Reviews


*Short Changed: How Advanced Placement Cheats Students* was a different book from what I had expected, which does not entail that it was disappointing. The book’s subtitle made me assume it was mainly a current-events genre attack of Advanced Placement. However, Abrams spends roughly half of the text explaining the foundation, history, and evolution of Advanced Placement, placing AP in a historical context that explains the evolution of the idea and how and why it has changed over time. Abrams pursues a more policy-orientated argument through the lens of historical change. An American literary historian by trade, Abrams utilizes her historical expertise to provide an eloquent, concise, and well-documented history of how AP went from speculative ideas focused on “developing relationships, habits of mind, and intellectual processes—not rote memorization” (p. 47) to “a definition of education without mutual learning and discovery, inert in terms of both the distribution and creation of content, and baldly transactional” (p. 109).

The evolutionary approach to the historical narrative crafted by Abrams helps solidify her contemporary critique of the educational and financial transformation of AP. However, it is not necessarily a book that would be utilized while teaching AP History or U.S. Politics and Government. That said, the book does provide an exemplar on how to write organizational history and demonstrates how to support a hypothesis through sourced information and primary sources. Additionally, for upper-level history courses focusing on systemic inequity or historiography, the first half of the book provides an excellent example of how systems evolve over time and how contemporary views of equity and equality evolve from a historical perspective. Additionally, the text might also apply as stress relief while trying to manage anxiety in AP students. However, it could become a beneficial professional learning community resource for a school or district’s AP educators. One of the key takeaways I took from the book was a quote from Henry Bragdon: “the best way to prepare for external tests is to ignore them” (p. 55).
*Short Changed* can be an excellent morale booster for secondary school educators and administrators fed up with the standardization of everything in today’s high schools. Perhaps less a commentary on AP, the book is a clarion call for maintaining the humanities and liberal arts in our schools and encouraging the teaching of humanities in diverse and unique ways. More so, the book highlights Advanced Placement’s descent from an idea focused on “resistance against imposing dogma on teachers and students” (p. 54) into an ideal example of what Paulo Freire called the banking model of education. Abrams points out that one of the initial goals of AP was to bring together college and university professors with eleventh- and twelfth-grade teachers. However, the format that AP has evolved into could not be any more dissimilar to how courses are taught at the post-secondary level. Abrams writes, “equating high school education with ‘college’ would entail levels of dynamism that AP Classroom [AP’s new app] and a static set of exams fail to capture” (p. 167).

The initial historical narrative reads slightly laboriously and repetitive as the initial foundations of AP are brought to light from different perspectives. Fortunately, the final half of the text comes to life more vigorously because of the scholarly content provided in the earlier portions of the book. An insightful takeaway from the book is that you cannot increase diversity in American schools by attempting to make everything the same. Abrams quotes former Princeton Reformation historian E. Harris Harbison: “If you try to turn the classroom into a space for dogmatic instruction, I should say you are wrong….You are not going to accomplish your end and you are going to destroy many of the values you are trying to save” (p. 55). In an ironic twist, *Short Changed* has a strong equitable lens and goes as far as noting the author’s admitted surprise that “privileged, white, Protestant men” could create “intellectual orientations in the original vision [of AP] that are worth perpetuating” (p. 16). It is a bit disconcerting yet also welcoming to hear a highly educated humanities teacher seeking a more sustainably equitable AP confess surprise that individuals from a different era, socioeconomic status, and gender could be capable of good ideas. Overall, Abrams takes many functions of the AP exams to task in her narrative and provides a book that is probably geared towards educator professional development or professional learning communities more so than history students.

Blackburn College

John Essington


In her most recent work, Ida Altman examines and illustrates daily life in the still developing sixteenth-century Spanish Caribbean. Altman aptly shows what it was like to live in an unpredictable environment as colonial structures were
being forged within a violent and coercive atmosphere. This struggle, as Altman depicts, impacted all parts of life, from economic development to gender relations. While previous scholarship has brought to life, at least partially, the experiences of European/Spanish colonists during this time period, Altman attempts to move beyond the European narrative to include the perspectives of Indigenous and African residents. Altman admits that the scarcity of historical works addressing the experiences of African and Indigenous peoples in the greater Caribbean is due to a dearth of source material written by these minority groups and the lack of details provided by Spanish officials or colonists when they did discuss African or Indigenous actors. To overcome this obstacle, Altman studies the institutions of the four big Caribbean islands (Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico) during construction to bring to life the experiences of the Spanish along with hints at the lives of other groups.

In order to depict the realities of life during the first decades of colonization in the Caribbean, Altman organizes her book thematically. Themes covered include disease, violent confrontations, hurricanes, how government actually worked versus royal orders, religious organizations/conversion, how colonists really made money (not just from sugar or gold), gender, education, and race. Isolating chapters by theme (instead of a more common chronological framework) allows her to focus more closely on certain groups or events, making the reader truly feel what it may have been like to live in the Greater Antilles facing pirate attacks, epidemics, hurricanes, and slave rebellions. The detailed examples also prevent the book from becoming too dry, or textbook like, despite the amount of information that Altman manages to include in the relatively brief monograph. While much of the book is a general overview of the first fifty years of Caribbean history, regarding the succession of governments, population movements, etc., the in-depth stories bring fresh perspectives, new sources, and a diversity of experiences to light in an accessible manner.

Though Altman does try to incorporate more Indigenous and African experiences/perspectives, most of the book still focuses on the travails of Spanish colonists, with the exception of some more well-known historical actors, like the cacique Enrique. Yet Altman does succeed in revealing deeper experiences and the daily life of Spanish and Indigenous women in the Caribbean in her penultimate chapter. Here, Altman reveals the varied experiences of Spanish women who ventured to the Americas, or refused to do so despite spousal pleas in the case of Isabel and Benito de Astorga, alongside the diverse outcomes of African, Indigenous, and mestizo or mulatto women within the coercive environment characterized by the early years of colonization.

Finally, throughout her work, Altman highlights the importance of the early Spanish Caribbean, not only for the region itself, but for the development of the larger Spanish Empire and the Americas. The institutions that developed in Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico spread across the Americas, serving as the foundations for colonies there. Thus, Altman’s work not only reveals the daily life in the sixteenth-century Caribbean, but also underscores how these very actors and events impacted the larger Atlantic World.
Overall, this book is accessible for readers of diverse backgrounds and age groups. It is best suited for advanced high school students or undergraduate students as it provides an excellent overview of the early years of the Spanish Empire—one that includes a variety of experiences. While it would work very well assigned in its entirety, the chapters also stand alone and could be assigned individually depending upon course emphasis or topic. Additionally, it is an excellent starting point for anyone—a scholar or student—who is interested in learning more about the oft-overlooked sixteenth-century Spanish Caribbean. Thus, it would also serve as an excellent resource for teachers preparing a course on the history of the Americas or early Modern Europe.

*University of West Florida*

Erin W. Stone


Historian and urban policy analyst Claire Dunning worked for the Boston Foundation, a power player in the city’s nonprofit ecosystem, before attending graduate school. The experience provided a window into how such organizations function as recipients of public and private funds that are, in turn, awarded to local nonprofits to deliver urban services. It also informed Dunning’s graduate and post-graduate research examining Boston, Massachusetts as “part of the vanguard of social welfare experimentation and a bellwether of a new system of governance in the United States” (p. 4). In *Nonprofit Neighbors: An Urban History of Inequality and the American State*, Dunning asks “why solving public problems through private means and solving structural problems through local organizations became central tenets of US politics and policy” during the last half century (p. 4). If the “formal engagement of neighborhood-based nonprofits in urban governance constitutes one of the most profound, if hidden, transformations in the United States over the second half of the twentieth century,” how and why did this shift take place? (p. 3)

President John F. Kennedy’s 1962 Executive Order 11063, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Fair Housing Act of 1968 provided a legal framework for federal oversight of discrimination in education, employment, and housing. A bipartisan effort seeking to replace the big-government approach associated with the New Deal and Fair Deal programs of the 1930s and 1940s with publicly funded, locally based private nonprofit corporations or public-private partnerships was underway around the same time. Directing competitive grant funding to locally controlled and administered nonprofit corporations allowed lawmakers to legitimize their claims of support for power-sharing relationships with the minority and underserved residents of neighborhoods struggling to adjust to changes brought
by suburbanization, the decline of downtown retail and office areas, and the loss of jobs in manufacturing and industry. During the 1960s, “grants, contracts, and, in time, loans, increasingly linked private nonprofits to public governments in every sector of American social policy, ranging from education to employment, health to housing, and arts to parks” (p. 3). The 1970s shift to Community Development Block Grants paved the way for further growth in nonprofit corporations that functioned “simultaneously as agents of and appendages to the state” (p. 12).

In the Introduction, Dunning uses the term “nonprofit neighborhoods” to describe places of “simultaneous inclusion and exclusion” created by the city government (as represented by notable mayors such as Kevin White). Meanwhile, the grantees—the public or private entities sponsoring the grants or loans—the residents, the bureaucrats, the lenders, the partners, and the coalitions are each examined by Dunning in successive chapters. Nonprofit neighborhoods were the outcome of “successive generations of executive directors, elected officials, and residents [that] built them grant by grant and meeting by meeting” (p. 15). They “constituted an organizational, administrative, and governance legacy” of hard-fought campaigns for housing equity (p. 15). Nonprofit neighborhoods offered “new routes for minority residents to participate in urban governance without actually undoing the structures of their exclusion” (p. 16). Dunning does not find fault with nonprofits for their inability to bring about the structural changes needed in Boston and other cities. Nonprofit neighborhoods, after all, were “not designed as vectors for redistribution” (p. 248).

Boston’s “nonprofit industrial complex” reached a milestone in 2014 when Massachusetts Governor Deval Patrick announced a “social impact bond” program that would “meet government goals via private financing, nonprofit service delivery, and third-party evaluation” (pp. 1-2). After more than a half-century of reliance on nonprofit delivery of urban services, Dunning observes, “few thought to question the broader implication of using philanthropic dollars to subsidize corporate lending, of financializing social welfare provision, or of using metrics to address issues rooted in structural inequalities based on race and income” (p. 2). Nonprofits have “improved individual lives and reduced the imbalance of American capitalism” (p. 4) and have served as training grounds for neighborhood and community leaders. At the same time, however, they have also “proven ineffective at creating cities that are just, democratic, or equitable” (p. 4). As presently structured, nonprofits—individually or collectively—cannot “compete with the broader forces of finance capitalism, service-sector employment, and evaporating safety-net programs” and alleviate or eliminate real estate market inequities (p. 19).

Dunning’s important study is likely to generate lively discussion in the graduate history or political science seminar room. Graduate students and undergraduate seminar or honors thesis students can gain valuable insight into research models and approaches useful in investigating nearby nonprofit neighborhoods and nonprofit corporations as part of their own research.

St. John’s University

Kristin M. Szylvian

As one of the foremost scholars working at the intersection of environmental and business history, Bart Elmore offers another timely book on the people, companies, and forces that shape our daily economic choices in Country Capitalism. This latest work grows out of two award-winning studies revealing the historical processes and hidden costs by which different corporations—with blaring (Coca-Cola) and more insidious (Monsanto) commercial presences—blanketed store shelves and refrigerators with everyday products. In each book, the enduring power of Elmore’s scholarship lies in showing how global businesses are not merely brands. Rather, their true significance exists beyond marketing schemes and boardroom strategy. It is their abilities to harness resources and stretch the limits of the natural world to maximize efficiency, convenience, and profit that deserve most of our attention.

To frame this study, Elmore begins with his own scholarly journey. As a first-year student arriving at Dartmouth from his native Atlanta, he noticed a yawning gap between others’ conceptions of the South and his own understanding. In time, he saw that the “booming businesses” of his hometown were not mere “proxies for progress” (p. 2). And therein lies the genesis of this book. How did the South, historically derided as an economic backwater, foster several companies that reshaped the global economy? After noting that economic development was always intertwined with Jim Crow, Elmore further posits that for certain southern companies, the region’s predominantly rural geography was not a hindrance to growth (p. 3). Instead, traversing “a vast southern countryside” nurtured the kind of economies of scale that enabled once-localized companies to become global “conduits of capitalism” (pp. 5, 172).

In a tidy, compelling analysis, Country Capitalism ably traces the evolution of five southern companies from their rural roots: Coca-Cola, Delta Air Lines, Walmart, FedEx, and Bank of America. In doing so, it makes a needed intervention in southern environmental history by emphasizing how the region has not just been the “site of ecological degradation,” but “an exporter…of ecological problems” as well (p. 4). As Elmore notes, this is not the first book to do so. Yet his work stands out by drawing together several of these local-to-global connections with careful, original research alongside an in-depth reading of the existing literature in several sub-fields.

In Elmore’s capable hands, each southern firm is rendered as a complex, evolving entity that grew from southern roots. In doing so, he nimbly avoids the pitfalls of portraying their histories either as “rags-to-riches” stories or as the monstrous creations of corporate Frankensteins. While Coke’s and Walmart’s origin stories may be more familiar to historians, there is clear value in telling these company histories alongside the others. Whether through an examination of Delta’s and Coke’s respective searches for cheap fuel or reliable refrigeration, or FedEx’s pivot to bulk shipments in the age of fax machines, “country capitalism” is an
approach to the global economy forged by connecting rural consumers to products and services in the twentieth-century South. In Elmore’s engaging portrayals of Delta’s shift from a crop-dusting outfit to innovator of the “hub-and-spoke system,” Walmart’s forging of vast supply chains, and Bank of America’s financing of oil and coal extraction, it’s clear that the growth of these firms was neither inevitable, nor without consequences—both for local communities and the planet itself (p. 63).

In each case study, the federal government—through deregulation, subsidies, or lucrative military contracts—appears as an enabler of corporate growth. In many ways, this sets up Elmore’s call to action. Throughout, he is unafraid to advocate for “rapid and systemic changes” in how federal policymakers address the environmental impacts of multinational corporations’ logistical empires (p. 172). Using government reports and climate change data, he argues that these businesses and their peers (Amazon, UPS) require similar scrutiny as the “smokestacks” of the stereotypical polluter (p. 170). Whether or not one agrees with Elmore’s appeal, he raises vital and urgent questions that deserve a larger forum.

Educators at the high-school or college levels should consider using some or all Elmore’s book to help students grasp what has been required to produce a can of Coke or to move people and goods across the world. Each chapter is insightful on several fronts. Moreover, Country Capitalism’s approach might provide a scalable model to integrate business history into the curriculum by having students interview local business owners or otherwise delve into the histories of nearby companies. However one encounters this work, students and educators alike will find an engaging depiction of the American South as a multi-faceted, global region.

Coastal Carolina University

Madison W. Cates

From Back Alley to the Border: Criminal Abortion in California, 1920-1969, by Alicia Gutierrez-Romine. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, 2023. 270 pages. $55.00, cloth. $30.00, paper. $30.00, electronic.

Relying on court and law enforcement records, From Back Alley to the Border provides a history of illegal abortions among white American women in California and, by the 1950s, in Mexican border cities. Early chapters present case studies of some abortionists and women who died from illegal procedures. Press coverage elicited sympathy for women and hostility toward abortionists, and public antipathy toward women abortionists was especially vehement. Dr. Mathew Marmillion, an African American physician, faced additional barriers because of his race. Later chapters consider the Pacific Coast Abortion Ring (PCAR), the trial against PCAR organizers, and the aftermath of the case. The book’s strongest chapter focuses on PCAR and its connection to the criminal underworld. Once officials dismantled PCAR, many white women resorted to abortions in border towns in Mexico. The court case People of the State of California v. Buffum (1953) accelerated this trend because it allowed American abortionists to evade California law.
From Back Alley to the Border confirms numerous historians’ findings. Most women dying from abortion were married and between ages twenty and forty-five. Most tried to self-induce, or at least doctors made such claims to avoid prosecution. The author acknowledges that the book “builds upon the work of previous scholars who have studied the history of birth control and abortion in the United States” such as Linda Gordon, James Mohr, Kristen Luker, and Leslie Reagan (pp. 2-3). The author also prioritizes the 1936 PCAR trial, California v. Rankin et al., as “a turning point” that “showed abortions could be safe” during a time when “successful abortions seemed nearly nonexistent to the public” (pp. 4-6). While Rankin allowed prosecution in cases without fatalities, the rise of the Hospital Committee reduced individual doctors’ powers to decide if abortions were life-saving necessities.

The book has numerous weaknesses that unfortunately inhibit use with students. Large sections have no citations. The author interprets a section regarding abortion in California’s Crimes and Punishments Act of 1850 as a means to recognize “licensed physicians’ professional independence” (p. 20), yet California did not license physicians until 1876. Perhaps this choice of words was intended to differentiate trained physicians from “quacks” (p. 20), but students of history must learn to use appropriate, accurate terminology in their findings. The author states that the “days of women ingesting herbs and plants were past” by the late nineteenth century due to urbanization (p. 21), yet rural women, still the majority, used traditional concoctions as well as mail-order drugs. Chapter 2, “Regular Physicians, Irregular Circumstances: Loopholes and Scandals,” on physician-abortionists overlooks pioneering work by Carole Joffe and does not engage with literature on Margaret Sanger’s connections to eugenics. Chapter 3, “Inconceivable Blackness: Race, Medicine, and Contraception,” needs engagement with existing scholarship on race, as well as expanded historical contextualization. Chapter 4, “‘The Mid-Wife Type’: Wicked Women Abortionists,” omits scholarship on women’s abortion networks in the 1930s, and jumps from 1920s Chicago to 1840s New York to 1930s California.

The author concludes that this book “disagrees” with scholars who have claimed the pre-Roe era “between 1880 and 1960 was characterized by ‘silence’ or a lack of discourse about abortion” (p. 194), but there are no immediate citations of which scholars claim this. While a paragraph in the introduction mentions that Kristin Luker “previously argued that women were surprisingly silent about abortion laws and failed to speak out against them” and that Leslie Reagan “found that women spoke in secret, quietly among their female networks, until the 1960s” (p. 3), the section ignores much literature that argues the opposite. The author states that “only when” women sought Mexican abortions did California liberalize state law (p. 7), which discounts national attention to nine California doctors who performed abortions on women with German measles.

More attention to language use is needed. The use of “everything,” “only,” and “all women” is problematic, and the use of “illegitimacy” (p. 78) is outdated. The author claims that after the 1969 People of the State of California v. Belous case, “other states began to challenge their abortion statutes” (p. 191). Doctors and women, not states, challenged existing state laws. Overall, the author needs
to acknowledge specifically that this work builds on a strong foundation laid by scholars on illegal abortion networks in the pre-\textit{Roe} era, rather than imply that this work is the first to find that illegal abortions could be dangerous but could also be safe, depending on the provider. For these reasons, teachers may want to refer to such alternative sources for classroom use on this topic.

\textit{Wake Forest University} \hspace{1cm} Simone M. Caron


Everybody hated comic books, except for the millions who loved them. In his \textit{Pulp Empire}, Paul Hirsch provides readers with a comprehensive list of those people, from all ends of the political spectrum, who disdained the popular—and cheap—American magazines. The American Legion and church groups condemned them (p. 177), and \textit{The New York Times} editors called them a “cancerous growth” (p. 158). FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover asserted they contributed to juvenile delinquency (p. 178), and the United States Senate held 1954 hearings that led the comic book industry to engage in self-censorship (p. 186). Perhaps most prominently, Psychiatrist Dr. Fredric Wertham made a plethora of charges against the medium, seemingly with little concrete evidence, including charging that the comics caused violence and racism in American youth and that superheroes were fascist (p. 177).

Criticism was not only rampant among cultural critics in the United States. French lawmakers, from communists to nationalists, respectively, warned that Americans planned to “flood Europe with ‘their canned meats, their chewing gum…their supermen, and their atomic bombs,’” or that the books “undermined the creation of a new French national identity” (p. 204). British communists charged that they were “crude, undesirable, and violent: that is, as uniquely American” (p. 207). The comics were a handy target for those who disliked the spread of American culture to their countries, and served as something of a proxy war—since so many U.S. critics disparaged the books, foreign governments could rail against them without being openly anti-American.

Despite the voices raised to disparage the comic book, it became a massively popular slice of American culture. Popular issues sold hundreds of thousands or even more than a million copies every week. My French father-in-law remembers reading and enjoying French translations of \textit{The Phantom} and \textit{Superman}, among others, at his home in Algeria during World War II. And the U.S. government often turned to the comics to help wage wars, both hot and cold.

Hirsch devotes two chapters on how the government used comic books as part of efforts to defeat the Germans and Japanese in World War II (Chapter 1), and then to battle communism during the Cold War (Chapter 6). Various governmental entities, from the WWII-era Writers’ War Board to the Cold War-era U.S. Department of State and CIA, found comic books a handy tool in
shaping public opinion at home and abroad. The author regularly touches on the features—cheapness, vivid colors, and simple yet powerful story lines—that made the books an ideal medium for American propaganda. The pulp magazines were also so ubiquitous that they could be easily distributed by means other than official channels. American service personnel carried them wherever they went—Hirsch likens them to “plague carriers” (p. 158). Private corporations such as Coca-Cola also helped pay for and dispense some issues (p. 230), giving the government plausible deniability.

Two of Hirsch’s chapters set up an interesting dichotomy. In Chapter 2, Hirsch writes about how lack of censorship led the comic book industry to push the boundaries of decency with stories that were hyper-violent, sexist, and racist, which presented American culture in an ugly manner. This eventually led to congressional scrutiny and industry self-censorship. Juxtaposed with that, Chapter 7 discusses how Marvel Comics navigated the new constraints placed on content to create the superheroes that have dominated not only the comic books, but also American film in recent decades. Captain America, Iron Man, and Thor, along with many other characters in the genre, were overtly patriotic and presented the U.S. in a positive light.

Although Hirsch does not make the connection explicitly, he also notes that many of the men in charge of making the comics that gave the medium (and the nation) a bad name were accused, rightly or wrongly, of being communists (p. 162). The wildly popular Marvel superheroes were solidly anti-communist, and characters such as Thor (p. 248) and Iron Man (p. 261) even fought alongside American soldiers in Vietnam.

*Pulp Empire* is well written, logically arranged, and accessible. The book is printed on fine paper, with numerous colorful images from comic book covers. Historians of the Cold War should find this a useful companion to other works about how the CIA influenced many features of American culture that traveled abroad. Hirsch has added a popular turn to those studies examining how high culture was used to battle communism. Hirsch also does a good job of putting the “story” into history. For instance, Bill Gaines, frustrated over navigating the post-1954 censorship, left the industry and published *Mad Magazine* instead (p. 189). Such popular culture references are a natural appeal for students of all ages.

*Ohio Northern University*

Russ Crawford

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In her cogent and persuasive book, *Colonizing Kashmir*, Hafsa Kanjwal, “attempts to understand the forms colonialism takes today within (post)colonial nation-states” (p. 14). Her attempt to understand these forms of colonialism is centered on the colonization of Kashmir by India, a nation-state that often comes
to exemplify decolonization in the post-war period. By retheorizing India’s decolonization, Kanjwal raises necessary and important questions for scholars and teachers of decolonization more broadly. How do we examine self-determination and decolonization when decolonization engendered new forms of colonialism? How were state-building projects of newly emergent nations caught up in forms of colonialism including settler occupation?

Kanjwal grapples with these questions and the colonizing force of India in Kashmir by examining Bakshi Ghulam Mohammad (1907-1972), the Prime Minister of Jammu and Kashmir from 1953 to 1964. To understand Bakshi’s policies and the Indian occupation of Kashmir, she centers a colonial modality of control deployed by India—the politics of life. Following Neve Gordon’s analysis of Israel’s colonial policies in Palestine, Kanjwal argues that “the early decades of India’s colonial occupation were marked by...a ‘politics of life,’ in which the Indian government and Kashmir’s client regimes propagated development, empowerment, and progress to secure the well-being of Kashmir’s population and to normalize the occupation for multiple audiences” (p. 9). A politics of life, Kanjwal contends, pivoted questions in Kashmir from Kashmir’s political future and self-determination to governance and development. It was a change that sought to domesticate and naturalize Kashmir into the Indian nation-state (p. 71).

Yet this process to naturalize the colonial occupation of Kashmir was no easy task. It required international cooperation and state propaganda. Here, Kanjwal radically undoes our narratives of Third Worldism by demonstrating how India’s emergence as a bastion of anti-colonialism and a leader of the Non-Aligned Movement required crushing Kashmiri claims to self-determination—a task made easier with Soviet and, eventually, U.S. support, especially in the media. Kashmir was significant not only to India’s international standing, but also to its own identity as a nation. As Kanjwal details, tourism and film crafted a Hindu sacred geography for a secular India. Tourism, moreover, produced a notion of “Indian benevolence” as tourism became a sign of granting economic opportunity to Kashmiris.

Economic opportunity was indeed central to the politics of life, but this opportunity also produced paradoxes by enabling forms of subjectivity that led to contradictions between the political aspirations of Kashmiris and their desire for economic stability (p. 271). The chapters ably detail these paradoxes that emerged from financial integration, infrastructure projects, educational policy, food aid, and more. These policies and projects were not merely an Indian imposition, however. Instead, there was collaboration. For example, Bakshi’s desire for legitimacy sanctioned these various undertakings—a legitimacy he hoped to gain by improving economic conditions through development and aid. Thus, Kanjwal writes, we see “the provision of aid and abundance under India was intended to remake sentiments toward India and provide legitimacy to Bakshi’s government” (p. 145).

To understand the remaking of sentiments, Kanjwal undertakes a forceful critique of standardized understandings of identity framed around the secularity of India and Kashmiri culture. Kanjwal explains that the very desire for a syncretic Kashmiri identity—*kashmiriyat*—was cultivated by India and Bakshi’s government, especially as they sought to construct both a “secular modern
Kashmiri subjectivity” and a secular national heritage (p. 161). Yet, in so doing, Kanjwal demonstrates that secular policies further exacerbated the very religious difference they sought to eliminate.

Although Kanjwal centers the politics of life, she ends by noting how India also utilized surveillance, violence, and repression to stifle dissent. These interventions, including emergency laws, restricted the political possibilities available to Kashmiris even as the politics around the plebiscite kept—and continues to keep—alive the prospect of self-determination.

Kanjwal’s attention to India’s colonialism offers a powerful revision to curriculum around national independence that can often track India’s decolonization as liberatory and celebrate India’s early role in shaping a “Third Way,” especially in the Non-Aligned Movement. Following Kanjwal’s challenges, when we teach, we are compelled to ask: what violent and colonial policies did India’s “anti-colonial, socialist, third-world positionality” globally enable and sanction (p. 89)? How does our search for identities and politics in the past—including composite and shared ones—further legitimate colonial occupations? It is by raising such important questions that Colonizing Kashmir is essential reading for teachers and scholars of South Asia, especially as we grapple with ongoing violence in what are, nominally, post-colonial nations like India.

California State University, Long Beach

Rajbir Singh Judge


Roger Knight, curator emeritus of the Royal Maritime Museum, Greenwich, has already contributed a great deal to scholarship of Great Britain during the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars. Convoys is Knight’s effort at filling a long-neglected gap in the historiography of the period; the only article examining Napoleonic-era convoys prior to his own work was published in 1959, and other historians have treated convoys as a secondary concern to the great naval battles of the day. Knight, however, asserts that convoys allowed Great Britain to remain financially solvent through two decades of war, and thereby laid the foundation for victory over Napoleon in 1815. In simplest terms, “Without the safety afforded by convoys, the British could not have paid for the war” (p. 277). For the classroom, chapters and passages would be helpful to student discussions of the economic impact of wars.

The book opens with a chapter examining maritime commerce protection in the years following the English Civil War. Initially, English warships patrolled the most heavily used trade routes. As English (and eventually British) trade expanded, warship-escorted convoys were established for the English Channel and Mediterranean Sea to protect merchantmen from French privateers, Barbary corsairs, and other adversaries. These convoys would be adopted during every
British conflict of the 1700s and promptly discarded at the return of peace. When commerce raiding intensified during the French Revolutionary War, the Convoy Act of 1798 required merchant ships to sail with convoys and were duly taxed to fund this protection. The dozen years of war following 1803, Knight’s primary focus, saw Great Britain employing larger and more frequent convoys around the world. As Napoleon sought to exclude Britain from European commerce through his Continental System, convoys and the networks they established allowed Britain to keep its economy functioning (if somewhat stretched) through 1815.

One of the book’s great strengths is that Knight does not treat all British convoys as one and the same. Individual chapters highlight the regions convoys served (the Baltic Sea, East and West Indies, North Atlantic Ocean, etc.), examining in detail the cargo and people transported through those regions, the region’s impact on the British economy, military and natural hazards to be faced there, and the types of vessels most likely to overcome them. The common thread tying the narrative together is the lived experience of the people who sailed in Napoleonic-era convoys. In addition to contemporary government records, Knight has exhaustively synthesized material from logbooks, letters, and diaries so that Royal Navy men, merchant mariners, and passengers can tell of the combat, storm, shipwreck, and day-to-day drudgery experienced by convoys in their own words. Through this first-hand perspective, Knight vividly demonstrates how convoys were forced to adapt to changing circumstances as wars with Napoleonic France and the United States progressed.

Establishing an effective convoy system was no easy task for Great Britain. Royal Navy and commercial leaders each had different priorities and ideas on how convoys should be managed. Admirals wanted merchant captains to be legally bound to follow the orders of escort commanders, and many ship owners and merchants wanted convoys to be timed and routed to suit business needs above all. Mired as it was in paying for and prosecuting a global war, the British government constantly struggled with mediating between the two. In some instances, maritime insurance firms such as Lloyd’s of London were able to influence military and civilian alike; they purchased elaborate swords for naval officers who led successful convoys and influenced shipowners to dismiss merchant captains who wouldn’t obey orders. Convos does very well in making these complex relationships easy to follow.

In a brief yet poignant epilogue, Knight discusses the role of convoys during World War II. Parallels between Napoleonic and WWII convoys are quickly drawn: surges in enemy attacks directly leading to the establishment of convoys, a frequent shortage of proper escort vessels, military and civilian leadership clashing over mission priorities and limited resources, and weather and accidents causing significant losses in addition to those from enemy action. Most striking from this section is a 1963 quote from Vice-Admiral Sir Peter Gretton, then serving as Convoy Escort Commander: “Many of the lessons learnt at such cost in the last war are being forgotten, just as precisely the same lessons were forgotten after 1918 and after the Napoleonic Wars” (p. 284). People, ships, and specific circumstances have changed, yet the need for wartime convoys remains.

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Offshore Attachments: Oil and Intimacy in the Caribbean, by Chelsea Schields. Oakland, CA: University of California Press, 2023. 287 pages. $95.00, cloth. $29.95, paper. $29.95, electronic.

Chelsea Schields’ Offshore Attachments is an original and engrossing study of sex, race, and labor on the Netherlands Antilles islands of Curaçao and Aruba, where two of the largest oil refineries in the world operated during the middle decades of the twentieth century. Royal Dutch Shell’s Isla refinery on Curaçao (est. 1915) and Standard Oil of New Jersey’s (Exxon) Lagos refinery on Aruba (est. 1932) processed massive amounts of crude oil from neighboring Venezuela and exported the resulting petroleum products around the world. Offshore Attachments takes a bottom-up approach to documenting the history of these crucial cogs in the global oil system by focusing on the people who worked and lived in the refinery communities. The book makes valuable contributions to multiple historiographies.

Schields reveals how the international oil corporations and the Dutch colonial government attempted to regulate the reproductive practices and “intimacies” of local and migrant residents on the islands along the lines of race and social status. During the refining boom prior to the 1950s, oil and colonial authorities facilitated transactional sex for migrant labor by recruiting sex workers from around the Caribbean, while also prescribing marital domesticity for local employees and white managers. The objective of this “peculiar sexual economy” (p. 36) was to increase worker productivity and inhibit labor militancy. Although sex trafficking violated Dutch and Antillean laws, the “offshore” nature of the islands permitted their circumvention. As Shell and Exxon replaced workers with technological automation starting in the 1950s and eventually closed their refineries in the mid-1980s, the colonial governments recast policies on divorce, family planning, and welfare to encourage “conjugal responsibility” and “restrained fertility” (p. 87), the burden of which fell most squarely on Afro-Curaçaoan women. Schields also demonstrates that these refinery communities “forged attachments of their own” in turning the “ideologies of corporation paternalism” (p. 186) back on the authorities and connecting with radical trans-Atlantic political movements to foster innovative thinking about reproductive justice. She contends that oil had “the unique capacity” to “find its way into private spaces, aspirations, and yearnings, often in unexpected and contentious ways” (p. 10).

Offshore Attachments is a valuable text for teaching a range of subjects at the undergraduate and graduate levels. The writing is clear and concise (193 pages of text). The analysis is theoretically grounded in social scientific literature on race, labor, and sexuality, but in an accessible way. The book’s prodigious research in Antillean, Dutch, and American archival sources offers many teachable possibilities for finding and interpreting primary documents. Each chapter provides a stand-alone argument, but together they also tell a larger story across space and time. The first two chapters dwell on the spectacular growth of the refineries and the politics of intimacy embedded in it. The third chapter discusses the decline of the refineries, caused by foreign competition and automation, and the
promotion of “responsible parenthood” (p. 99) to address what colonial officials perceived as a demographic crisis. The fourth and perhaps most interesting chapter features the pivotal May 30, 1969 (Trinta di mei) labor-led uprising on Curaçao and the associated radicalization of intellectuals and labor leaders on the islands. The final chapter focuses on the Netherlands and the discrimination faced by the tens of thousands of Caribbean Dutch citizens who migrated there beginning in the 1970s due to lost economic and educational opportunities on the islands. All or parts of the book could be adopted in history courses on energy, race, sexuality, labor, or empire.

Despite its subtitle of “oil and intimacy in the Caribbean,” Offshore Attachments is less about oil and more about reproductive politics, decolonization, and the Dutch welfare state in the Caribbean and at home. Many key themes, such as elite anxiety about black single mothers and the racialization of citizenship, will be familiar to scholars of the American and European welfare states. Schields’ rhetorical claims about the “centrality of oil to the shaping of desires and the regulation of intimacy” (p. 8) on Curaçao and Aruba could be better clarified analytically. One can easily imagine similar dynamics at play had these two islands hosted large facilities that manufactured and exported something other than petroleum products. The conclusion brings up the toxic legacies specific to oil refining, but this observation is not integral to the argument. Nevertheless, the book greatly enhances our understanding of the social and imperial geography of oil during its vast global expansion in the twentieth century.

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Donald Yacovone’s Teaching White Supremacy is a well-researched monograph that examines the impact of the American history textbook industry from the 1830s to 1980. Yacovone offers compelling evidence to support his claim that many (white) textbook authors harbored white supremacist ideas, which they included in their depictions of the historical record. He also argues that textbook authors, most of whom were born or educated in the North, perpetuated anti-black ideas while simultaneously working to create ideological distance from the institution of slavery, which they cast as a moral stain on the South. Finally, Yacovone argues that textbook authors helped to forge a national identity that was predicated on both democratic ideals and ideas of black sub-humanity.

One of the most significant illustrations of Yacovone’s major claims is Chapter 2, “‘The White Republic Against the World’: The Toxic Legacy of John H. Van Evrie.” It shows how the very popular Van Evrie combined anti-black denigration with patriotism to recruit poor native-born whites and German and
Irish immigrants to join the Democratic Party. Van Evrie eventually created a textbook that brought together many of his white supremacist ideas. Yacovone credits Van Evrie as being the nation’s “first professional racist” (p. 40), whose intellectual and cultural influence inspired several decades of white supremacist thought and action in the twentieth century.

Chapter 3, “The Emancipationist Challenge, 1867 to 1883,” is also significant because it illustrates how writers in northern states used the Civil War and emancipation to develop the perception that the North was more racially tolerant than and morally superior to southern states. Yet the evidence shows that many northern whites were no less racist than their southern counterparts. One significant takeaway from this chapter is that by the 1890s, white anti-slavery writers and African American authors began to contribute to the textbook industry. Their works represented a critical shift in the education of pro-Union white schools and for newly established African American schools that relished these texts over those comprised of historical fiction and racial bigotry.

In Chapter 6, “Educating for ‘Eugenocide’ in the 1920s,” Yacovone argues that because African Americans had progressed so quickly since the end of slavery in 1865, many whites felt apprehensive about their own “racial progress.” Hard-pressed to reconcile this discomfort, many (white) scholars used pseudoscience and historical narrative to establish and defend what they believed to be the purity of the white race. Of note is that eugenicists working during this period refurbished Van Evrie’s ideas about the distinctive creative and developmental tracks of African Americans and whites, which fostered ideas about the two groups representing two genetically separate strands of humanity.

Yacovone shows in Chapter 7, “Lost Cause Victorious, 1920 to 1964,” that in the period following World War I through the mid-1960s, textbook authors leaned heavily into the myths that African Americans benefited from slavery, and that being part of the dominant race was burdensome for both poor and affluent whites. Yacovone shows that a history text written for fifth graders during this period “turned slavery into a middle-class experience, with slave men working the fields and slave women cleaning house and cooking” (p. 299). Meanwhile, whites in these accounts struggled to adapt to the burden of supervising an underdeveloped race that had proven ill-equipped to shoulder the responsibility of self-reliance.

Finally, in Chapter 8, “Renewing the Challenge,” Yacovone shows that the strength of white supremacist ideas in American textbooks began to fade only when whites began to confront their ignorance about African Americans’ lived experiences. Race-commission reports, African American autobiographies, and the visual spectacle of civil rights protests helped to destabilize racist ideas. African American scholars also played an integral part in helping to alter Americans’ national self-image. Their contribution evidences the necessity and impact of writing historical narratives that include African Americans and other racialized groups as historical actors.

Teaching White Supremacy makes a strong contribution to the field of U.S. history. It should be used to help teachers at all levels to properly identify and assess the value of textbook content. Yacovone draws upon numerous primary and
secondary sources to uncover for readers the history of textbook writing, while also introducing them to many of the historical actors who helped to influence the evolution of ideas concerning race and national identity. He demonstrates that many of our debates about public school content are much older and perhaps more consequential than we realize. It is motivation to be vigilant.

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J. Anthony Guillory


The historical profession depends on good social studies teachers to nurture students’ interest in history, civics, geography, economics, sociology, and other related fields. Preparing future teachers to approach their work with knowledge, creativity, and a conceptual understanding of what their students need to succeed in social studies is critical to the health of the discipline. The fifth edition of Jack Zevin’s *Social Studies for the Twenty-First Century* is designed to prepare future teachers and early career teachers to thrive in the field. The text strikes a balance between emphasizing knowledge acquisition and inquiry skills. It is presented as a conversation about which students can form their own opinions. Nevertheless, Zevin’s vision for the future of social studies education is “deeper and more reflective teaching of history through primary and secondary sources promoting higher order thinking, and the development of empathy as seeing and understanding the world, not only as we see it, but as others view it” (p. xiii).

Zevin grounds the text by both referring to and interrogating the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards developed by the National Council for the Social Studies, based on the Common Core. While he recognizes that most social studies teachers will be creating lessons aligned with the C3 standards, he encourages readers to relate the standards to a variety of teaching strategies and content learning goals. The first section of the book, therefore, is not an in-depth analysis of the standards, but rather a discussion of the meaning of the social studies and the development of philosophies of social studies education. This grounding in the field provides a useful and manageable introduction to a topic that future teachers may not have thoroughly investigated previously in their teacher preparation programs.

The rest of the book builds on that philosophical foundation by exploring a wide variety of teaching and learning strategies, all attempting to balance three interrelated teaching approaches: “the didactic (information), the reflective (reasoning), and the affective (values)” (p. xiv). Zevin guides readers to consider how the various teaching strategies reflect these methodologies. After a section devoted to multiple teacher roles for multiple student audiences, the book includes
three sections (six chapters) devoted to strategies and resources for teaching social studies, moving from more general teaching strategies to more specific approaches. The third section divides the chapters into strategies for lower-level skills (Chapter 4) and higher-level skills (Chapter 5). While this approach does have good organizational benefits, the separation feels somewhat artificial, especially since the two approaches should be—and often are—more integrated in the classroom. The book includes a wealth of discussion and analysis prompts under headings such as “To Do,” “Let’s Decide,” “Classic Research Report,” and others, designed for class discussion and/or personal reflection. Each chapter includes “References for Further Reading” and “For Further Study” sections listing references to both classic and contemporary texts, which would be useful for research projects or for diving deeper into a particularly intriguing idea.

This text is packed with teaching suggestions and ideas, from the aforementioned discussion prompts to lesson plans, activities, and “thinking on your feet” exercises, including prompts related to Zeavin’s excellent idea (with David Gerwin) of teaching history as mystery. The likely intended use for the book is for a Social Studies Methods course. The text, however, provides such a flood of ideas that it might be too much for students. Teachers who are a few years into the profession might benefit more from the teaching sections because they already have some idea of who they are as teachers. The best use of this text, therefore, might be as a handbook rather than a textbook. Working through all of it, even over the course of a semester, might feel overwhelming for students, and one wonders if they would come away feeling prepared or paralyzed.

The fifth edition also contains numerous references to the COVID-19 pandemic as a factor affecting approaches to teaching and learning. While it certainly was a major factor when the text was being revised, it feels less relevant as the years pass. By contrast, the text does not contain any references to artificial intelligence (AI) developments such as ChatGPT, because those innovations were not widely known as Zeavin was working on this fifth edition. While keeping the text up to date with contemporary concerns is a good way to connect with students, it can be difficult for authors to know what concerns are lasting and which are more restricted to a specific context. Zeavin would likely agree, it is a good reason to study history.
In 1940, the Teachers’ History Club at the University of Notre Dame created the “Quarterly Bulletin of the Teachers’ History Club” to improve the learning experience in the history classroom.

By 1967, the expanding collaboration of educators reorganized as the History Teachers’ Association and decided to transform the bulletin into an academic journal—The History Teacher.

In 1972, the association transferred guardianship of The History Teacher to coordinating faculty members at the Department of History at California State University, Long Beach. In the interest of independence and self-determination, the associated teachers incorporated as a non-profit organization.

The Society for History Education, Inc. (SHE) was recognized by the State of California in 1972.

In 2012, the Society began offering full-text, open access to recent archives of The History Teacher at its website, thehistoryteacher.org.

In 2014, The History Teacher launched its full-color covers feature, showcasing historical documents on both front and back covers, specifically designed to spark classroom discussion.

In 2021, The History Teacher entered its 55th Volume, and we ask you to join us in celebrating history teachers throughout the world and throughout time.

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