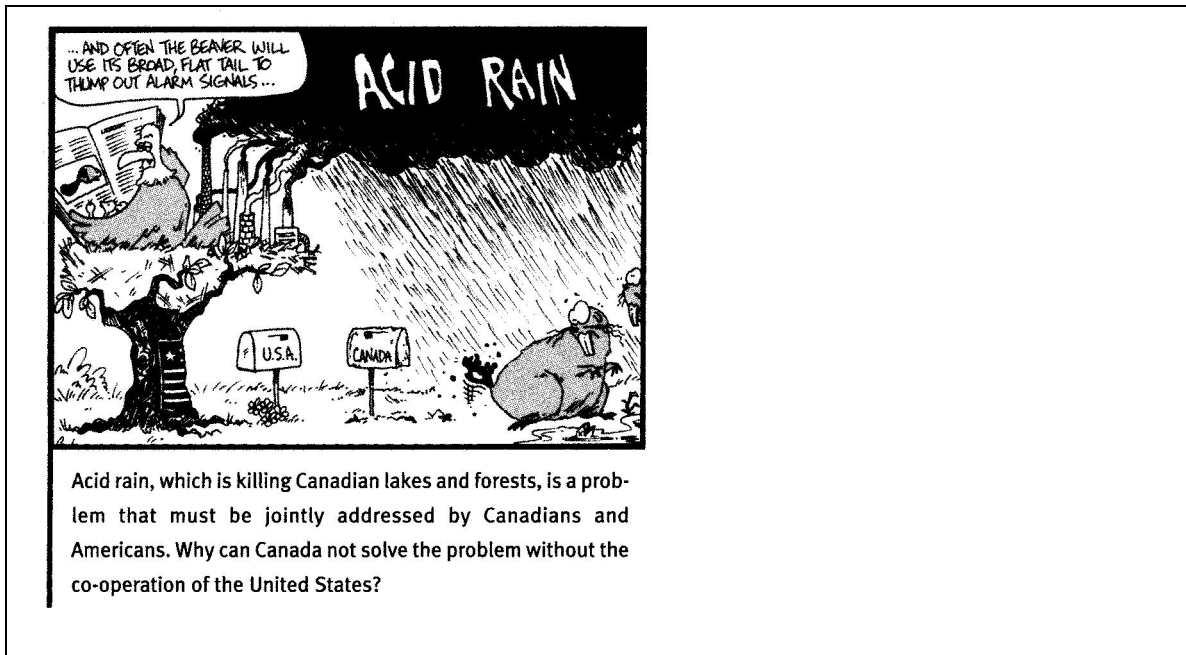
Canada needed the United States' help to solve the acid rain problem. Prime Minister Mulroney had told President Reagan at their first meeting in 1984 that acid rain was his "number one priority." However, the Reagan government strongly resisted efforts to promote U.S. action on acid rain. Although Canadian environmental lobbyists and the Canadian government continued to urge the United States to take action, not until George Bush became President did the U.S. government decide to act. In 1990 the U.S. Congress passed a new law to control acid rain. In March 1991 President Bush conceded that pressure from Mulroney had played a key role in the passage of the law.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #173  
Chapter 23 (p. 356)

Political Cartoon showing acid rain between U.S. and Canada

Researcher: 1      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 2



## Chapter Reviews

Entry #174

Chapter 5 (p. 69)

Summary

In this chapter we have seen how Canada attempted to become more independent of Britain in foreign affairs without becoming entangled in the growing American empire, but was not ready to “go it alone” completely.

In this chapter we have seen that Canada had to realize that if Britain was at war, it was at war; and when economic issues were at stake, the United States would use political muscle to get its way.

Understanding Historical Facts

Make a two-column chart comparing the pressures on Canada from Britain with those from the United States.

Expressing Your Opinion

Create a political cartoon or write a 200-300 word column that might have appeared in a Canadian newspaper in 1910. The theme of the cartoon or column is Canadian—American relations at the beginning of the century.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 1

Entry #175

Unit 1 Review (p. 70)



Draw a picture or diagram that summarizes Canada's position in foreign affairs, compared with that of Britain and the United States.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #176

Unit 3 Review (p. 202)

Create a two-column chart like the following one to show how the Canadian government dealt, or failed to deal, with the economic, social, and cultural changes of the 1920s and 1930s. Consider the following issues: the regional disparities in the Maritimes and the Prairies; the growing influence of American culture; unemployment in the Depression and conditions among Aboriginal peoples.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #177

Chapter 15 Review (p. 245)

Summary

In this chapter we have seen how the entry of the United States and the Soviet Union tipped the balance in favour of the Allied powers over the Axis powers.

Understanding Historical Facts

Identify each of the following people, places, and events, and explain their historical significance.

Operation Sea Lion

Miracle of Dunkirk

Pearl Harbor

Battle of Hong Kong

Battle of Dieppe

Holocaust

Manhattan Project

Operation Barbarossa

Battle of Ortona

D-Day

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #178

Chapter 18 Review (p. 298)

Understanding Historical Facts

What did the Canadian government do to counter the influences of American culture and promote a common Canadian identity?

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #179  
Unit 5 Review (p. 340)

Historically Speaking

Some historians believe that during the 1960s, Canadians ignored issues about racism because they believed they did not face the same problems as in the United States, where issues of racism often turned to violence. Is their evidence to suggest that racism was a problem which needed to be addressed in Canada but was being ignored? Provide evidence to support your answer.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #180  
Chapter 23 Review (p. 371)

Summary

In this chapter we have seen that Prime Ministers Trudeau and Mulroney held very different views on the dangers and benefits of American participation in the Canadian economy.

In this chapter we have seen that Canadians were divided over the issue of the free-trade agreements with the United States and Mexico and remain divided over the effects of NAFTA.

Understanding Historical Facts

Identify these people, places, and events, and explain their significance

OPEC

FIRA

Investment Canada

Jean Chrétien

Expo '96

National Energy Program

FTA/NAFTA

Hibernia

“Days of Action” strikes

Nixon Shock

What evidence supports Pierre Trudeau's statement: "Living next door to you [United States] is in some ways like sleeping with an elephant: no matter how friendly and even tempered the beast, one is affected by every twitch and grunt."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #181

Unit 6 Review (p. 408)

One of the most hotly debated topics in the past few decades has been Canada's relationship with the United States. Many Canadians feel that closer ties with the United States would threaten Canada's social programs, health-care system, and cultural industries. Do you agree that close ties with the United States involve threats to Canada? Or are close ties with the United States essential to the health of Canada? Defend your answer.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 2

## APPENDIX C

Making America

### Colonies and National Expansion

Entry #1  
Chapter 13 (p. 376)

#### **Expansion to the North and West**

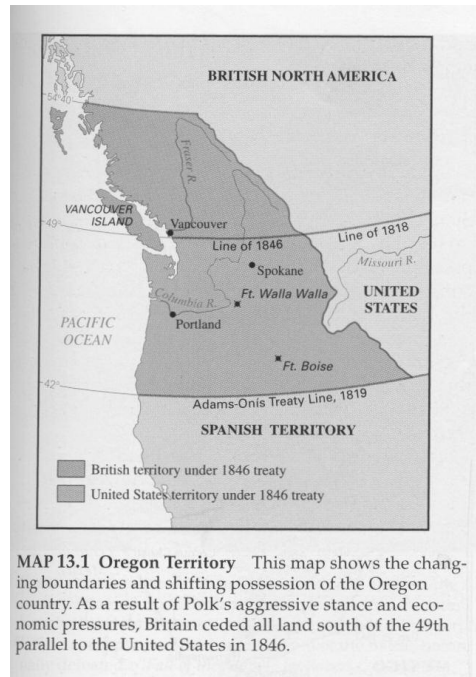
One major complication standing in the way of the nation's perceived manifest destiny was the fact that Spain, Britain, Russia, and other countries already owned large parts of the continent. The continued presence of the British, for example, proved to be a constant source of irritation. During the War of 1812 the War Hawks had advocated conquering Canada and pushing the British from the continent altogether (see page 252). Although events thwarted this ambition, pressure remained to acquire as much territory as possible from the British, legally or through other means.

One confrontation flared in 1838, when Canadians began logging and building a railroad through an area claimed by the state of Maine. The United States and Britain had been disputing Maine's boundaries since the Treaty of Paris in 1783. Growing impatient, Canadian loggers moved into the disputed region during the winter of 1838—1839 and began cutting trees. American lumberjacks resolved to drive them away, and fighting soon broke out. The Canadian province of New Brunswick and the state of Maine then mobilized their militias, the American Congress nervously called up fifty thousand men in case of war, and President Van Buren ordered in Winfield Scott. Once on the scene, General Scott was able to calm tempers and arrange a truce, but tension continued to run high.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #2  
Chapter 13 (p. 377)

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Entry #3  
Chapter 13 (p. 382)

Tyler (Referring to President Tyler) did share his party's desire for expansion, however. He assigned his secretary of state, Daniel Webster, to negotiate a treaty with Britain to settle the Maine matter once and for all. The resulting Webster-Ashburton Treaty (1842) gave more than half the disputed territory to the United States and finally established the nations' northeastern border with Canada.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #4  
Chapter 13 (p. 384)

Neither the United States nor Britain intended to go to war over Oregon. The only issue was where the border would be. Recalling the rhetoric that had gotten him elected, Polk insisted on 54 degrees 40'.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #5  
Chapter 21 (p. 661)

The United States did make choices to acquire Alaska and to expel the French from Mexico, and some Americans even hoped that Canada might become U.S. territory.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

### Military Conflict

Entry #6  
Chapter 4 (p. 108)

The war in America was both long and vicious, marked by massacres and atrocities. Following the French slaughter of surrendering men, women, and children at Fort Loyal (Portland), Maine, the governments of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New York made a rare attempt at cooperation. They promised to combine their resources in order to invade Canada. In the end, however, few made good on their promises of men or money, and colonial attacks on Montreal and Quebec both failed.

Peace returned to the colonies, but the legacy of war was apparent throughout New England and northern New York. At least 650 colonists had died in battle, in raids, or in captivity. The death toll for the Iroquois Confederacy was higher—between 600 and 1300. The lessons of the war were equally apparent. First, colonists paid a high price for their disunity and lack of cooperation. Second, no New Englander could ever feel secure until the French had been driven out of Canada. Third, the colonists could not drive the French away without the aid of the English army and navy.

Researcher: 2 Rater #1: 2 Rater #2: 3

Entry #7  
Chapter 4 (p. 109)

As the war dragged on, colonists called repeatedly for the assistance of British troops to defend their borders. Early in 1709, the board of trade promised both a fleet and an army to mount the much-needed offensive against Canada. Neither arrived. Disappointed New Englanders raised an army of nearly thirty-five hundred men and moved against Port Royal once again. This time they did not retreat. In October 1710, the colonists triumphantly took control of Port Royal and with it all of Nova Scotia.

Researcher: 2      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #8  
Chapter 4 (p. 110)

The English colonial interest in the valley alarmed the French and threatened to interfere with their own plans for the region. They hoped to unite their mainland empire connecting Canada and Louisiana with a chain of forts, trading posts, and missions across the Ohio Valley.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #9  
Chapter 4 (p. 111)

By the end of 1759, the upper Ohio Valley had been taken from the French. And in August of that year, General James Wolfe took the war to the heart of French Canada: the fortress city of Quebec.

With his piercing eyes and his long red hair, Wolfe looked the part of the military hero he was. Only 31 years old, he had already seen eighteen years of military service. Still, even he was daunted by the difficult task ahead of him. Quebec, heavily manned and well armed, sat on top of steep cliffs rising high above the St. Lawrence River.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #10  
Chapter 4 (p. 112)

Five days after the Battle of the Plains of Abraham, Quebec formally surrendered. In 1760, the city of Montreal also fell to the British. With that, the French governor surrendered the whole of New France to his enemies, and the war in North America was over.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

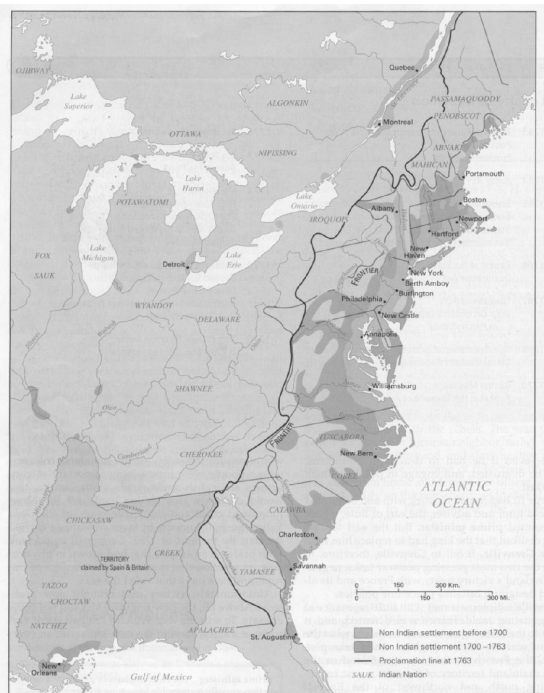
Entry #11  
Chapter 5 (p. 117)

England could take possession of a French Caribbean sugar island or the French mainland of Canada, a vast region stretching north and northwest of the English colonies. English sugar planters raised loud objections to the first option, for another sugar island would mean new competitors in the profitable English sugar markets. There was strong support, however, for adding Canada. Doing so would ensure the safety of the mainland colonies, whose people were increasingly important as consumers of English-made goods. With Canada, too, would come the rich fishing banks off the Newfoundland coast and the fertile lands of the Ohio Valley. Such arguments in favor of Canada carried the day.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #12  
Chapter 5 (p. 118)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



♦ MAP 5.1 The Proclamation Line of 1763 This map shows European settlement east of the Appalachian Mountains and the numerous Indian tribes with territorial claims to the lands between the Appalachians and the Mississippi River. The Proclamation Line, which roughly follows the mountain range, was the British government's effort to temporarily halt colonial westward expansion and thus to prevent bloodshed between settlers and Indians. This British policy was deeply resented by land-hungry colonists.

Entry #13  
Chapter 5 (p. 119)



The new Canadian territory posed serious governance problems because the Indians were unwilling to pledge their allegiance to the English king and the French Canadians were unwilling to abandon their traditions, laws, or religious institutions despite the change in government.

New Section on same page (p. 119)

Dealing with Indiana and French Canadian Resistance

Both the Canadian tribes and Spain's former Indian allies along the southeastern borders of the English colonies saw the threat to their interests in Britain's recent victory.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #14

Chapter 5 (p. 142-143)

Despite his accusations, Esther Sewall never considered leaving her physically ailing and depressed husband. She accompanied him to Canada in 1787, joining a small community of loyalist exiles in Nova Scotia. As Sewall's condition deteriorated, Esther became his constant companion and nurse. On September 25, 1796, she began a three day vigil by his bedside, remaining with him until he died on September 27. Having done her duty as a wife, Esther Sewall felt free to choose her own future. After twenty-one years of exile, she packed her few belongings and went home. Whatever her private regrets or satisfactions, she never recorded a word of regret at the choice of loyalties (referring to the United States) that shaped her life.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #15

Chapter 5 (p. 145)

The British victory over France and Spain in the Great War for Empire made Britain the most powerful European nation. The outcome produced new problems, however. The British had to govern the French population in Canada and maintain security against Indians on the colonial frontier. They had to pay an enormous war debt while maintaining a strong and well-equipped army and navy to keep the empire they had won.

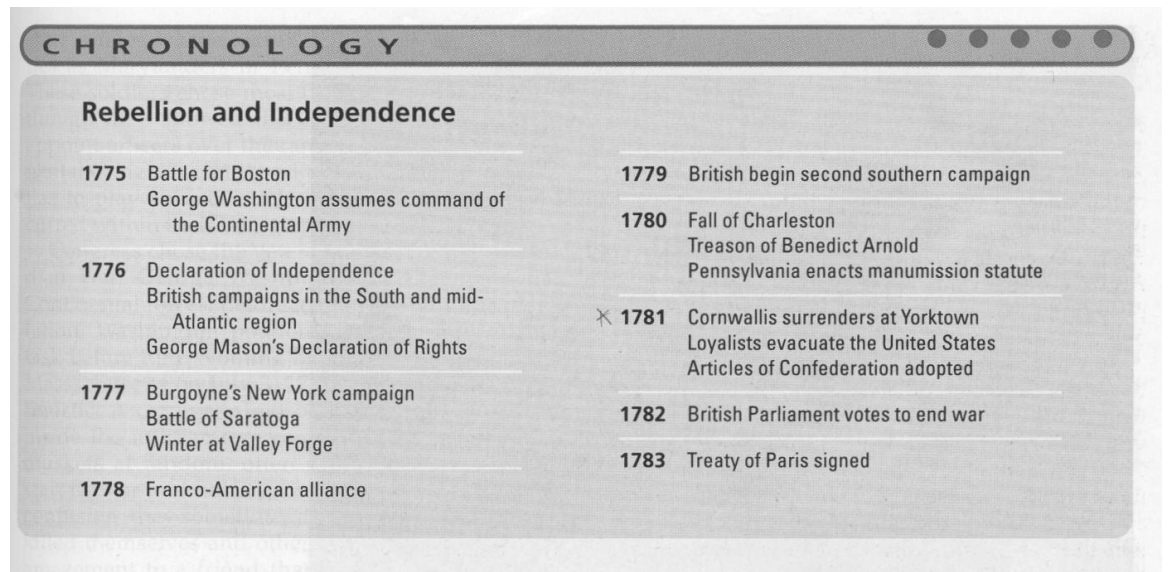
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #16

Chapter 6 (p. 149)

Table showing chronology of rebellion and independence

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Entry #17

Chapter 6 (p. 150)

Painting by John Trumball entitled "The Battle of Bunker Hill"

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



◆ American artist John Trumbull painted *The Battle of Bunker Hill* in 1786, over a decade after the bloody encounter between redcoats and American militiamen. Trumbull was a student of the famous American painter Benjamin West, who had won his reputation celebrating the English victories of the French and Indian War. Trumbull and other American students of West built their reputations by celebrating American victories in the artistic style that West taught them. "*The Death of General Warren at Bunker Hill*" by John Trumbull, Yale University Art Gallery. Trumbull Collection.

Entry #18

Chapter 6 (p. 151-2)

In North Carolina, loyalists did turn out to fight for the Crown, but Howe's officers could not deliver the strong troop support needed to ensure loyalist victories. When the badly armed and outnumbered Carolina loyalists met the rebel militia on February 27 in the Battle of Moore's Creek, they were decisively defeated. After this loss, the king's army moved southward, virtually abandoning its North Carolina allies. Bitter and disappointed, these loyalists had to fend for themselves.

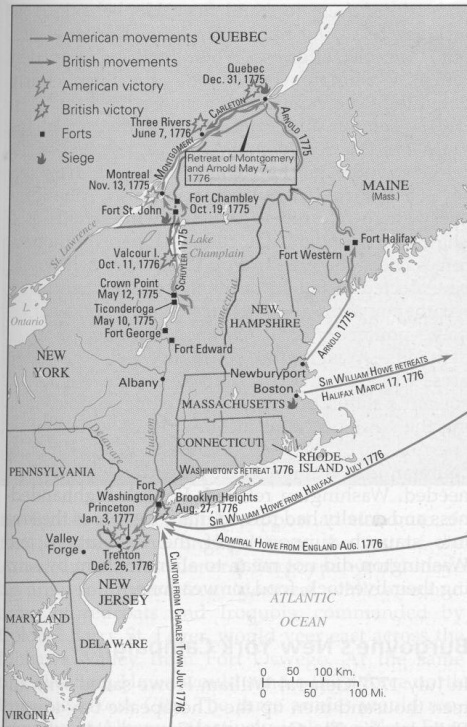
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #19

Chapter 6 (p. 153)

Map showing the war in the north from 1775-1777.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



♦ MAP 6.1 The War in the North, 1775-1777 The American attempt to capture Canada and General George Washington's effort to save New York from British occupation were failures, but Washington did manage to stage successful raids in New Jersey before retreating to safety in the winter of 1777. This map details the movements of both British and American troops during the Northern Campaign, and it indicates the victories and defeats for both armies.

Entry #20  
Chapter 6 (p. 155)

Picture showing a loyalist woman burning her wheat fields, preventing the harvest and subsequent use by rebel militias.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



◆ As Burgoyne's army moved south, Catherine Van Rensselaer rushed from Albany to rescue the furnishings of her country estate in Saratoga. Although panicked refugees fled past her, Van Rensselaer refused to turn back. She not only saved her furniture but set fire to her wheat fields to prevent the enemy from harvesting the grain. Such acts of sabotage were frequently carried out by patriot and loyalist women. *Los Angeles County Museum of Art; bicentennial gift of Mr. and Mrs. J. M. Schaaf, Mr. and Mrs. Charles C. Shoemaker, and Mr. and Mrs. Julian Ganz, Jr.*

Entry #21  
Chapter 6 (p. 155)

Blissfully unaware of these problems, Burgoyne led his army from Montreal in high spirits in June 1777 (see map on page 156). The troops floated down Lake Champlain in canoes and flat-bottomed boats and easily retook Fort Ticonderoga. From Ticonderoga, the invading army continued to march toward Albany. From this point, however, things began to go badly for Burgoyne.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #22  
Chapter 6 (p. 156)

St. Leger's battle fatigue and William Howe's apparent ignorance of his role in this military operation left Burgoyne stranded in the heart of New York. By mid-September 1777, his supplies were dwindling, he had little choice left but to break through the American lines and retreat northward to the safety of Canada—or surrender. On September 19, Burgoyne attacked American forces under the command of Horatio Gates at Saratoga, hoping to open a path of retreat for his army. "Granny" Gates, as the elderly leader was affectionately called, lacked daring or cunning, but he needed neither to drive back the exhausted, dispirited British soldiers. Burgoyne tried again on October 7, and again Gates and his men held their ground. On October 17, 1777, General John Burgoyne surrendered.

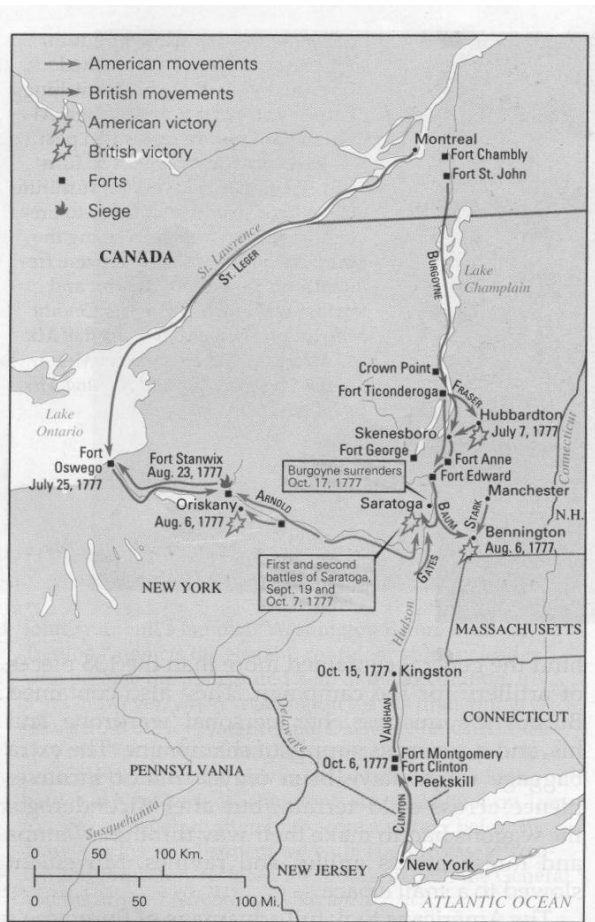
Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #23

Chapter 6 (p. 156)

Map showing the military campaign of British General John Burgoyne in 1777

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



◆ **MAP 6.2 The Burgoyne Campaign, 1777** The defeat of General John Burgoyne and his army at Saratoga was a major turning point in the war. It led to the recognition of American independence by France and later by Spain and to a military alliance with both these European powers. This map shows American and British troop movement and the locations and dates of the Saratoga battles leading to the British surrender.

Entry #24

Chapter 6 (p. 161-2)

General John Sullivan learned just how effective this combination (referring to combination of Indian and loyalist forces) could be when his regular army expedition to update New York was badly defeated by Indian and loyalist forces led by Mohawk chief Thayendanegea. The humiliated Sullivan took revenge by burning forty Indian villages, an act of violence that deeply embarrassed General Washington.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #25

Chapter 6 (p. 162)

Cornwallis and his regular army were joined by loyalist troops who were as eager to take their revenge on their enemies as Clinton had been. Since the British had abandoned the South in 1776, small, roving bands of loyalist guerillas had kept resistance to the Revolution alive. After the British victory at Charleston, the guerillas increased their attacks, and a bloody civil war of ambush, arson, and brutality on both sides resulted. By the summer of 1780, fortunes had reversed: the revolutionaries were now the resistance and the loyalists were in control.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #26

Chapter 6 (p. 162)

When guerillas and loyalists met head-on in battle, they honored few of the rules of war. In October, 1780, for example, in the Battle of King's Mountain, revolutionaries surrounded loyalist troops and picked them off one by one. As this bitter civil war continued, marauding bands terrorized civilians and plundered their farms. Often the worst damage was done by outlaws posing as soldiers.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #27  
Chapter 6 (p. 162)

Greene's first steps were to ease the strains caused by civil war, raids, and plundering by offering pardons to loyalists and proposing alliances with local Indian tribes. In the end, Greene managed to win all but the Creeks away from the British.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #28  
Chapter 6 (p. 165)

Despite the stunning turn of events at Yorktown, fighting continued in some areas. Loyalists and patriots continued to make war on each other in the South for another year. Bloody warfare against the Indians also meant more deaths along the frontier. The British occupation of Charleston, Savannah, and New York continued. But after Yorktown the British gave up all hope of military victory against their former colonies.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #29  
Chapter 6 (p. 166)

In the Treaty of Paris of 1783 the Americans emerged with two clear victories. First the boundaries of the new nation were extensive, although the British did not give up Canada. Second, the treaty granted the United States unlimited access to the fisheries off Newfoundland, a particular concern of New Englander John Adams.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #30  
Chapter 6 (p. 168)

Grace Galloway, wife of loyalist exile Joseph Galloway of Pennsylvania, remained in America during the war in an effort to preserve her husband's property. Shunned by her patriot neighbors, reduced from wealth to painful poverty, Grace Galloway nevertheless confided to her diary that "Ye liberty of doing as I please makes even poverty more agreeable than any time I ever spent since I married."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

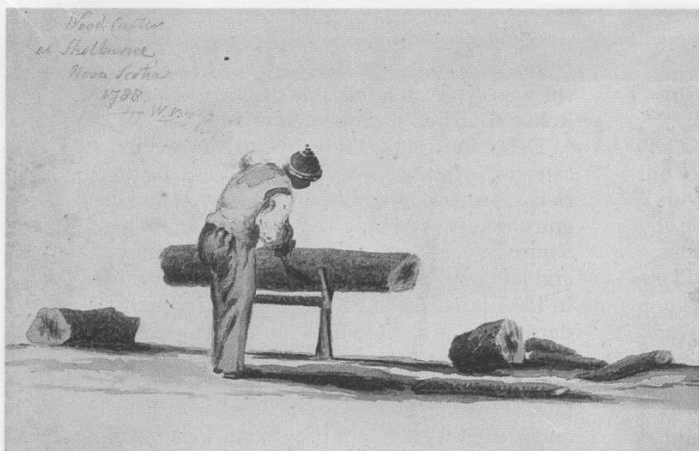
Entry #31  
Chapter 6 (p. 169)

Both loyalist and patriot women served as spies or saboteurs or risked their lives by sheltering soldiers or hiding weapons in their basements. Sometimes they made the choice to burn their own crops or destroy their homes to prevent the enemy from using them.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #32  
Chapter 6 (p. 172)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



◆ Black loyalists who settled in Nova Scotia faced serious racial discrimination and open hostility from white refugees. This woodcutter may have been among the African-American loyalists who chose to relocate to Sierra Leone in the 1790s. "A Rare View of a Black Woodcutter at Work in Shelburne, Nova Scotia," 1788 by William Booth. National Archives Canada, Ottawa (C-40162).

Entry #33  
Chapter 6 (p. 174)

### **The Fate of the Loyalists**

Before independence was declared, white Americans loyal to the Crown experienced the isolation and disapproval of their communities. Some faced the physical danger of tarring and feathering, imprisonment, or beatings. Still others saw their property destroyed. After 1775, loyalists flocked to the safety of British-occupied cities, crowding first into Boston and later into New York City and Philadelphia. When the British left an area, the loyalists evacuated with them. More than a thousand Massachusetts loyalists boarded British ships when Boston was abandoned in 1776, and fifteen thousand more sailed out of New York harbor when the war ended. Altogether, as many as a hundred thousand men, women, and children left their American homes to take up new lives in England, Canada, and the West Indies.

Wealth often determined a loyalist's destination. Rich and influential men like Thomas Hutchinson of Massachusetts took refuge in England during the war. But life in England was so expensive that it quickly ate up their resources and drove them into debt.

Accustomed to comfort, many of these exiles passed their days in seedy boarding houses in the small cities outside London. They lost more than servants and fine clothes, however. In a society dominated by aristocrats and royalty, loyalist men who had enjoyed status and prestige in America suddenly found themselves socially insignificant, with no work and little money. Loyalists in England grew more desperately homesick each day. When the war ended, most of the loyalists in England departed for Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, or the Caribbean. Many of these exiles were specifically forbidden to return to the United States by the new state governments. Others refused to go back to America because they equated the new republican society with mob rule. Those who were willing to adjust to the new American nation returned slowly. Less prosperous loyalists, especially those who served in the loyalist battalions during the war, went to Canada after 1781. The separation from family and friends, as much as the bleak climate of Canada, at first caused depression and despair in some exiles. One woman who had bravely endured the warfare and its deprivations broke down and cried when she landed at Nova Scotia. Like the revolutionaries, these men and women had chosen their political loyalty based on a mixture of principle and self-interest. Unlike the revolutionaries, they had chosen the losing side. They lived with the consequences for the rest of their lives.

Canada became the refuge of another group of loyalists: members of the Indian tribes that had supported the Crown. The British ceded much of the Iroquois land to the United States in the Treaty of Paris, and American hostility toward "enemy savages" made peaceful coexistence seem impossible. Thus, in the 1780s, Mohawks, Onondagas, Tuscaroras, Senecas, Oneidas, and Cayugas along with Delawares, Tutelos, and Nanticokes created new, often multiethnic settlements on the banks of the Grand River in Ontario. These new communities marked an end to the dislocation and suffering many of these refugees had experienced during the Revolution, when steady warfare depleted Indian resources and made thousands dependent on the British for food, clothing, and military supplies. A majority of those who settled in Canada had already spent years in makeshift encampments near Fort Niagara after American armies destroyed their farms, homes, and villages.

Researcher: 3	Rater #1: 3	Rater #2: 3
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Entry #34

Chapter 6 (p. 175)

When the colonies *chose* independence and war with Great Britain, both sides had *expectations* that proved incorrect. The British outnumbered and outgunned the Americans and *expected* a short war. The Americans *expected* the British to abandon a war fought so far from home. The war, however, dragged on for seven years.

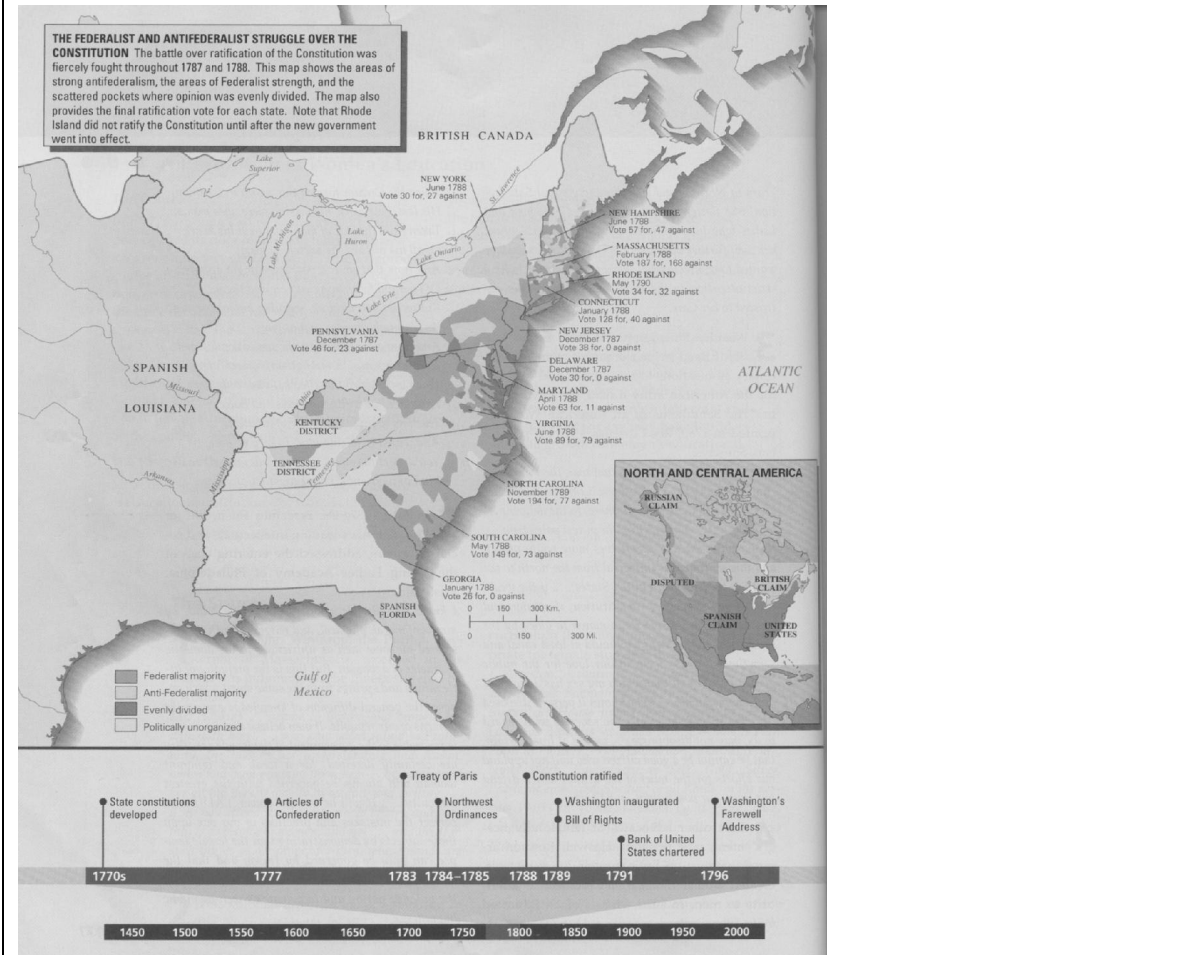
The British *chose* initially to invade New York and the southern colonies, *expecting* to find strong loyalist support in both regions. But *constrained* by the difficulty of waging war in unfamiliar territory and baffled by Washington's hit-and-run tactics, the British suffered several early defeats and were not able to deliver a crushing blow.

The most dramatic turning point in the war came in 1777 when British general John Burgoyne *chose* to try to isolate New England from the rest of the rebelling colonies—and failed. He was forced to surrender at Saratoga, New York. The *outcome* of this American victory was an alliance between France and the United States and the expansion of the war into an international conflict. When the British again *chose* to invade the South in 1778, their campaign ended in disaster. French and American forces together defeated General Cornwallis at Yorktown, Virginia, in October 1781. Fighting continued for a time, but in March 1782, the British Parliament *chose* to end the conflict. The war for American independence had been won. The Treaty of Paris was negotiated in 1783. Despite several diplomatic *constraints*, the Americans won important concessions. Independence from British rule was not the only *outcome* of the war. Victory led to transformations in American society. Individual rights were strengthened for free white men. A republican spirit changed the outlook, if not the condition, of those whose rights were *constrained* by habit, custom, and law. Many white women, for example, developed a new sense of the importance of their domestic role as “republican mothers” in the new nation. Black Americans also made some gains. Fifty thousand slaves won their freedom during the war, thousands by serving in the Continental Army. Some northerners moved to outlaw slavery, but southern slaveholders *chose* to preserve the institution despite intense debate. Loyalists, having made their political *choices*, had to live with the consequences of defeat. For most, the *outcome* was exile from their homeland.

Researcher: 3	Rater #1: 3	Rater #2: 3
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Entry #35  
 Chapter 7 (p. 178)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #36  
Chapter 9 (p. 243)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

C H R O N O L O G Y	
<b>Domestic Expansion and International Crisis</b>	
1794	Eli Whitney patents the cotton gin
1803	Louisiana Purchase Renewal of war between France and Britain Britain steps up impressment
1804	Duel between Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr Jefferson re-elected
1805	Beginning of Shawnee religious revival Battles of Trafalgar and Austerlitz
1806	Napoleon issues Berlin Decree
1807	Burr conspiracy trial Founding of Prophetstown <i>Chesapeake</i> affair
1808	Embargo goes into effect Economic depression begins James Madison elected president
1809	Non-Intercourse Act Fort Wayne Treaty Chouteau brothers form the Missouri Fur Company
1810	Macon's Bill No. 2 Formation of the War Hawks
1811	United States breaks trade relations with Britain
	John Jacob Astor builds Astoria at the mouth of the Columbia River Battle of Tippecanoe and destruction of Prophetstown
1812	United States declares war against England United States invades Canada James Madison re-elected
1813	Fort Mims massacre Battle of Put-in-Bay Embargo of 1813 First mechanized textile factory, Waltham, Massachusetts Battle of the Thames
1814	Battle of Horseshoe Bend Napoleon defeated British capture and burn Washington, D.C. Battle of Plattsburgh Treaty of Ghent
1815	Battle of New Orleans Treaty of Fort Jackson Portage des Sioux treaties
1819	Treaty of Edwardsville
1825	Prairie du Chien treaties

Entry #37  
Chapter 9 (p. 255)

### War of 1812

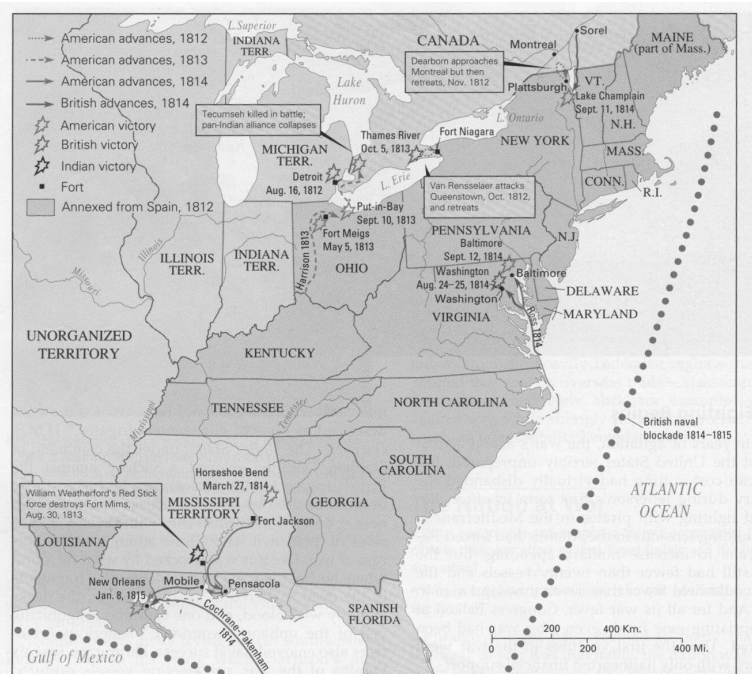
In line with that the War Hawks wanted, the first military campaign was a three-pronged drive toward Canada and against the Indians. One force, commanded by Harrison, was successful in raiding undefended Indian villages but was unable to make any gains against British troops.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #38  
Chapter 9 (p. 256)

Map showing battles of the War of 1812

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



◆ Map 9.2 The War of 1812 The heaviest action during the first two years of the War of 1812 lay along the U.S./Canadian border. In 1814, the British sought to knock the United States out of the war by staging three offensives: one along the northern frontier at Plattsburg, New York; one into the Chesapeake; and a third directed at the Mississippi River at New Orleans. All three offensives failed.

Entry #39

Chapter 9 (p. 257)

When military campaigning resumed in the spring of 1813, it appeared that the U.S. Army would fare as badly as it had fared in the embarrassing fall just past. The problem on the Canadian front was that the British controlled the Great Lakes and could depend on an uninterrupted supply like. In contrast, American forces and their supplies moved along undeveloped roads and were easy targets for Indian and British attackers.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #40

Chapter 9 (p. 258)

Procter and Tecumseh continued to harass American forces through the summer of 1813. Then, with winter approaching, the British and Indians withdrew to Canada. Harrison, who had been busy raising additional troops, decided to pursue. His army caught up with

the English and Indian force at the Thames River, about 50 miles east of Detroit, on October 5. A piercing cavalry charge caught the British unaware, and they soon surrendered. The Indians held out longer. But when word spread that Tecumseh had been killed, they melted into the woods, leaving the body of their fallen leader to be torn apart by the victorious Americans.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #41  
Chapter 9 (p. 258-9)

Adding to the money problem was the fact that to this point in the war, the United States had permitted neutral nations to trade freely with the American ports, carrying American exports to England and Canada and English goods into eastern ports.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #42  
Chapter 9 (p. 259)

While Congress debated matters of finance and trade restrictions, events in Europe were changing the entire character of the War. On March 31, 1814, the British and their allies took Paris, forcing Napoleon to abdicate his throne. Few in America mourned the French emperor's fall. Jefferson wrote, "I rejoice...in the downfall of Bonaparte. This scourge of the world has occasioned the deaths of at least ten millions of human beings." Napoleon's defeat, however, left the United States as Great Britain's sole military target. Republican Joseph Nicholson expressed a common lament when he said, "We should have to fight hereafter nor for 'free Trade and sailors rights, nor for the conquest of Canadas, but for our national Existence."

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #43  
Chapter 9 (p. 259)

Although fighting raged sporadically all along the Canadian frontier, the main thrust of the British offensive in the North was against eastern New York. Sir George Prevost, governor-general of Canada, massed ten thousand troops for an invasion of the United States through Pittsburgh, New York. The British force arrived just north of Plattsburgh on September 6, pausing there to await support from the British fleet that controlled Lake

Champlain. However, a small American fleet under the command of Lieutenant Thomas MacDonough outmaneuvered the imposing British fleet and forced it to surrender on September 11.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #44  
Chapter 9 (p. 262)

On yet another front, British pressed an offensive against the Gulf coast designed to take pressure off Canada and close transportation on the Mississippi River. The defense of the Gulf fell to Andrew Jackson and his Tennesseans.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #45  
Chapter 9 (p. 263)

The British were confident that their three-pronged attack against the United States would soon knock the Americans out of the war. In no hurry to end the war by diplomacy, the British negotiators refused to discuss substantive issues, insisting that impressments and the formation of a permanent Indian frontier between Canada and the United States were non-negotiable.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #46  
Chapter 9 (p. 263)

Neither military nor diplomatic finagling netted Canada for the War Hawks. And the treaty did nothing about the supposed conspiracies between Indians and British agents, for they had never existed. Although Americans called the War of 1812 a victory, they actually won none of the things that Madison's war statement had declared the nation was fighting for.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #47



Chapter 18 (p. 540)

A few months later, Crazy Horse was killed when he resisted being put into an army jail. Sitting Bull and his band escaped to Canada and remained there until 1881, when he finally surrendered.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #48

Chapter 18 (p. 540)

After the Great Sioux War, no Indian group had the capacity for sustained resistance. Small groups occasionally left their reservations but were promptly tracked down by troops. One notable instance was the effort by the Nez Perce, led by Chief Joseph, who attempted to flee to Canada in 1877 when the army tried to force them to leave their reservation in western Idaho. Between July and early October they eluded the army as they traveled east and north through Montana through Canada. More than two hundred died along the way. Joseph surrendered on the specific condition that the Nez Perce be permitted to return to their previous home.

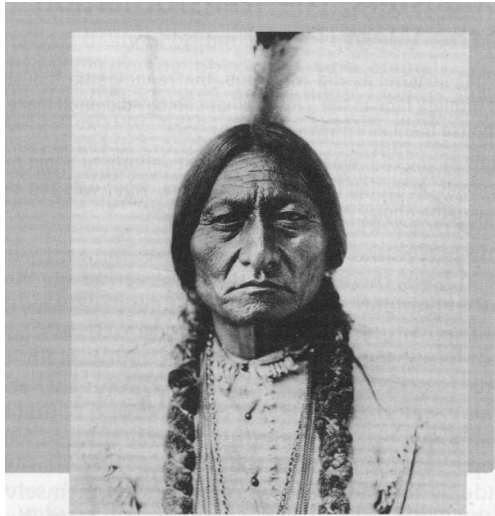
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #49

Chapter 18 (p. 542)

(Picture of Sitting Bull)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



### Sitting Bull

*After Sitting Bull returned to the United States from Canada in 1881, he became a favorite subject for many photographers. This photo dates to the mid-1880s, when he was about fifty years old. Denver Public Library.*

### Entry #50

Chapter 18 (p. 543)

The defeat of Custer was certainly the greatest victory by the Plains Indians in all their battles with the U.S. Army, but it provoked a strong counterattack. As the army attacked and attacked again, Sitting Bull and his followers lost their tipis and provisions. Finally they fled to Canada and remained there for several years.

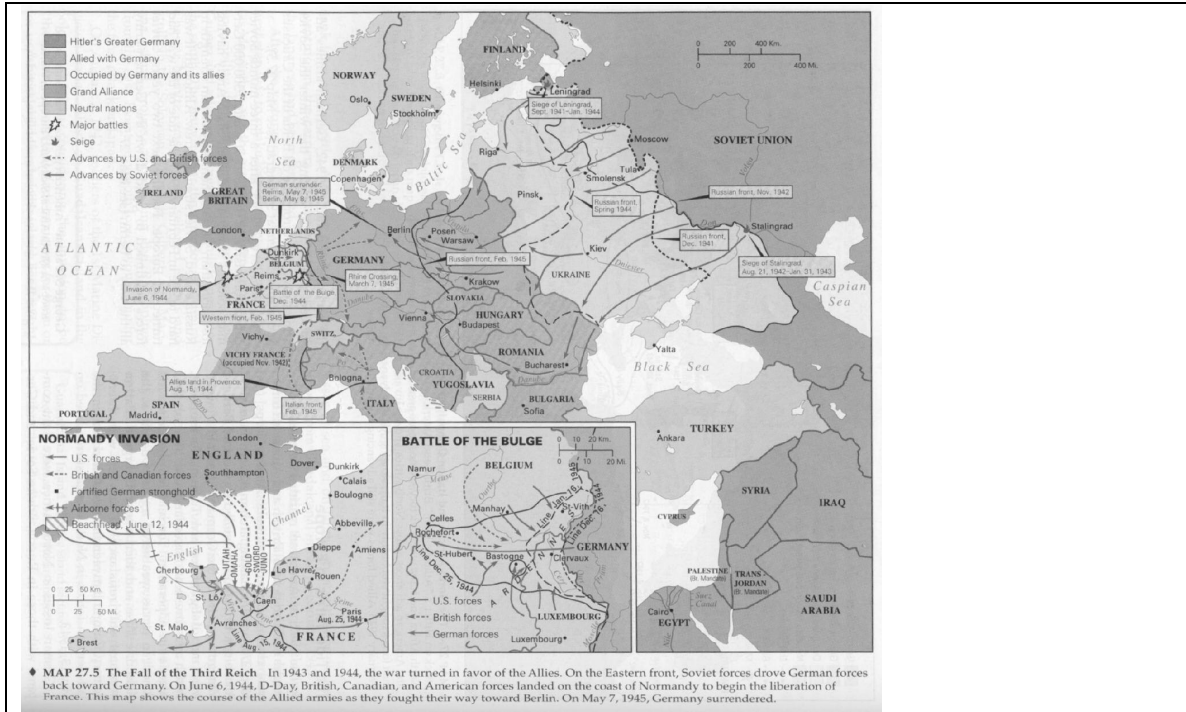
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Entry #51

Chapter 27 (p. 850)

Map showing the invasion of Europe by the allies during World War II

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #52

Chapter 27 (p. 851)

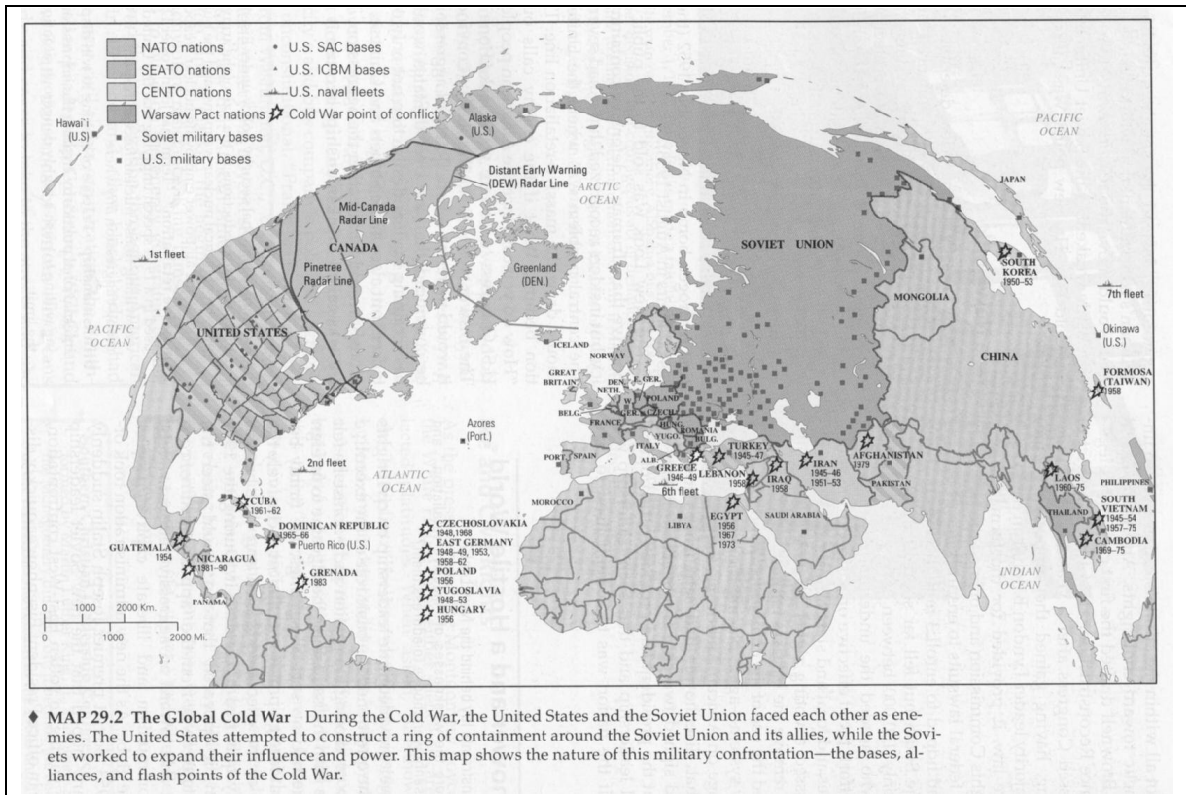
The invasion of Normandy, France—Operation Overlord—was the grandest amphibious assault ever assembled: 6,483 ships, 1,500 tanks, and 200,000 men. Opposing the Allies were thousands of German troops behind the Atlantic Wall they had constructed along the coast to stop such an invasion. On D-Day, June 6, 1944, American forces landed on Utah and Omaha beaches while British and Canadian forces hit Sword, Gold, and Juno beaches.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #53

Chapter 29 (p. 912)

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



## Economic Activity

### Entry #54

#### Chapter 2 (p. 42)

Despite the long existence of the fur trade in Canada, French colonial authorities at first took little interest in it. Samuel de Champlain, the “father of New France,” established trading posts in Nova Scotia and elsewhere, founded the city of Quebec, and in 1608 formed an enduring alliance with the Huron Indians.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Entry #55

#### Chapter 2 (p. 43)

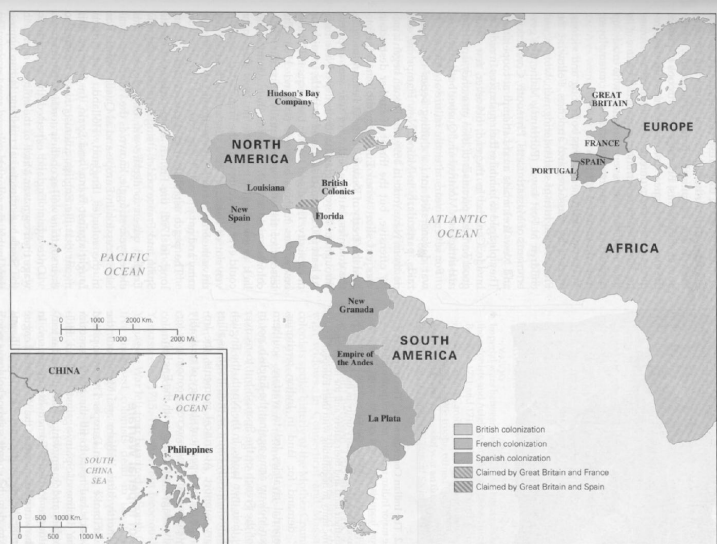
Only after 1663 did the French crown begin to intervene seriously in Canadian affairs. In that year the king revoked the French West India Company’s charter and took direct control of New France, making it a royal colony in 1674.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Entry #56

Chapter 4 (p. 107)  
Map of Hudson's Bay Company territory

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Entry #57  
Chapter 8 (p. 230)

Allied closely with trading interests in Canada and involved in sporadic war with the Shoshones, the Blackfeet were not at all friendly, seeing the Americans as a dangerous unsettling factor in Plains diplomacy. The Indians attacked the expedition, but the Americans were able to fight them off long enough to make a strategic retreat.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #58  
Chapter 9 (p. 252)

(Referring to the War Hawk position(s) of the late 1700's and early 1800's)  
In addition, a war would justify invading and seizing Canada, fulfilling what many considered a natural but frustrated goal of the American Revolution. At the same time, taking Canada from the British would open rich timber, fur, and agricultural lands for American settlement. More important, it would secure American control of the Great Lakes and St. Lawrence River—the primary shipping route for agricultural produce from upper New York, northern Ohio, and the newly opening areas of the Old Northwest.

Frontiersmen, like other Americans, blamed Britain for the economic depression that began in 1808. And they believed, rightly or wrongly, that eliminating British interference would restore the boom economy that had drawn so many to farmland at the edge of American settlement.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #59  
Chapter 9 (p. 268)

Astor planned to collect furs at this post (referring to the strategic location of the Columbia River) and ship them directly to Asia, where neither the rival English Hudson's Bay Company nor the Canadian North West Company could trade directly because of British law.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #60  
Chapter 17 (p. 510)

By 1880, more than twenty railroad lines connected Chicago with all parts of the United States and much of Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #61  
Chapter 21 (p. 636)

Charles Sumner, chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, looked on the purchase of Alaska as the first step toward the ultimate possession of Canada. Many others shared his hope.

Expansion by acquiring Canada was certainly on Sumner's mind as he considered a set of claims against Great Britain arising out of the Civil War.

The total, by Sumner's calculations, was more than \$2 billion—so much, he suggested, that Britain could best meet its obligations by ceding all its North American possessions, including Canada, to the United States.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #62

Chapter 32 (p. 1012)

Bush did little to respond to the economic slide. Apart from saying that the American economy would rebound, he relied on raising interest rates and reducing trade barriers to allow foreign trade to expand. Negotiations went forward to establish a North American free trading zone with Mexico and Canada and to eliminate Japanese barriers to American trade, but these negotiations had little impact on the economy.

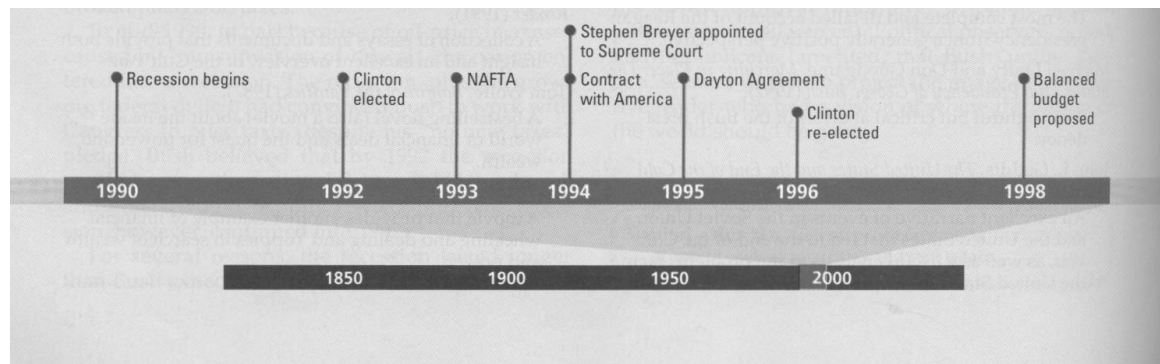
Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

Entry #63

Chapter 33 (p. 1014)

Timeline showing the year NAFTA was passed.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3



Entry #64

Chapter 33 (p. 1017)

Chronology showing the year NAFTA was passed.

Researcher: 3 Rater #1: 3 Rater #2: 3

**CHRONOLOGY**

**New Expectations, New Directions**

<p>1969 Stonewall Riot</p> <p>1972 Equal Rights Amendment begins ratification process</p> <p>1973 Roe v. Wade</p> <p>1974 Busing confrontation in Boston</p> <p>1976 Hyde Amendment restricts federally funded abortions</p> <p>1978 Regents of the University of California v. Bakke</p> <p>1980 Ronald Reagan elected president</p> <p>1981 Beginning of AIDS epidemic in the United States Sandra Day O'Connor appointed to Supreme Court</p> <p>1982 Equal Rights Amendment fails to win ratification</p> <p>1986 William Rehnquist appointed chief justice of the Supreme Court Antonin Scalia appointed to the Supreme Court</p> <p>1987 Anthony Kennedy appointed to the Supreme Court</p> <p>1988 George Bush elected president</p> <p>1990 Recession begins Iraq invades Kuwait David Souter appointed to the Supreme Court</p>	<p>1991 Breakup of the Soviet Union Persian Gulf War Clarence Thomas appointed to Supreme Court</p> <p>1992 Riots in south-central Los Angeles U.S. troops sent to Somalia Bill Clinton elected president Planned Parenthood of Southeastern Pennsylvania v. Casey</p> <p>1993 North American Free Trade Agreement passed Clinton introduces national health package Ruth Bader Ginsburg appointed to Supreme Court</p> <p>1994 Withdrawal of U.S. troops from Somalia Nelson Mandela elected president of South Africa Stephen Breyer appointed to Supreme Court Violence Against Women Act "Contract with America"</p> <p>1995 Bombing of Oklahoma federal building Dayton Agreement</p> <p>1996 Welfare reform passed Clinton re-elected</p> <p>1997 Madeleine Albright confirmed as Secretary of State Reno v. ACLU</p> <p>1998 Clinton proposes balanced budget</p>
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Entry #65  
Chapter 33 (p. 1034)

Continuing initiatives started by Bush, Clinton gained congressional approval of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). Both were designed to reduce and eliminate trade barriers and to increase international trade—NAFTA for the United States, Mexico, and Canada; GATT for most of the world.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

World Affairs

Entry #66  
Chapter 21 (p. 636)

Charles Sumner, chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, looked on the purchase of Alaska as the first step toward the ultimate possession of Canada. Many others shared his hope.

Expansion by acquiring Canada was certainly on Sumner's mind as he considered a set of claims against Great Britain arising out of the Civil War.

The total, by Sumner's calculations, was more than \$2 billion—so much, he suggested, that Britain could best meet its obligations by ceding all its North American possessions, including Canada, to the United States.



Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #67

Chapter 32 (p. 993)

(Referring to the Iran Hostage Crisis)

Diplomatic efforts through the Canadians and the Algerians eventually resulted in an agreement in 1980 to release the hostages.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 4

### Social Order

Entry #68

Chapter 24 (p. 746)

In attempting to freeze the ethnic composition of the nation, the law (referring to the National Origins Act) reflected the arguments of those nativists who argued immigrants from southern and eastern Europe made less desirable citizens than people from northern and western Europe. The law completely excluded Asians, upsetting relations with Japan, but it permitted unrestricted immigration from Canada and Latin America.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #69

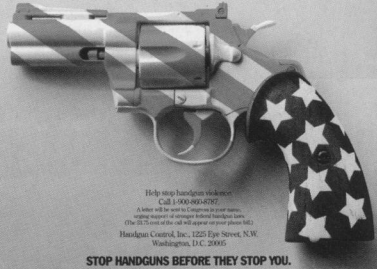
Chapter 33 (p. 1034)

Poster for American gun control using Canada as a peripheral statistic

Researcher: 4 Rater #1: 4 Rater #2: 4

14

**IN 1992, HANDGUNS KILLED  
33 PEOPLE IN GREAT BRITAIN  
36 IN SWEDEN  
97 IN SWITZERLAND  
60 IN JAPAN  
13 IN AUSTRALIA  
128 IN CANADA  
AND 13,220 IN THE UNITED STATES.  
GOD BLESS AMERICA.**



Help stop handgun violence.  
Call 1-800-960-4322.  
A letter will be sent to Congress in your name,  
requesting stronger handgun laws.  
(The \$2.50 cost of the ad will appear on your phone bill.)  
Handgun Control, Inc. 1222 Eye Street, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20005

**STOP HANDGUNS BEFORE THEY STOP YOU.**

♦ Throughout the 1980s and 1990s the issue of gun control has sharply divided the nation. This ad strongly asserts the need for controls. Opponents argue that the right to bear arms is guaranteed by the Constitution. Advocates for control won a small victory in 1993 when Congress passed the Brady Bill, which requires a five-day waiting period and background check before people can buy a handgun. *Handgun Control, Inc.*

## APPENDIX D

### America: Pathways to the Present First Settlements

Entry #1

Chapter 1 Section 1 (p. 21)

As early as 1524, Giovanni de Verrazano, an Italian explorer sailing for France, explored the coast of North America from what is now North Carolina to Newfoundland, now a part of Canada. On the basis of Jacques Cartier's explorations, the French king claimed present-day Canada and parts of the northern United States for France, calling the area New France. In 1608, the first successful French colony was founded on the site of the Canadian city of Quebec.

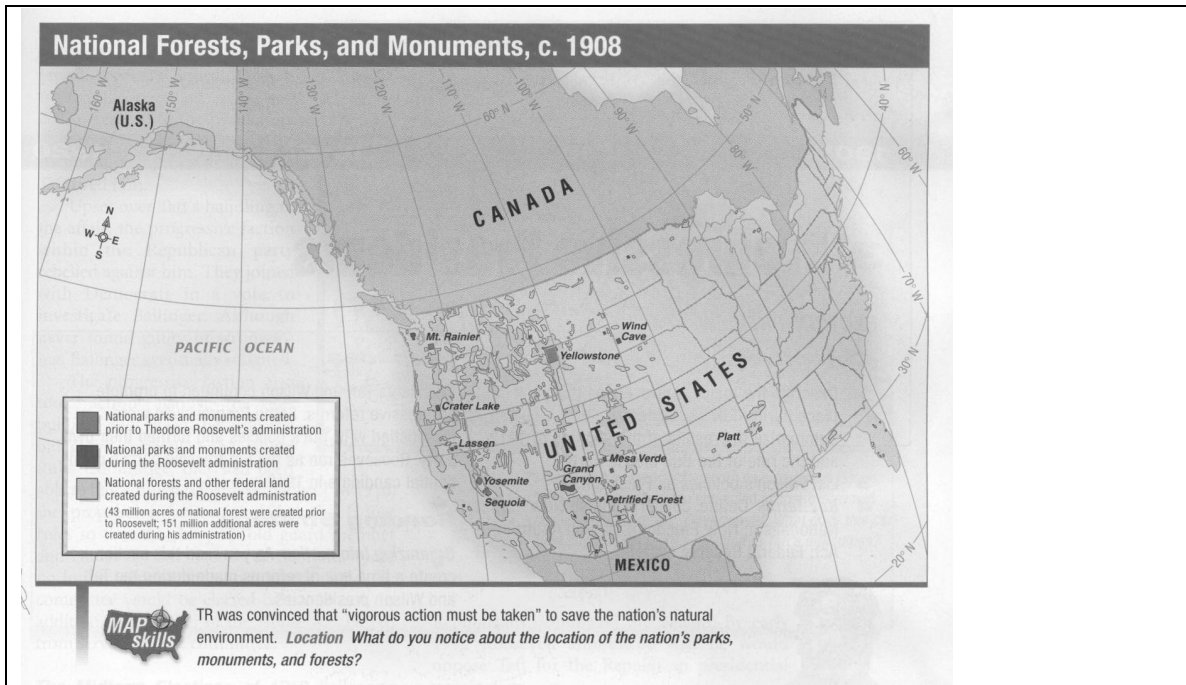
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #2

Chapter 9 Section 2 (p. 295)

Map showing Canada with United States

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



### Military Conflict

#### Entry #3

Chapter 1 Section 2 (p. 27)

Until late in 1758, the French and their Indian allies took the lead in the fighting. Then British troops began to move in overwhelming numbers against the French. The British drove the French out of Louisberg, on the gulf of the St. Lawrence; out of their New York forts; and out of Quebec, the capital city of New France. With their capture of Quebec, the British won the war. In the Treaty of Paris, signed in 1763, the French turned over Canada to the British.

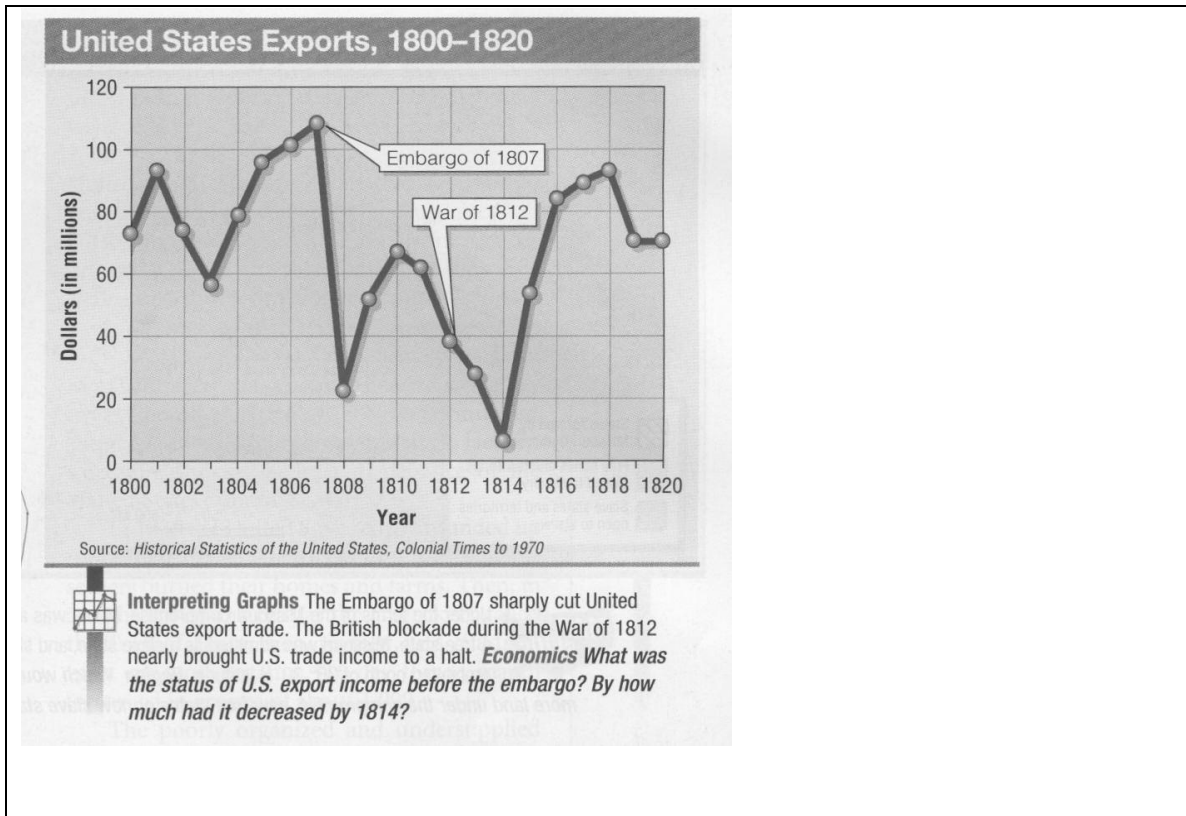
Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

### Economic Activity

#### Entry #4

Chapter 1 Section 4 (p. 73)

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Entry #5  
 Chapter 5 Section 4 (p. 195)

Populism's Legacy  
 By 1897 McKinley's administration had raised the tariff to new heights. In 1900, after gold strikes in South Africa, the Canadian Yukon, and Alaska had added more than \$100 million worth of gold to the world's gold supply, Congress returned the nation to a gold standard.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #6  
 Chapter 11 Section 5 (p. 366)

In the old days, bootleggers merely had been drinkers who hid flasks of liquor in the leg of their boots. Now the term was used to describe suppliers of illegal alcohol. Some bootleggers smuggled whiskey from the Caribbean or Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #7

Chapter 25 Section 2 (p. 366)

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) called for removal of trade restrictions among the United States, Canada, and Mexico. The resulting free trade zone created a single market similar to the market of the European Union.

Supporters of NAFTA claimed that it would instead create more American jobs by increasing exports to Mexico and Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #8

Chapter 30 (Chapter opener p. 783)

When the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) took effect on January 1, 1994, the economy of the United States became more closely linked with the economies of Canada and Mexico. Since then, NAFTA has become a lightning rod for debate over free trade. While supporters of NAFTA argue that free trade will increase jobs and exports in the United States, opponents believe that it will result in the loss of American jobs. NAFTA may become the model for a trade agreement proposed for 2005 that would include all of North and South America.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #9

Chapter 30 (p. 784)

***What is NAFTA?***

The main purpose of NAFTA is to stimulate economic growth in the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 3

Entry #10

Chapter 30 (p. 784)

***NAFTA and Canada***

Trade between the United States and Canada has been strong for many years. President Kennedy summed up this relationship: “Geography made us neighbors. History made us friends. And economics made us partners.”

Even before NAFTA, Canada and the United States were each other’s largest trading partner. In 1988, the two countries agreed to the Free Trade Agreement.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 5

Entry #11

Chapter 30 (p. 786)

***Balancing Economics and Politics***

With the signing of NAFTA, the United States established a special economic relationship with its immediate neighbors. But what impact does the agreement have on political relations? What happens, for example, if Mexico or Canada wants to trade with a country to which the United States has restricted its trade?

In 1996 Congress passed the Helms-Burton Act. That act penalized foreign companies that do business with Cuba. Canada and Mexico, as well as other nations of Latin America, loudly objected to it. They claimed that it violated NAFTA and international law. They saw the Helms-Burton Act as an abuse of United States power and the latest example of Uncle Sam’s muscle-flexing in the Western Hemisphere.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 2      Rater #2: 3

Entry #12

Chapter 30 (p. 788)

***In Favor of NAFTA***

Benefits for the United States include a net increase in jobs and a 57 percent growth in exports to Mexico and Canada in NAFTA’s first four years. Both Canada and Mexico have enjoyed an increase in exports, too.

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 4      Rater #2: 4

Immigration

Entry #13

Chapter 11 Section 3 (p. 355)

Other Migration

As you read, the nation's immigration laws were tightened in the 1920's. As the number of immigrants from Europe decreased, employers turned to immigrants from Mexico and Canada to fill low-paying jobs. The new immigration quotas did not apply to nations in the Americas.

In the West, Mexicans supplied this labor, migrating from across the border to work on the farms of California and the ranches of Texas. In the Northeast, Canadians from the French-speaking province of Quebec traveled south to work in the paper mills, potato fields, and forests of New England and New York.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #14

Chapter 26 (p. 756)

Between 1930 and 1960, about 80 percent of all immigrants came from Europe or Canada.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

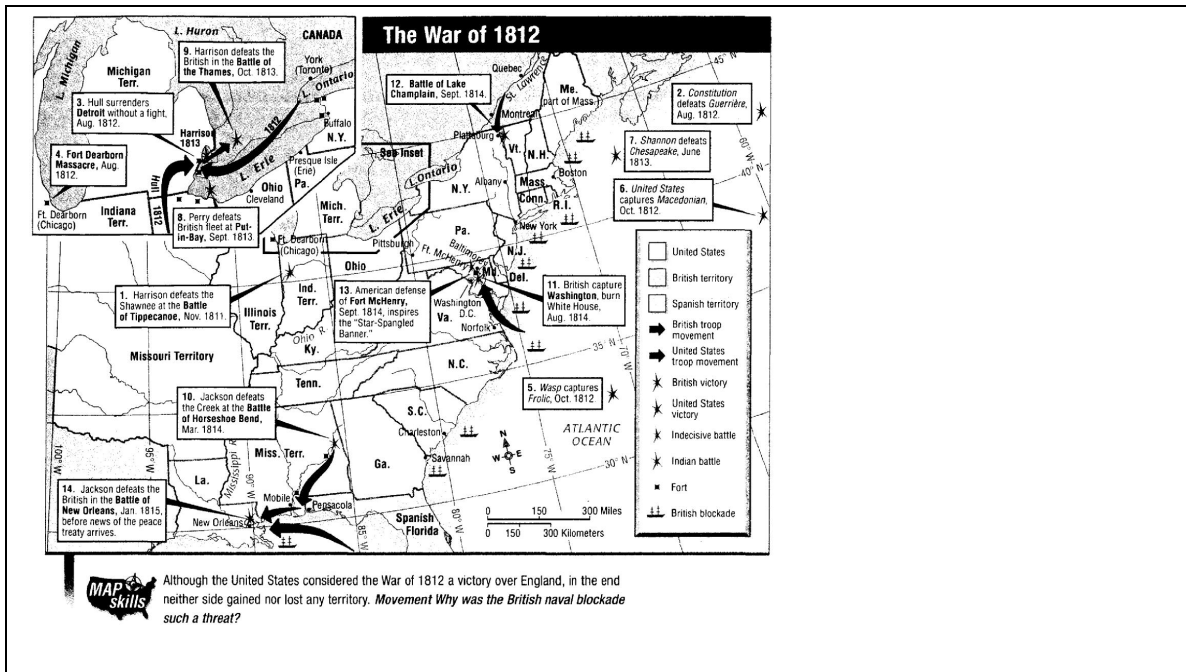
Entry #15

Chapter 1 Section 4 (p. 72)

Map showing battles of the War of 1812

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3





## Entry #16

### Chapter 1 Section 4 (p. 72-73)

Despite these disadvantages, American military planners expected to strike a swift, damaging blow to the enemy by pushing into Canada and conquering that vast British territory. To their surprise, American invasion forces, poorly equipped and led, were beaten by the British in the summer of 1812. The United States did manage to some land victories, against both the British and the Native Americans. But these modest successes were not about to convince a power like Great Britain to give up.

Meanwhile, the British used their superior sea power to blockade the American coast, thereby cutting off its trade. (British ships also sailed up the Chesapeake Bay and landed about 4,000 troops, who marched on Washington. On August 24, 1814, the enemy entered the capital and started fires that consumed the city. Even the Capitol and the White House were gutted by flames, and President Madison and his wife were forced to flee.

Still, both the British and the Americans recognized that this was a war no one wanted. On December 24, 1814, representatives of the two nations signed the Treaty of Ghent, ending the War of 1812. All the old boundaries between the United States and British territory in North America were restored.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #17  
Chapter 2 Section 2 (p. 96)

**Tensions with Great Britain**

British talks with the South aroused tensions between Great Britain and the United States. Late in 1861 Confederate president Davis again sent two representatives from the Confederacy to England and France. After evading the Union blockade, John Slidell and James Mason boarded the British mail ship *Trent* and steamed for Europe. Soon a Union warship stopped the *Trent* in international waters, removed the two Confederates, and brought them to the United States. An outraged British government sent troops to Canada and threatened war unless Slidell and Mason were freed. President Lincoln ordered the release of the Confederates. "One war at a time," he said.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #18  
Chapter 5 Section 2 (p. 182)

By the end of 1876, most of the Sioux had returned to their reservations. Sitting Bull escaped to Canada, but returned to a Sioux reservation five years later.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #19  
Chapter 5 Section 2 (p. 182)

The surviving Nez Perce' looked to Canada as their last hope for freedom. On September 30, 1877, less than 40 miles from Canada, they were charged by Colonel Nelson Miles' cavalry. Heavily outnumbered, Chief Joseph surrendered. "I am tired of fighting," he is reported to have said.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

World Affairs

Entry #20  
Chapter 16 Section 2 (p. 495)

(Referring to North Atlantic Treaty Organization)

This development soon made it clear that Western Europe would have to look beyond the UN in protecting itself from Soviet aggression. In 1946 Canadian Foreign Minister Louis St. Laurent proposed creating an “association of democratic peace-loving states” to defend Western Europe against attack by the Soviet Union.

American officials expressed great interest in St. Laurent’s idea. Truman was determined that the United States not return to pre-World War II isolationism. The Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan soon demonstrated his commitment to making America a leader in post-war world affairs.

Yet Truman did not want the United States to be the only nation in the Western Hemisphere pledged to defend Western Europe from the Communists. For this reason, Canada’s role in any proposed organization became vital to American support.

In April 1949, Canada and the United States joined Belgium, Britain, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Portugal to form the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Member nations agreed that “an armed attack against one or more of them...shall be considered an attack against them all.”

Researcher: 4      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3

Entry #21

Chapter 16 Section 2 (p. 496)

Graph showing member nations of NATO and the Warsaw Pact for 1955. Canada is listed in alphabetic order.

Researcher: 3      Rater #1: 3      Rater #2: 3



Finder

## NATO and Warsaw Pact Members, 1955

### NATO

Belgium	Italy	United Kingdom
Canada	Luxembourg	United States
Denmark	Netherlands	Greece
France	Norway	Turkey
Iceland	Portugal	West Germany

### Warsaw Pact

USSR	Czechoslovakia	Poland
Albania	East Germany	Romania
Bulgaria	Hungary	

**Interpreting Tables** After World War II, the world began squaring off again. Alliances formed between non-Communist nations and between Communist nations. **Foreign Relations** *Why did Western Europe feel that the United Nations was inadequate to protect against Soviet aggression?*

APPENDIX E

Percentage Agreement Tables

<b>Defining Canada</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
Thirteen Colonies	80.00	60.00
National Expansion	50.00	33.30
Military Conflict	67.80	53.50
Economic Activity	60.80	63.00
Canadian National Identity	73.60	78.90
Immigration	56.20	75.00
People	62.50	50.00
Political Sovereignty	68.00	64.00
World Affairs	80.00	55.00
Communications/Entertainment	39.10	47.80
Religion	100.00	100.00
Slavery	66.60	33.30
Chapter Objectives	100.00	100.00

<b>Canada: A Nation Unfolding</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
Cultural Protectionism	75.00	100.00
Military Conflict	91.30	86.90
Economic Activity	63.90	72.10
Canadian National Identity	62.00	68.90
Immigration	100.00	100.00
Canada/U.S. Relations	64.70	70.50
People	100.00	66.60
World Affairs	72.70	84.80
Environment	50.00	50.00
Chapter Reviews	87.50	75.00

<b>Making America</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
Colonies/National Expansion	100	80
Military Conflict	93.7	91.6
Economic Activity	91.6	91.6
World Affairs	50	100
Social Order	75	100

<b>America: Pathways to the Present</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>	<b>% Agreement w/ Researcher</b>
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #1</b>	<b>Inter-Rater #2</b>
First Settlements	100	100
Military Conflict	100	100
Economic Activity	88.8	77.7
Immigration	87.5	87.5
World Affairs	100	100

APPENDIX F

Percentage Depiction Tables

<b>Defining Canada</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
Thirteen Colonies	10	0.00	50.00	50.00
National Expansion	6	0.00	0.00	100.00
Military Conflict	57	12.28	28.07	59.65
Economic Activity	47	17.02	48.94	34.04
Canadian National Identity	19	21.05	26.32	52.63
Immigration	16	18.75	43.75	37.50
People	16	12.50	31.25	56.25
Political Sovereignty	25	20.00	36.00	44.00
World Affairs	20	25.00	40.00	35.00
Communications/Entertainment	23	13.04	17.39	69.57
Religion	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Slavery	3	0.00	33.33	66.66
Chapter Reviews	17	0.00	94.12	5.88

<b>Canada: A Nation Unfolding</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
Cultural Protectionism	4	0.00	75.00	25.00
Military Conflict	23	13.04	82.61	4.35
Economic Activity	61	37.70	32.79	29.51
Canadian National Identity	29	31.03	48.28	20.69
Immigration	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Canada/U.S. Relations	17	17.65	41.18	41.18
People	3	33.33	66.66	0.00
World Affairs	33	27.27	39.39	33.33

Environment	2	0.00	50.00	50.00
Chapter Reviews	8	0.00	75.00	25.00

<b>Making America</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
Colonies/National Expansion	5	0.00	80.00	20.00
Military Conflict	48	4.17	87.50	6.25
Economic Activity	12	8.33	91.67	0.00
World Affairs	2	50.00	50.00	0.00
Social Order	2	50.00	50.00	0.00

<b>America: Pathways to the Present</b>				
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Total # of Entries</b>	<b>% Positive</b>	<b>% Neutral</b>	<b>% Negative</b>
First Settlements	2	0.00	100.00	0.00
Military Conflict	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Economic Activity	9	33.33	55.56	11.11
Immigration	8	0.00	100.00	0.00
World Affairs	2	50.00	50.00	0.00

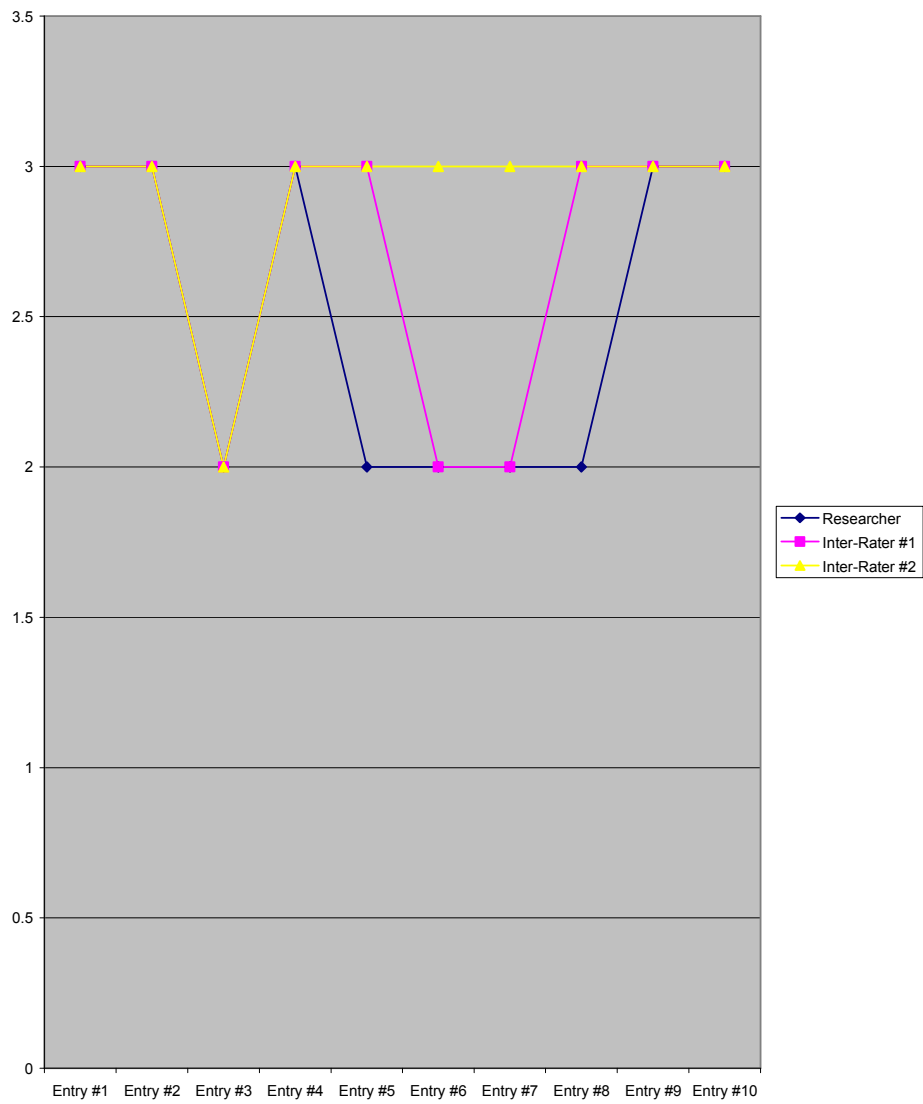


## APPENDIX G

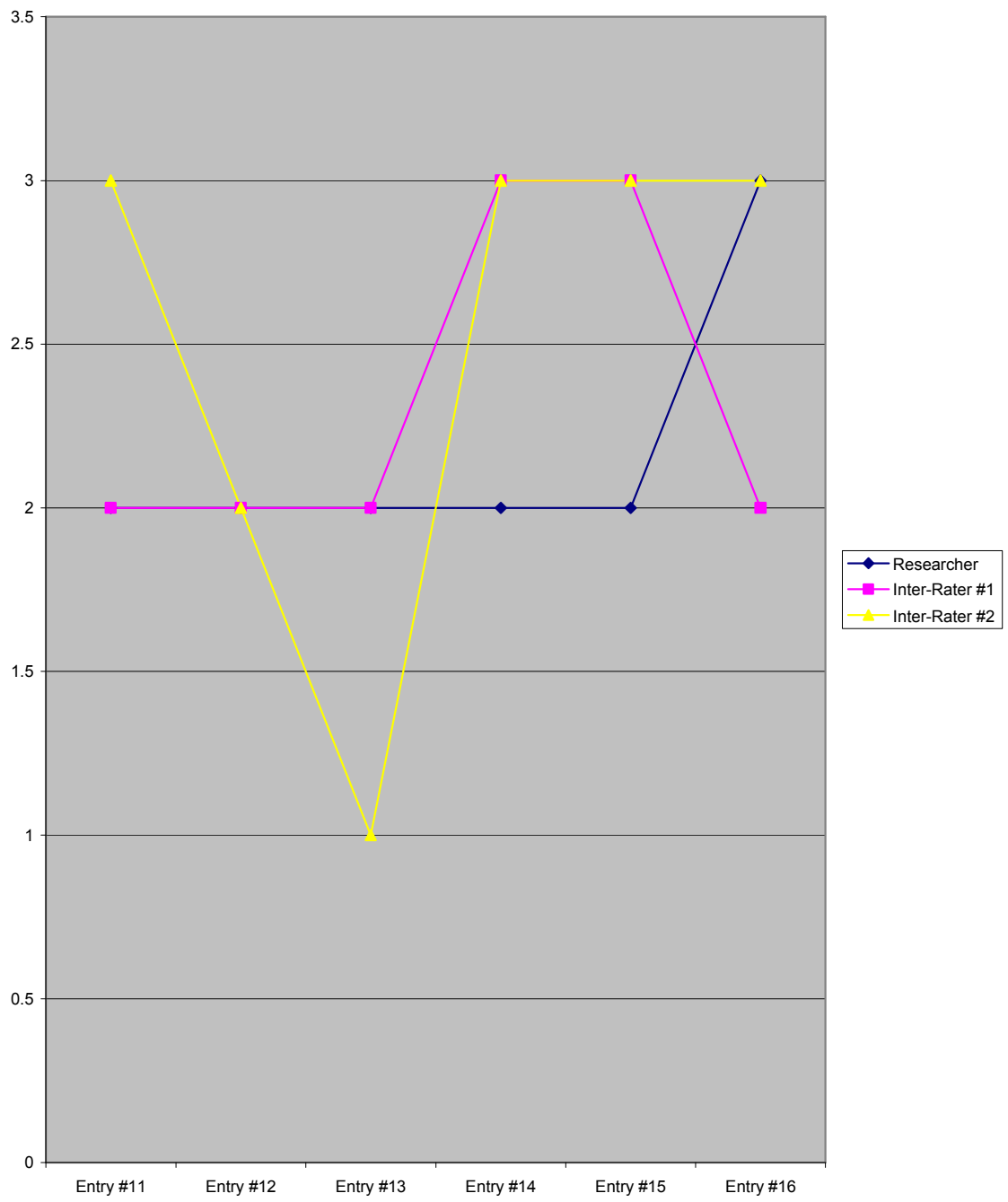
### Defining Canada Evaluation Graphs by Theme

#### *Defining Canada: History, Identity, and Culture*

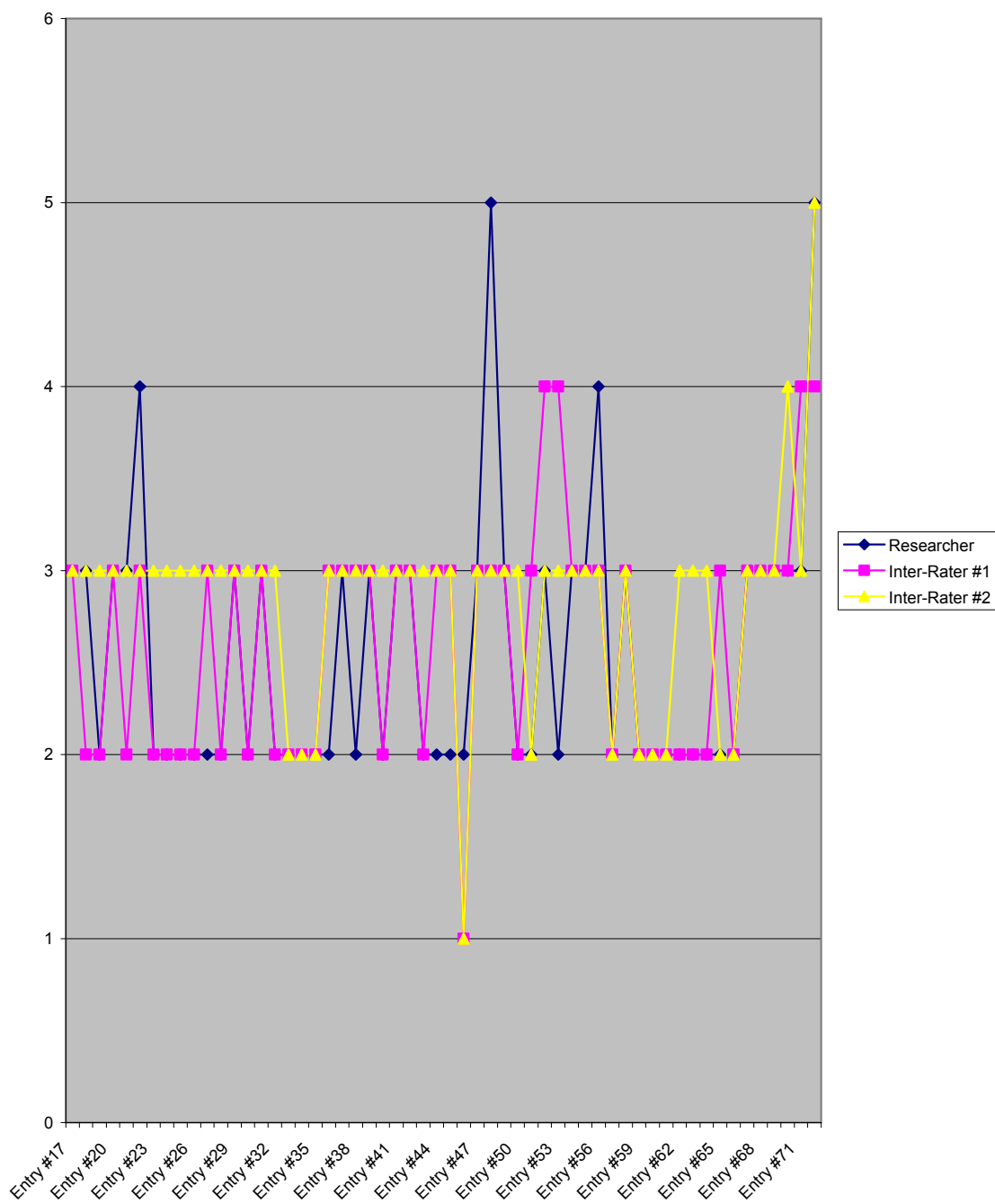
Thirteen Colonies



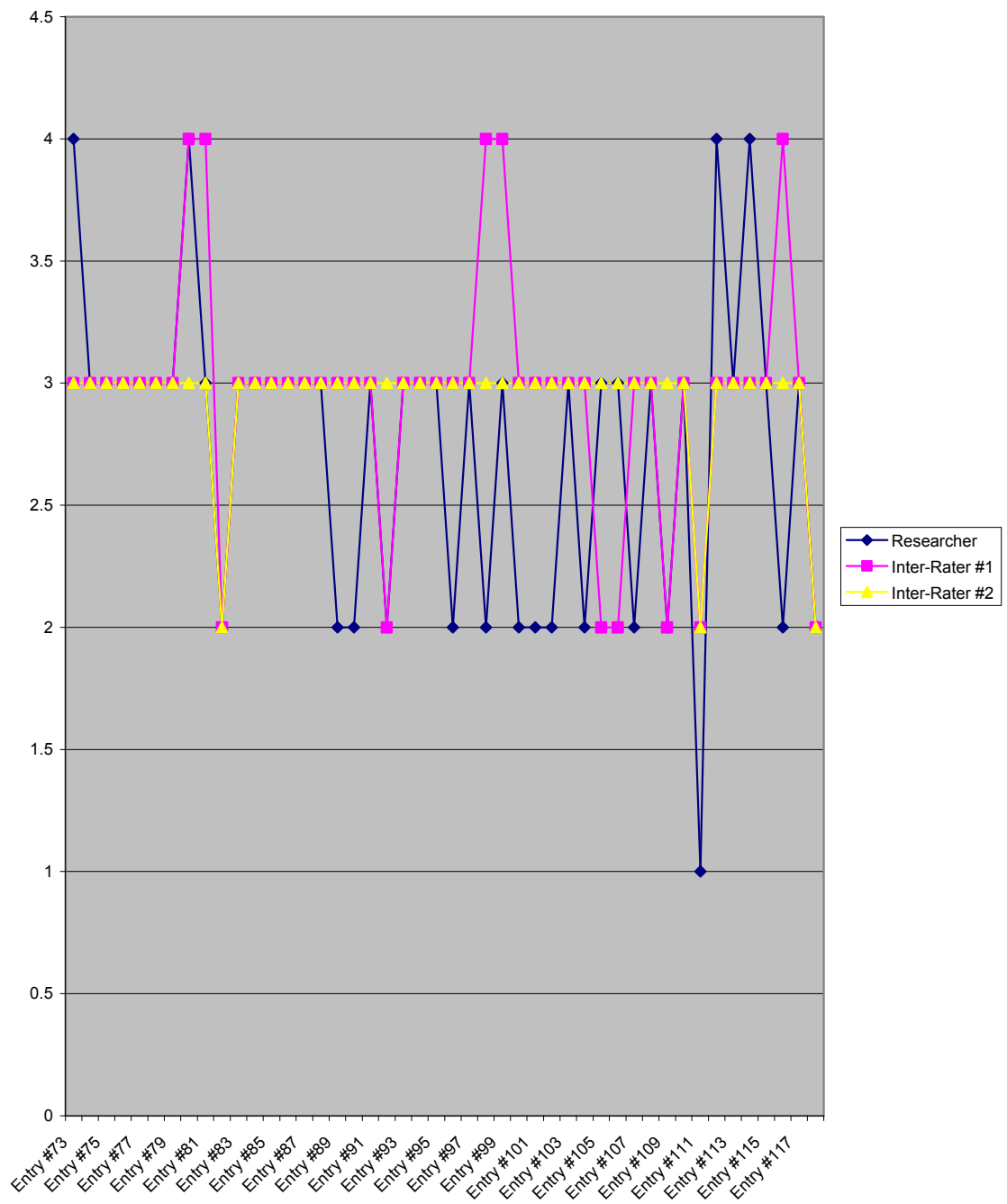
### National Expansion



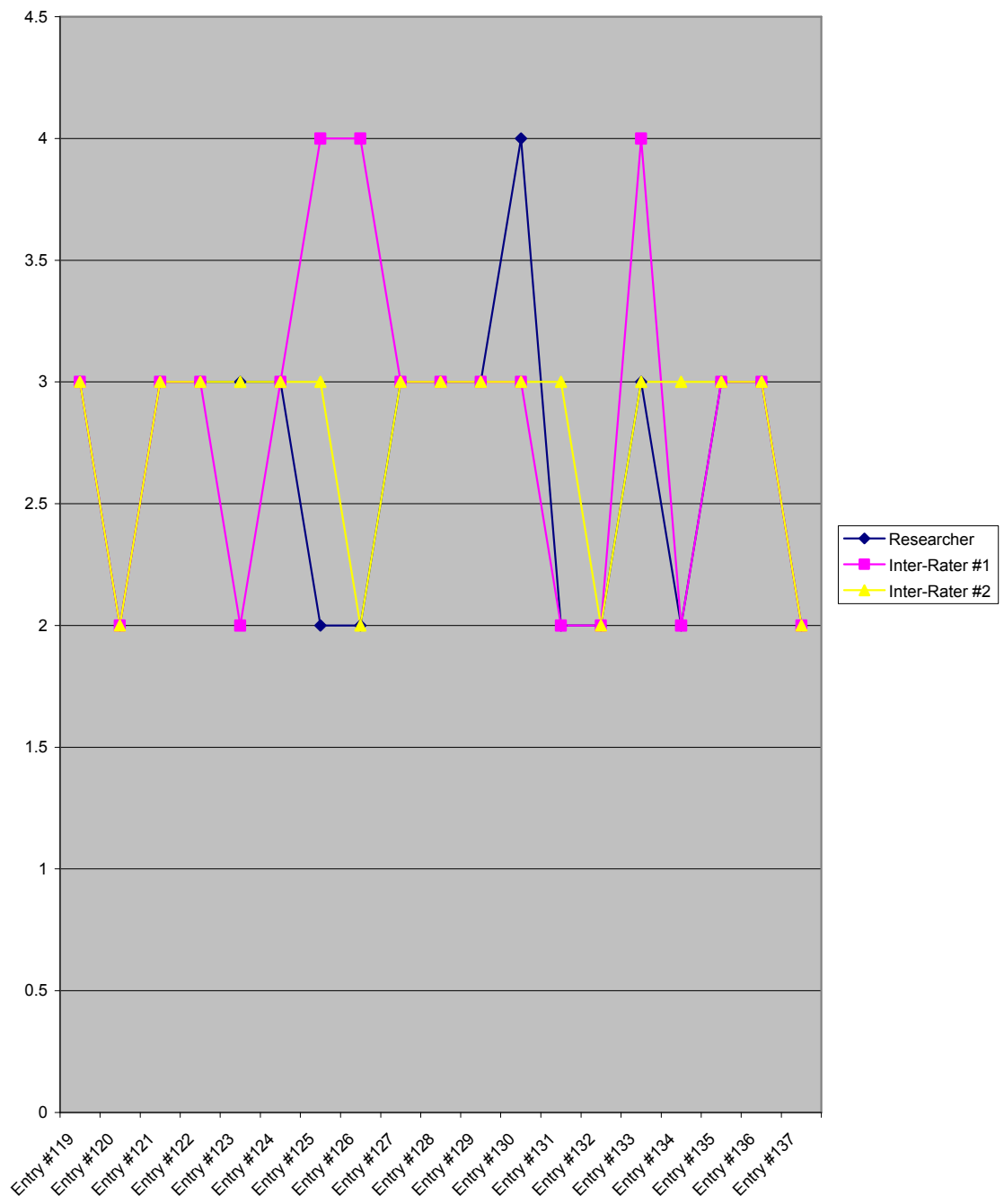
### Military Conflict



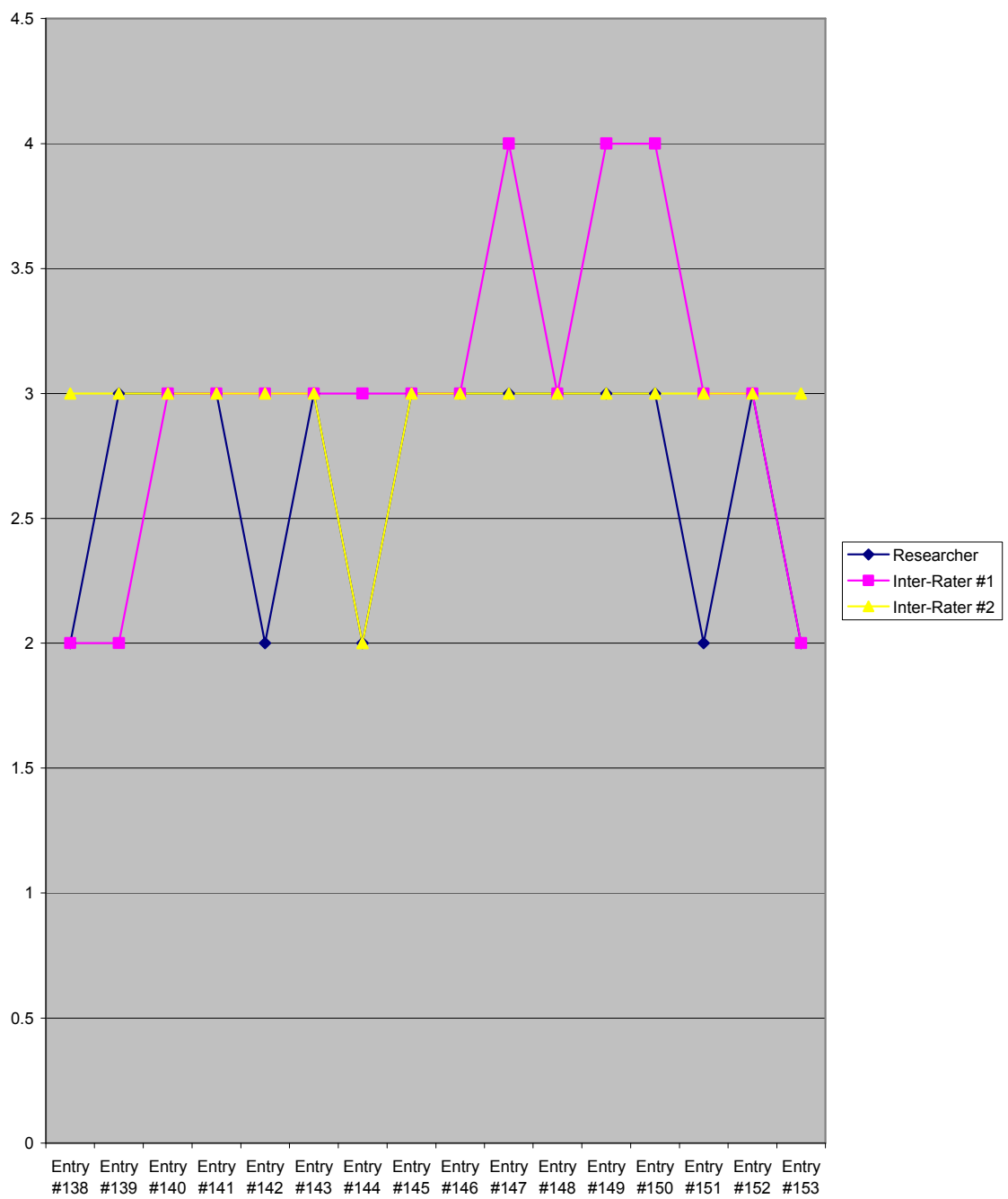
### Economic Activity



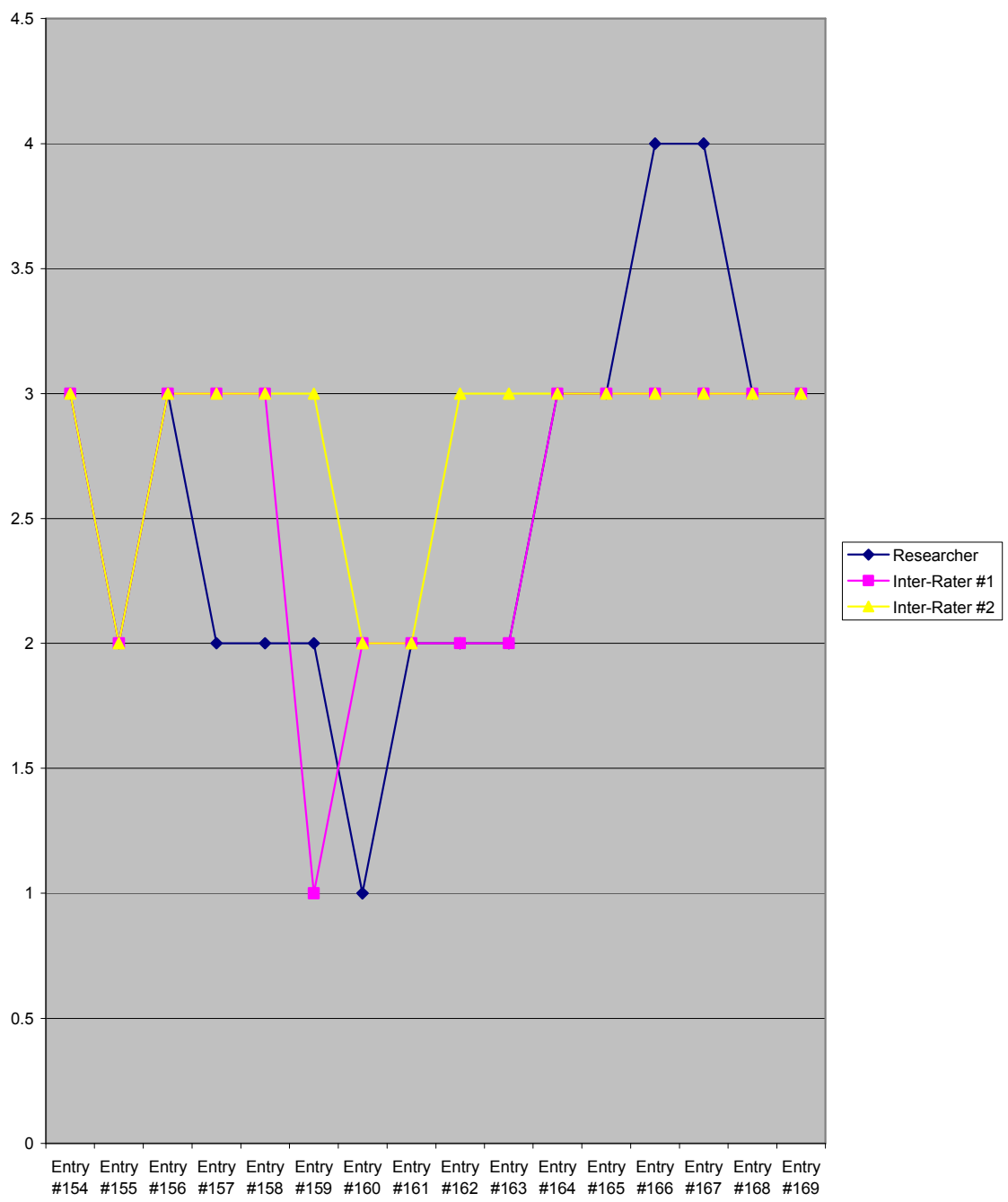
### Canadian National Identity



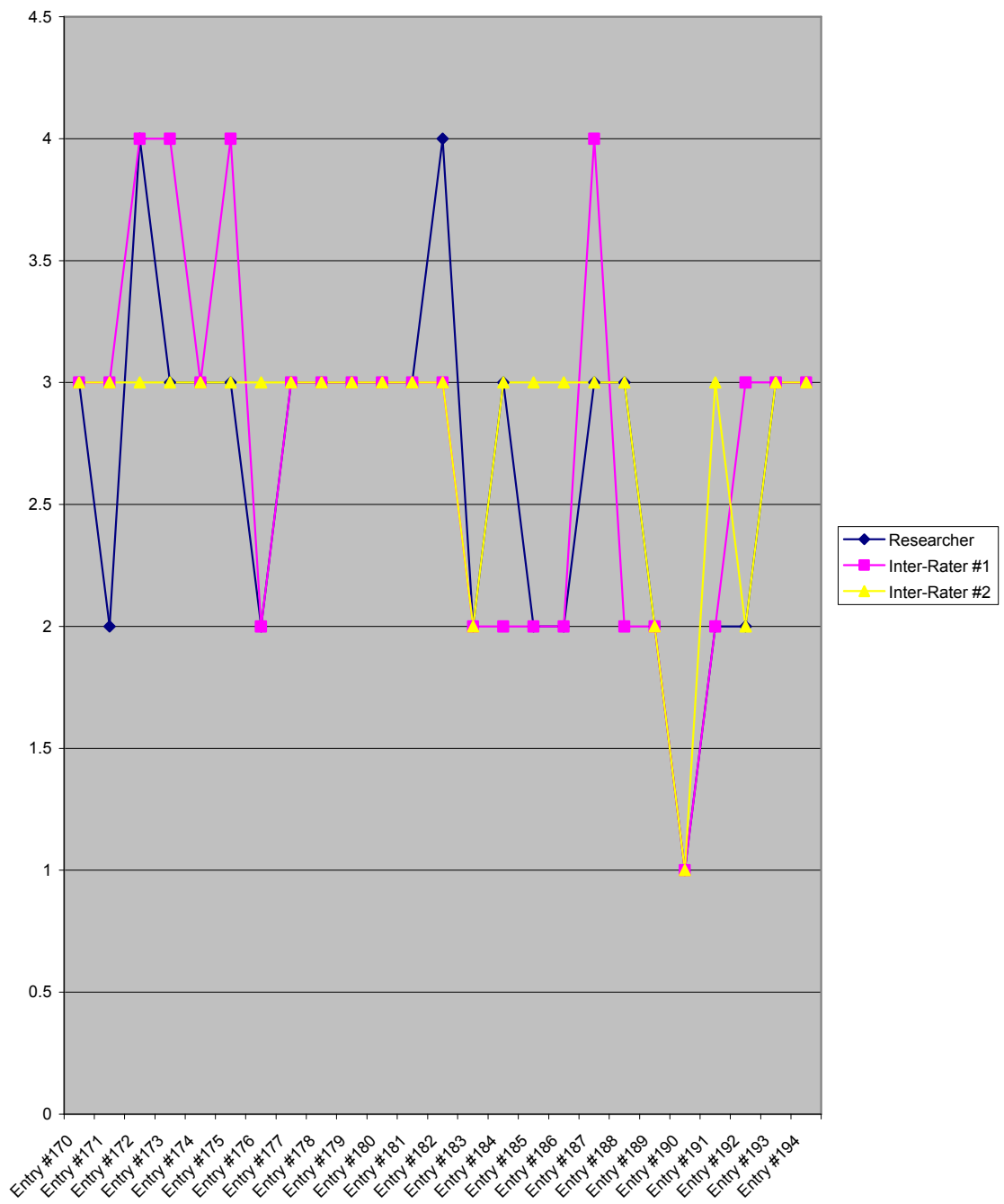
### Immigration



### People

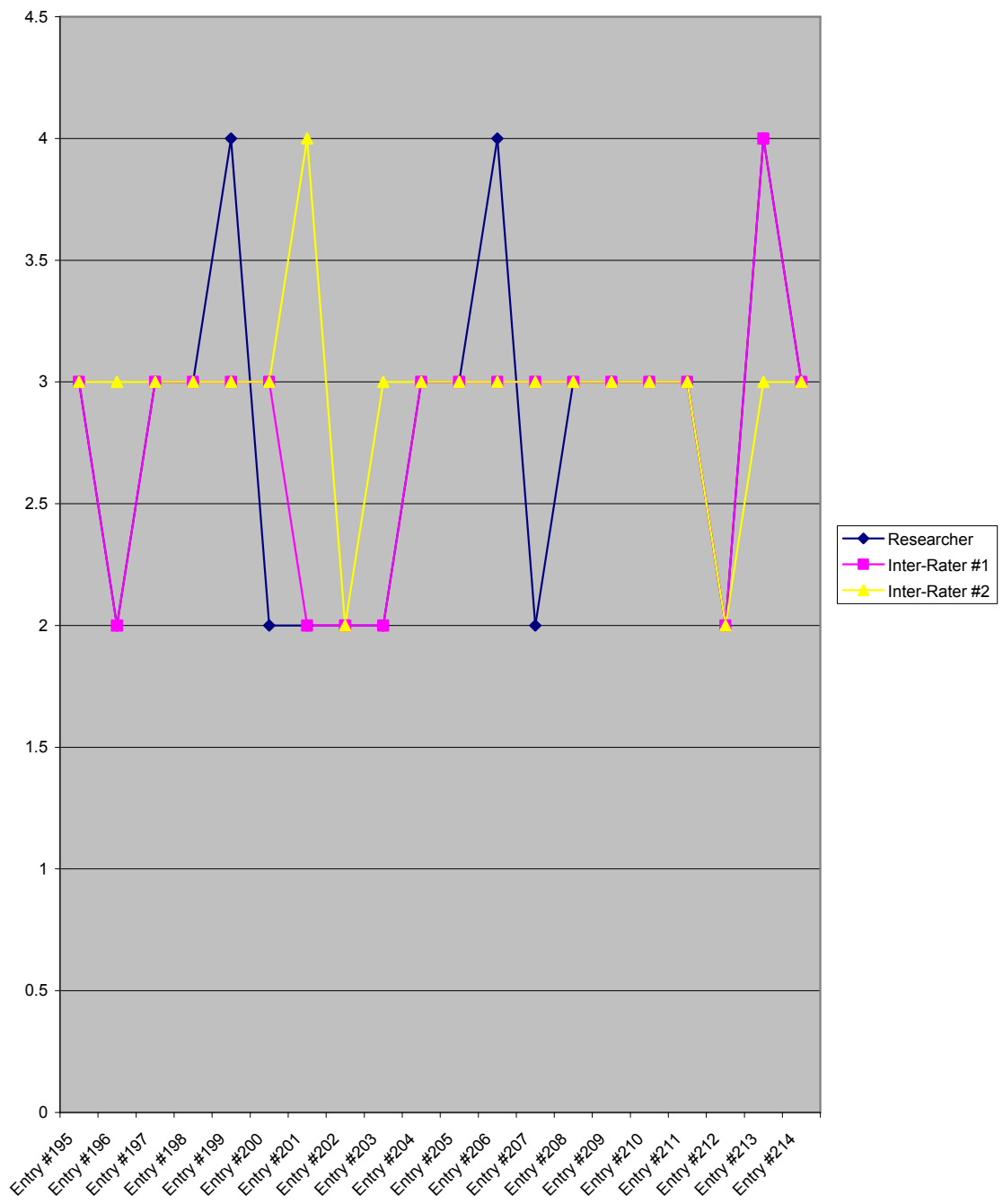


### Political Sovereignty

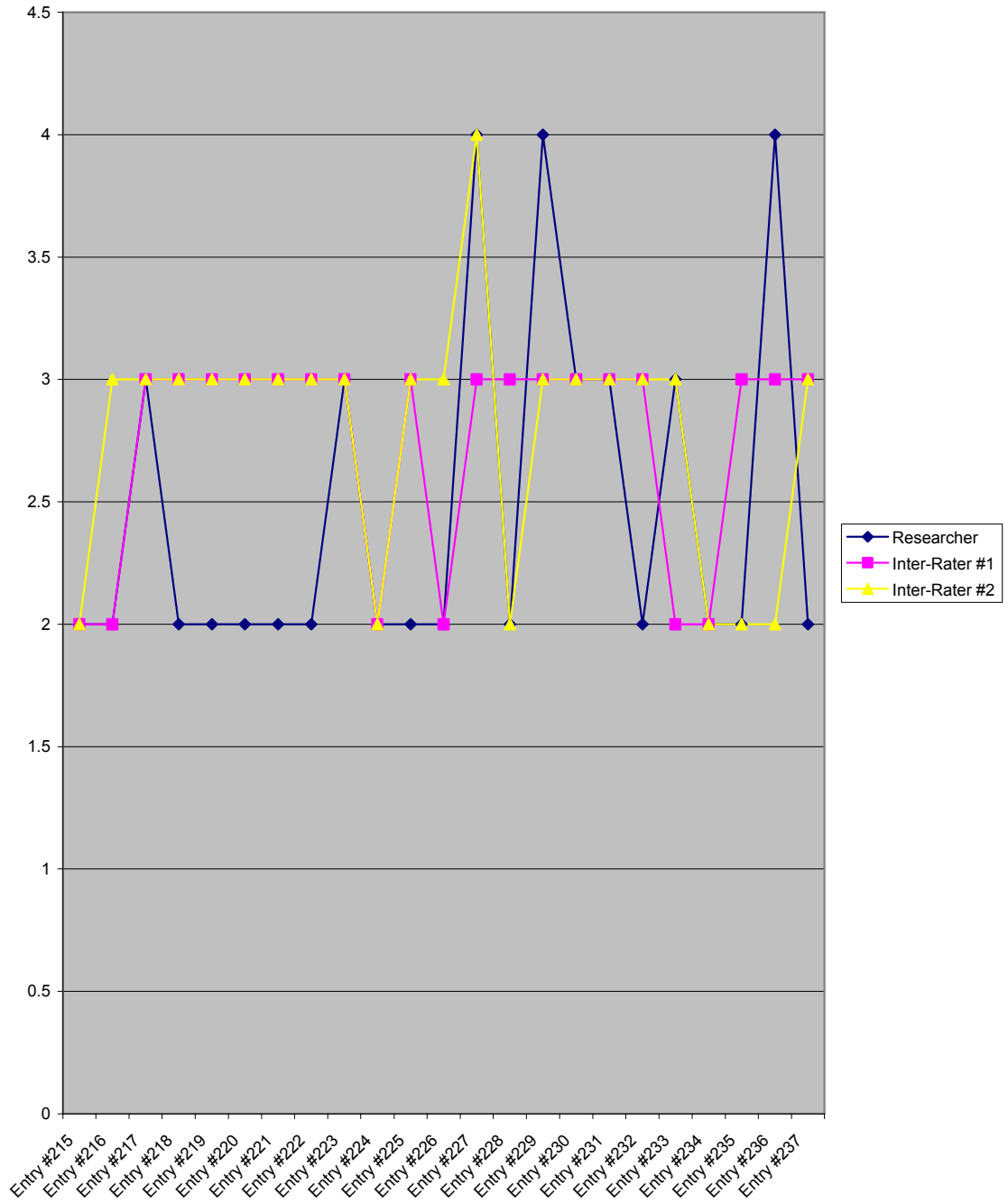




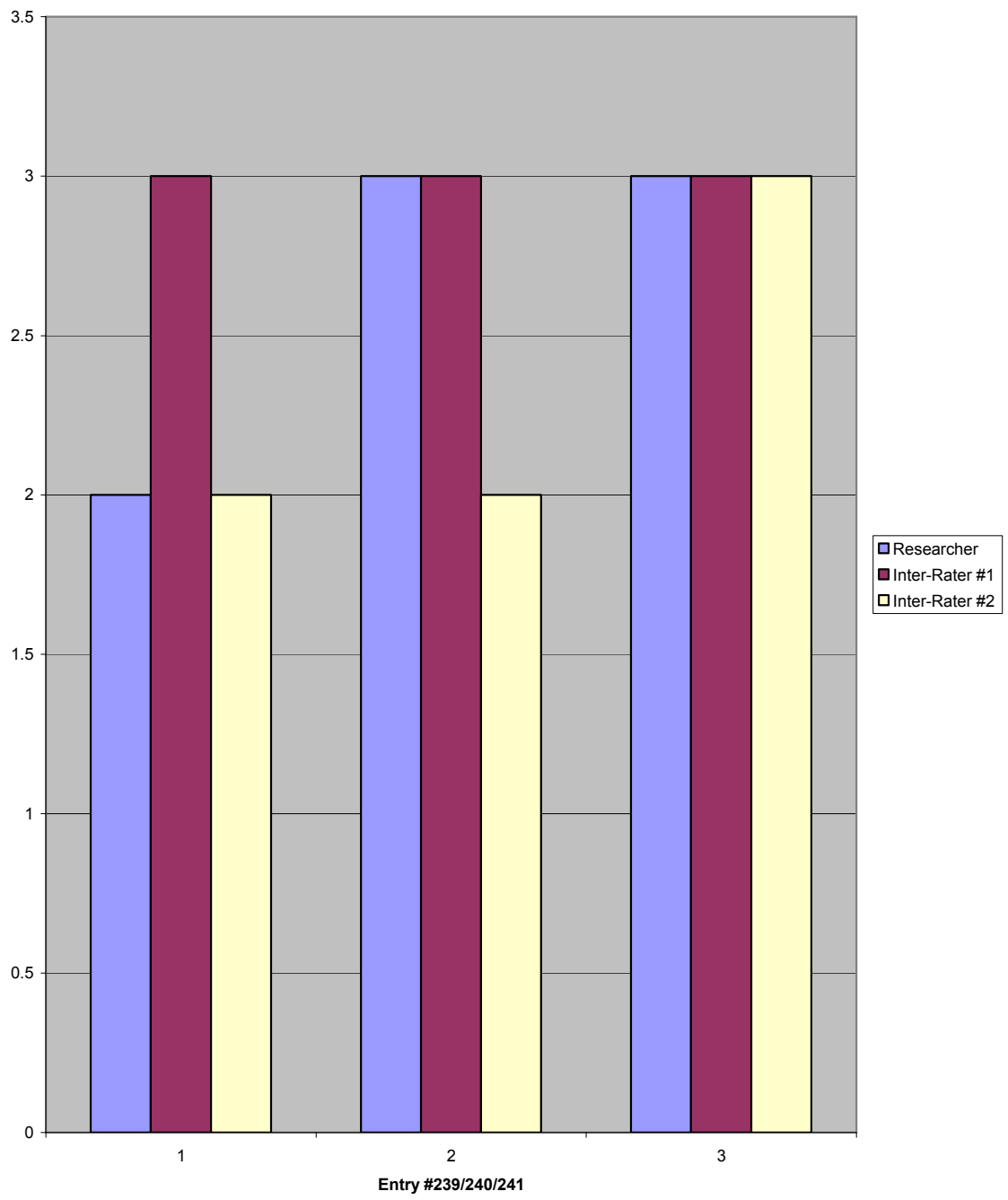
World Affairs



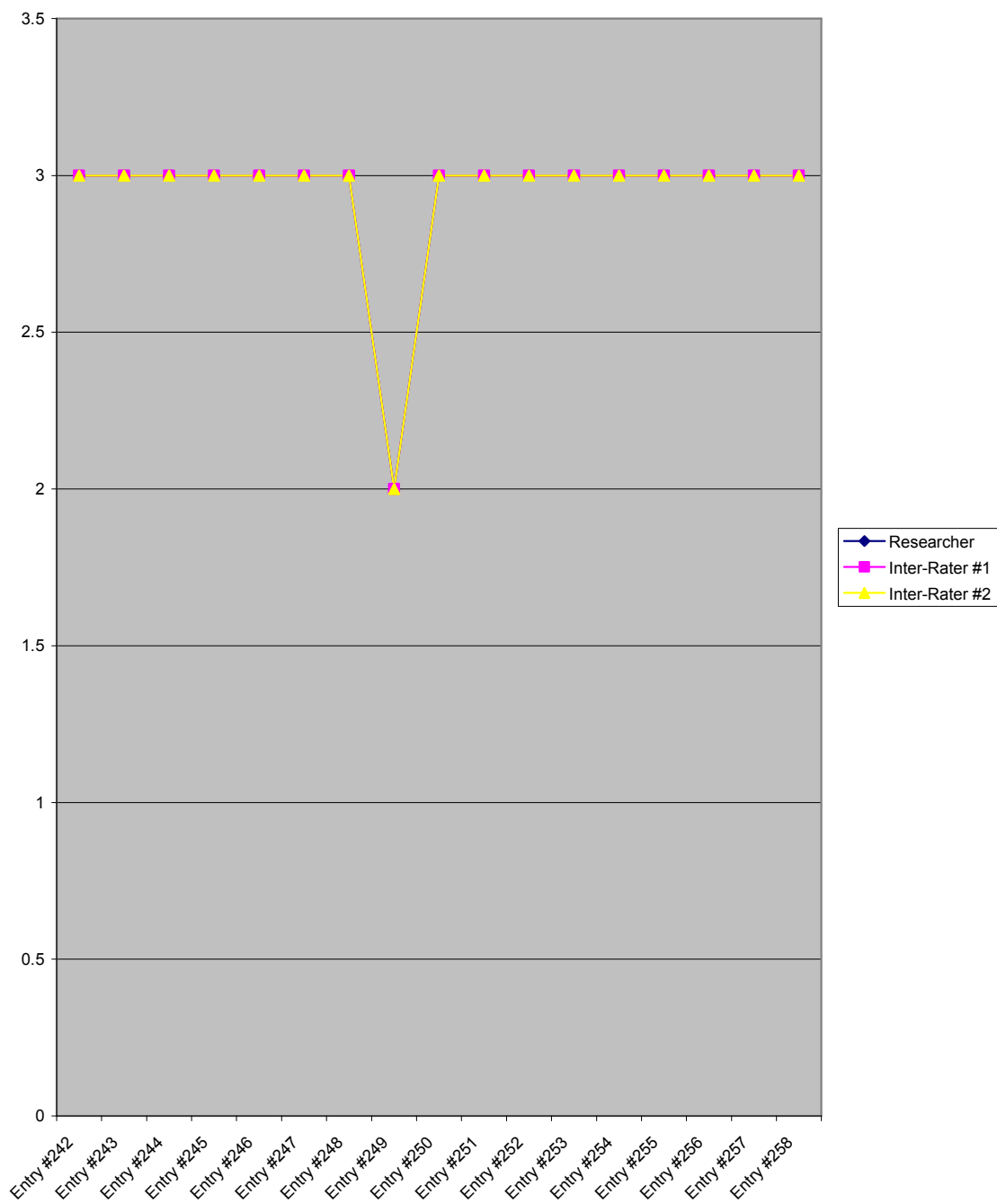
Communications/Entertainment



### Slavery



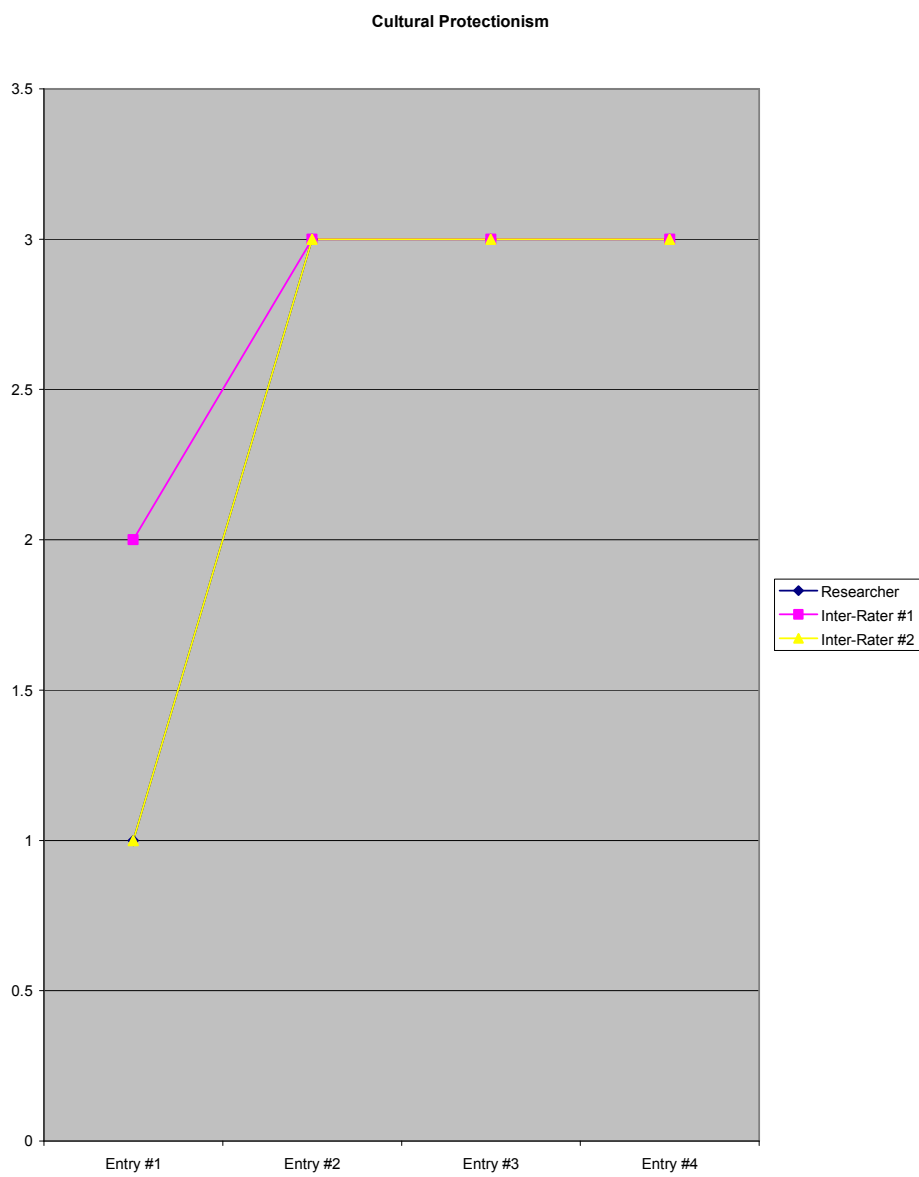
### Chapter Objectives



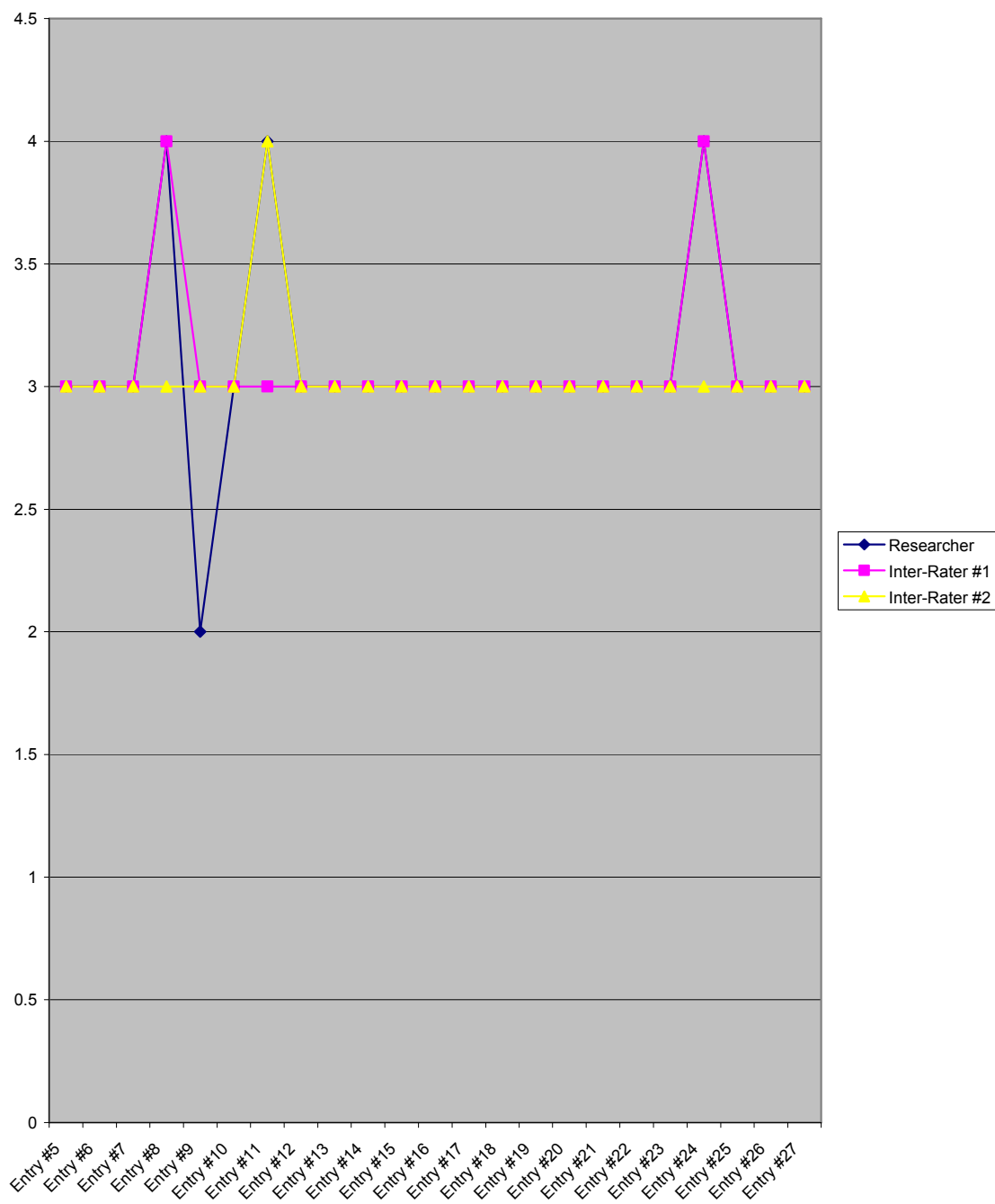
## APPENDIX H

### Evaluation Graphs by Theme

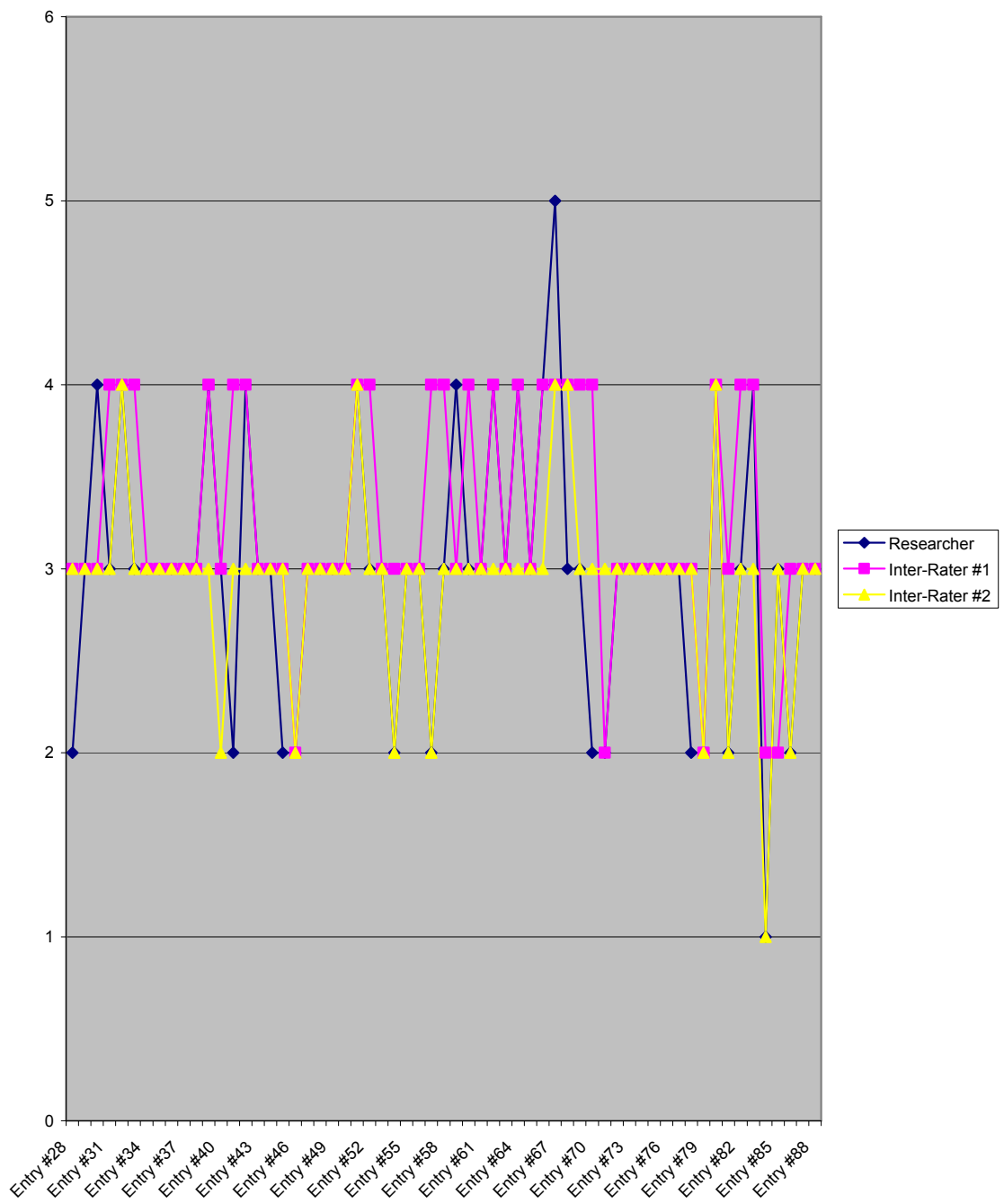
#### *Canada: A Nation Unfolding*



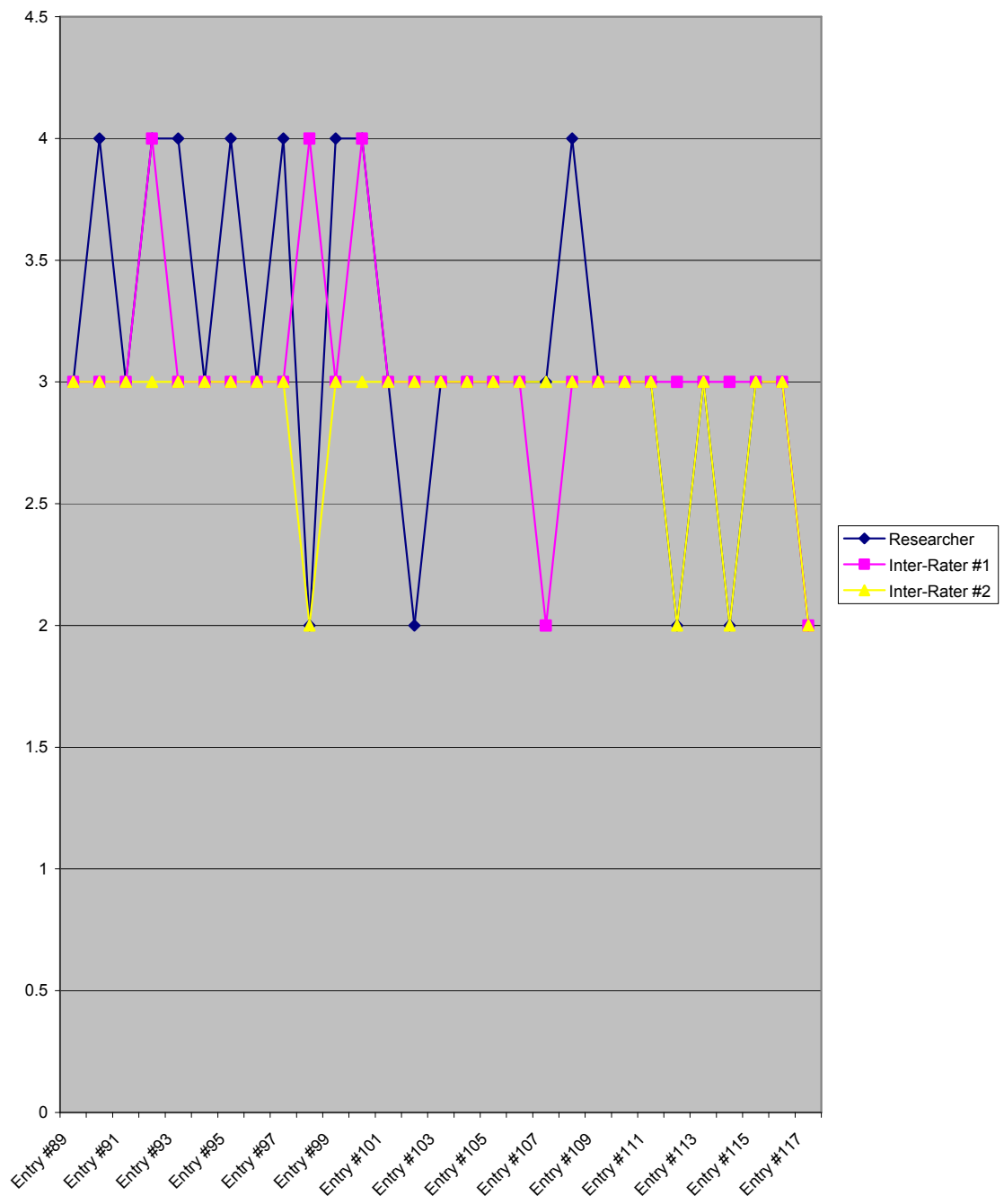
### Military Conflict



### Economic Activity

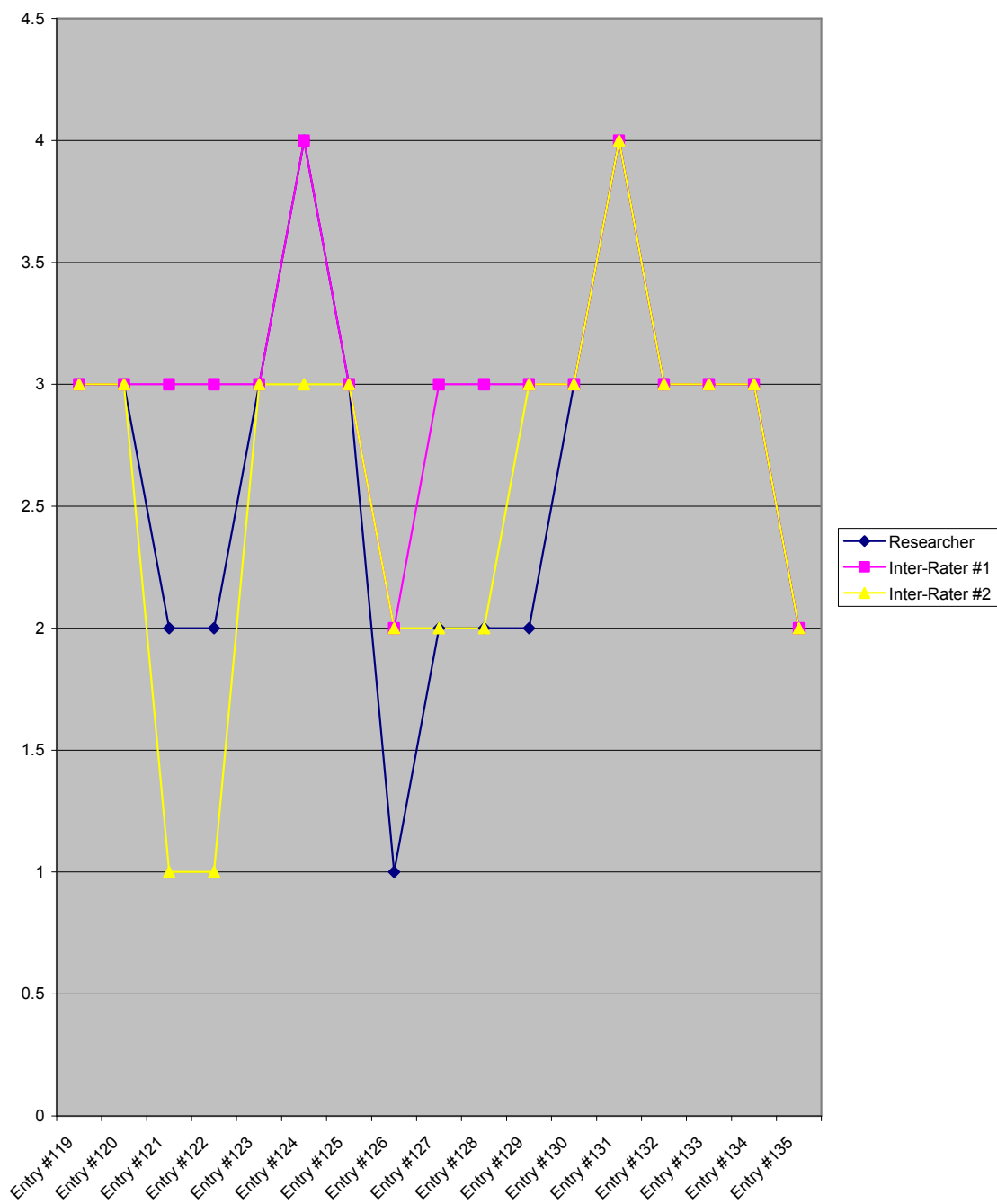


### Canadian National Identity

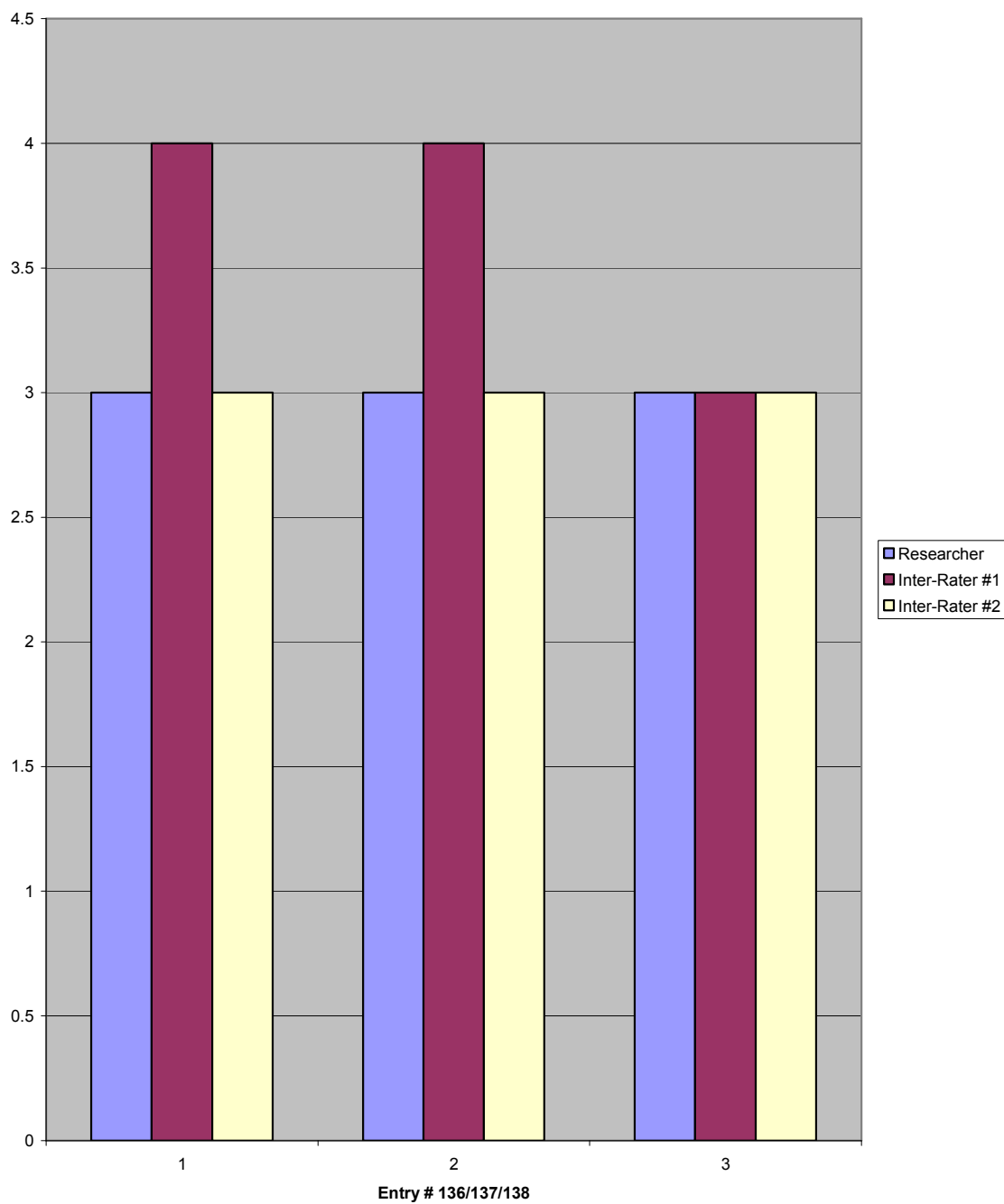




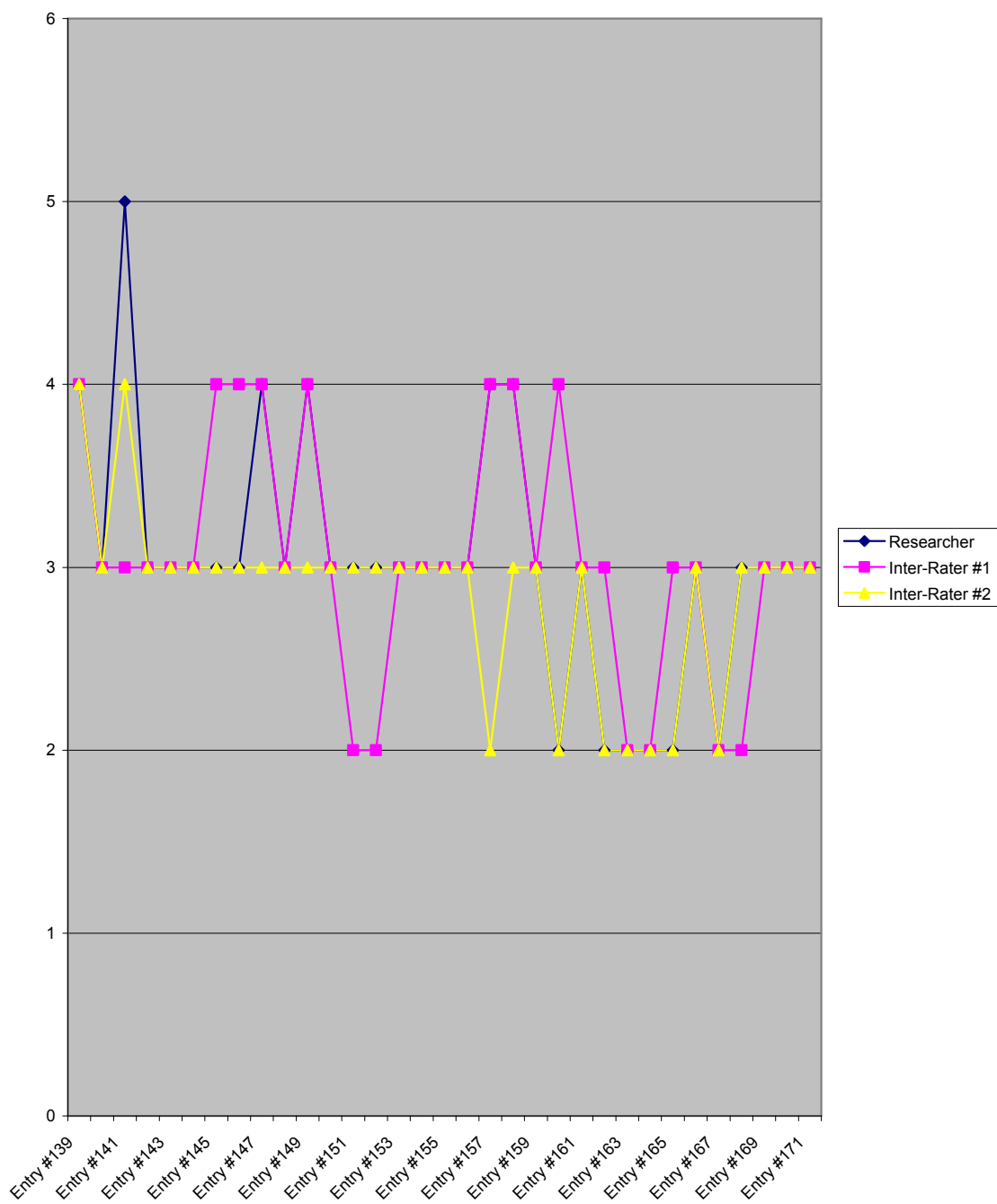
### Canada/U.S. Relations



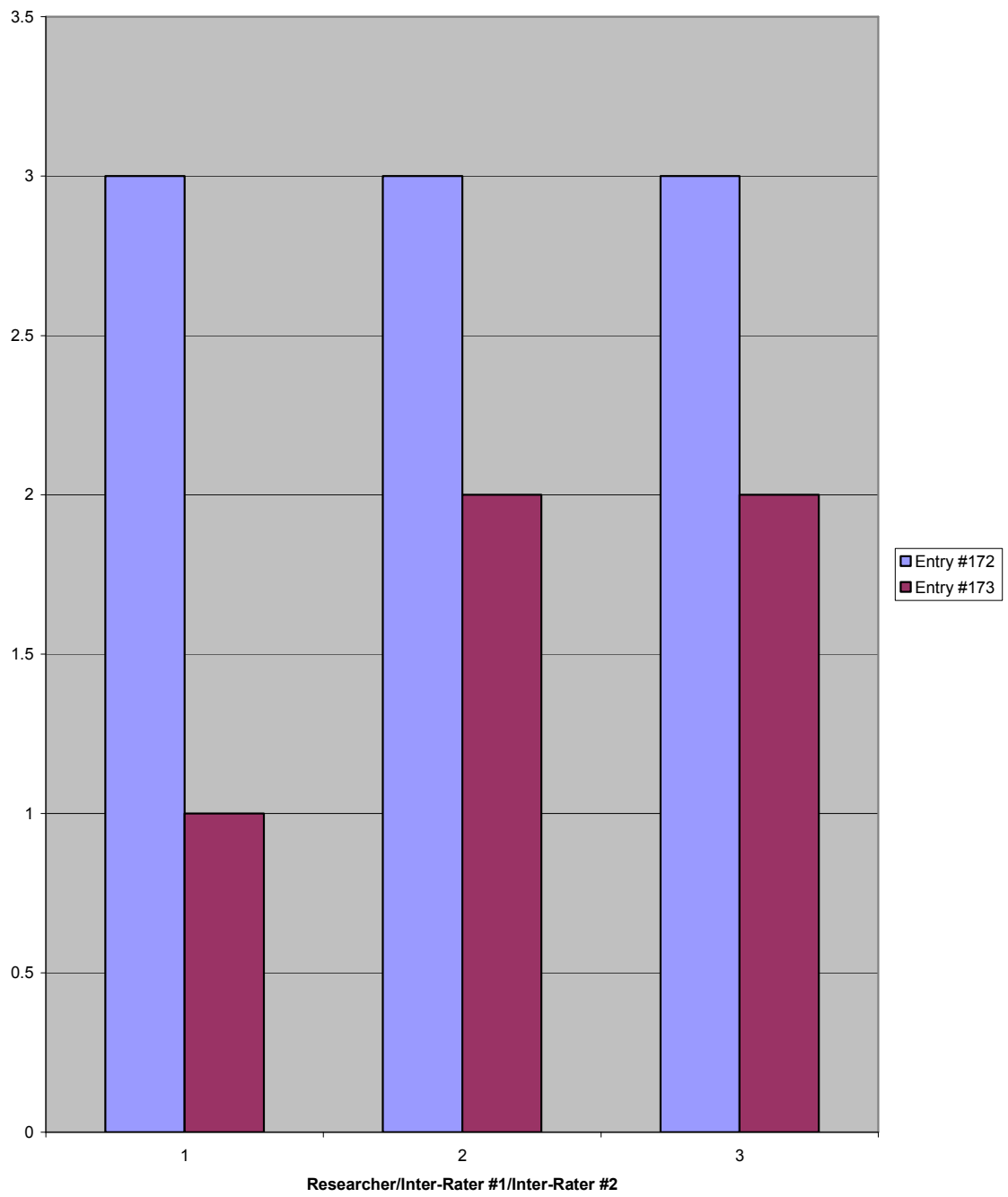
### People



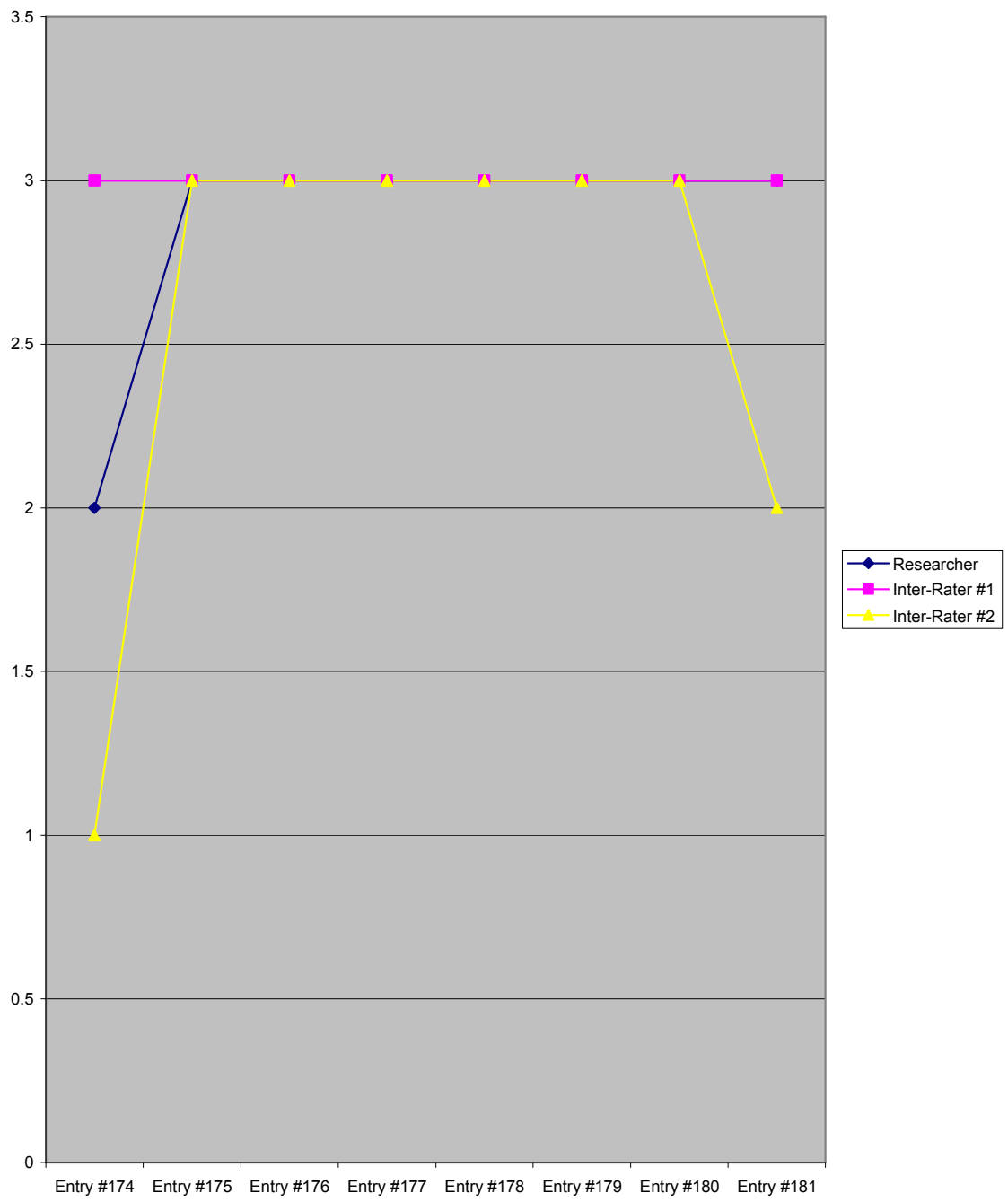
World Affairs



### Environment



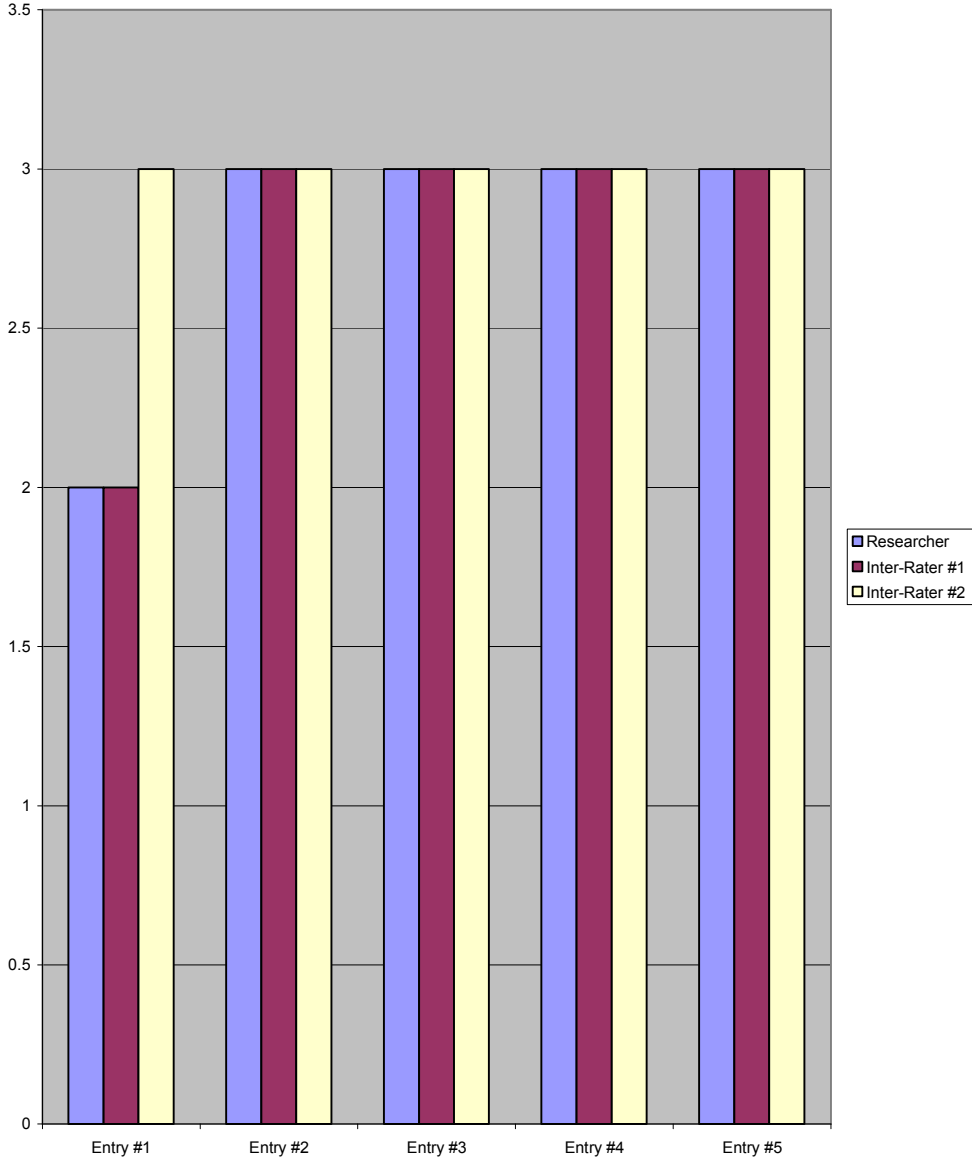
### Chapter Reviews



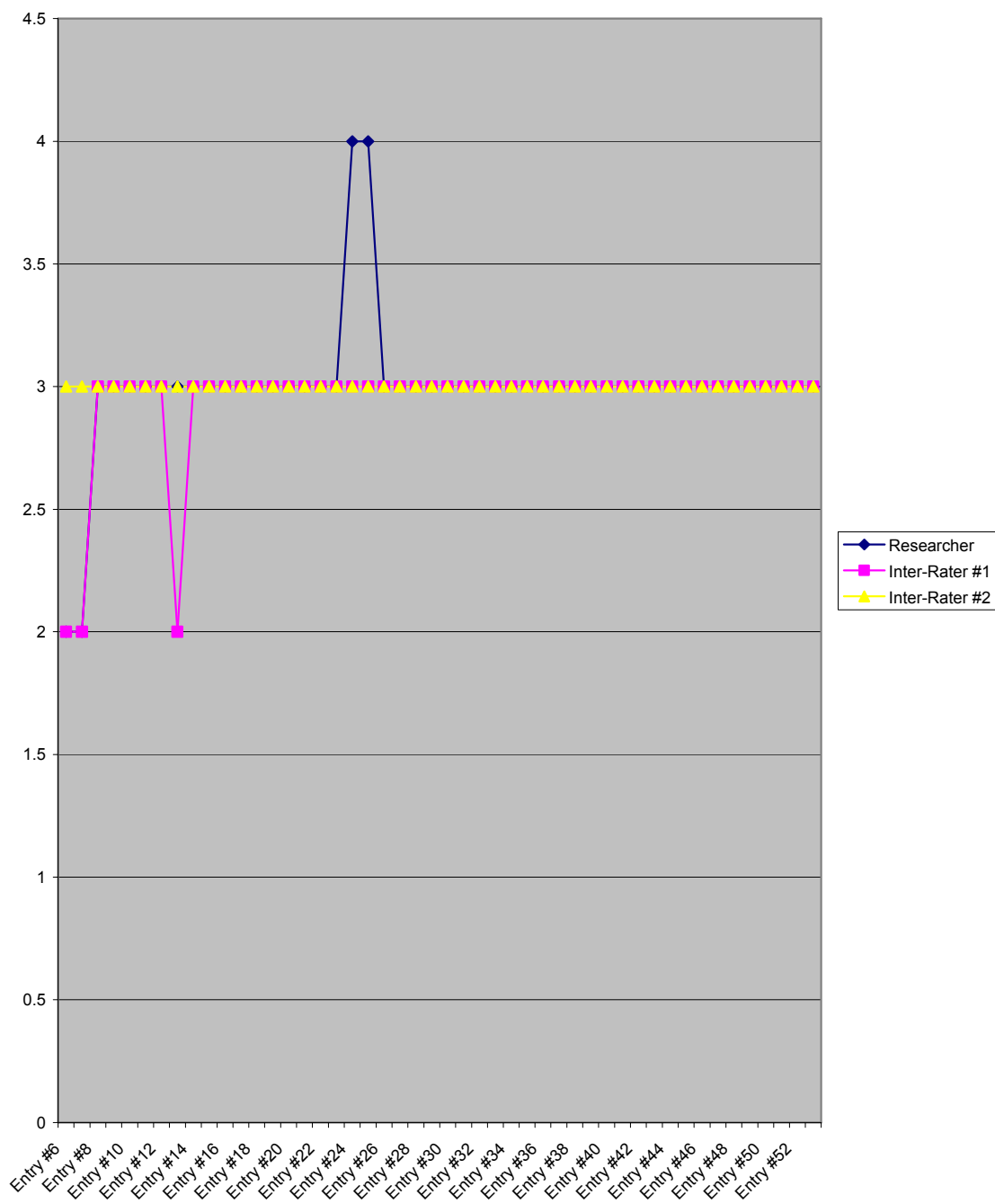
APPENDIX I

*Making America*

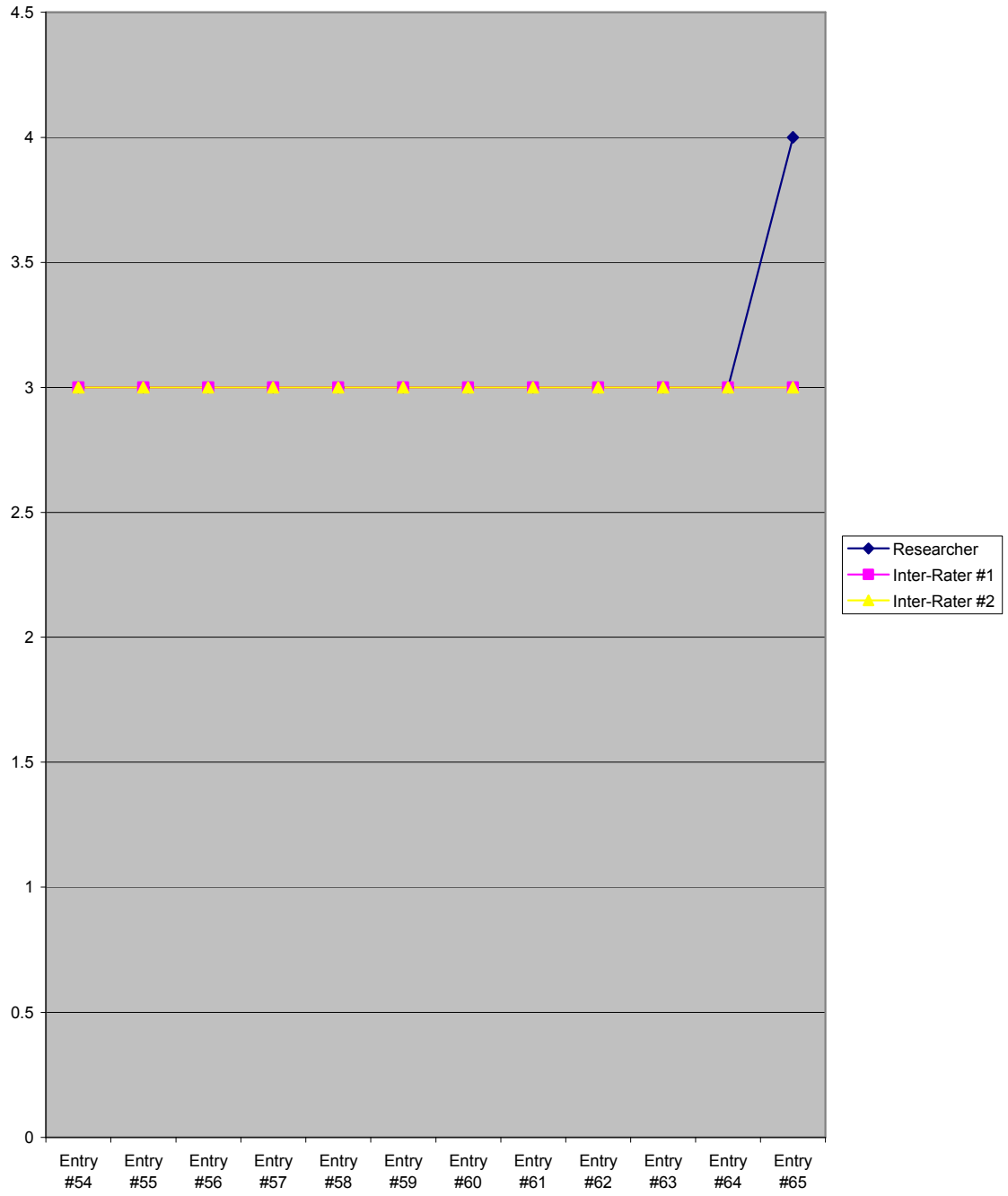
Thirteen Colonies/National Expansion



### Military Conflict

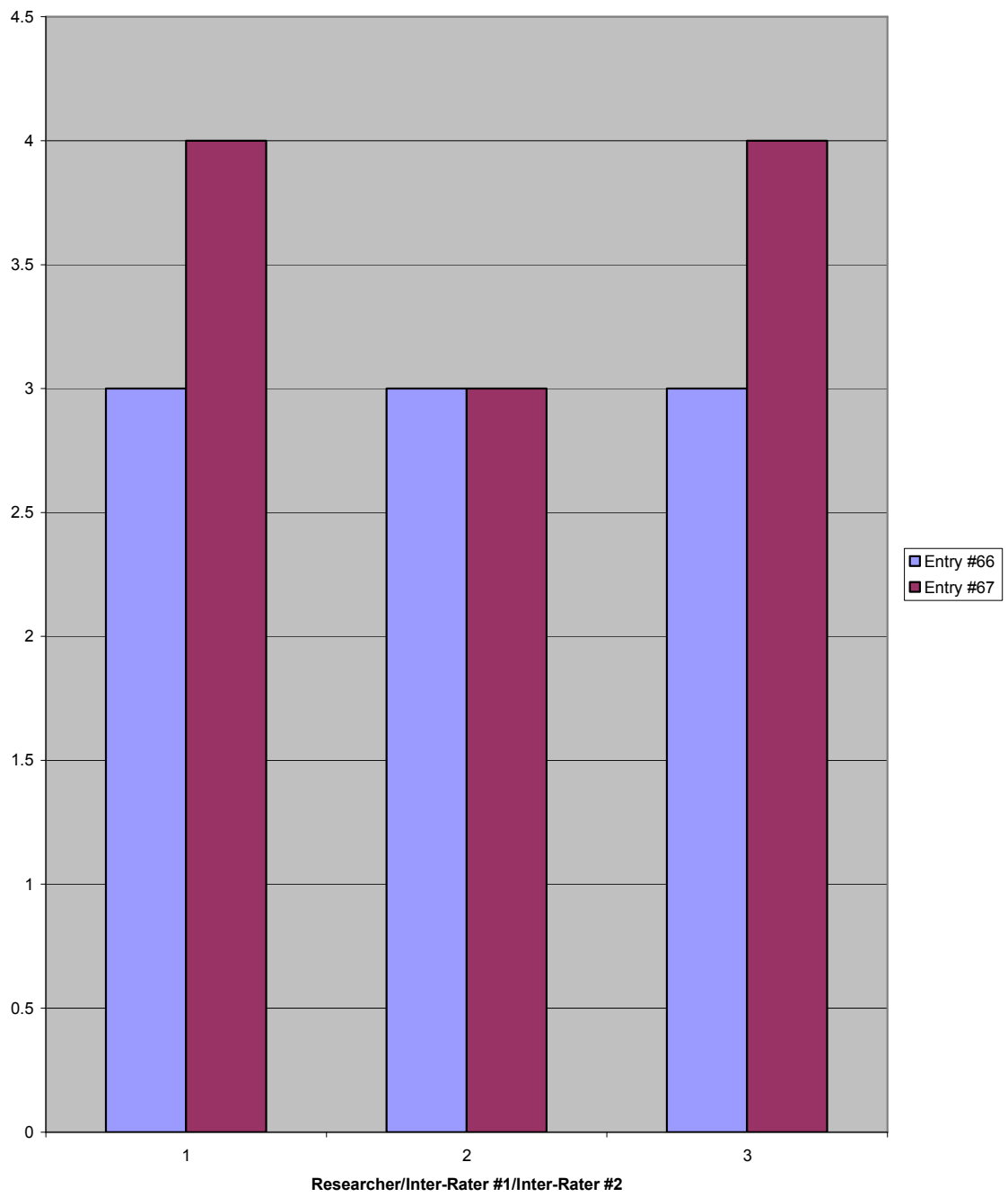


### Economic Activity

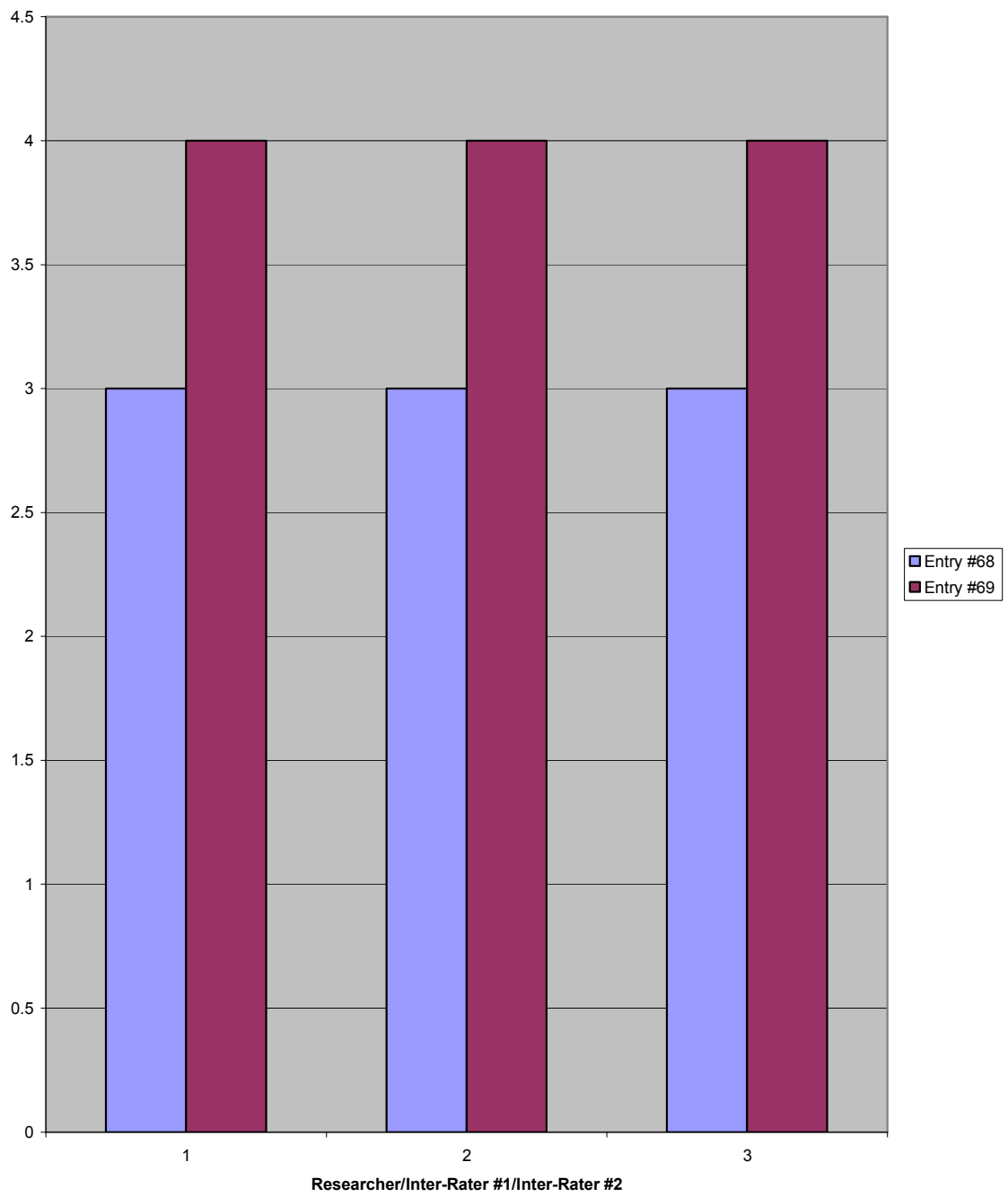




World Affairs

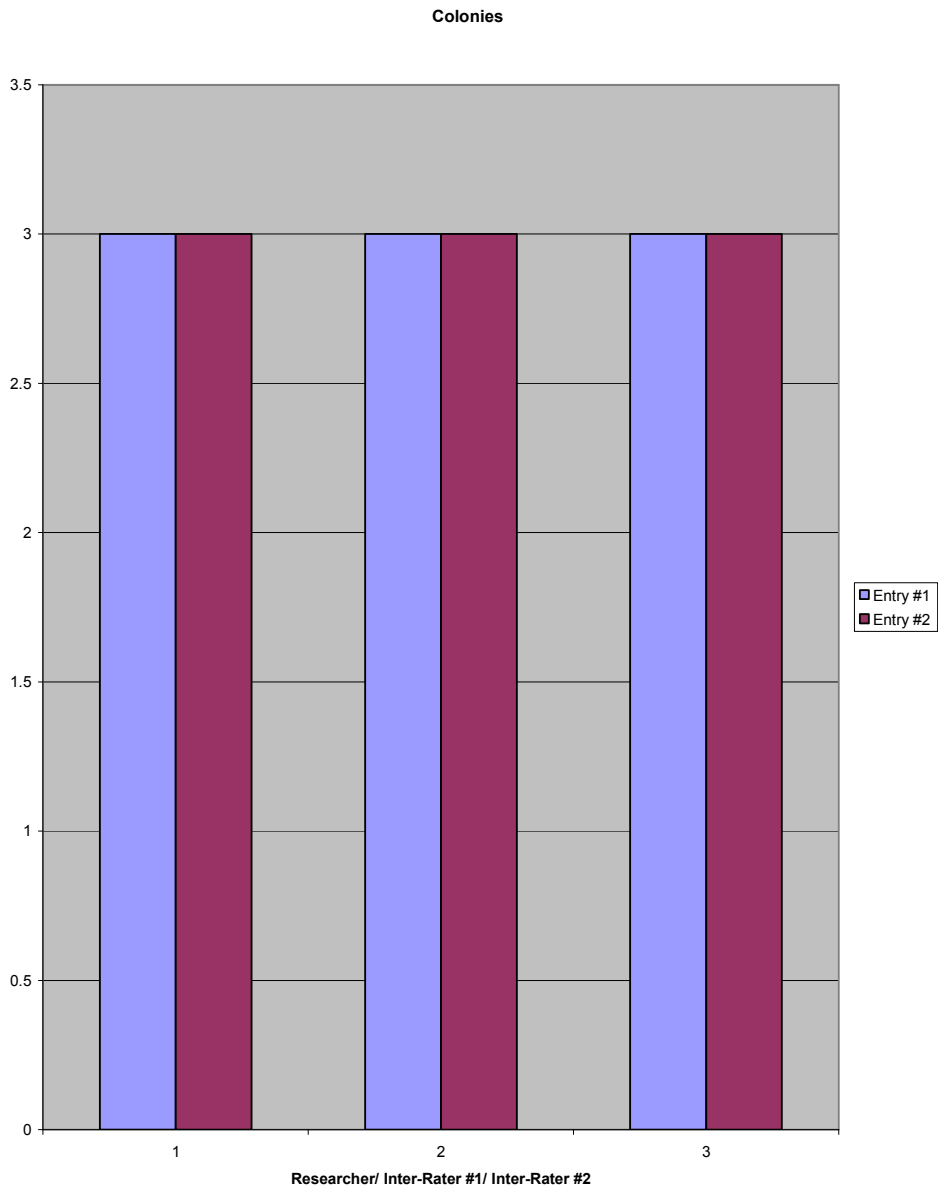


### Social Order

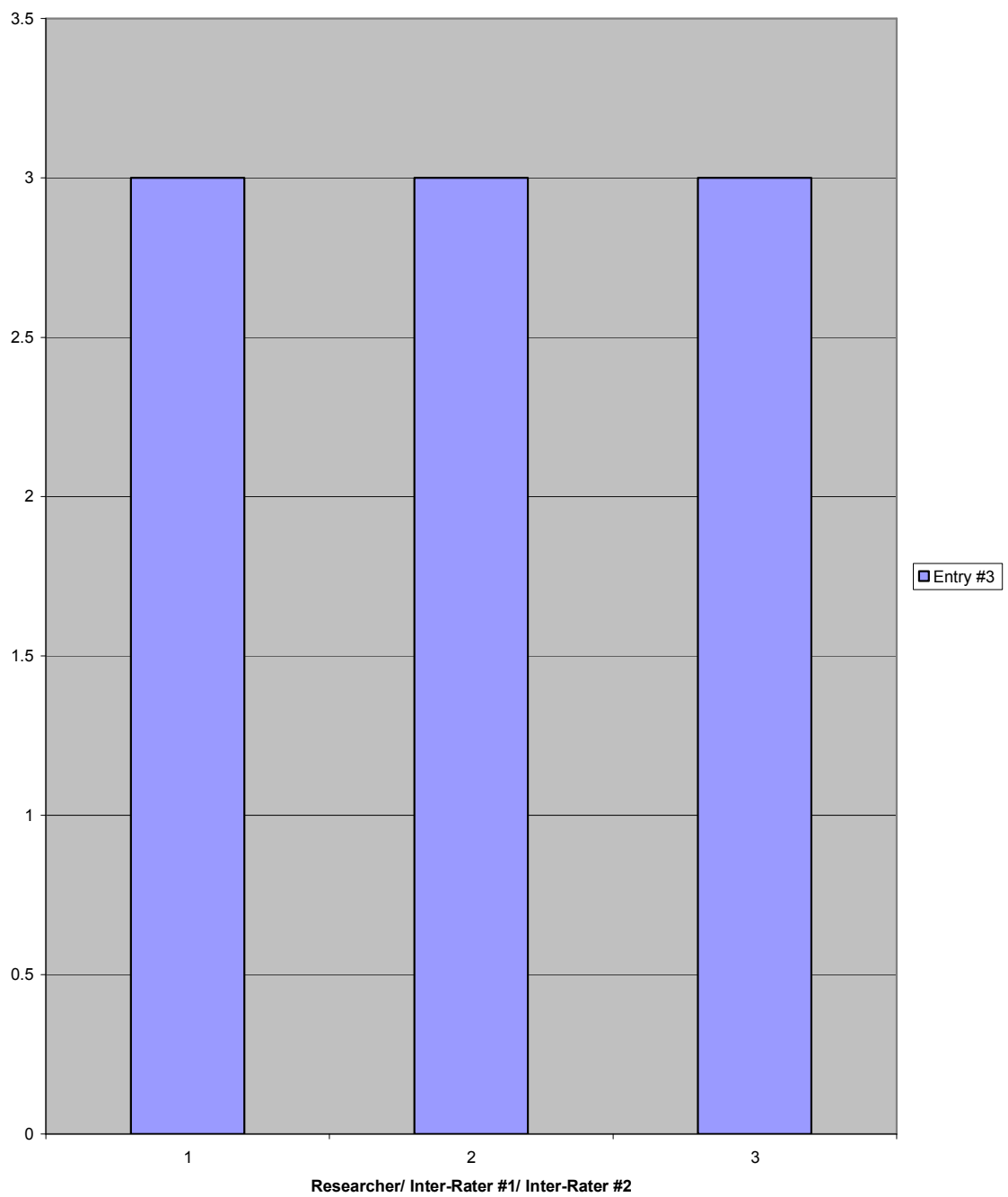


## APPENDIX J

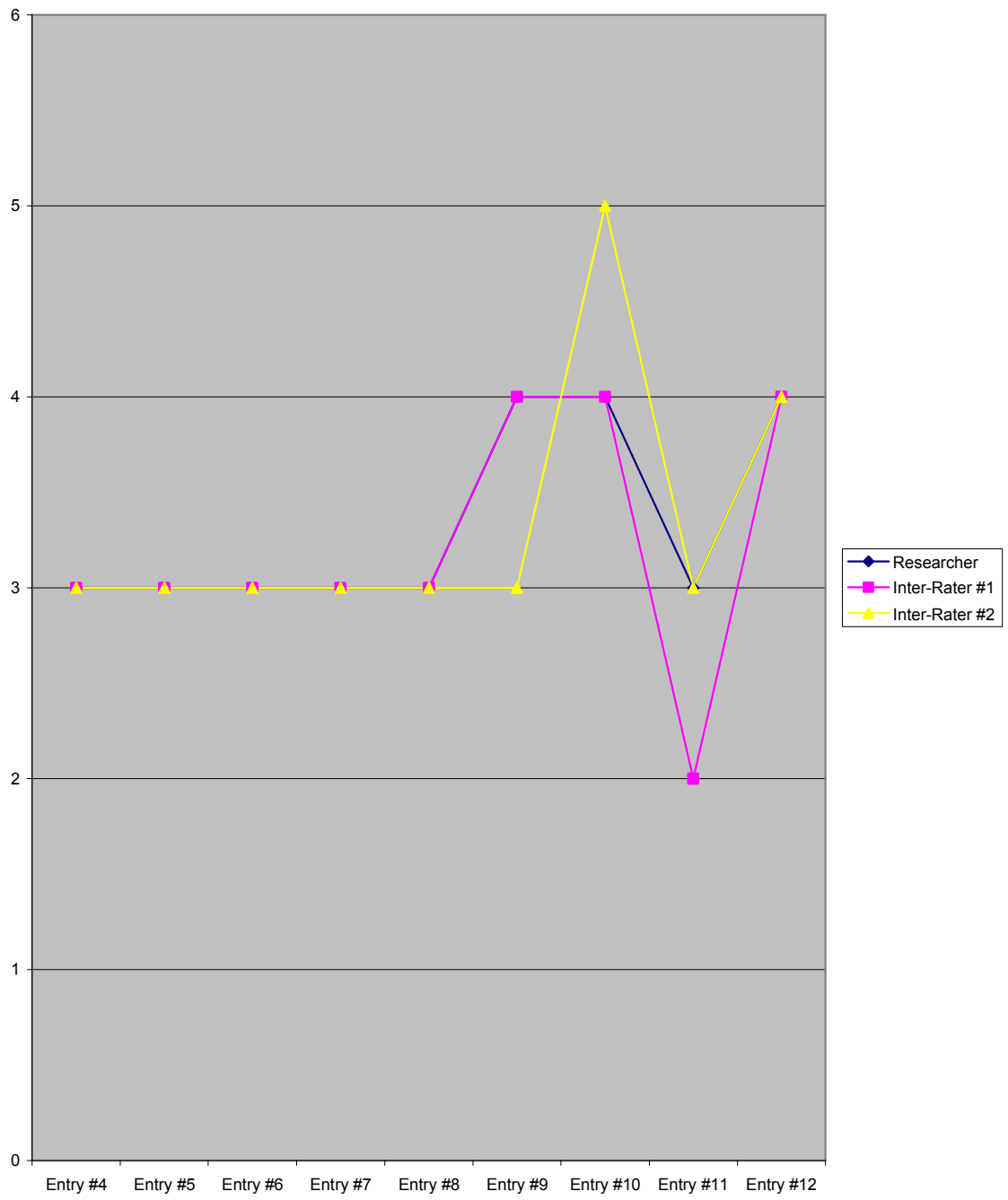
### *Pathways to the Present*



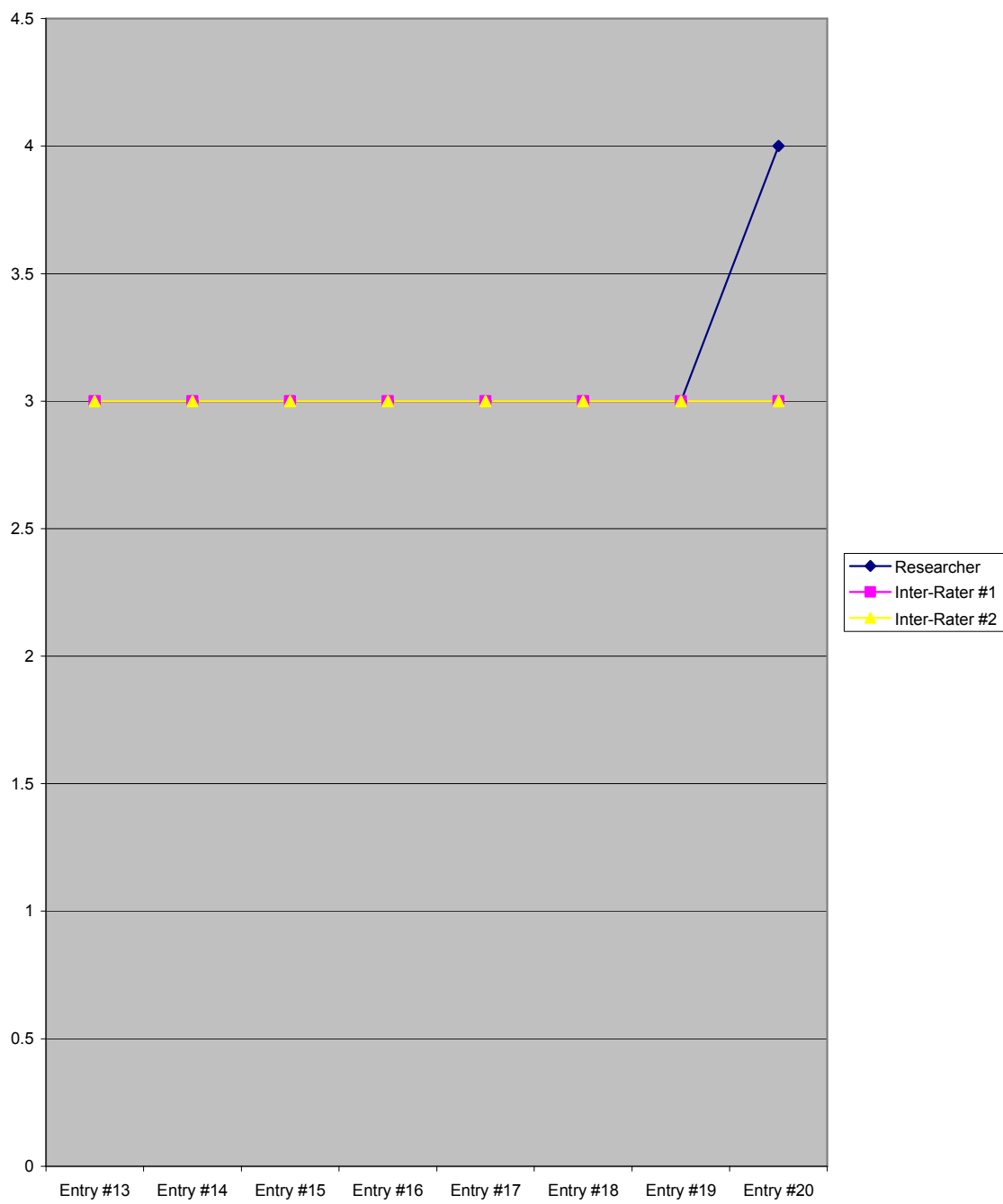
### Military Conflict



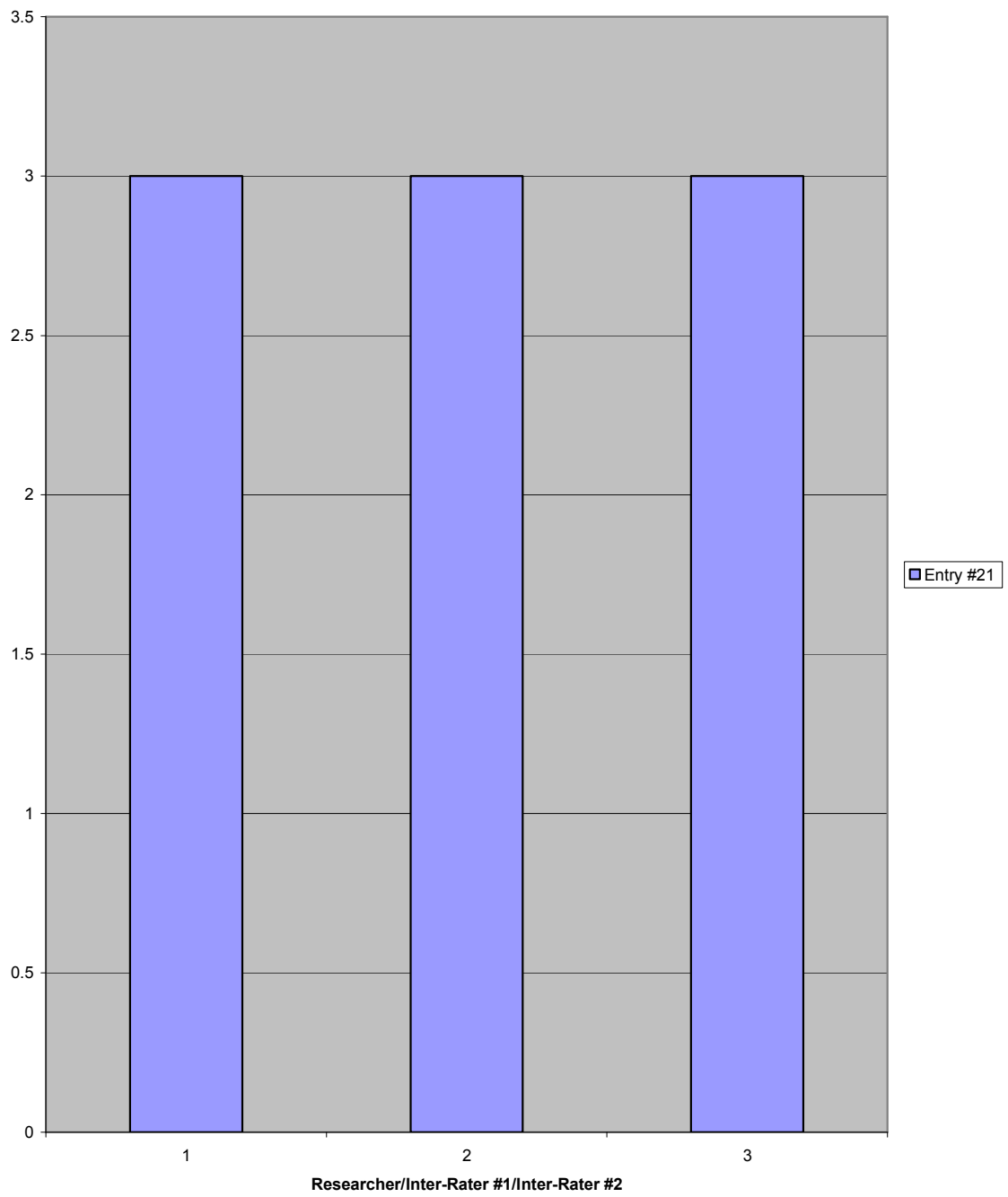
### Economic Activity



### Immigration



World Affairs



## APPENDIX K

### Definition of Non-Human Research Form

***Federal regulations and OSU policy require IRB review of all research involving human subjects. Some categories of research are difficult to discern as to whether they qualify as human subject research. Therefore, the IRB has established policies and procedures to assist in this determination.***

#### 1. Principal Investigator Information

First Name: James	Middle Initial: Orman	Last Name: Barbre III
Department/Division: School of Educational Studies		College: Education
Campus Address:		Zip+4:
Campus Phone:	Fax:	Email: barbreria@sbcglobal.net
<b>Complete if PI does not have campus address:</b>		
Address: 836 W. Moore Ave		City: Stillwater
State: Ok	Zip: 74075	Phone: 405-624-0149

#### 2. Faculty Advisor (complete if PI is a student, resident, or fellow) NA

Faculty Advisor's name: Dr. William Segall	Title: Professor
Department/Division: School of Educational Studies	College: Education
Campus Address: 258 Willard Hall	Zip+4: 74078
Campus Phone: 744-8023 Fax:	Email: William.segall@okstate.edu

#### 3. Study Information:

- A. Title POWERS OF DEPICTION: A TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY-LEVEL HISTORY BOOKS CURRENTLY IN USE IN TORONTO, ONTARIO AND STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA
- B. Give a brief summary of the project. (See instructions for guidance)  
Principal investigator will analyze four textbooks, two from the United States and two from Canada, in order to determine the nature of cross-national representation of the opposite country through the history books utilized in public schools. Goal of study is to gain insight into which areas



of textual national narratives represent the other nation in ways that are positive, negative, and neutral.

**C. Describe the subject population/type of data/specimens to be studied. (See instructions for guidance)**

The type of data to be examined will consist of text entries in history textbooks.

**4. Determination of "Human Subject".**

45 CFR 46.102(f): *Human subject* means a living individual about whom an investigator (whether professional or student) conducting research obtains: (1) data through intervention or interaction with the individual or (2) identifiable private information. Intervention includes both physical procedures by which data are gathered (for example venipuncture) and manipulations of the subject or the subject's environment that are performed for research purposes. Interaction includes communication or interpersonal contact between investigator and subject. Private information includes information about behavior that occurs in a context in which an individual can reasonably expect that no observation or recording is taking place, and information which has been provided for specific purposes by an individual and which the individual can reasonably expect will not be made public (for example, a medical record). Private information must be individually identifiable (i.e., the identity of the subject is or may be ascertained by the investigator or associated with the information) in order for obtaining the information to constitute research involving human subjects.

**All of the following must be "no" to qualify as "non-human subject":**

- A. Does the study involve intervention or interaction with a "human subject"?  
 No  Yes
- B. Does the study involve access to identifiable private information?  
 No  Yes
- C. Are data/specimens received by the Investigator with identifiable private information?  
 No  Yes
- D. Are the data/specimen(s) coded such that a link exists that could allow the data/specimen(s) to be re-identified?  
 No  Yes  
If "Yes," is there a written agreement that prohibits the PI and his/her staff access to the link?  
 No  Yes

5. **Determination of "Research".**

**45 CFR 46.102(d):** Research means a systematic investigation, including research development, testing and evaluation, designed to develop or contribute to generalizable knowledge. Activities, which meet this definition, constitute research for purposes of this policy, whether or not they are conducted or supported under a program, which is considered research for other purposes.

**One of the following must be "no" to qualify as "non-research":**

- A. Will the data/specimen(s) be obtained in a systematic manner?  
 No  Yes
  
  - B. Will the intent of the data/specimen collection be for the purpose of contributing to generalizable knowledge (disseminating the knowledge obtained outside of Oklahoma State University, e.g., presentation or publication)?  
 No  Yes
- 

6. **Signatures**

Signature of PI *AOB* Date *March 2, 2006*

Signature of Faculty Advisor *[Signature]* Date *March 2, 2006*  
(If PI is a student)

- Based on the information provided, the OSU-Stillwater IRB has determined that this research **does not** qualify a human subject research as defined in 45 CFR 46.102(d) and (f) and **is not subject to oversight by the OSU IRB.**
  
- Based on the information provided, the OSU-Stillwater IRB has determined that this research **does** qualify as human subject research and **submission of an application for review by the IRB is required.**

*Sue C Jacobs* *3/3/06*  
Dr. Sue C. Jacobs, IRB Chair Date

VITA

James Orman Barbre III

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: POWERS OF DEPICTION: A TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY-LEVEL HISTORY BOOKS CURRENTLY IN USE IN TORONTO, ONTARIO AND STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born August 2, 1967 in Enid, Oklahoma  
Email: barbreria@sbcglobal.net

Education:

B.S. in Elementary Education, December 1995, Oklahoma State University

M.S. in Curriculum and Instruction, May 1998, Oklahoma State University

Completed requirements for Doctor of Philosophy, May 2006, Oklahoma State University

Experience:

Professional Memberships:

Comparative and International Education Society

Name: James Orman Barbre III

Date of Degree: May, 2006

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: POWERS OF DEPICTION: A TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF  
SECONDARY-LEVEL HISTORY BOOKS CURRENTLY IN USE IN  
TORONTO, ONTARIO AND STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA

Pages in Study: 474

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Education

**Purpose and Methodology of Study:**

Examination of the cross-national representation and depiction within history texts between two countries was the purpose of this study. Chosen were secondary level history texts from Toronto, Ontario in Canada and Stillwater, Oklahoma in the United States. The history texts in use within both nations come through decentralized adoption policies, but the study focused on two from each nation. The study analyzed areas of nationalism, civics education, and economic interaction as each informed the subject matter for the texts and the depiction of the opposite nation. This was done to gain understanding as to the framework of civic and historical knowledge schools in either country teach their students. This was a qualitative study and used a Likert scale. Two outside raters also participated in a strategy of triangulated evaluation to better ensure objectivity.

**Findings and Conclusions:**

The history of both countries is intertwined, but the analysis found both versions of history to be dramatically different, thus contributing to distinctive and separate historical narratives. Canada's version of history was more defensive than the United States, especially in their historical interaction with the U.S. and this resulted in depiction of the United States as overly aggressive. Canadian texts demonstrated the United States to be unfair in relation to cultural and economic expansion. In the American history texts the study found that Canada was not labeled as a major influence. The American texts focused on the British and French Empires as significant and because of this, American history texts portrayed Canada in neutral terms. In the final chapter of the study, a theory is proposed to explain the differences in historical perception and self-documentation in the subject matter taught in both countries. Recommendations for further study focus on the examination of civic and historical knowledge taught by or in schools and various interpretations of national history taught to members of minority groups, both native and non-native and include minority groups located outside what would be considered mainstream culture in either country.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. William E. Segall

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