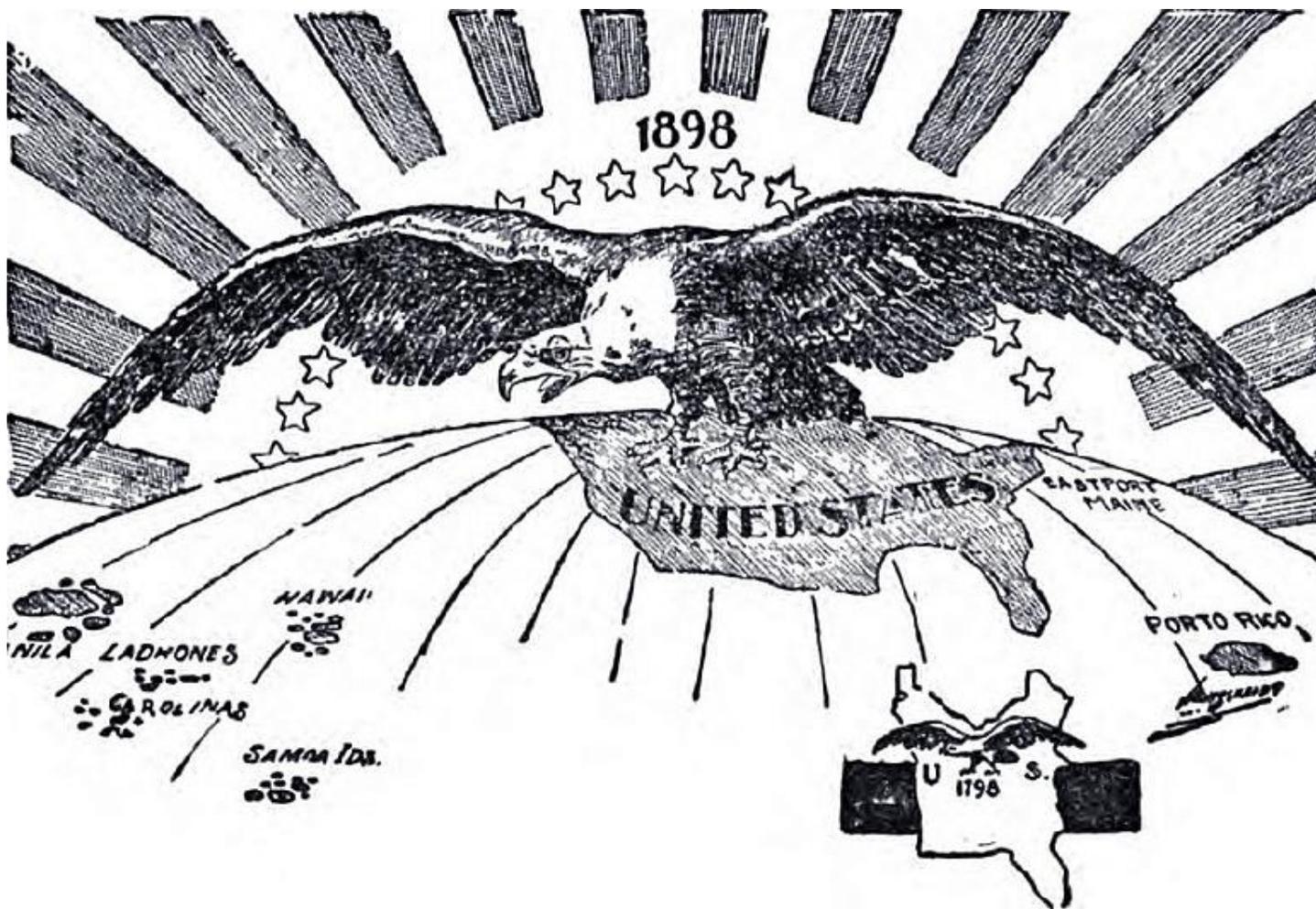


Is it Wrong to be Strong?



Ten thousand miles from tip to tip.—Philadelphia Press.

1898 cartoon "Ten Thousand Miles from Tip to Tip"

Supporting Questions

- SQ 1: How can war change the world?
- SQ 2: Taking a step in the right or wrong direction?
- SQ 3: Does strength also come with responsibility?
- SQ 4: A soft voice, or a threatening stick?

11th Grade United States History Inquiry

Is it Wrong to be Strong?	
Standards and Content	11.6 a In the late 1800s, various strategic and economic factors led to a greater focus on foreign affairs and debates over the United States’ role in the world.
Staging the Compelling Question	The staging of the compelling question will involve asking three open ended questions to the classroom: (1) what they think it means if a country is described as “strong”, (2) “what are the benefits of being strong?”, and have them discuss their answers as a class, (3) “what are the dangers of being too strong?”.

Supporting Question 1
How can war change the world?

Formative Performance Task

Students will use the resources provided to complete a four box chart in which they list information regarding the world before and after the Spanish American War, as well as the causes and immediate effects of the conflict. Afterwards, they must write a 2-paragraph response to the question “How did the Spanish American War change the world?”

Featured Sources

Source A: Kahn Academy webpage “Introduction to the age of empire”
Source B: Excerpt of Message to Congress

Supporting Question 2
Taking a step in the right or wrong direction?

Formative Performance Task

Students will be given a secondary source which details the expansion of the US within the Pacific and Caribbean. Then, they will be tasked with analyzing six political cartoons and for each primary source students must list: (1) What event, individual, or event is being represented, (2) Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism, (3) what evidence within the cartoon supports that claim, and (4) what message is the cartoonist trying to convey.

Featured Sources

Source A: Britannica webpage on the topic of American Imperialism
Source B: Political cartoon “Well I hardly know which to

Supporting Question 3
Does strength also come with responsibility?

Formative Performance Task

First students will state what how they believe a strong/powerful county should conduct itself, and whether or not they believe the US has met said expectation based on what they have learned in this inquiry. Students will utilize resources provided to see examples of US involvement/interference with countries located in South and Central America, as well as the pacific, and justification of these action. Using the information gathered, students must identify the actions taken and the justifications given. Students will end this task by making a claim as to whether or not the US has met, or failed to meet the expectations of a responsible powerful nation.

Featured Sources

Source A: Excerpt from Roosevelt’s Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine (1905)
Source B: Article in which

Supporting Question 4
A soft voice, or a threatening stick?

Formative Performance Task

Using primary and secondary sources provided within with portion of the inquiry, in addition to knowledge acquired in previous formative tasks, students must create their own newspaper article/post in which they discuss their support or opposition for the policies and actions of the Roosevelt administration, stating whether it has created a time of peace or of fear.

Featured Sources

Source A: Webpage - Roosevelt’s “Big Stick” Foreign Policy
Source B: Article “Former President Theodore

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<p>Requesting a Declaration of War With Spain (1898)</p> <p>Source C: News article “Right or Wrong; Our Country!” (1898)</p> <p>Source D: Political Cartoon “The duty of the hour” (1898)</p> <p>Source E: Library of Congress introduction article on the Spanish American War</p> <p>Source F: Treaty of Peace Between the United States and Spain (1898)</p> <p>Source G: News article “Treaty of Peace is Ratified” (1899)</p>	<p>take first!” (1898)</p> <p>Source C: Political cartoon “Fun for the boys” (1900)</p> <p>Source D: Political cartoon “School begins” (1899)</p> <p>Source E: Political cartoon “I rather like that imported affair” (1904)</p> <p>Source F: Political cartoon “Lesson for Anti-Expansionists” (1899)</p> <p>Source G: Political cartoon “And, After All, the Philippines are Only the Steppingstone to China” (1900)</p>	<p>Roosevelt discusses the Monroe Doctrine and its application in South America (1914)</p> <p>Source C: Webpage from TR Center about the Hay-Herran Treaty</p> <p>Source D: Political cartoon “The Coup d’etat.” (1903)</p> <p>Source E: Political cartoon “Open for Business” (1914)</p> <p>Source F: Webpage from Department of State “The Philippine-American War, 1899–1902”</p> <p>Source G: Secretary of War Taft’s defense of American rule in the Philippines – Excerpt (1904)</p>	<p>Roosevelt Recounts and Reflects on the World Cruise of the Great White Fleet” (1913)</p> <p>Source C: Political cartoon “Peace” (1905)</p> <p>Source D: Political cartoon “The World’s Constable” (1905)</p> <p>Source E: Political cartoon “Hands Off!” (1905)</p> <p>Source F: Political cartoon “As His Critics See Him”</p> <p>Source G: Political cartoon “Good offices” (1905)</p> <p>Source H: Political cartoon “The busy showman” (1906)</p>
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<p>Summative Performance Task</p>	<p>ARGUMENT: Using the information gathered over the course of the inquiry along with the primary and secondary sources within it, in addition to a minimum of five reliable outside sources, students must create an argumentative essay in which they take a stance on whether or not more harm or good came from the strength possessed by the United States during the end of the 19th and start of the 20th century.</p> <p>EXTENSION: If the opinion of the classroom is evenly divided (at least around 7/13) then the extension portion of this inquiry will be a debate held between each side in which students will be graded on the structure, clarity, and academic professionalism they display in addition to their argumentative essays. If the divide between stances taken by the students is inadequate for a debate, then students will present their findings through a medium of their choice [speech, PowerPoint, video presentation, etc]</p>
<p>Taking Informed Action</p>	<p>UNDERSTAND: After fulfilling the Formative and Summative Performance tasks, students should have a better understanding of the overall trends, justification, and consequences of US involvement/authority within the global world</p> <p>ASSESS: Students must select one modern example of our nation becoming involved (politically, socially, economically, or militarily) in the affairs of other nations [No more than 15 years ago]. Students must analyze the cause, effects, justification, and opposition to the US actions. Additionally, they must display how such involvement coincides, correlates, and or contradicts the policies of Theodore Roosevelt.</p> <p>ACT: Create some medium of displaying their findings and evidence based argument and making it publicly accessible either by submitting it to the school, local history center/site, or the Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site.</p>

**Featured sources are suggested and links are provided. It may be that these links are broken and we apologize in advance for the inconvenience.*

Overview

Inquiry Description

This inquiry leads students through an investigation of the increasing involvement of the United States within the political world and its involvement in the affairs of foreign nations within the Caribbean and the Pacific, over a time period which is considered as the time of American Imperialism

It is important to note that this inquiry requires prerequisite knowledge of key concepts within United States history such as Manifest Destiny, policies of isolationism, the Monroe Doctrine, and the rise of the United States as a major economically influential nation following the rapid growth brought about by the Industrial Revolution.

Note: This inquiry is expected to take between seven to twelve 50-minute class periods. One day should be dedicated to establishing or reviewing prerequisite knowledge for the inquiry and staging the compelling question. Each Formative Performance Task should take between one or two classes each, and the Summative Performance task can take up to two to three classes depending on the size of the classroom, presentation length, and how much time in class the teacher wishes to allow students to work on the assignment. The inquiry time frame could expand if teachers think their students need additional instructional experiences (e.g., supporting questions, formative performance tasks, featured sources, writing). Teachers are encouraged to adapt the inquiry to meet the needs and interests of their students. This inquiry lends itself to differentiation and modeling of historical thinking skills while assisting students in reading the variety of sources.

Structure of the Inquiry

In addressing the compelling question students will be taking a closer look into enduring challenges within United States that are generated by the difficult decision on what role the nation should have in the politics and affairs of the world, and to what degree it should be involved to fulfill this role. This inquiry provide students with an understanding of the time of American Imperialism, as well as how many of the trends of challenges established within this period persist into, and continue to shape, the United States in the modern world.

Staging the Compelling Question

In staging the compelling question, the teacher will ask three open ended questions to the classroom.

- First Question: Ask students what they think it means if a country is described as “strong”. Possible answers include possessing wealth from trade and production, owning several natural resources, having a high quality of living for its citizens, strong economy, having a healthy culture, and possessing a powerful military.
- Second Question: Have students answer the question “what are the benefits of being strong?”, and have them discuss their answers as a class. Anticipated answers for this question include a healthy culture, wealthy citizens, power to defend themselves and defeat enemies, being capable to address the various needs of its citizens, and being powerful enough to defend themselves and their allies in addition to defeating their enemies.
- Third Question: The final question that will be asked is “what are the dangers of being too strong?”. Answers may vary from student to student but the anticipated answer that should be sought after or guided towards is the risk that such power might drive a country to extend its influence over other countries, whether for personal gain or the belief that the other county will benefit from this influence, regardless of the wishes of the citizens and government of that other country.

With all that’s been discussed in mind, the questions stands: is it wrong to be strong? It is after this staging of the compelling question that students will be given the Is it Wrong to be Strong Note Packet which they will complete over the course of the inquiry.

Supporting Question 1

The first supporting question— How can war change the world?

The formative task is to have students use the provided primary and secondary sources to fill out a four-box chart at the start of the inquiry note packet given to them at the conclusion of staging the compelling question, using the information they gather. They must have at least four pieces of information recorded into each column by the end of this task. In the first box, they will list information regarding the world before the Spanish American War. The next two boxes are where students will record their findings on the cause and immediate effects of the Spanish American War, with the final box being where they will record the state of the world after the Spanish American War. After completing the column chart, students must then exhibit an understanding of the information gathered by writing a 2-paragraph response to the question “How did the Spanish American War change the world?”

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedure:

- Sourcing the documents so students identify the creator and purpose of the document/source
- Contextualizing and Close Reading Strategies
- Source Evaluation
- Image Analysis Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Silent Reading Strategies
- Collaboration with one or more students
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies

The scaffolds and other materials may be used to support students as they work with sources:

- Annotated text
- Inquiry Note Packet
- Lined paper for paragraph portion of the formative task

The following sources were selected to help students develop an understanding of the state of the world before and after the Spanish American War in order to grasp the significance the conflict had in shaping world politics in its aftermath. Additionally, the sources will provide students with the opportunity to analyze and assess the cause and effects of the Spanish American War.

- **Featured Source A:** Kahn Academy webpage “Introduction to the age of empire”
- **Featured Source B:** Excerpt of Message to Congress Requesting a Declaration of War With Spain (1898)
- **Featured Source C:** News article “Right or Wrong; Our Country!” (1898)
- **Featured Source D:** Political Cartoon “The duty of the hour” (1898)
- **Featured Source E:** Library of Congress introduction article on the Spanish American War
- **Featured Source F:** Treaty of Peace Between the United States and Spain (1898)
- **Featured Source G:** News article “Treaty of Peace is Ratified” (1899)

SQ1: Featured Source A

Introduction to the Age of Empire**The End of Isolationism**

... With an ocean separating it from the travails of Europe, the United States quietly developed into a vast and productive country as wars and famines and revolutions elsewhere brought immigrants to its shores. Taking Washington's advice to heart, the United States pursued a policy of isolationism, avoiding alliances and international intrigue as best it could.

But in the late nineteenth century all of that changed rapidly. In the space of just a few years, from 1898 to 1901, the United States went from being a former outpost of the British Empire to an imperial power in its own right, claiming territory or influence over no fewer than five islands outside its territorial boundaries (Cuba, Hawaii, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines)...

The Scramble for Colonies

One explanation for the United States' entry into the imperial game was peer pressure. Between 1870 and 1890, the industrial nations of Europe and Asia, particularly Great Britain, France, Germany, and Japan, scrambled to seize territory in the undeveloped world. With unmatched firepower and technology, these imperial powers divided Africa and Asia among themselves. Many in the United States feared that if America didn't join the race for empire, the great powers would leave it behind.

What was the point of having colonies? Like the system of mercantilism, under which the American colonies had sent raw materials to Great Britain and purchased finished goods in return, colonialism was a system designed to benefit the imperial power, usually at the expense of the colony. Colonies not only provided sources of valuable raw materials (diamonds, gold, timber, oil, rubber, and many others) for the imperial power, their populations served as markets for the industrial products made in the home country.

Markets were particularly important for the United States, which had emerged as the world's leading industrial power in the wake of the Gilded Age. Capitalism could only thrive and expand as long as people purchased the products of industry, and at the end of the nineteenth century, Americans were beginning to fear that new markets within the United States were drying up now that Manifest Destiny (the belief that God intended the United States to occupy the North American continent from Atlantic to Pacific) had been achieved. In 1893, eminent historian Frederick Jackson Turner declared that the American frontier was now closed, leading many to fear that the pioneering spirit central to the American identity was in jeopardy...

The United States Becomes an Empire

These questions were still unanswered when disturbing news came from Cuba, where guerrilla rebels were attempting to throw off the yoke of Spanish rule. After an American warship exploded in Havana harbor, the United States declared war on Spain. Spain was badly outmatched, and within six weeks the United States had triumphed in the Spanish-American War. In the process, they had acquired significant influence over Cuba, annexed Hawaii, and claimed Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines as territories.

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Not everyone was thrilled about the United States' new role as an imperial power. The irony that a former colony, which had once rebelled against a distant government across the ocean, was now governing distant peoples was not lost on contemporary observers. Others protested that imperialism would include people of "inferior" races in the American body politic. The Anti-Imperialist League, which included such diverse characters as steel magnate Andrew Carnegie and labor leader Samuel Gompers, protested the United States' new empire.

But many others saw these new territories as signs that the United States had come of age, and it was the duty of Americans to spread the light of civilization and democracy to the "backward" people of the world. Convinced of the superiority of people of Anglo-Saxon descent, these Americans saw it as the "white man's burden" (a phrase taken from a poem by the author and imperialist booster Rudyard Kipling) to govern and somehow uplift the people of Latin America and the Pacific—whether they wanted it or not.

“Introduction to the Age of Empire (Article).” Khan Academy. <https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/us-history/rise-to-world-power/age-of-empire/a/intro-to-age-of-empire>.

SQ1: Featured Source B

Message to Congress Requesting a Declaration of War With Spain

...The present revolution is but the successor of other similar insurrections which have occurred in Cuba against the dominion of Spain, extending over a period of nearly half a century, each of which during its progress has subjected the United States to great effort and expense in enforcing its neutrality laws, caused enormous losses to American trade and commerce, caused irritation, annoyance, and disturbance among our citizens, and, by the exercise of cruel, barbarous, and uncivilized practices of warfare, shocked the sensibilities and offended the humane sympathies of our people.

Since the present revolution began, in February, 1895, this country has seen the fertile domain at our threshold ravaged by fire and sword in the course of a struggle unequalled in the history of the island and rarely paralleled as to the numbers of the combatants and the bitterness of the contest by any revolution of modern times where a dependent people striving to be free have been opposed by the power of the sovereign state.

Our people have beheld a once prosperous community reduced to comparative want, its lucrative commerce virtually paralyzed, its exceptional productiveness diminished, its fields laid waste, its mills in ruins, and its people perishing by tens of thousands from hunger and destitution. We have found ourselves constrained, in the observance of that strict neutrality which our laws enjoin and which the law of nations commands, to police our own waters and watch our own seaports in prevention of any unlawful act in aid of the Cubans...

... In April, 1896, the evils from which our country suffered through the Cuban war became so onerous that my predecessor made an effort to bring about a peace through the mediation of this Government in any way that might tend to an honorable adjustment of the contest between Spain and her revolted colony, on the basis of some effective scheme of self-government for Cuba under the flag and sovereignty of Spain. It failed through the refusal of the Spanish government then in power to consider any form of mediation or, indeed, any plan of settlement which did not begin with the actual submission of the insurgents to the mother country, and then only on such terms as Spain herself might see fit to grant. The war continued unabated. The resistance of the insurgents was in no wise diminished...

... The war in Cuba is of such a nature that, short of subjugation or extermination, a final military victory for either side seems impracticable. The alternative lies in the physical exhaustion of the one or the other party, or perhaps both—a condition which in effect ended the ten years' war by the truce of Zanjón. The prospect of such a protraction and conclusion of the present strife is a contingency hardly to be contemplated with equanimity by the civilized world, and least of all by the United States, affected and injured as we are, deeply and intimately, by its very existence...

... The forcible intervention of the United States as a neutral to stop the war, according to the large dictates of humanity and following many historical precedents where neighboring states have interfered to check the hopeless sacrifices of life by internecine conflicts beyond their borders, is justifiable on rational grounds. It involves, however, hostile constraint upon both the parties to the contest, as well to enforce a truce as to guide the eventual settlement.

The grounds for such intervention may be briefly summarized as follows:

First. In the cause of humanity and to put an end to the barbarities, bloodshed, starvation, and horrible miseries now existing there, and which the parties to the conflict are either unable or unwilling to stop or mitigate. It is no answer to say this is all in another country, belonging to another nation, and is therefore none of our business. It is specially our duty, for it is right at our door.

Second. We owe it to our citizens in Cuba to afford them that protection and indemnity for life and property which no government there can or will afford, and to that end to terminate the conditions that deprive them of legal protection.

Third. The right to intervene may be justified by the very serious injury to the commerce, trade, and business of our people and by the wanton destruction of property and devastation of the island.

Fourth, and which is of the utmost importance. The present condition of affairs in Cuba is a constant menace to our peace and entails upon this Government an enormous expense. With such a conflict waged for years in an island so near us and with which our people have such trade and business relations; when the lives and liberty of our citizens are in constant danger and their property destroyed and themselves ruined; where our trading vessels are liable to seizure and are seized at our very door by war ships of a foreign nation; the expeditions of filibustering that we are powerless to prevent altogether, and the irritating questions and entanglements thus arising—all these and others that I need not mention, with the resulting strained relations, are a constant menace to our peace and compel us to keep on a semi war footing with a nation with which we are at peace...

William McKinley, Message to Congress Requesting a Declaration of War With Spain Online by Gerhard Peters and John T. Woolley, The American Presidency Project <https://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/node/304972>

SQ1: Featured Source C

The Breckenridge News.

Jno. D. and V. G. Babbage Editors

WEDNESDAY APRIL 27, 1898.

SIX PAGES.

"RIGHT OR WRONG, OUR COUNTRY!"

(Hon. Henry Watterson in Courier-Journal.)

It is now war—war between the United States and Spain; war between liberty and despotism; war between manhood and kingcraft; between humanity and barbarism; between the Twentieth century and the Twelfth.

There need be no further formal declaration. Other Powers may receive a conventional notification, but as between the combatants themselves war already exists and has been virtually declared. For from the moment that Spain, having been informed by Polo of our ultimatum, forbade its ceremonious presentation by notifying our Minister at Madrid that all civil relations between the two countries were severed, these two countries were, under the very terms of the ultimatum, at war. We had served notice that unless Spain complied with our demands within a specified time force would be employed to compel her to comply. Her refusal to even receive that demand from our representative, knowing its terms from her own, was an instantaneous ending of peaceful relations, to be inevitably followed by the movement of our ships upon Havana for the purpose of beginning, by the blockade of that port, the policy of armed intervention, of which we had given more than ample notice.

The first gun that sounds over the waters at Havana today shatters the last remnant on this hemisphere of an empire that was once the proudest of the earth. Four hundred years ago, after the Spanish caravels had opened a new world to the white man, Spain followed up their discoveries with conquest and colonization which, had her polity contained the seeds of life instead of death, would have made her still the dominant power of civilization. Two continents were in her grasp, and at one time she was mistress of a third. But her conquest was only for rapine, her colonization only for robbery, at home and abroad. She brought into her new possessions the same brutality, cruelty, cupidity and treachery upon which her European empire was founded. Her colonies could not remain her own because she herself had breathed into them the breath of poisonous sedition and self-destruction. Her emissaries served not Spain, but themselves. There has been a great deal said lately about Spanish patriotism, but Spanish patriotism has always been an easy victim when seduced by Spanish avarice. Where was there ever a Spanish army whose officers did not prey more upon their country than they harmed the enemy? Where was there ever a Spanish colony whose officials did not have one hand in the Treasury of the "Fatherland" and the other on the throat of its offspring? That was Spain then, and it is Spain now. And that is why from the mightiest power in Europe she has become almost the weakest; why when she might have been supreme in the two Americas, she has lost them both, piece by piece, until now Cuba, her last remnant and her last stay, falls from her decrepit grasp.

Spain's action in dismissing Minister Woodford upon the presentation of our ultimatum was entirely characteristic of Spanish statesmanship and of a piece with the silly cunning of her recent diplomacy. It was, and yet it was more than, the action of a nation which confronts a momentous situation with the pert passion of a spoiled child, or the frivolous vanity of a vain woman who feels it incumbent upon her to resent an "insult." It was more than that because it was a continuation of the shallow trickery by which Spain, with the shrewdness of the ostrich, has sought to win the game of diplomacy which we considerably allowed her an opportunity to play. It was another one of the series of tricks which number the revocation of the order of concentration after it had been refused us, and the suspension of hostility at the behest of the Pope after it had been denied us, and after it was too late to affect our course. But it ended her game of trickery. That is now played out. The fifth ace is no longer up the sleeve; it is the gun which is now drawn by the quickest and steadiest hand over the scattered cards of the blackleg. The game of trickery is over; the measure of might has begun. If Spain can play war as she plays cards she will win; if this war can be won by the torpedo of the sneak, by the stiletto of the assassin, by the mine of the traitor, Spain may win; but as it is a war that is to be fought on one side by soldiers against tricksters, by Anglo-Saxons against Latins, by the best guns and the best gunners, by men against monkeys—may the Lord and Davy Jones have mercy on the nation that has never shown mercy.

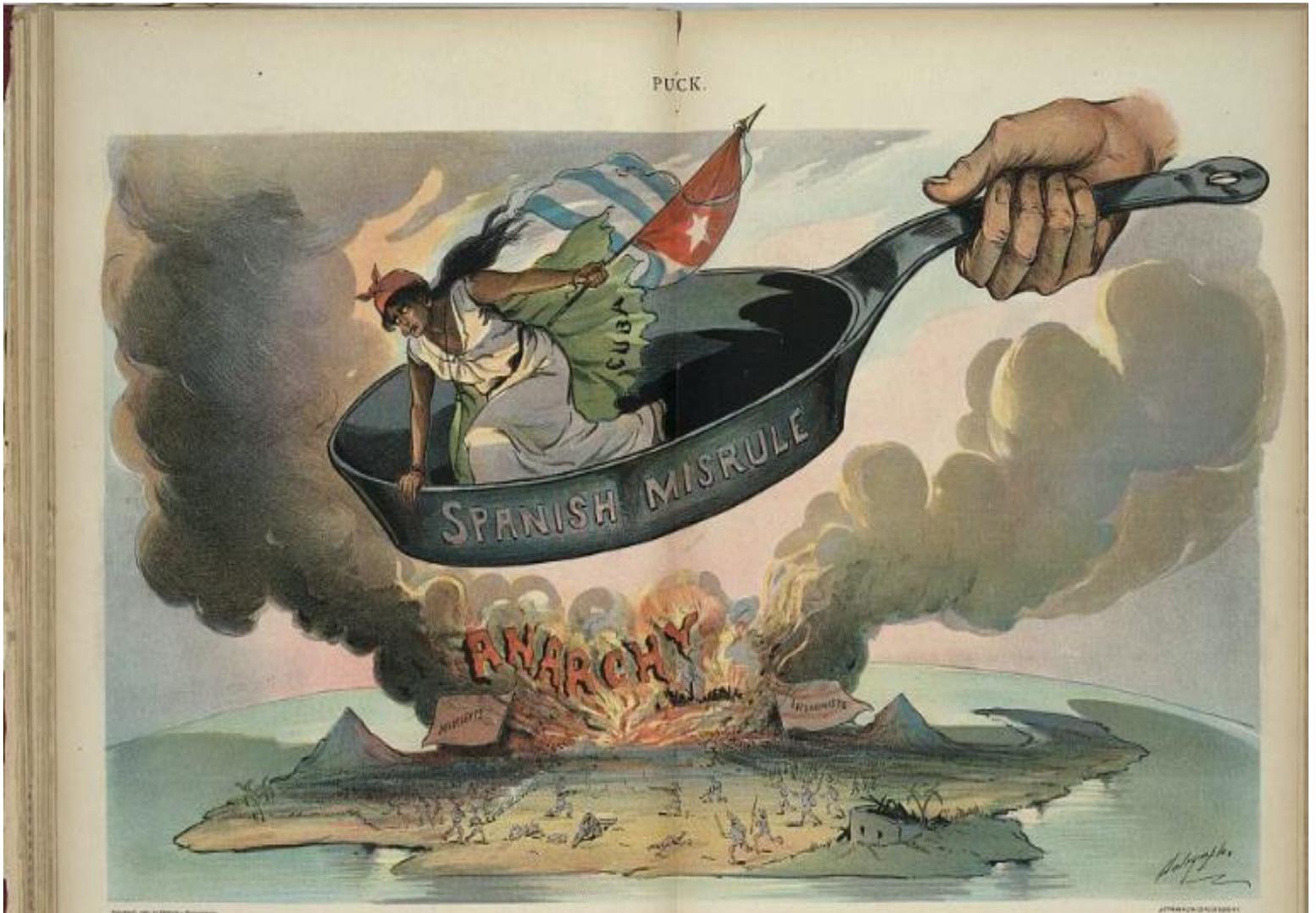
The Courier-Journal does not propose here to defend the right of the war which began yesterday. We have set forth that right so fully in recent issues that it would be needless repetition now to reiterate it. The American who yet doubts that right, or to whom it is obscure, is lacking in knowledge of his country's history and destiny, if not blunted as to his moral and humane sensibilities. But the war is an actuality now; the time for ethical hair-splitting is gone. It is a war which in the eyes of God and man we are waging for God and man. And whether every American sees it with such eyes, he must see it now with the eyes of him who proclaimed: "May she always be right, but right or wrong, our country!" It is our country, right or wrong, and every one of our countrymen worthy of a country is with her. We are all for the war now, whatever we may have been forty-eight hours ago. We are for its wise conduct, its vigorous prosecution, its quick and glorious conclusion. Bickerings and cavillings are swept away, factions and divisions are closed up. We are Americans all, for America against the world; ready with our substance, with our service, with our lives, to answer to any call our country may make upon us.

The Breckenridge news. (Hardinsburg, KY), Apr. 27 1898. <https://www.loc.gov/item/sn86069309/1898-04-27/ed-1/>.

SQ1: Featured Source D

The Duty of the Hour; - to save her not only from Spain, but from a worse fate

Background: Print shows a female figure labeled "Cuba" holding the Cuban flag, caught in a frying pan labeled "Spanish Misrule" that is being held above flames labeled "Anarchy" raging between fighting factions labeled "Insurgents" on the left and "Autonomists" on the right, on the island of Cuba.



Dalrymple, Louis, Artist. The duty of the hour; - to save her not only from Spain, but from a worse fate / Dalrymple. Cuba, 1898. N.Y.: Published by Keppler & Schwarzmann. Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2012647563/>.

SQ1: Featured Source E

[World of 1898: International Perspectives on the Spanish American War – Introduction](#)

On April 25, 1898 the United States declared war on Spain following the sinking of the Battleship Maine in Havana harbor on February 15, 1898. The war ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris on December 10, 1898. As a result, Spain lost its control over the remains of its overseas empire -- Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines Islands, Guam, and other islands.

Beginning in 1492, Spain was the first European nation to sail westward across the Atlantic Ocean, explore, and colonize the Amerindian nations of the Western Hemisphere. At its greatest extent, the empire that resulted from this exploration extended from Virginia on the eastern coast of the United States south to Tierra del Fuego at the tip of South America excluding Brazil and westward to California and Alaska. Across the Pacific, it included the Philippines and other island groups. By 1825 much of this empire had fallen into other hands and in that year, Spain acknowledged the independence of its possessions in the present-day United States (then under Mexican control) and south to the tip of South America. The only remnants that remained in the empire in the Western Hemisphere were Cuba and Puerto Rico and across the Pacific in Philippines Islands, and the Carolina, Marshall, and Mariana Islands (including Guam) in Micronesia.

The War

Following its declaration of war against Spain issued on April 25, 1898, the United States added the Teller Amendment asserting that it would not attempt to exercise hegemony over Cuba. Two days later Commodore George Dewey sailed from Hong Kong with Emilio Aguinaldo on board. Fighting began in the Philippines Islands at the Battle of Manila Bay on May 1 where Commodore George Dewey reportedly exclaimed, "You may fire when ready, Gridley," and the Spanish fleet under Rear Admiral Patricio Montojo was destroyed. However, Dewey did not have enough manpower to capture Manila so Aguinaldo's guerrillas maintained their operations until 15,000 U.S. troops arrived at the end of July. On the way, the cruiser Charleston stopped at Guam and accepted its surrender from its Spanish governor who was unaware his nation was at war. Although a peace protocol was signed by the two belligerents on August 12, Commodore Dewey and Maj. Gen. Wesley Merritt, leader of the army troops, assaulted Manila the very next day, unaware that peace had been declared.

In late April, Andrew Summers Rowan made contact with Cuban General Calixto García who supplied him with maps, intelligence, and a core of rebel officers to coordinate U.S. efforts on the island. The U.S. North Atlantic Squadron left Key West for Cuba on April 22 following the frightening news that the Spanish home fleet commanded by Admiral Pascual Cervera had left Cadiz and entered Santiago, having slipped by U.S. ships commanded by William T. Sampson and Winfield Scott Schley. They arrived in Cuba in late May.

War actually began for the U.S. in Cuba in June when the Marines captured Guantánamo Bay and 17,000 troops landed at Siboney and Daiquirí, east of Santiago de Cuba, the second largest city on the island. At that time Spanish troops stationed on the island included 150,000 regulars and 40,000 irregulars and volunteers while rebels inside Cuba numbered as many as 50,000. Total U.S. army strength at the time totalled 26,000, requiring the passage of the Mobilization Act of April 22 that allowed for an army of at first 125,000 volunteers (later increased to 200,000) and a regular army of 65,000. On June 22, U.S. troops landed at Daiquiri where they were joined by Calixto García and about 5,000 revolutionaries.

U.S. troops attacked the San Juan heights on July 1, 1898. Dismounted troopers, including the African-American Ninth and Tenth cavalries and the Rough Riders commanded by Lt. Col. Theodore Roosevelt went up against Kettle Hill while the forces led by Brigadier General Jacob Kent charged up San Juan Hill and pushed Spanish troops further inland while inflicting 1,700 casualties. While U.S. commanders were deciding on a further course of action, Admiral Cervera left port only to be defeated by Schley. On July 16, the Spaniards agreed to the unconditional surrender of the 23,500 troops around the city. A few days later, Major General Nelson Miles sailed from Guantánamo to Puerto Rico. His forces landed near Ponce and marched to San Juan with virtually no opposition.

Representatives of Spain and the United States signed a peace treaty in Paris on December 10, 1898, which established the independence of Cuba, ceded Puerto Rico and Guam to the United States, and allowed the victorious power to purchase the Philippines Islands from Spain for \$20 million. The war had cost the United States \$250 million and 3,000 lives, of whom 90% had perished from infectious diseases.

“Research Guides: World of 1898: International Perspectives on the Spanish American War: Introduction.” Introduction - World of 1898: International Perspectives on the Spanish American War - Research Guides at Library of Congress. Accessed December 12, 2023. <https://guides.loc.gov/world-of-1898#:~:text=Representatives%20of%20Spain%20and%20the,from%20Spain%20for%20%2420%20million.>

SQ1: Featured Source F

Treaty of Peace Between the United States and Spain; December 10, 1898

Article I. Spain relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba. And as the island is, upon its evacuation by Spain, to be occupied by the United States, the United States will, so long as such occupation shall last, assume and discharge the obligations that may under international law result from the fact of its occupation, for the protection of life and property.

Article II. Spain cedes to the United States the island of Porto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies, and the island of Guam in the Marianas or Ladrones.

Article III. Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands, and comprehending the islands lying within the following line:..

Article IV. The United States will, for the term of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the ports of the Philippine Islands on the same terms as ships and merchandise of the United States.

Article V. The United States will, upon the signature of the present treaty, send back to Spain, at its own cost, the Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war on the capture of Manila by the American forces. The arms of the soldiers in question shall be restored to them.

Spain will, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, proceed to evacuate the Philippines, as well as the island of Guam, on terms similar to those agreed upon by the Commissioners appointed to arrange for the evacuation of Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, under the Protocol of August 12, 1898, which is to continue in force till its provisions are completely executed....

Article VI. Spain will, upon the signature of the present treaty, release all prisoners of war, and all persons detained or imprisoned for political offences, in connection with the insurrections in Cuba and the Philippines and the war with the United States.

Reciprocally, the United States will release all persons made prisoners of war by the American forces, and will undertake to obtain the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines...

Article VII. The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of either Government, or of its citizens or subjects, against the other Government, that may have arisen since the beginning of the late insurrection in Cuba and prior to the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, including all claims for indemnity for the cost of the war...

Article VIII. In conformity with the provisions of Articles I, II, and III of this treaty, Spain relinquishes in Cuba, and cedes in Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, in the island of Guam, and in the Philippine Archipelago, all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, structures, public highways and other immovable property which, in conformity with law, belong to the public domain, and as such belong to the Crown of Spain....

Article IX. Spanish subjects, natives of the Peninsula, residing in the territory over which Spain by the present treaty relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, may remain in such territory or may remove therefrom, retaining in

either event all their rights of property, including the right to sell or dispose of such property or of its proceeds; and they shall also have the right to carry on their industry, commerce and professions, being subject in respect thereof to such laws as are applicable to other foreigners. In case they remain in the territory they may preserve their allegiance to the Crown of Spain by making, before a court of record, within a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, a declaration of their decision to preserve such allegiance; in default of which declaration they shall be held to have renounced it and to have adopted the nationality of the territory in which they may reside...

Article X. The inhabitants of the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be secured in the free exercise of their religion.

Article XI. The Spaniards residing in the territories over which Spain by this treaty cedes or relinquishes her sovereignty shall be subject in matters civil as well as criminal to the jurisdiction of the courts of the country wherein they reside, pursuant to the ordinary laws governing the same; and they shall have the right to appear before such courts, and to pursue the same course as citizens of the country to which the courts belong.

Article XII. Judicial proceedings pending at the time of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty in the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be determined according to the following rules...

Article XIII. The rights of property secured by copyrights and patents acquired by Spaniards in the Island of Cuba and in Porto Rico, the Philippines and other ceded territories, at the time of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, shall continue to be respected. Spanish scientific, literary and artistic works, not subversive of public order in the territories in question, shall continue to be admitted free of duty into such territories, for the period of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

Article XIV. Spain will have the power to establish consular officers in the ports and places of the territories, the sovereignty over which has been either relinquished or ceded by the present treaty.

Article XV. The Government of each country will, for the term of ten years, accord to the merchant vessels of the other country the same treatment in respect of all port charges, including entrance and clearance dues, light dues, and tonnage duties, as it accords to its own merchant vessels, not engaged in the coastwise trade.

Article XVI. It is understood that any obligations assumed in this treaty by the United States with respect to Cuba are limited to the time of its occupancy thereof; but it will upon termination of such occupancy, advise any Government established in the island to assume the same obligations.

Article XVII. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

“Treaty of Peace Between the United States and Spain; December 10, 1898.” Avalon Project - Treaty of peace between the United States and Spain; December 10, 1898. Accessed December 12, 2023.

https://avalon.law.yale.edu/19th_century/sp1898.asp.

TREATY OF PEACE IS RATIFIED

Carried by Just One More
Vote Than Necessary
Two-Thirds.

Several Senators Won Over by
the Clash With the Followers
of Aguinaldo.

Special Dispatch to The Call.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 6.—It was stated to-day by a prominent caller at the White House that those Senators who were regarded as doubtful in their attitude on the ratification of the peace treaty had been assured this morning that the intention of the Administration regarding the Philippines did not contemplate a colonial policy. On the other hand, it was stated, and the declaration was given as having the very highest official sanction, that the United States intended to simply establish a temporary protectorate over the islands, precisely similar to that in Cuba, and aid the people in establishing a free government of their own, only retaining a coaling station, securing such commercial advantages that might be just under the circumstances and arranging for the repayment of the \$20,000,000 to be paid by the United States to Spain in accordance with the treaty of Paris.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 6.—The treaty of peace negotiated by the Commissioners of the United States and Spain at Paris was to-day ratified by the Senate, the vote being 57 ayes to 27 noes, or one vote more than the two-thirds majority necessary to secure Senatorial concurrence in a treaty document.

The vote was taken in executive session, and until the injunction of secrecy was removed the result was supposed to be private; but the Vice-President had no more than announced the figures before Senators rushed out of every door leading from the Senate chamber declaring that the treaty had been ratified. Some made the mistake of stating that there were three votes to spare.

There was, in fact, only one vote more than was necessary—the balloting resulted 57 ayes to 27 noes.

No vote has been taken in the Senate since that of the repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman law that has been followed with as close interest as was the vote of to-day. This anxiety was due not only to the magnitude of the question at issue, but to the uncertainty which attended the matter up to the last moment. Only the select few knew how Senators McKenry of Louisiana and Senator Jones of Nevada would vote half an hour before their votes were cast, and not even these knew when the bells rang for the executive session at a quarter past 2 o'clock.

Many of the vast throng which was turned from the galleries after the doors were closed in response to Senator Davis' motion lingered in the corridors, all waiting eagerly for the first news from inside. It was generally understood that the first forty-five minutes was to be given to speech making, but the crowd apparently was prepared for this delay.

Within the chamber the interest was even more intense. Very few Senators left the chamber, except those engaged in the cloak rooms in trying on the one side to gain votes for the treaty and the other to prevent a break in the ranks. Senators Aldrich, Lodge and Atkins, who have given their especial attention to securing the necessary votes to insure ratification, were doubtful of the result when the secret session began, while Senators Gorman and Jones, the leaders of the opposition, considered their forces intact. Half an hour afterward it was whispered about that Senator McKenry had been won over on condition that his declaratory resolution should be adopted subsequent to the passage of the ratification resolution. When this news was confirmed it was known that ratification was assured, for Senator McLaurin had already announced his intention to vote for the treaty in view of the condition of affairs at Manila. Senator Jones went over at the last moment, making the one vote more than was necessary. There was no applause when the result was announced, but many Senators heaved a sigh of relief, and rushed from the chamber to give the news to the waiting world.

In advance of the voting speeches were made by Senators Ross, Money and Fairbanks. Senator Stewart, who had just arrived from his successful campaign in Nevada for re-election, announced informally during this period of the session that in his entire trip across the continent he had not encountered one man who was opposed to the ratification of the treaty.

Senator Ross read a brief written speech announcing his intention to support the treaty as in the interest of peace. He entered somewhat into the legal questions involved, saying that he saw no obstacle in the way of ratification from that source.

Senator Money reiterated his opposition to the treaty and made a last plea for a modification of the agreement. He asserted that if the friends of the treaty had agreed to a modifying resolution the vote could have been secured much sooner and as it would have carried assurance of pacific intentions on the part of this Government it would have prevented the hostile conflict at Manila.

Senator Teller here interrupted the Mississippi Senator and there was quite a lively exchange of words. Teller announced his belief that the opposition to the treaty was responsible for the Manila battle and Money declared this view to be absurd.

Fairbanks spoke at some length, his speech being the first he had made since the debate began. He made an appeal for unanimity of action, in order that the country might present a harmonious front to the outside world in dealing with so important a question. He said that no partisan political advantage could possibly be claimed by any one in the ratification, and held out

the view that solid support of the administration would be of vast advantage to the administration in the present crisis. In this connection he referred to the opening of hostilities at Manila and expressed the view that the ratification of the treaty would do much to prevent further bloodshed and restore quiet.

"Let us," said he, "ratify the treaty and then settle our differences concerning the question of expansion afterward. Those questions can wait, but the emergency is too great for any postponement whatever on the ratification question."

Promptly at 3 o'clock the Vice President interrupted Senator Money, who was then speaking, to announce that the hour had arrived for a vote.

But one amendment was offered—that proposed by Senator Vest, placing the Philippines on the same footing as Cuba in this treaty. In the temporary absence of Vest it was presented by Gorman. This amendment was as follows:

Article III—Strike out the words, "Cedes to the United States," and insert in lieu thereof the words, "Relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to."

Add at the end of article III the following: "The United States desiring that the people of the archipelago shall be enabled to establish a form of free government suitable to their condition and securing the rights of life, liberty and property and the preservation of order and equal right therein assumes for the time being and to the end aforesaid the control of the archipelago, so far as such control shall be needful for the purposes above stated, and will provide that the privileges accorded to Spain by articles IV and V of this treaty shall be enjoyed."

In line 2, article VIII, after the word "Cuba," insert the words, "and the Philippine archipelago." In line 3 of the same article, after the word "Indies" insert "and." In lines 3 and 4 of the same article, strike out the words "and in the Philippine archipelago."

In article IX strike out lines 171, 172 and 173. In line 2 of article XIII, after the word "Cuba," insert the words "the Philippines." In line 3 of the same article strike out the words "the Philippines."

The vote defeating the amendment stood 39—53.

The voting on this amendment proceeded quietly and as all the Senators were present it was soon disposed of. The votes of Senators were closely scanned for pointers on the approaching vote on the treaty itself. The only vote considered as at all significant of a change favorable to the treaty was that of McEnery, who voted against the amendment. Senator Jones of Nevada, McLaurin and Kenney voted for it.

The vote was immediately announced and pages were sent scurrying through the corridors to announce to the few Senators who were not in their seats that the culminating event had arrived. The call proceeded quietly until the name of Senator McLaurin was announced. He created the first stir of the occasion by a speech in explanation of his vote for the treaty. This was the initial break in the ranks of the opposition. McLaurin made a brief statement in explanation of his change of position, giving the open hostilities in Manila as the reason for it.

"I am as I have been from the first," said he, "irrevocably opposed to the expansion of our territory and should have voted against ratification but for the news that has come to us over the cable in the past two days."

He then went on to say that the attack upon our troops had brought about a new condition of affairs, and that he should vote for the treaty.

This announcement created a hubbub of excitement, for while some Senators were informed that he had decided upon a change there were many who were not in possession of this information. This announcement brought some of the opposition to his side with remonstrances, but he replied to them that he could not any longer see his way clear to cast his vote against the treaty.

Continuing his remarks to the Senate he referred to Senator Fairbanks' appeal to support the administration as an assurance that the critical condition existing at Manila could be more easily handled if the treaty should be ratified. He, for one, was not willing to embarrass the Government at so critical a time. If, after the ratification, the administration should fail to pursue the proper course toward the islands, the fault would be that of the Government and not his, and he would not be justified in committing an unwise act by any apprehension that the administration would not do all that it should do. He also referred to the agreement to pass the McEnery resolution as a pledge against expansion. In view of this promise and in the hope that ratification would lessen bloodshed in the Philippines he would, therefore, he said, cast his vote in the affirmative.

He had hardly concluded when McEnery approached with words of congratulation, saying that he had decided upon the same course. The Louisiana Senator made a speech of explanation to the Senate, publicly announcing himself only by means of his vote.

Jones of Nevada did not vote on the first rollcall, but came from the cloak-

room before the vote was announced, and by unanimous consent made a brief and feeling speech. He said that he was against expansion, and if he thought the ratification of the treaty meant expansion he would not vote for it, as he considered a policy of expansion would prove the ruin of the country. The events in Manila during the past two or three days, in his judgment were likely to do more to discourage expansion than anything that had happened, but had at the same time produced a crisis which made the ratification of the treaty necessary. He considered it a patriotic duty to vote for the treaty and consequently cast his vote in the affirmative.

With Jones' vote added the rollcall stood as follows:

Ayes—Aldrich, Allen, Allison, Baker, Burrows, Butler, Carter, Chandler, Clark, Clay, Cullom, Davis, Deboe, Elkins, Fairbanks, Faulkner, Foraker, Frye, Gallinger, Gear, Gray, Hanna, Hansbrough, Harris, Hawley, Jones (Nevada), Kenny, Kyle, Lindsay, Lodge, McBride, McEnery, McLaurin, McMillin, Mantle, Mason, Morgan, Nelson, Penrose, Perkins, Pettus, Platt (Connecticut), Platt (New York), Pritchard, Quay, Ross, Sewell, Shoup, Simon, Spooner, Stewart, Sullivan, Teller, Thurston, Warren, Wellington, Wolcott—57.

Noes—Bacon, Bate, Berry, Caffery, Chilton, Cockrell, Daniel, Gorman, Hale, Heitfeld, Hoar, Jones (Arkansas), Mallory, Martin, Mills, Mitchell, Money, Murphy, Pascoe, Pettigrew, Rawlins, Roach, Smith, Tillman, Turley, Turner, Vest—27.

Absent and paired: Cannon and Wilson for, with White against, and Proctor and Wetmore for, with Turple against.

On the motion of Senator Davis, it was then ordered that the aye and no vote be made public, and soon afterward the doors opened and the Senate proceeded with legislative business, attempting to pass the McEnery declaratory resolution as per promise to that Senator.

News of the ratification of the treaty

reached the White House almost immediately after the announcement of the vote. Postmaster General Smith was with the President, and was the first to congratulate him.

Naturally the President was gratified at the vote, and so expressed himself. Secretary Gage came in soon afterward, and was followed almost immediately by Secretary Alger and Secretary Hay. Within forty minutes after its ratification General Cox, the secretary of the Senate, appeared with the treaty itself, which he promptly delivered into the President's hands and then retired.

The Cabinet members as they left the White House were jubilant over the ratification of the treaty, and spoke of it as a great triumph. Secretary Hay expressed his gratification that the treaty was ratified, and said he only regretted that it had been found necessary to occupy so much valuable time in doing it. He said that the treaty would now be submitted to the Spanish Cortes at the session which opens this month, and he anticipated no obstruction in that direction to the final exchanges.

Secretary Long said: "I am glad the treaty is ratified—glad from the standpoint of the anti-imperialist as well as from any other. The very height of imperialism is to have these islands now under the control of one man exercising an absolute military authority. The ratification of the treaty transfers the disposition of these islands to the American people, who, through their representatives, can give them self-government or make any other disposition of them that our own principles of government and ideas of national welfare require."

Secretary Alger thought that the confirmation of the victory at Manila, together with the ratification of the peace treaty, was sufficient to make the day memorable. He spoke of the perils of

the position the American troops have occupied for so many months, while the fate of the peace treaty was at issue, and said he was only too pleased now that these troops were free to protect themselves.

The San Francisco call. [volume] (San Francisco [Calif.]), 07 Feb. 1899. Chronicling America: Historic American Newspapers. Lib. of Congress. <https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85066387/1899-02-07/ed-1/seq-3/>

Supporting Question 2

The second supporting question— Taking a step in the right or wrong direction?

For this formative task, students will be given secondary source which detail the expansion of the US within the Pacific and Caribbean. The next set of documents students will interact with for this task are a series of pro and anti-imperialism political cartoons, with there being six in total. For each document students must list:

- (1) What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political
- (2) Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism
- (3) What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.
- (4) What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

Students will record their answers within the inquiry note packet given to them at the start of the inquiry.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Sourcing the documents so students identify the creator and purpose of the document/source
- Source Evaluation
- Image Analysis Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies

The scaffolds and other materials may be used to support students as they work with sources:

- Annotated text
- Inquiry Note Packet

The following sources were selected to introduce students to key events that transpired over the course of the time of American Imperialism, as well as give them the opportunity to analyze primary sources which convey the justifications and denouncing of such actions/events generated from within the United States.

- **Featured Source A:** Britannica webpage on the topic of American Imperialism
- **Featured Source B:** Political cartoon “Well I hardly know which to take first!” (1898)
- **Featured Source C:** Political cartoon “Fun for the boys” (1900)
- **Featured Source D:** Political cartoon “School begins” (1899)
- **Featured Source E:** Political cartoon “I rather like that imported affair” (1904)
- **Featured Source F:** Political cartoon “Lesson for Anti-Expansionists” (1899)
- **Featured Source G:** Political cartoon “And, After All, the Philippines are Only the Steppingstone to China” (1900)

SQ2: Featured Source A

[Britannica Webpage – The Progressive Era](#)**The New American Empire**

... By the so-called Teller Amendment to the war resolution, Congress had declared that the United States would not annex Cuba. This pledge was kept, although Cuba was forced in 1903 to sign a treaty making it virtually a protectorate of the United States. The Hawaiian Islands, annexed by Congress on July 7, 1898, were made a territory in 1900 and were hence, technically, only briefly part of the American empire. Puerto Rico was given limited self-government in 1900, and the Jones Act of 1917 conferred full territorial status on the island, gave U.S. citizenship to its inhabitants, and limited its self-government only by the veto of a governor appointed by the president of the United States. Establishing any kind of government in the Philippines was much more difficult because a large band of Filipinos resisted American rule as bravely as they had fought the Spanish. The Philippine insurrection was over by 1901, however, and the Philippine Government Act of 1902 inaugurated the beginning of partial self-government, which was transformed into almost complete home rule by the Jones Act of 1916.

The Open Door in the Far East

Although Americans were reluctant imperialists, the United States was an important Pacific power after 1898, and American businessmen had inflated ambitions to tap what they thought was the huge Chinese market. The doors to that market were being rapidly closed in the 1890s, however, as Britain, France, Russia, and Japan carved out large so-called spheres of influence all the way from Manchuria to southern China. With Britain's support (the British stood to gain the most from equal trade opportunities), on September 6, 1899, Secretary of State Hay addressed the first so-called Open Door note to the powers with interests in China; it asked them to accord equal trade and investment opportunities to all nationals in their spheres of interest and leased territories. With considerable bravado, Hay announced that all the powers had agreed to respect the Open Door, even though the Russians had declined to give any pledges. On July 3, 1900, after the Boxer Rebellion—an uprising in China against foreign influence—Hay circulated a second Open Door note announcing that it was American policy to preserve Chinese territorial and political integrity.

Such pronouncements had little effect because the United States was not prepared to support the Open Door policy with force; successive administrations to the 1940s, however, considered it the cornerstone of their Far Eastern policy. Pres. Theodore Roosevelt reluctantly mediated the Russo-Japanese War in 1905 in part to protect the Open Door as well as to maintain a balance of power in the Far East. When Japan attempted in 1915 to force a virtual protectorate on China, Pres. Woodrow Wilson intervened sternly and in some measure successfully to protect Chinese independence. Victory for American policy seemed to come with the Nine-Power Treaty of Washington of 1922, when all nations with interests in China promised to respect the Open Door.

Building the Panama Canal and American domination in the Caribbean

Strategic necessity and the desire of Eastern businessmen to have easy access to Pacific markets combined in the late 1890s to convince the president, Congress, and a vast majority of Americans that an isthmian canal linking the Atlantic and Pacific oceans was vital to national security and prosperity. In the Hay–Pauncefote Treaty of 1901, the British government gave up the rights to joint construction with the United States that it had gained under the

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Clayton–Bulwer Treaty of 1850. A French company, which had tried unsuccessfully to dig a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, was eager to sell its right-of-way to the United States. Thus, the only obstacle to the project was the government of Colombia, which owned Panama. When Colombia was slow to cooperate, Roosevelt, in 1903, covertly supported a Panamanian revolution engineered by officials of the French company. A treaty was quickly negotiated between the United States and the new Republic of Panama; construction began, and the canal was opened to shipping on August 15, 1914.

Concern over what Americans regarded increasingly as their “lifeline” increased in proportion to progress in the construction of the canal. An early manifestation of that concern came in 1902–03, when Britain, Germany, and Italy blockaded Venezuela to force the payment of debts, and particularly when the Germans bombarded and destroyed a Venezuelan town; so agitated was American opinion that Roosevelt used a veiled threat to force Germany to accept arbitration of the debt question by the Hague Court. When the Dominican Republic defaulted on its foreign debt to several European countries in 1904, Roosevelt quickly established an American receivership of the Dominican customs in order to collect the revenues to meet the country’s debt payments. Moreover, in his annual message to Congress of 1904, the president announced a new Latin-American policy, soon called the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine—because the Monroe Doctrine forbade European use of force in the New World, the United States would itself take whatever action necessary to guarantee that Latin-American states gave no cause for such European intervention. It was, in fact, a considerable extension of the Monroe Doctrine, not a correct historical interpretation of it, but it remained the cornerstone of American policy in the Caribbean at least until 1928.

Actually, Roosevelt was reluctant to interfere in the domestic affairs of neighbouring states; his one significant intervention after 1904—the administration of the Cuban government from 1906 to 1909—was undertaken in order to prevent civil war and at the insistence of Cuban authorities. Roosevelt’s successor, however, William Howard Taft (see U.S. presidential election of 1908), had more ambitious plans to guarantee American hegemony in the approaches to the Panama Canal. Adopting a policy called Dollar Diplomacy, Taft hoped to persuade American private bankers to displace European creditors in the Caribbean area and thereby to increase American influence and encourage stability in countries prone to revolution. Dollar Diplomacy was a total failure; its one result was to involve the United States in a civil war in Nicaragua with the effect of perpetuating a reactionary and unpopular regime. (Similar initiatives by the Taft administration in the Far East—most notably a plan for the internationalization of the railroads of Manchuria—also failed.)...

“The New American Empire.” Encyclopædia Britannica. <https://www.britannica.com/place/United-States/The-new-American-empire>.

SQ2: Featured Source B

Well, I Hardly Know Which to Take First!

Background: Uncle Sam seated in restaurant looking at bill of fare containing "Cuba steak," "Porto [i.e. Puerto] Rico pig," etc. and talking to waiter "McKinley."



Well, I hardly know which to take first!. , 1898. Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/96512090/>.

SQ2: Featured Source C

Fun For the Boys

Background: The text on the wall reads, "Declaration of Dependence. We bought the Filipinos for \$20,000.00. Therefore, we hold these lies to be self-evident that all brown men are created unequal; that they are endowed, by their buyers with certain unalienable wrongs that among these are death, captivity, and pursuit. That to secure these wrongs, governments are instituted among Filipinos deriving their just powers from the consent of the undersigned. Old Daddy Washington is a has-been. Me, Mac, and Teddy."



"FUN FOR THE BOYS." 1

Life, Life Publishing Company, New York, August 23, 1900
 [artist: William Bengough]

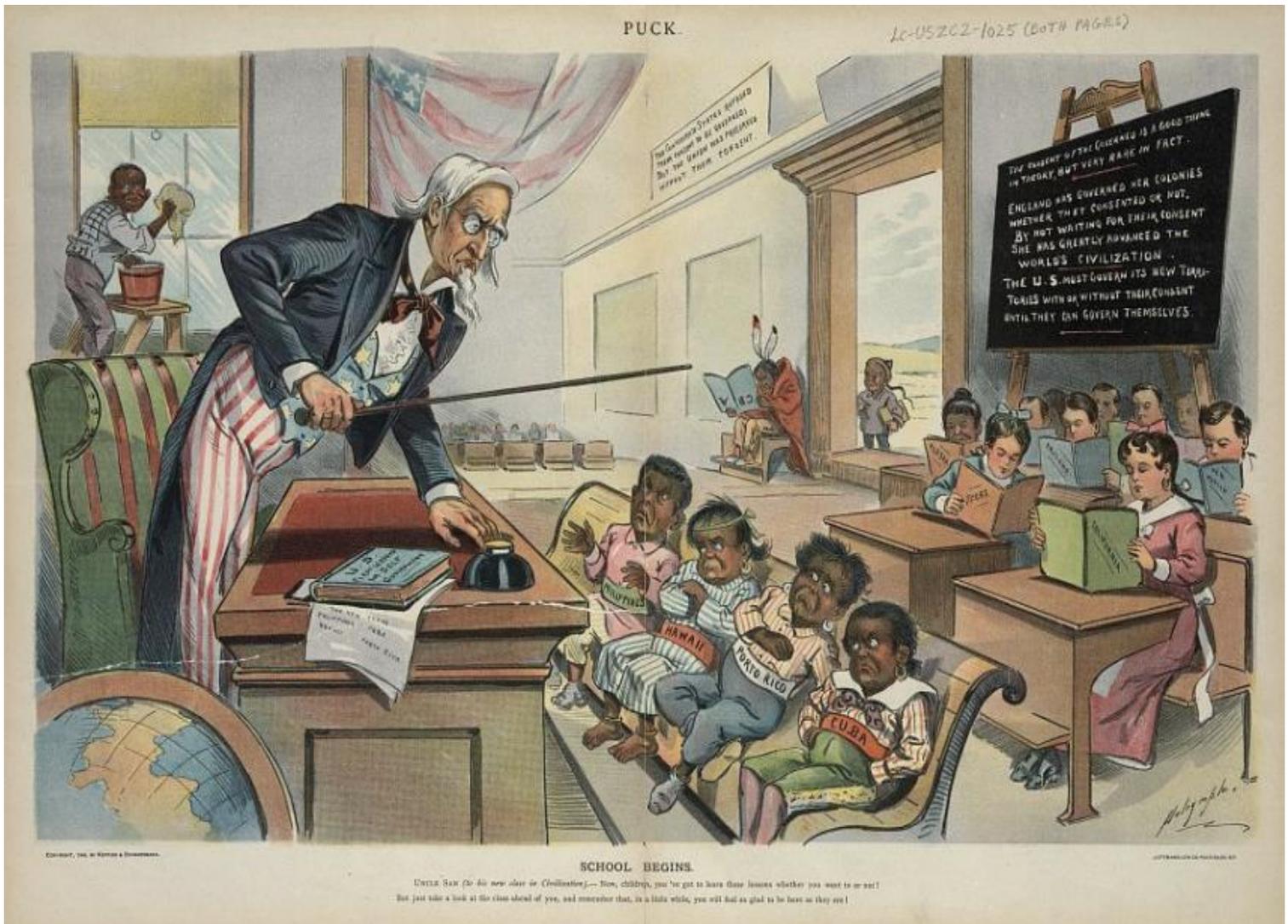
Bengough, William. "Fun For the Boys." Comic strip. Life Magazine, August 23, 1900.

<https://sites.google.com/view/fulbrights-u-s-history/territorial-policy-case-study-2-2295-the-philippines>

SQ2: Featured Source D

School Begins

Background: Print shows Uncle Sam as a teacher, standing behind a desk in front of his new students who are labeled "Cuba, Porto [i.e. Puerto] Rico, Hawaii, [and] Philippines"; they do not look happy to be there. At the rear of the classroom are students holding books labeled "California, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, [and] Alaska". At the far left, an African American boy cleans the windows, and in the background, a Native boy sits by himself, reading an upside-down book labeled "ABC", and a Chinese boy stands just outside the door. A book on Uncle Sam's desk is titled "U.S. First Lessons in Self-Government".

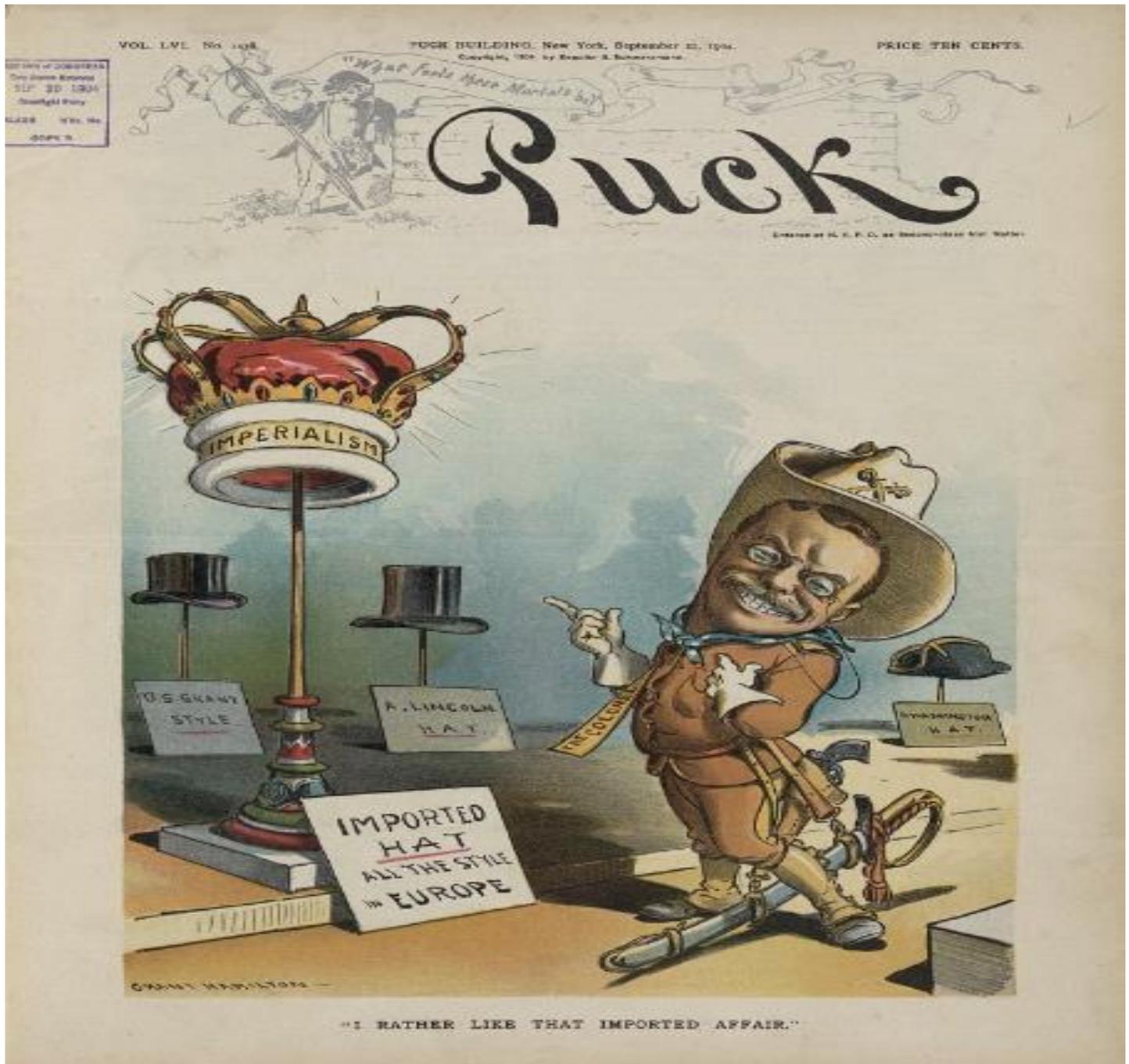


Dalrymple, Louis, Artist. School begins / Dalrymple. , 1899. N.Y.: Published by Keppler & Schwarzmann. Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2012647459/>.

SQ2: Featured Source E

I Rather Like That Imported Affair

Background: Illustration shows President Theodore Roosevelt wearing his Rough Rider uniform and looking at the style of hats worn by past presidents U.S. Grant, Abraham Lincoln, and George Washington, but the hat he likes best, atop a stand labeled "Imported Hat - All the Style in Europe", is a crown labeled "Imperialism".



Hamilton, Grant E., Artist. "I rather like that imported affair" / Grant Hamilton., 1904. N.Y.: J. Ottmann Lith. Co., Puck Bldg. Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2011645569/>.

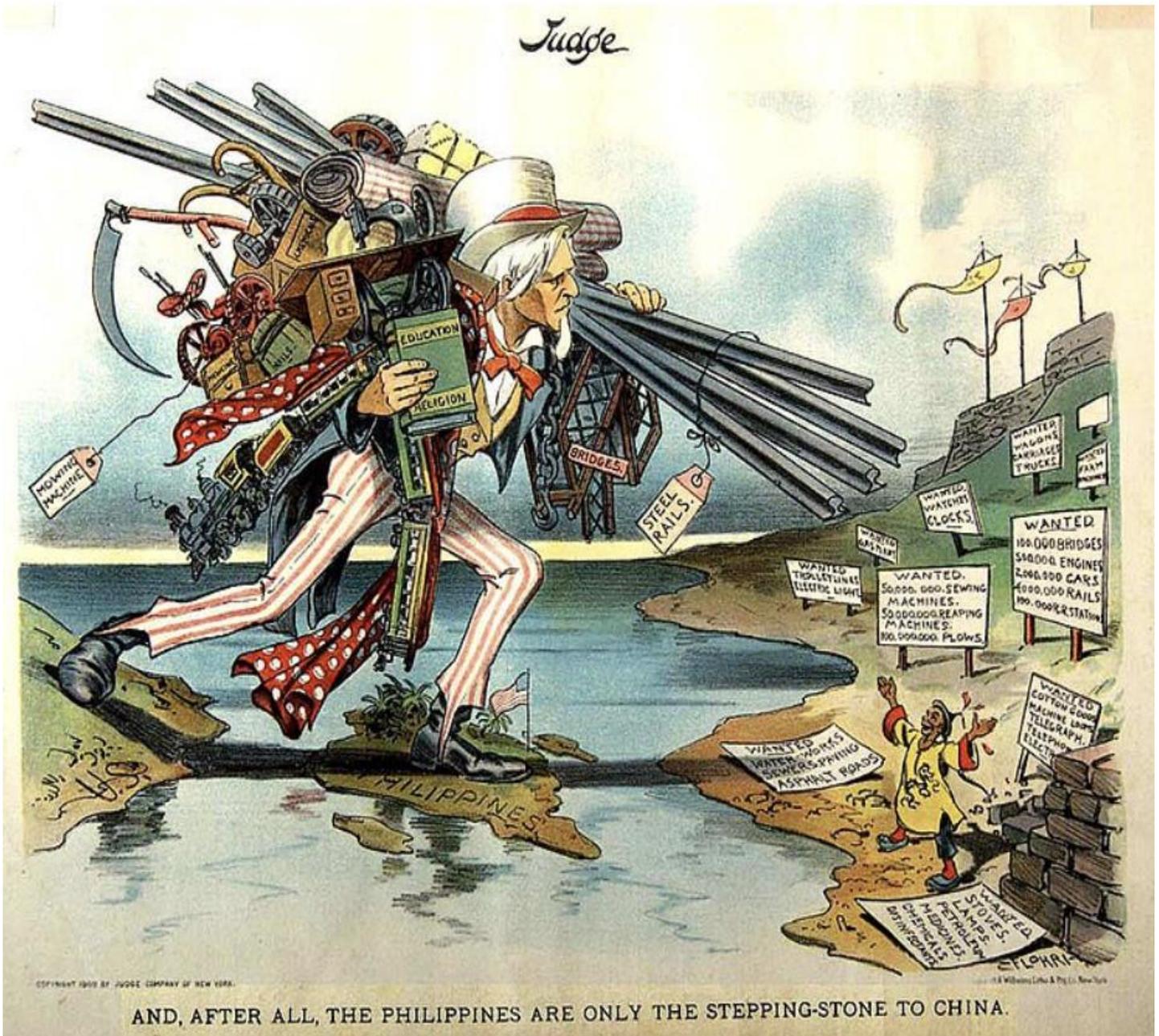
SQ2: Featured Source F

Lesson For Anti-Expansionist



Gillam, Victor., "Lesson for Anti-Expansionists," UHM Library Digital Image Collections <https://digital.library.manoa.hawaii.edu/items/show/31967>.

SQ2: Featured Source G

And, After All, the Philippines are Only the Stepping-Stone to China

Flohri, Emil. "AND, AFTER ALL, THE PHILIPPINES ARE ONLY THE STEPPING-STONE TO CHINA'.." Judge Magazine, 1900. https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Flohri_cartoon_about_the_Philippines_as_a_bridge_to_China.jpg

Supporting Question 3

The third supporting question—Does strength also come with responsibility?

This formative task is the most multi-stepped portion of the inquiry. First, students must write down, in between four to eight sentences, how they believe a strong nation should conduct itself when dealing with other nations; what do they believe are its responsibilities? Next, in a similar length response using what they've learned thus far, students must answer whether or not the United States has met or failed these expectation

The next segment of this formative task will involve students looking into primary and secondary sources that cover actions taken by the united States surrounding the locations of the South America, Panama, and the Philippines. Each one of these locations will be given their own section within the inquiry note packet. In each section, students must use the resources provided to note down:

- (1) What actions were taken in regard to that specific location
- (2) What were the justifications for the actions taken
- (3) Whether or not they agree or disagree with the justifications for the actions taken, as well as an explanation of their decision

At the conclusion of this formative task, students must write between five to ten sentences if their opinion over whether or not the US has met the expectations of a responsible powerful nation has changed or remained over the course of this formative task. Students must provide an explanation for their decision.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Sourcing the documents so students identify the creator and purpose of the document/source
- Contextualizing and Close Reading Strategies
- Source Evaluation
- Image Analysis Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Silent Reading Strategies
- Collaboration with one or more students
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies

The scaffolds and other materials may be used to support students as they work with sources:

- Annotated text
- Inquiry Note Packet
- Lined paper for paragraph portion of the formative task

The following sources were selected to provide students with insight into the actions and stances taken by the United States during this stage of its history. Additionally, the sources allow students to look closely at the justifications and mindsets possessed by the leaders of the nation during the time of American Imperialism.

- **Featured Source A:** Excerpt from Roosevelt's Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine (1905)

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- **Featured Source B:** Article in which Roosevelt discusses the Monroe Doctrine and its application in South America (1914)
- **Featured Source C:** Webpage from TR Center about the Hay-Herran Treaty
- **Featured Source D:** Political cartoon “The Coup d’etat.” (1903)
- **Featured Source E:** Political cartoon “Open for Business” (1914)
- **Featured Source F:** Webpage from Department of State “The Philippine-American War, 1899–1902”
- **Featured Source G:** Secretary of War Taft’s defense of American rule in the Philippines – Excerpt (1904)

SQ3: Featured Source A

Theodore Roosevelt's Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine – Excerpt (1905)

... We are in every way endeavoring to help on, with cordial good will, every movement which will tend to bring us into more friendly relations with the rest of mankind. In pursuance of this policy I shall shortly lay before the Senate treaties of arbitration with all powers which are willing to enter into these treaties with us. It is not possible at this period of the world's development to agree to arbitrate all matters, but there are many matters of possible difference between us and other nations which can be thus arbitrated. Furthermore, at the request of the Interparliamentary Union, an eminent body composed of practical statesmen from all countries, I have asked the Powers to join with this Government in a second Hague conference, at which it is hoped that the work already so happily begun at The Hague may be carried some steps further toward completion. This carries out the desire expressed by the first Hague conference itself.

It is not true that the United States feels any land hunger or entertains any projects as regards the other nations of the Western Hemisphere save such as are for their welfare. All that this country desires is to see the neighboring countries stable, orderly, and prosperous. Any country whose people conduct themselves well can count upon our hearty friendship. If a nation shows that it knows how to act with reasonable efficiency and decency in social and political matters, if it keeps order and pays its obligations, it need fear no interference from the United States. Chronic wrongdoing, or an impotence which results in a general loosening of the ties of civilized society, may in America, as elsewhere, ultimately require intervention by some civilized nation, and in the Western Hemisphere the adherence of the United States to the Monroe Doctrine may force the United States, however reluctantly, in flagrant cases of such wrongdoing or impotence, to the exercise of an international police power. If every country washed by the Caribbean Sea would show the progress in stable and just civilization which with the aid of the Platt Amendment Cuba has shown since our troops left the island, and which so many of the republics in both Americas are constantly and brilliantly showing, all question of interference by this Nation with their affairs would be at an end. Our interests and those of our southern neighbors are in reality identical. They have great natural riches, and if within their borders the reign of law and justice obtains, prosperity is sure to come to them. While they thus obey the primary laws of civilized society they may rest assured that they will be treated by us in a spirit of cordial and helpful sympathy. We would interfere with them only in the last resort, and then only if it became evident that their inability or unwillingness to do justice at home and abroad had violated the rights of the United States or had invited foreign aggression to the detriment of the entire body of American nations. It is a mere truism to say that every nation, whether in America or anywhere else, which desires to maintain its freedom, its independence, must ultimately realize that the right of such independence can not be separated from the responsibility of making good use of it.

In asserting the Monroe Doctrine, in taking such steps as we have taken in regard to Cuba, Venezuela, and Panama, and in endeavoring to circumscribe the theater of war in the Far East, and to secure the open door in China, we have acted in our own interest as well as in the interest of humanity at large. There are, however, cases in which, while our own interests are not greatly involved, strong appeal is made to our sympathies. Ordinarily it is very much wiser and more useful for us to concern ourselves with striving for our own moral and material betterment here at home than to concern ourselves with trying to better the condition of things in other nations. We have plenty of sins of our own to war against, and under ordinary circumstances we can do more for the general uplifting of humanity by striving with heart and soul to put a stop to civic corruption, to brutal lawlessness and

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violent race prejudices here at home than by passing resolutions and wrongdoing elsewhere. Nevertheless there are occasional crimes committed on so vast a scale and of such peculiar horror as to make us doubt whether it is not our manifest duty to endeavor at least to show our disapproval of the deed and our sympathy with those who have suffered by it. The cases must be extreme in which such a course is justifiable. There must be no effort made to remove the mote from our brother's eye if we refuse to remove the beam from our own. But in extreme cases action may be justifiable and proper. What form the action shall take must depend upon the circumstances of the case; that is, upon the degree of the atrocity and upon our power to remedy it. The cases in which we could interfere by force of arms as we interfered to put a stop to intolerable conditions in Cuba are necessarily very few. Yet it is not to be expected that a people like ours, which in spite of certain very obvious shortcomings, nevertheless as a whole shows by its consistent practice its belief in the principles of civil and religious liberty and of orderly freedom, a people among whom even the worst crime, like the crime of lynching, is never more than sporadic, so that individuals and not classes are molested in their fundamental rights--it is inevitable that such a nation should desire eagerly to give expression to its horror on an occasion like that of the massacre of the Jews in Kishenef, or when it witnesses such systematic and long-extended cruelty and oppression as the cruelty and oppression of which the Armenians have been the victims, and which have won for them the indignant pity of the civilized world.

Theodore Roosevelt's Annual Message to Congress for 1904; House Records HR 58A-K2; Records of the U.S. House of Representatives; Record Group 233; Center for Legislative Archives; National Archives.

<https://www.archives.gov/milestone-documents/roosevelt-corollary>

SQ3: Featured Source B

South America and the Monroe Doctrine (1914)

SOUTH AMERICA AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

THE South American nations I have visited are, of course, keenly interested in the attitude of the United States in the international affairs of America. They are especially interested in the Monroe Doctrine.

As regards the Monroe Doctrine, there has been much misapprehension of our attitude, and this is largely due to the fact that not a few of our own citizens have both misunderstood and misrepresented it. In its essence the Doctrine is simply that America is no longer to be treated as if it were Africa, or parts of Asia, and subject to settlement by conquest by Old World powers. Most of our people accept this view.

There are, however, a few who say secretly and a still smaller number who say openly that we ought not to take this view, and that the Monroe Doctrine ought to be abrogated because it would be well to have foreign powers establish themselves on the American continent. This view has been advanced by certain magazine writers, and it is often upheld privately, the usual ground being that it would be in the interest of civilization to have European powers establish themselves in and send their colonists to portions of South America. The men who take this attitude usually pride themselves upon being very intelligent and advanced individuals. As a matter of fact, they are absolutely ignorant of the matter about which they write or speak. They do not understand the conditions of South America. They do not understand or, indeed, really care for the honor and interest of the United States. They do not understand what it is they really advocate. One favorite statement of the people of this school is that it would be well to have Germany, for instance, take possession of the southern province of Brazil; and they sometimes say that they would not object to European powers taking possession of various other portions of temperate South America.

They do not understand that the nations of temperate South America are already so advanced that what they advocate is a sheer impossibility—aside from the further fact

that, even if it were possible, it would be so terrible a calamity that all the peoples of the two Americas would have to combine to prevent its occurrence. There is a great need of immigration from Europe to South America. That immigration is already steadily taking place. I believe it would diminish rather than increase if the South American countries, instead of being independent, were merely colonies of Old World countries. With negligible exceptions, the children and grandchildren of the European immigrants become first-class Brazilians, Argentines, Chileans, Uruguayans. In my travels I have met literally hundreds of prominent men, including many officers of the army and navy, whose fathers or grandfathers were Germans, Frenchmen, Englishmen, Irishmen, Poles, Spaniards, or Italians. One and all, they were citizens of the country in which they were born, pure and simple. They were enthusiastic and patriotic Argentines or Brazilians or Chileans or Uruguayans. Often they could hardly speak the language of their fathers or grandfathers at all. Rarely did they speak it save as a foreign tongue. In short, they behaved exactly as similar men in our own country behave. It is as idle to talk of any foreign nation conquering and holding, as in some shape a colony, any portion of these countries as it would be to talk of their conquering and holding in such manner and for such purpose Rhode Island or Wisconsin or Oregon. The countries of the future in temperate South America will be the countries of to-day. The South Americans of the future will be Brazilians or Argentines or Uruguayans or Chileans. They will not be Englishmen or Irishmen or Germans or Frenchmen or North Americans, for what I have said about the assimilation of immigrants applies just as much to immigrants from the United States as from Europe.

In tropical America the conditions are somewhat different. But, as regards tropical America also, it is no less emphatically true that no good can come from any foreign conquest of the country by an Old World

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nation, and that the United States never could, never ought to, and never would permit any such foreign conquest.

Another type of well-meaning but singularly short-sighted American attacks the Monroe Doctrine from another standpoint. He says it is an "outworn policy," and that there is no longer need of applying it. This gentleman also is often a man of learning, a college graduate, or even a college professor. He is but one degree wiser than the individual whom I have already considered. Indeed, in some respects he is even more futile. So far as the seas and lands which in any way control the approaches to the Panama Canal are concerned, there is more need of the assertion of the Monroe Doctrine now than ever before. It is an act of folly in a private citizen, and of unpardonable folly in a public servant, to fail to recognize that this is the case. If the approaches to the Canal were dominated by nations as powerful, as stable and orderly, as ready to do justice, and as able to enforce justice as the great countries of temperate South America, the case would be wholly different. But as it is, no man in his senses can soberly deny that some at least of these countries are as yet struggling with conditions which render it always possible that they will themselves commit wrong on other countries, and thereby invite a retaliation which they are powerless to resist, and which would certainly take the form of territorial compensation—that is, territorial aggrandizement—by some big military Old World power, unless the United States were to forbid. This is precisely what so nearly happened in our own time in Venezuela and in Santo Domingo. In both these countries the United States had to interfere during the last decade to prevent territorial aggression at their expense by Old World military powers.

In its essence the Monroe Doctrine is merely that there shall not be this territorial aggrandizement by Old World powers in America. In practice, when we come to deal with a few of the less responsible and more disturbed American powers, we have to take into account the fact that they sometimes commit wrongs for which it is right that there should be redress on behalf of the aggrieved party. In certain cases almost the only form of redress practically open to the aggrieved party, unless the United States intervenes, is the seizure of territory. In these cases, if the United States is wise, it

will itself act, both doing justice and exacting justice. The ideal instance of such action was that taken by the United States during my Administration in regard to Santo Domingo.

The Government of Santo Domingo had sunk, through chronic revolution, into a condition of utter impotence and disorder. The custom-houses of various ports had been pledged for debts. There was no way of paying these debts, and the Governments of certain nations to which the creditors belonged were about to take action. This would have meant permanent territorial possession of the most important parts of the island by certain foreign powers. I did not believe that, either in our own interest or in the interests of America as a whole, this should be permitted. Accordingly I acted, the action being ultimately taken at the request of Santo Domingo itself. We organized the custom-houses, sending out a trained American official to take charge, with natives under him. We forbade any interference with the custom-houses by any revolution or otherwise. We also forbade foreign powers to take possession of them or any of the rest of the country. We collected the revenue, applying part to the uses of the Government and part to the satisfaction of honest claims against the Government. Peace came as a result of our efforts, and Santo Domingo has been more prosperous than ever before. The forty-five per cent which we turned over to the Government exceeded what in actual practice they had ever received when they had collected all the revenue for themselves. The creditors received satisfaction for their just claims, the Government was better off than it had ever previously been, the United States was saved all possible danger of future complications with great military powers, and, in short, we have never in our diplomatic history done anything more thoroughly satisfactory or that more thoroughly justified itself. It was strictly an instance of working out the Monroe Doctrine in the interest of the United States, in the interest of all people dealing with Santo Domingo, and, above all, in the interest of Santo Domingo itself. It furnished the proper, and the only proper, precedent for our action in Central America.

The Monroe Doctrine was connected with our action in Panama only in the sense that it would have been impossible for us to have permitted any foreign government to construct the Canal. This attitude on our part

had as a necessary corollary that unless we shirked our duty we were bound to construct the Canal ourselves. We acted with scrupulous regard to the rights of Colombia until Colombia's behavior became such that it would have been criminal weakness for us further to hesitate, and, moreover, an act of criminal injustice to the people of Panama, the people actually in possession of the Isthmus. If there is any truth at all in the "consent of the governed" theory, here at Panama was a capital instance of its application. The people of Panama were governed from Colombia without their consent. The people of Panama felt that it was vital that the Canal should be built by the United States—and it was literally vital from their standpoint.

Colombia, from evil motives, and with an ethical obliquity as great as, but no greater than, that of the American defenders of Colombia's action, refused to carry out the treaty which at its own instance the United States had made with it. Accordingly the United States acted. Its action was in accordance with the highest ethical principles. We should have made ourselves objects of derision if we had failed to follow the course we did follow. Curiously enough, no nation will benefit more than Colombia itself will ultimately benefit by our action. Colombia was standing in her own light. We have in no way hurt Colombia. She will be immeasurably richer when we have built the Canal which she herself was impotent to dig and which she wanted to prevent us from digging. To say that the United States owes Colombia a dollar is not only a falsehood, is not only a wicked and unworthy attack upon our own National character, but is an offense against international good morals and a justification of the worst international practices.

I was interested to see how every public man of any consequence whom I met in South America cordially approved our action as regards the Panama Canal. The only men who disapproved it were those who were professionally hostile to the United States and were eagerly seizing on everything that could be twisted into a means of attacking the United States. In Rio de Janeiro two or three of the most prominent men, while talking with me one day, spoke of the fact that a very eminent Colombian had himself told them that the United States followed the only possible course if it intended to have the Canal built and not to see the Isthmus under the control of a foreign power. One of these

men added: "It was exactly as if in going down a narrow street on business of importance I met a man who refused to let me pass. I would try to get by him on one side, and then I would try the other side, but if he still persisted in trying to prevent me I should put him aside and continue my journey; and not to do so would be weakness on my part." Of course these statesmen would not speak in public unless it were necessary. But in the Argentine, one of the noted international jurists of the nation, a prominent public man, Señor Zabellos, now in the Chamber of Deputies, spoke as follows:

"And now we come precisely to the rock on which the Monroe Doctrine is founded in the other hemisphere, that is to say, on its relation to the interests of the United States. Now we come to Panama. . . . President Roosevelt could not permit the Isthmus of Panama to come under the influence of a European nation, because the Isthmus of Panama is the vital point of the continent of America. Sir Walter Raleigh called it the key of the world, and to lose it would be a vital blow to American military strength. Without this, a squadron in the Atlantic would be utterly powerless to help a squadron in the Pacific. As England cast aside her spirit of insular conservatism and broadened her business policy by commanding both entrances to the Mediterranean, the Suez Canal and Gibraltar, so President Roosevelt risked his reputation and even the peace of his country to conserve for America the key of Panama. But, gentlemen, did this in any way or shape affect the dignity of the other republics? What other countries of America have the same world problems as Panama and Mexico, the latter on the frontier of the United States, and the former the throat of the continent itself? They have nothing in common with the problems of the River Plata, or the shores of Brazil, or the coast of Chile. The Monroe Doctrine is necessary to-day to the United States. The Caribbean Sea washes the coast of the richest part of the United States, and it is necessary that it be dominated by them, in order to guarantee the independence and security of the United States. Under these circumstances, when there is constant danger of European intervention, as in the case of Venezuela, the United States said to the powers, in accordance with the Monroe Doctrine, You can urge your claims in accordance with inter-

national procedure, but you cannot take territory, because if you do you will have to deal with the armed forces of the United States. The powers thereupon became less aggressive and the matter was settled by arbitration. This action of the United States emphasized once more the doctrine that no European power will be permitted to acquire territory on the continent of America."

Our own public servants and our own publicists are much to blame because they fail to discriminate among the nations of Latin America. They often speak as if great and stable communities, entitled to stand on a footing of full equality with the United States, were really to be ranked with some small nominal republic in which a succession of greedy dictators, presiding over a helpless population, has resulted in complete governmental bankruptcy and political, social, and industrial anarchy. To speak of "Latin America" as an entity is true only in the sense in which it would be true to speak of "English America" as an entity, including both the United States and Jamaica, were Jamaica an independent republic. It is no injustice to Jamaica to say that in such event it would be impossible to treat her and the United States as of exactly the same types, however desirable it would be that each should respect and treat fairly the other. In the same way there are differences between certain Spanish-American tropical countries and great free nations like Chile and the Argentine. Our people as a whole fail to realize that certain of the South American countries are entitled to be treated on a footing of exact equality, precisely as we treat England and France, Germany and Italy, Holland and Sweden. Not only have I again and again in my speeches endeavored to bring out this point at home, but I was able to bring it out in the countries themselves. I discussed the general subject in my first Brazilian speech. After that I never alluded to the matter unless in response to some speech made to me. I thus spoke once in Uruguay, as I have already mentioned, and twice in Buenos Aires, once on the occasion when the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and Letters was conferred upon me by the University of Buenos Aires, and once at the great dinner of the Museo Social. These two speeches at Buenos Aires were received with the utmost cordiality, and they express my deep convictions—convictions which I believe will be shared by all the people of the United

States in so far as the actual facts are vivid to their minds.

In the course of the speech in the University of Buenos Aires I said:

"After the United States was founded as a republic, for over three-quarters of a century, for nearly ninety years after the Declaration of Independence, that Declaration was made a lie by our own acts in relation to slavery. Every criticism of the United States which said that it gave the lie by its acts to its declarations about freedom was just, and no critic of the United States ought to take back any condemnation of the United States made during that ninety years because of the existence of slavery. These condemnations were just. But when we abolished slavery we were entitled to have our critics say so. Then we were entitled to the credit for what we had done.

"The same thing is true of the republics of Latin America in connection with the disorders that marked their early growth. I shall always regret, deplore, and condemn the existence of chronic revolutionary disturbance in any Latin-American republic, and as long as the habit of revolutionary disturbance is chronic I shall never say that the republic in which it is chronic has a proper national life or a history worthy of respect. I shall never say it while such a condition of affairs exists; for if I did say it I would be speaking an untruth. As a philosopher of my own country, Emerson, has said: 'In the long run the most uncomfortable truth is a better traveling companion than the pleasantest falsehood.' But when a nation gets past the stage of disorder and weakness and revolutionary disturbance, when it has definitely entered on a career of orderly liberty and achieved justice, of power to do justice to others and to exact justice from others, then I take off my hat to it as I do to the Argentine Republic. You understand, friends, that in so far as my criticism applied, and applies, both about the past and as regards the nations that still deserve it, I do not retract it. But when a nation has shown by its acts that it is past that stage, then that nation stands as my own did when it got past the stage of being a slave-owning power. We earned the reprobation of all mankind, we of the United States of the North, when, while claiming to be a free nation, we remained the last of the great nations to have slavery in existence. We earned and we deserved, and it was right that we should receive, the con-

(Continued on page following illustrations)

demnation of mankind under these circumstances. But when we abolished slavery then we were entitled to stand with our heads erect in the faces of the nations of mankind. And just the same is true of the Argentine Republic to-day, as it has been for decades in the past.

"The Monroe Doctrine is meant to express the fact that the Western Hemisphere is not to be treated as Africa or mid-Asia is treated, as a subject for conquest by any Old World power. It is a doctrine which the United States promulgated, partly as a matter of policy in its own interest, partly as a matter of policy in the interest of all the republics of the New World. But as rapidly as any other republic grows to possess the stability, the prosperity that comes with stability, the self-respecting insistence upon doing right to others and exacting right from others, just so rapidly that country becomes itself a sponsor and guarantor of the Monroe Doctrine, with which the United States of the North no longer has any concern, so far as the Doctrine relates to it. Specifically, the Argentine Republic can protect itself, just as the United States of the North can protect itself; and in all our dealings as regards the Monroe Doctrine, and as regards all other matters, the reciprocal attitude of the United States of the North and the Argentine toward one another must be that of an equal speaking to an equal, with mutual respect, and each with self-respect.

"Have I put it absolutely clearly? I wish there to be no doubt of my meaning. As far as you are concerned, we have no more concern with the Monroe Doctrine about you than you have about us. If ever it became vitally necessary to enforce it, each would help the other. The attitude of our people—yours, mine—should also be one of cordial good will and friendship towards the peoples of Europe. We are of European descent—your people, our people. We have inherited the Old World European culture. We are bound to the peoples of Europe by a thousand ties, and I welcome every increase of friendship between either of our peoples and the peoples of Europe. But let me add this—and it has been said by you—we are not simply colonies of the Old World, we are new nations. Ours is a new nation, yours is a new nation. The American of the North, the Argentine of the South, both represent new peoples. Each nation holds within its veins the blood of many different European stocks. Each is like many European nations,

and different from any one European nation. And we have such problems in common, such beliefs and ideals, and methods of government, and ways of life, and habits of thought, that we inevitably are closer together, and will in the end have a closer and more understanding relationship with one another, than is possible at the present time among European peoples. As has been so well said, each must remember that the citizen of each country cannot be a good citizen of the world unless he is a good citizen of his own country first. We must first and foremost be citizens of the Argentine, citizens of the United States, in the full sense of the word, patriotically, with pride, with eager desire to identify ourselves with our own national life, before we can be of any help in the great world at large. I think so well of you just because you are Argentines and not imitations of something else. If you were merely the imitations of something else, I would not visit you; I would visit the originals of which you were the copies. Never forget that the most intensely patriotic devotion to your own country is not merely compatible with, but should be the inspiration of, the heartiest good will and respect for all the other nations of the world."

And at the dinner of the Museo Social I said, in part:

"The Monroe Doctrine is, in its essence, merely the statement that the soil of the New World is not to be the scene of territorial aggrandizement by any nation of the Old World. It is a doctrine which every self-respecting nation of the two Americas should treat as of cardinal importance, both as a matter of self-interest and also from the standpoint of the common interest of all the nations of the Western Hemisphere. It is not a matter of international law, it is a matter of American policy—a policy which should be partly based upon the self-interest of every American nation, and partly upon the common interest, the disinterested sense of community of ideals and purposes among all American nations. It is not worth the paper on which it is printed unless back of it there is potential force. I have always championed every practical measure to bring nearer the day when we shall be able to substitute other methods than those of war for the settlement of international disputes. I have always fought in every way to further the cause of the peace of righteousness throughout the world. But as yet it would be an act of

criminal folly for the great free nations not to remember that we must make might the servant of right instead of divorcing might from right. As yet no movement for peace amounts to anything unless the peoples behind it possess, in addition to the love of justice, the power and the determination in time of need to use the potential force that is theirs. As yet the proclamation of such a policy as the Monroe Doctrine is not worth the paper on which the words are inscribed unless back of the words lies the power of action, unless back of the proclamation lies the potential strength to enforce it, and the will to use that strength should the need arise.

"Ninety years ago, when the Doctrine was first proclaimed, the only American nation that had sufficient strength to gain even a scanty and discourteous hearing from the Old World was the United States of America. At that time the only hearing even the United States received was both scanty and discourteous; nevertheless, it could at times make itself heard and heeded; and therefore the guardianship of the Doctrine had to rest with the United States. But times have changed. Certain of the Latin-American nations have grown with astonishing speed to a position of assured and orderly political development, material prosperity, readiness to do justice to others, and potential strength to enforce justice from others. These nations are able to enforce order at home and respect abroad. These nations have so developed their institutions that they themselves do not wrong others, and that they are able to repel wrong from others. Every such nation, when once it has achieved such a position, should become itself a sponsor, and guarantor of the Doctrine; and its relations with the other sponsors and guarantors should be those of equality.

"Prominent among these nations is your own, the Argentine. You are not only one of the great free nations of the future, you are already a great free nation of the present. In size, in political stability, in virile energy, in orderly development, in patriotic self-respect, and in the right to the respect of others you rank on a footing of entire equality with the great free nations of mankind. As far as you are concerned, my feeling is that the Monroe Doctrine in the sense of special guardianship thereof by the United States of the North no longer applies. You need no protection. You are fit to be the champion of your own Monroe Doctrine.

"In other words, you have so developed that you have the right to expect that in all international relations between the Argentine and the United States the treatment shall be on both sides absolutely and without qualification that of an equal to an equal, based on an exact mutuality of respect and obligation. There are other Latin-American powers which have achieved this position, and as regards them also what I have said should apply. I most earnestly hope that under the stimulus of the example of you and of these other Latin-American nations that have achieved a similar position, all of the Latin-American peoples will finally reach such a level of orderly self-government, of material prosperity, of potential strength, and of political and social conduct as to make the Monroe Doctrine, in the sense of being a merely unilateral doctrine, a thing of the past and to substitute for it a common agreement among all the free republics of the New World. This time has come as regards you. It has not come as regards any nation in which there is still chronic revolutionary disturbances, in which the hands of social order and justice are so relaxed that the nation is impotent to do justice to others or to enforce justice from others.

"The history of the United States shows with extraordinary clearness the point I wish to make. When our Civil War broke out, when revolutionary disturbance reduced us to impotence abroad, all our power to enforce respect for the Monroe Doctrine, or for any other policy we championed, vanished like smoke into thin air. Old World powers at once began again to treat this continent as subject to conquest and exploitation. A European empire was established immediately south of us. When the period of revolutionary disturbance came to an end, when the Union was restored, and the United States again became a great Nation, this empire crumbled at once into dust, and once more we were able to reassert the right of the peoples of this country to independence.

"In short, the history of my own country shows that it is useless to claim a right or a privilege unless the country claiming it acknowledges the obligation and duty that go with the privilege. We cannot claim the privileges of freedom unless we exercise the duties of freedom. You of the Argentine and we of the United States, both of us, I am happy to say, have reached the stage where we can truthfully say that we have

performed and are performing our duties with at least measurable success, and therefore that we are entitled to the privileges and to the rights that should accompany the performance of duty. One of these rights is absolutely self-respecting mutuality of regard and equality of treatment between us.

"I need hardly say that the championship of the Monroe Doctrine in no way implies any course of action toward any European power save one of the kindest good will. It should be the object of all of us—of you of the Argentine and of us of the United States—to cultivate close and friendly relations with the peoples of Europe. We are of their blood and of their culture. We are knit to them by many close ties of sympathy and interest. Like them, we are part of that great commonwealth of the spirit which, when we use the term in its best and highest significance, we speak of as civilization. We should try to extend the area of that great international commonwealth, not by conquest where it is possible to avoid conquest, but by good will, by friendliness, by just treatment. Let us hope that in the end every right-thinking, right-acting people in any part of either the Old World or the New shall be admitted to full brotherhood with all other peoples who are striving for justice, for generous good will and fair dealing among the nations of mankind.

"Nevertheless, close though the ties are that knit our several nations to the nations of the Old World, let us not forget that we are ourselves separate and individual nations, each with its own distinguishing characteristics. We have our own interests, needs, special characteristics, and special fields of work. We are not colonies. We are nations—we have reached the status of manhood. We must not lay overemphasis on supposed racial terms which often indicate a linguistic rather than a racial affinity. The blood of many European stocks runs in the veins of all of us. Each is akin to various European peoples, each is separate from every European people. Each Argentine citizen should learn Argentine first and foremost; don't let him dwell abroad, or be a mere copy of something from abroad. Let him stand on his own feet. This is the same advice I have always given to my own people.

"Allusion has been made here to the successful effort made under my Administration, and by my direction, to secure admission to the Hague Conference for the nations

of the New World on a footing of entire equality each with the others and with the several nations of the Old World. I would have felt myself derelict in my duty if I had not striven for this end. Will you permit me also to say that my deeds as President made good every word I have ever spoken in reference to the duty of the United States toward the other nations of this continent? In Panama I acted not only with scrupulous good faith, but in the only way that was consonant with my duty towards, not alone my own country, but all the countries of the New World and of the Old World as well. I served the cause of mankind by what I did, and any other action would have been culpable weakness and folly. I specially ask you to consider what we did in reference to Cuba under my Administration, and what we did in reference to Santo Domingo. We intervened to save Cuba from the effects of a desolating struggle under which her population had diminished in numbers by more than a million, the loss falling far more heavily upon women and children than upon men. When at last we intervened, we said that as a result of our interference Cuba should be independent.

"I doubt if there was a chancellery in Europe which believed that this promise was more than an empty form. During my Administration I made it an actual fact. We started Cuba on the path of stable and prosperous self-government, and then we left the island and left her a sovereign and independent nation. Later, when there was a revolutionary disturbance, we intervened, but we intervened only to make peace, to secure an honest election, and once more to start the island on a path of stable self-government. Again we left Cuba. She is now absolutely independent. I have every hope and belief that her stability and growth are firmly assured, and that from henceforth on she will continue as an absolutely independent and prosperous nation."

And then I told also the story of our course with Santo Domingo, essentially as I have told it above in this article.

I do not here attempt to discuss all the sides of the Monroe Doctrine. As regards the collection of debts from weak nations, I am inclined to think we shall ultimately come to the doctrine of the distinguished Argentine international jurist, Señor Drago, whom I had the honor of meeting. But, however this may be at present, we must face facts; and the facts are as I have stated them.

South America and the Monroe Doctrine. Sagamore Hill National Historic Site.

<https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o279302>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ3: Featured Source C

The Hay-Herran Treaty

In late 1901, the United States Congress successfully renegotiated the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850. This treaty allowed the United States to build, fortify, and control an isthmian canal in Central America. Congress also authorized the Walker Commission to suggest possible canal routes in Panama and Nicaragua. Commissioners initially favored a Nicaraguan route. However, Philippe Bunau-Varilla, the New Panama Canal Company's representative, argued that volcanic activity in Nicaragua and other factors made that route unacceptable. Bunau-Varilla effectively lobbied policy makers to select the Panama route.

Because Panama was a province of Colombia at the time, Secretary of State John Hay negotiated terms with Tomás Herrán, Colombia's chargé d'affaires in Washington, D.C. According to the terms of the proposed agreement, Colombia would receive an initial payment of \$10 million and an annual payment of \$250,000 for the duration of the 99-year canal lease. In return, the U.S. would control a six-mile wide canal zone in Panama. The agreement was signed by Hay and Herrán on January 22, 1903.

The United States Senate ratified the treaty on March 17, 1903. Colombian leaders, recognizing that the New Panama Canal Company's charter would revert back to Colombia in 1904, employed stalling tactics. Initially, Colombia requested additional money from both the United States and agents representing the New Panama Canal Company. When John Hay refused to alter the terms of the treaty, the Colombian Senate rejected it on August 12, 1903.

A furious President Theodore Roosevelt responded to the news by letting it be known that he would not be displeased if the Panamanians revolted. He also sent the USS Nashville to the region to "protect American lives in Panama," although the action had the added benefit of preventing Colombian troops from suppressing the rebellion after it started in November 1903. The subsequent Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty (November 18, 1903) offered Panama the same financial incentives listed in the Hay-Herrán Treaty. The U.S. won the right to build, fortify, and control an expanded ten-mile wide canal zone in perpetuity.

"The Hay-Herran Treaty." TR Center - Hay-Herran Treaty. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Learn-About-TR/TR-Encyclopedia/Foreign-Affairs/Hay-Herran-Treaty>.

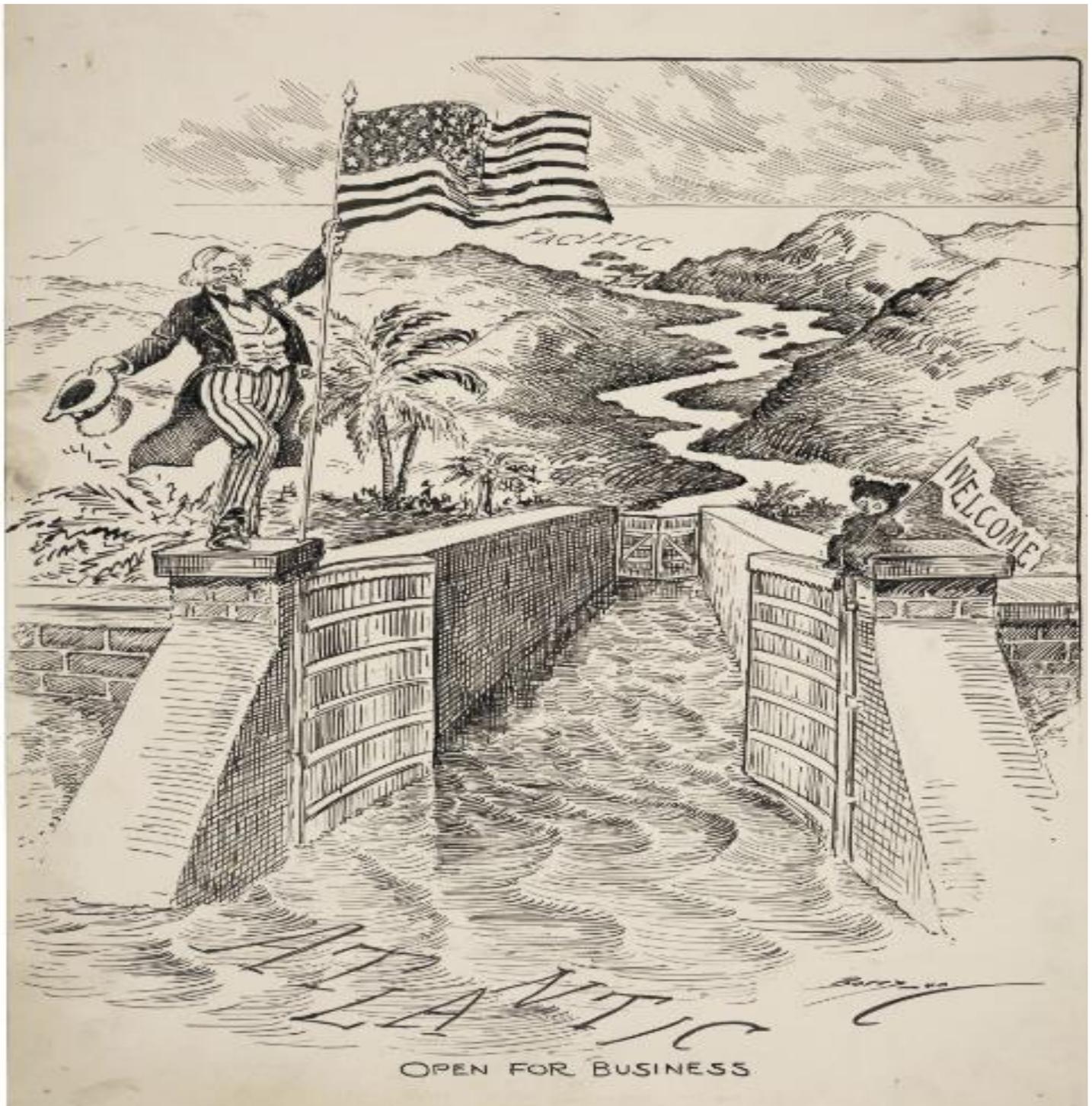
SQ3: Featured Source D

[The Coup d'ETAT \(1903\)](#)



Bush, Charles. "The Coup d'Etat ." Cartoon. New York World. New York World, 1903.

SQ3: Featured Source E

Open For Business (1914)

Open for Business; 8/15/1914; Berryman Political Cartoon Collection, 1896-1949; Records of the U.S. Senate, Record Group 46; National Archives Building, Washington DC, 20408. [Online Version, <https://www.docsteach.org/documents/document/open-for-business>,

SQ3: Featured Source F

The Philippine-American War, 1899–1902

After its defeat in the Spanish-American War of 1898, Spain ceded its longstanding colony of the Philippines to the United States in the Treaty of Paris. On February 4, 1899, just two days before the U.S. Senate ratified the treaty, fighting broke out between American forces and Filipino nationalists led by Emilio Aguinaldo who sought independence rather than a change in colonial rulers. The ensuing Philippine-American War lasted three years and resulted in the death of over 4,200 American and over 20,000 Filipino combatants. As many as 200,000 Filipino civilians died from violence, famine, and disease.

The decision by U.S. policymakers to annex the Philippines was not without domestic controversy. Americans who advocated annexation evinced a variety of motivations: desire for commercial opportunities in Asia, concern that the Filipinos were incapable of self-rule, and fear that if the United States did not take control of the islands, another power (such as Germany or Japan) might do so. Meanwhile, American opposition to U.S. colonial rule of the Philippines came in many forms, ranging from those who thought it morally wrong for the United States to be engaged in colonialism, to those who feared that annexation might eventually permit the non-white Filipinos to have a role in American national government. Others were wholly unconcerned about the moral or racial implications of imperialism and sought only to oppose the policies of President William McKinley’s administration.

After the Spanish-American War, while the American public and politicians debated the annexation question, Filipino revolutionaries under Aguinaldo seized control of most of the Philippines’ main island of Luzon and proclaimed the establishment of the independent Philippine Republic. When it became clear that U.S. forces were intent on imposing American colonial control over the islands, the early clashes between the two sides in 1899 swelled into an all-out war. Americans tended to refer to the ensuing conflict as an “insurrection” rather than acknowledge the Filipinos’ contention that they were fighting to ward off a foreign invader...

...The war was brutal on both sides. U.S. forces at times burned villages, implemented civilian reconcentration policies, and employed torture on suspected guerrillas, while Filipino fighters also tortured captured soldiers and terrorized civilians who cooperated with American forces. Many civilians died during the conflict as a result of the fighting, cholera and malaria epidemics, and food shortages caused by several agricultural catastrophes.

Even as the fighting went on, the colonial government that the United States established in the Philippines in 1900 under future President William Howard Taft launched a pacification campaign that became known as the “policy of attraction.” Designed to win over key elites and other Filipinos who did not embrace Aguinaldo’s plans for the Philippines, this policy permitted a significant degree of self-government, introduced social reforms, and implemented plans for economic development. Over time, this program gained important Filipino adherents and undermined the revolutionaries’ popular appeal, which significantly aided the United States’ military effort to win the war.

“The Philippine-American War, 1899–1902.” Office of the Historian. <https://history.state.gov/milestones/1899-1913/war>.

SQ3: Featured Source G

The Philippine Islands -Excerpt (1904)

ADDRESS.

Gentlemen of the Chamber of Commerce of New-York:

Your President, Mr. JESUP, has been good enough to invite me to address you. I should have declined the invitation because of many other engagements, but for the opportunity which it gives me to bring to the attention of the solid business men of New-York the problem which we have on our hands in the Philippines.

The people of the United States have under their guidance and control in the Philippines an archipelago of 3,000 islands, the population of which is about 7,600,000 souls. Of these, 7,000,000 are Christians and 600,000 are Moros or other Pagan tribes. The problem of the government of the Moros is the same as that which England has had in the government of the Straits Settlements or India. The government of 7,000,000 Christian Filipinos is a very different problem, and one which it has fallen to the lot of the United States only to solve.

The attitude of the American people toward the Philippine Islands may be described as follows: There are those who think that the Declaration of Independence forbids our accepting or maintaining sovereignty over them; there are those who, without respect to the Declaration of Independence, believe that colonial possessions are likely to lead to expense and corruption and demoralization, have little faith in the solution of the problem by teaching the Filipino the art of self-government, and are anxious to get rid of the Islands before they have done any harm to the United States; then there are those who hold that fate brought these Islands under our control, and that thus a duty was imposed upon us of seeing to it that they were not injured by the transfer. As a friend of the Filipinos, it is my anxious desire to enlarge that class of Americans who have a real interest in the welfare of the Islands and who believe that the United States can have no higher duty or function than to assist the people of the Islands

to prosperity and a political development which shall enable them to secure to themselves the enjoyment of civil liberty. [Applause.] The war with Spain led us far from Cuba, whose condition was its cause, to these beautiful Islands in the oriental tropics. After DEWEY'S guns had brought the whole Archipelago potentially within American control, there was no escape from the dilemma which was then and thereafter presented to the people of the United States except the one which they took. Three courses were suggested; first, that after peace with Spain, we should turn the Islands back to her. But in the legitimate course of the campaign, we had called to our assistance as allies AGUINALDO and his forces, with whom the people of the Islands were largely in sympathy. It would have been a breach of faith on our part to have delivered them over to Spain with the bloody conflict which would instantly have followed. Could we have delivered the Islands over to the Government of AGUINALDO? AGUINALDO'S Government was a military dictatorship, having actual control and that not always complete, in from eight or ten of forty provinces. A convention had been called of AGUINALDO'S friends. A large majority of the delegates had been directly appointed by him. They formulated and adopted a Constitution as the basis of a popular government. The constitution was mere paper. It was taken from the Constitution of the United States, that of Mexico and that of the Argentine Republic. It had no life, for it was never at any time put in force. The actual government was despotic and oppressive to even a greater degree than the Spanish Government ever had been, and resistance to its authority, caused by its dishonesty and oppressive measures in the provinces in which it had authority, was frequent and disturbing.

The adoption of the constitution at Malalos was not indicative of the then capacity of the people to maintain popular self-government. It represented only an academic aspiration by the drafters. The result was mere committee work, without the slightest evidence of the practical operativeness of the instrument from previous actual experience in government by the people. The only real government which existed under AGUINALDO was that of the one-man power, arbitrary and inconsiderate of the people. With these facts before the United

States, I submit that there was no escape from the dilemma except the acceptance of a transfer of the sovereignty of Spain and the assumption of political control over the Filipino people, until by proper measures and patient governmental training and experience they could be given self-governing capacity.

Concerning the objection that this is a new business for the United States, which will have a demoralizing effect upon the nation, I think no one is able to point out any injury which has thus far resulted to the people of the United States except the expense attendant upon the maintenance of law and order in the Islands during the insurrection, and the regrettable loss of life which occurred. Certainly no one thus far can show the baleful effects of that dreadful spirit of greed which the opponents of the policy are so prone to see in everything done with respect to the Philippines. I challenge them to point out in anything which has been done to the Philippine Islands, either immediately under the government there established, or by the United States, which savors in the least of a selfish use of those Islands for the benefit, either of the individuals in the United States or of the Government itself. The only thing which can be seriously made the basis of such a charge was the attempt during the present session of Congress to put in force the coastwise trading laws for the benefit of the shipping of the United States in respect to the trans-oceanic trade between the Islands and the United States, and that by Act of Congress has now been postponed for two years longer. There has been a rebate provided of the export duty on hemp imported directly from the Islands to the United States. This has not affected injuriously the trade of the Islands, because the demand for hemp is so great that the Islands have a monopoly in respect to it. There has unexpectedly been caused by the rebate a reduction of the income in the Islands of about \$250,000, because the equivalent which was provided as a counter benefit, to wit, the duties to be collected on imports from the Islands into the United States, has not equalled the aggregate rebate on the hemp. This, however, was a miscalculation by the legislators that was pardonable and can easily be rectified. In every other respect the legislation which has been enacted has been in favor of the Islands, including a gift

of three millions of dollars for the purpose of relieving distress there. The attitude of those who support the Government in its policy is altruistic. It is of one who out of a feeling friendly to the Filipinos would sacrifice much to accomplish the purposes of the Administration there. It is a feeling which does the nation credit, and a feeling that a nation of the wealth and power that this nation has, may well afford to encourage.

General denunciation of the Government's policy as one of the suppression of freedom and an attack upon liberty has rendered uneasy many of our people, but the charge is wholly unfounded. There has been established in the islands a government of law and order in which the administration of justice is quite as good as it is in half the States of the Union. It has secured to every man, woman and child among the Christian Filipinos all the rights contained in the bill of rights in the Constitution of the United States except the right to bear arms and the right to trial by jury. The right to bear arms is one that might very well be restricted in the United States. [Laughter and applause.] The freedom with which firearms are sold, the unlicensed character of the business, will readily account for many of the homicides which disgrace the criminal annals of our country. The right of trial by jury is one which the people of the islands do not understand, and which it is wise to postpone the exercise of until they who are to constitute the jury shall be better qualified to exercise the function of administering justice. As it is to-day in the Islands no man need be convicted of a crime except by the judgment of a judge of first instance, concurred in by a majority of the seven judges of the Supreme Court. The appeal on the facts and law to the Supreme Court of the Islands, which consists of three Filipinos and four Americans, certainly offers sufficient security against mistakes or prejudices of one judge. All the substantial civil rights then are secured to the Philippine people. They do not themselves exercise complete political control, but that is a very different thing from civil liberty. Women and children, and other non-voters in this country, have the civil liberty secured by the Constitution, but do not exercise political control. If we abandoned the Islands we should be turning their political control over to the violent and the turbulent, and the agitators and civil liberty would at once

cease to exist there. The great difficulty that we have now in making our grant of civil liberty useful to the inhabitants is their failure to understand what their rights are and their incapacity to maintain them. I remember one morning, early in my experience in the Philippines, I was visited by an elderly Tagalo who spoke no Spanish, but who presented a petition, written for him by some one else, in Spanish, in which he set forth that his son had been arrested for a crime under the Spanish regime, had been held for six years without trial, and was still in Bilibid prison. Calling on me at the same time was a distinguished lawyer of the Islands, one of the three persons who had drawn up the constitution adopted at Malolos, which has attracted so much admiration from our anti-imperialistic friends. I turned the petition over to him and asked him to confer with the old man, which he did. He said to me, "How can we redress this grievance?" I suggested: "Under an order of General OTIS the writ of *habeas corpus* is in force; you ought to sue out such a writ." He asked me what the writ of *habeas corpus* was, and I explained it to him, and at his request drafted a petition for the writ. Taking the petition he went to Bilibid prison and found that there were ninety persons in prison in the same situation as that of the son of my early caller. He filed a petition for the writ in each of these cases and succeeded in securing the release of all. His success in the matter was a revelation to him, as it was to the people of the community, in respect to what was practical civil liberty of the individual. Yet it was he who had penned the constitution supposed to secure such liberties to his fellow citizens some two or three years before. My experience in the Philippines, and that of others who have been there, justify me in saying that, were the Americans to leave the Islands to the government of AGUINALDO or some person of his views, all the guaranties of civil liberty would be lost in the effort of the executive head of the government to maintain his position against hostile cabals and conspiracies. In other words a surrender by us of political control in the Islands, as they are at present peopled, means the suppression of civil liberty. Hence it is that those of us who are in favor of only the gradual extension to the Filipinos of political control, retaining a guidance under the Government of the United States, are the real

defenders and protectors of the liberties of the Philippine people, while the so-called and self-styled "anti-imperialists" who demand an immediate surrender of the Islands, are, in effect, advocating a policy which makes for absolutism and tyranny, or a political chaos, which is even worse than either, and which will end for a long time to come all hope of the liberty of the individual. The course which the so-called anti-imperialists seek is the easy one. The course which we have on hand is a difficult one.

The Philippine Islands. Theodore Roosevelt Papers. Library of Congress Manuscript Division.

<https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o44808>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

Supporting Question 4

The fourth supporting question— A soft voice, or a threatening stick?

In this final formative task, students will take a look at examples of Roosevelt’s “Speak softly and carry a big stick” policy. This includes his creation of the Great White Fleet, American opinions on the policy, and foreign opinions on the policy. Using all of these resources, in addition to knowledge acquired over the course of the inquiry, students must create their own newspaper article/post in which they discuss whether support or oppose the policy, stating whether TR has created a time of peace or of fear. This article will be written on the last page of the inquiry note packet.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Sourcing the documents so students identify the creator and purpose of the document/source
- Contextualizing and Close Reading Strategies
- Source Evaluation
- Image Analysis Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Silent Reading Strategies
- Collaboration with one or more students
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies

The scaffolds and other materials may be used to support students as they work with sources:

- Annotated text
- Inquiry Note Packet

The following sources were selected to provide students with information of the the historical context/state of the world during Theodore Roosevelt’s administration so that they may make a claim and support their stance on if the world really was ‘at peace’.

- **Featured Source A:** Webpage - Roosevelt’s “Big Stick” Foreign Policy
- **Featured Source B:** Article “Former President Theodore Roosevelt Recounts and Reflects on the World Cruise of the Great White Fleet” (1913)
- **Featured Source C:** Political cartoon “Peace” (1905)
- **Featured Source D:** Political cartoon “The World’s Constable” (1905)
- **Featured Source E:** Political cartoon “Hands Off!” (1905)
- **Featured Source F:** Political cartoon “As His Critics See Him”
- **Featured Source G:** Political cartoon “Good offices” (1905)
- **Featured Source H:** Political cartoon “The busy showman” (1906)

SQ4: Featured Source A

Roosevelt's "Big Stick" Foreign Policy

While President McKinley ushered in the era of the American empire through military strength and economic coercion, his successor, Theodore Roosevelt, established a new foreign policy approach, allegedly based on a favorite African proverb, “speak softly, and carry a big stick, and you will go far” ([Figure](#)). At the crux of his foreign policy was a thinly veiled threat. Roosevelt believed that in light of the country’s recent military successes, it was unnecessary to *use* force to achieve foreign policy goals, so long as the military could *threaten* force. This rationale also rested on the young president’s philosophy, which he termed the “strenuous life,” and that prized challenges overseas as opportunities to instill American men with the resolve and vigor they allegedly had once acquired in the Trans-Mississippi West.



Roosevelt was often depicted in cartoons wielding his “big stick” and pushing the U.S. foreign agenda, often through the power of the U.S. Navy.

Roosevelt believed that while the coercive power wielded by the United States could be harmful in the wrong hands, the Western Hemisphere’s best interests were also the best interests of the United States. He felt, in short, that the United States had the right and the obligation to be the policeman of the hemisphere. This belief, and his strategy of “speaking softly and carrying a big stick,” shaped much of Roosevelt’s foreign policy.

“Roosevelt’s ‘Big Stick’ Foreign Policy.” U.S. History, Age of Empire: American Foreign Policy, 1890-1914, Roosevelt’s “Big Stick” Foreign Policy | OER Repository - Affordable Learning LOUISiana, n.d.

https://louis.oercommons.org/courseware/lesson/417/student/#CNX_History_22_04_BigStick.

SQ4: Featured Source B

Former President Theodore Roosevelt Recounts and Reflects on the World Cruise of the Great White Fleet

VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 3, SUMMER 2008

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FORMER PRESIDENT THEODORE ROOSEVELT RECOUNTS AND REFLECTS ON THE WORLD CRUISE OF THE GREAT WHITE FLEET

the final twelve pages of text, in full, of *Theodore Roosevelt: An Autobiography*
(1913; reprint, New York: Da Capo Press, 1985)

In my own judgment the most important service that I rendered to peace was the voyage of the battle fleet round the world. I had become convinced that for many reasons it was essential that we should have it clearly understood, by our own people especially, but also by other peoples, that the Pacific was as much our home waters as the Atlantic, and that our fleet could and would at will pass from one to the other of the two great oceans. It seemed to me evident that such a voyage would greatly benefit the navy itself; would arouse popular interest in and enthusiasm for the navy; and would make foreign nations accept as a matter of course that our fleet should from time to time be gathered in the Pacific, just as from time to time it was gathered in the Atlantic, and that its presence in one ocean was no more to be accepted as a mark of hostility to any Asiatic power than its presence in the Atlantic was to be accepted as a mark of hostility to any European power. I determined on the move without consulting the Cabinet, precisely as I took Panama without consulting the Cabinet. A council of war never fights, and in a crisis the duty of a leader is to lead and not to take refuge behind the generally timid wisdom of a multitude of councillors. At that time, as I happen to know, neither the English nor the German authorities believed it possible to take a fleet of great battleships round the world. They did not believe that their own fleets could perform the feat, and still less did they believe that the American fleet could. I made up my mind that it was time to have a showdown in the matter; because if it was really true that our fleet could not get from the Atlantic to the Pacific, it was much better to know it and be able to shape our policy in view of the knowledge. Many persons publicly and privately protested against the move on the ground that Japan would accept it as a threat. To this I answered nothing in public. In private I said that I did not believe Japan would so regard it because Japan knew my sincere friendship and admiration for her and realized that we could not as a Nation have any intention of attacking her; and that if there were any such feeling on the part of Japan as was alleged that very fact rendered it imperative that the fleet should go. When in the spring of 1910 I was in Europe I was interested to find that high naval authorities in both Germany and Italy had expected that war would come at the time of the

voyage. They asked me if I had not been afraid of it, and if I had not expected that hostilities would begin at least by the time that the fleet reached the Straits of Magellan? I answered that I did not expect it; that I believed that Japan would feel as friendly in the matter as we did; but that if my expectations had proved mistaken, it would have been proof positive that we were going to be attacked anyhow, and that in such event it would have been an enormous gain to have had the three months' preliminary preparation which enabled the fleet to start perfectly equipped. In a personal interview before they left I had explained to the officers in command that I believed the trip would be one of absolute peace, but that they were to take exactly the same precautions against sudden attack of any kind as if we were at war with all the nations of the earth; and that no excuse of any kind would be accepted if there were a sudden attack of any kind and we were taken unawares.

My prime purpose was to impress the American people; and this purpose was fully achieved. The cruise did make a very deep impression abroad; boasting about what we have done does not impress foreign nations at all, except unfavorably, but positive achievement does; and the two American achievements that really impressed foreign peoples during the first dozen years of this century were the digging of the Panama Canal and the cruise of the battle fleet round the world. But the impression made on our own people was of far greater consequence. No single thing in the history of the new United States Navy has done as much to stimulate popular interest and belief in it as the world cruise. This effect was forecast in a well-informed and friendly English periodical, the *London Spectator*. Writing in October 1907, a month before the fleet sailed from Hampton Roads, the *Spectator* said:

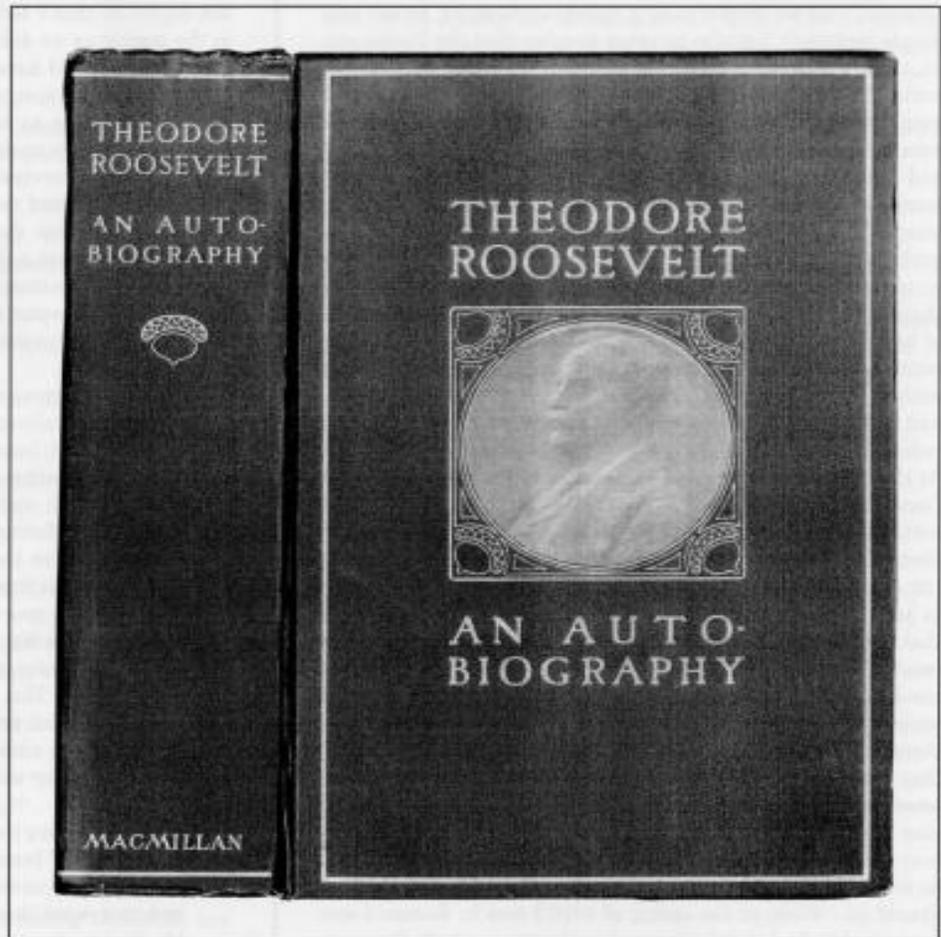
All over America the people will follow the movements of the fleet; they will learn something of the intricate details of the coaling and commissariat work under warlike conditions; and in a word their attention will be aroused. Next time Mr. Roosevelt or his representatives appeal to the country for new battleships they will do so to people whose minds

have been influenced one way or the other. The naval programme will not have stood still. We are sure that, apart from increasing the efficiency of the existing fleet, this is the aim which Mr. Roosevelt has in mind. He has a policy which projects itself far into the future, but it is an entire misreading of it to suppose that it is aimed narrowly and definitely at any single Power.

I first directed the fleet, of sixteen battleships, to go round through the Straits of Magellan to San Francisco. From thence I ordered them to New Zealand and Australia, then to the Philippines, China and Japan, and home through Suez—they stopped in the Mediterranean to help the sufferers from the earthquake at Messina, by the way, and did this work as effectively as they had done all their other work. Admiral Evans commanded the fleet to San Francisco; there Admiral Sperry took it; Admirals Thomas, Wainwright and Schroeder rendered distinguished service under Evans and Sperry. The coaling and other preparations were made in such excellent shape by the Department that there was never a hitch, not so much as the delay of an hour, in keeping every appointment made. All the repairs were made without difficulty, the ship concerned merely falling out of column for a few hours, and when the job was done steaming at speed until she regained her position. Not a ship was left in any port; and there was hardly a desertion. As soon as it was known that the voyage was to be undertaken men crowded to enlist, just as freely from the Mississippi Valley as from the seaboard, and for the first time since the Spanish War the ships put to sea overmanned—and by as stalwart a set of men-of-war's men as ever looked through a porthole, game for a fight or a frolic, but withal so self-respecting and with such a sense of responsibility that in all the ports in which they landed their conduct was exemplary. The fleet practiced incessantly during the voyage, both with the guns and in battle tactics, and came home a much more efficient fighting instrument than when it started sixteen months before.

The best men of command rank in our own service were confident that the fleet would go round in safety, in spite of the incredulity of foreign critics. Even they, however,

did not believe that it was wise to send the torpedo craft around. I accordingly acquiesced in their views, as it did not occur to me to consult the lieutenants. But shortly before the fleet started, I went in the Government yacht *Mayflower* to inspect the target practice off Provincetown. I was accompanied by two torpedo boat destroyers, in charge of a couple of naval lieutenants, thorough gamecocks; and I had the two lieutenants aboard to dine one evening. Towards the end of the dinner they could not refrain from asking if the torpedo flotilla was to go round with the big ships. I told them no, that the admirals and captains did not believe that the torpedo boats could stand it, and believed that the officers and crews aboard the cockle shells would be worn out by the constant pitching and bouncing and the everlasting need to make repairs. My two guests chorused an eager assurance that the boats could stand it. They assured me that the enlisted men were even more anxious to go than were the officers, mentioning that on one of their boats the terms of enlistment of most of the crew were out, and the men were waiting to see whether or not



Original edition.

Theodore Roosevelt Collection, Harvard College Library

to reenlist, as they did not care to do so unless the boats were to go on the cruise. I answered that I was only too glad to accept the word of the men who were to do the job, and that they should certainly go; and within half an hour I sent out the order for the flotilla to be got ready. It went round in fine shape, not a boat being laid up. I felt that the feat reflected even more credit upon the navy than did the circumnavigation of the big ships, and I wrote the flotilla commander the following letter:

May 18, 1908.

My dear Captain Cone:

A great deal of attention has been paid to the feat of our battleship fleet in encircling South America and getting to San Francisco; and it would be hard too highly to compliment the officers and enlisted men of that fleet for what they have done. Yet if I should draw any distinction at all it would be in favor of you and your associates who have taken out the torpedo flotilla. Yours was an even more notable feat, and every officer and every enlisted man in the torpedo boat flotilla has the right to feel that he has rendered distinguished service to the United States Navy and therefore to the people of the United States; and I wish I could thank each of them personally. Will you have this letter read by the commanding officer of each torpedo boat to his officers and crew?

Sincerely yours,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

LIEUTENANT COMMANDER HUTCH I. CONE, U.S.N.,
Commanding Second Torpedo Flotilla,
Care Postmaster, San Francisco, Cal.

There were various amusing features connected with the trip. Most of the wealthy people and "leaders of opinion" in the Eastern cities were panic-stricken at the proposal to take the fleet away from Atlantic waters. The great New York dailies issued frantic appeals to Congress to stop the fleet from going. The head of the Senate Committee on Naval Affairs announced that the fleet should not and could not go because Congress would refuse to appropriate the money—he being from an Eastern seaboard State. However, I announced in response that I had enough money to take the fleet around to the Pacific anyhow, that the fleet would certainly go, and that if Congress did not choose to appropriate enough money to get the fleet back, why, it would stay in the Pacific. There was no further difficulty about the money.

It was not originally my intention that the fleet should visit Australia, but the Australian Government sent a most cordial invitation, which I gladly accepted; for I have, as every American ought to have, a hearty admiration for, and fellow feeling with,

Australia, and I believe that America should be ready to stand back of Australia in any serious emergency. The reception accorded the fleet in Australia was wonderful, and it showed the fundamental community of feeling between ourselves and the great commonwealth of the South Seas. The considerate, generous, and open-handed hospitality with which the entire Australian people treated our officers and men could not have been surpassed had they been our own countrymen. The fleet first visited Sydney, which has a singularly beautiful harbor. The day after the arrival one of our captains noticed a member of his crew trying to go to sleep on a bench in the park. He had fixed above his head a large paper with some lines evidently designed to forestall any questions from friendly would-be hosts: "I am delighted with the Australian people. I think your harbor the finest in the world. I am very tired and would like to go to sleep."

The most noteworthy incident of the cruise was the reception given to our fleet in Japan. In courtesy and good breeding, the Japanese can certainly teach much to the nations of the Western world. I had been very sure that the people of Japan would understand aright what the cruise meant, and would accept the visit of our fleet as the signal honor which it was meant to be, a proof of the high regard and friendship I felt, and which I was certain the American people felt, for the great Island Empire. The event even surpassed my expectations. I cannot too strongly express my appreciation of the generous courtesy the Japanese showed the officers and crews of our fleet; and I may add that every man of them came back a friend and admirer of the Japanese. Admiral Sperry wrote me a letter of much interest, dealing not only with the reception in Tokio [sic] but with the work of our men at sea; I herewith give it almost in full:

28 October, 1908.

Dear Mr. Roosevelt:

My official report of the visit to Japan goes forward in this mail, but there are certain aspects of the affair so successfully concluded which cannot well be included in the report.

You are perhaps aware that Mr. Denison of the Japanese Foreign Office was one of my colleagues at The Hague, for whom I have a very high regard. Desiring to avoid every possibility of trouble or misunderstanding, I wrote to him last June explaining fully the character of our men, which they have so well lived up to, the desirability of ample landing places, guides, rest houses and places for changing money in order that there might be no delay in getting the men away from the docks on the excursions in which they delight. Very few of them go into a drinking place, except to get a resting place not to be found elsewhere, paying for it by taking a drink.

I also explained our system of landing with liberty men

an unarmed patrol, properly officered, to quietly take in charge and send off to their ships any men who showed the slightest trace of disorderly conduct. This letter he showed to the Minister of the Navy, who highly approved of all our arrangements, including the patrol, of which I feared they might be jealous. Mr. Denison's reply reached me in Manila, with a memorandum from the Minister of the Navy which removed all doubts. Three temporary piers were built for our boat landings, each 300 feet long, brilliantly lighted and decorated. The sleeping accommodations did not permit two or three thousand sailors to remain on shore, but the ample landings permitted them to be handled night and day with perfect order and safety.

At the landings and railroad station in Yokohama there were rest houses or booths, reputable money changers and as many as a thousand English-speaking Japanese college students acted as volunteer guides, besides Japanese sailors and petty officers detailed for the purpose. In Tokyo there were a great many excellent refreshment places, where the men got excellent meals and could rest, smoke and write letters, and in none of these places would they allow the men to pay anything, though they were more than ready to do so. The arrangements were marvelously perfect.

As soon as your telegram of October 18, giving the address to be made to the Emperor, was received, I gave copies of it to our Ambassador to be sent to the Foreign Office. It seems that the Emperor had already prepared a very cordial address to be forwarded through me to you, after delivery at the audience, but your telegram reversed the situation and his reply was prepared. I am convinced that your kind and courteous initiative on this occasion helped cause the pleasant feeling which was so obvious in the Emperor's bearing at the luncheon which followed the audience. X., who is reticent and conservative, told me that not only the Emperor but all the Ministers were profoundly gratified by the course of events. I am confident that not even the most trifling incident has taken place which could in any way mar the general satisfaction, and our Ambassador has expressed to me his great satisfaction with all that has taken place.

Owing to heavy weather encountered on the passage up from Manila the fleet was obliged to take about 3500 tons of coal.

The *Yankton* remained behind to keep up communication for a few days, and yesterday she transmitted the Emperor's telegram to you, which was sent in reply to your message through our Ambassador after the sailing of the fleet. It must be profoundly gratifying to you to have the mission on which you sent the fleet terminate so happily, and I am profoundly thankful that, owing to the confidence which you displayed in giving me this command, my active career draws to a close with such honorable distinction.

As for the effect of the cruise upon the training, discipline and effectiveness of the fleet, the good cannot be exaggerated. It is a war game in every detail. The wireless communication has been maintained with an efficiency hitherto unheard of. Between Honolulu and Auckland, 3850 miles, we were out of communication with a cable station for only one night, whereas three [non-American] [in brackets in original] men-of-war trying recently to maintain a chain of only 1250 miles, between Auckland and Sydney, were only able to do so for a few hours.

The officers and men as soon as we put to sea turn to their gunnery and tactical work far more eagerly than they go to functions. Every morning certain ships leave the column and move off seven or eight thousand yards as targets for range measuring fire control and battery practice for the others, and at night certain ships do the same thing for night battery practice. I am sorry to say that this practice is unsatisfactory, and in some points misleading, owing to the fact that the ships are painted white. At Portland, in 1903, I saw Admiral Barker's white battleships under the searchlights of the army at a distance of 14,000 yards, seven sea miles, without glasses, while the *Hartford*, a black ship, was never discovered at all, though she passed within a mile and a half. I have for years, while a member of the General Board, advocated painting the ships war color at all times, and by this mail I am asking the Department to make the necessary change in the Regulations and paint the ships properly. I do not know that any one now dissents from my view. Admiral Wainwright strongly concurs, and the War College Conference recommended it year after year without a dissenting voice.

In the afternoons the fleet has two or three hours' practice at battle maneuvers, which excite as keen interest as gunnery exercises.

The competition in coal economy goes on automatically and reacts in a hundred ways. It has reduced the waste in the use of electric light and water, and certain chief engineers are said to keep men ranging over the ships all night turning out every light not in actual and immediate use. Perhaps the most important effect is the keen hunt for defects in the machinery causing waste of power. The *Yankton* by resetting valves increased her speed from 10 to 11½ knots on the same expenditure.

All this has been done, but the field is widening, the work has only begun.

C. S. SPERRY.

When I left the Presidency I finished seven and a half years of administration, during which not one shot had been fired against a foreign foe. We were at absolute peace, and there was



President Roosevelt addressing officers and enlisted men aboard the flagship USS Connecticut upon their return from the world cruise of the Great White Fleet.

courtesy of Bill Stewart

no nation in the world with whom a war cloud threatened, no nation in the world whom we had wronged, or from whom we had anything to fear. The cruise of the battle fleet was not the least of the causes which ensured so peaceful an outlook.

When the fleet returned after its sixteen months' voyage around the world I went down to Hampton Roads to greet it. The day was Washington's Birthday, February 22, 1909. Literally on the minute the homing battlecraft came into view. On the flagship of the Admiral I spoke to the officers and enlisted men, as follows:

Admiral Sperry, Officers and Men of the Battle Fleet:

Over a year has passed since you steamed out of this harbor, and over the world's rim, and this morning the hearts of all who saw you thrilled with pride as the hulls of the mighty warships lifted above the horizon. You have been in the Northern and Southern Hemispheres; four times you have crossed the line; you have steamed through all the great oceans; you have touched the coast of every continent. Ever your general course has been westward; and now you come back to the port from which you set sail. This is the first battle fleet that has ever circumnavigated the globe. Those who perform the feat again can but follow in your footsteps.

The little torpedo flotilla went with you around South America, through the Straits of Magellan, to our own Pacific Coast. The armored cruiser squadron met you, and left you again, when you were half way round the world. You have falsified every prediction of the prophets of failure. In all your long cruise not an accident worthy of mention has happened to a single battleship, nor yet to the cruisers or

torpedo boats. You left this coast in a high state of battle efficiency, and you return with your efficiency increased; better prepared than when you left, not only in personnel but even in material. During your world cruise you have taken your regular gunnery practice, and skilled though you were before with the guns, you have grown more skilful still; and through practice you have improved in battle tactics, though here there is more room for improvement than in your gunnery. Incidentally, I suppose I need hardly say that one measure of your fitness must be your clear recognition of the need always steadily to strive to render yourselves more fit; if you ever grow to think that you are fit enough, you can make up your minds that from that moment you will begin to go backward.

As a war machine, the fleet comes back in better shape than it went out. In addition, you, the officers and men of this formidable fighting force, have shown yourselves the best of all possible ambassadors and heralds of peace. Wherever you have landed you have borne yourselves so as to make us at home proud of being your countrymen. You have shown that the best type of fighting man of the sea knows how to appear to the utmost possible advantage when his business is to behave himself on shore, and to make a good impression in a foreign land. We are proud of all the ships and all the men in this whole fleet, and we welcome you home to the country whose good repute among nations has been raised by what you have done.



Former President Theodore Roosevelt recounts and reflects on the world cruise of the Great White Fleet. Theodore Roosevelt Association Journal. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o308290>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ4: Featured Source C

Peace

Background: The illustration shows a flotilla of ships with Theodore Roosevelt's face on the lead ship; the figure of Peace (Columbia), wearing armor and carrying a sword in one hand and an olive branch fashioned out of bayonets in the other, is sitting atop this ship. Two doves flying by her side are wearing armor and are armed as well.



Pughe, J. S. , Artist. Peace / J.S. Pughe. , 1905. N.Y.: J. Ottmann Lith. Co., Puck Bldg. Photograph.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2011645688/>.

SQ4: Featured Source D

The World's Constable

Background: Print shows President Theodore Roosevelt as a constable standing between Europe, Latin America, Asia, and Africa with a truncheon labeled The New Diplomacy.



Dalrymple, Louis, Artist, and Lithographer Sackett & Wilhelms Litho. & Ptg. Co. The world's constable / Dalrymple ; Sackett & Wilhelms Litho. & Ptg. Co. New York. , 1905. New York: Judge Company Publishers, 226 Fourth Avenue, January 14. Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2014645367/>.

SQ4: Featured Source E

[Hands Off!](#)

Hands off!. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o301109>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ4: Featured Source F

[As His Critics See Him](#)



Bradley, Luther D. "As His Critics See Him." Chicago Daily News, n.d.

SQ4: Featured Source G

Good Offices

Background: This cartoon shows Theodore Roosevelt standing between Tsar Nicholas II of Russia and Emperor Meiji of Japan, with his hands on their shoulders; a scroll reading "Let us have peace" rests upon a drum in the foreground.



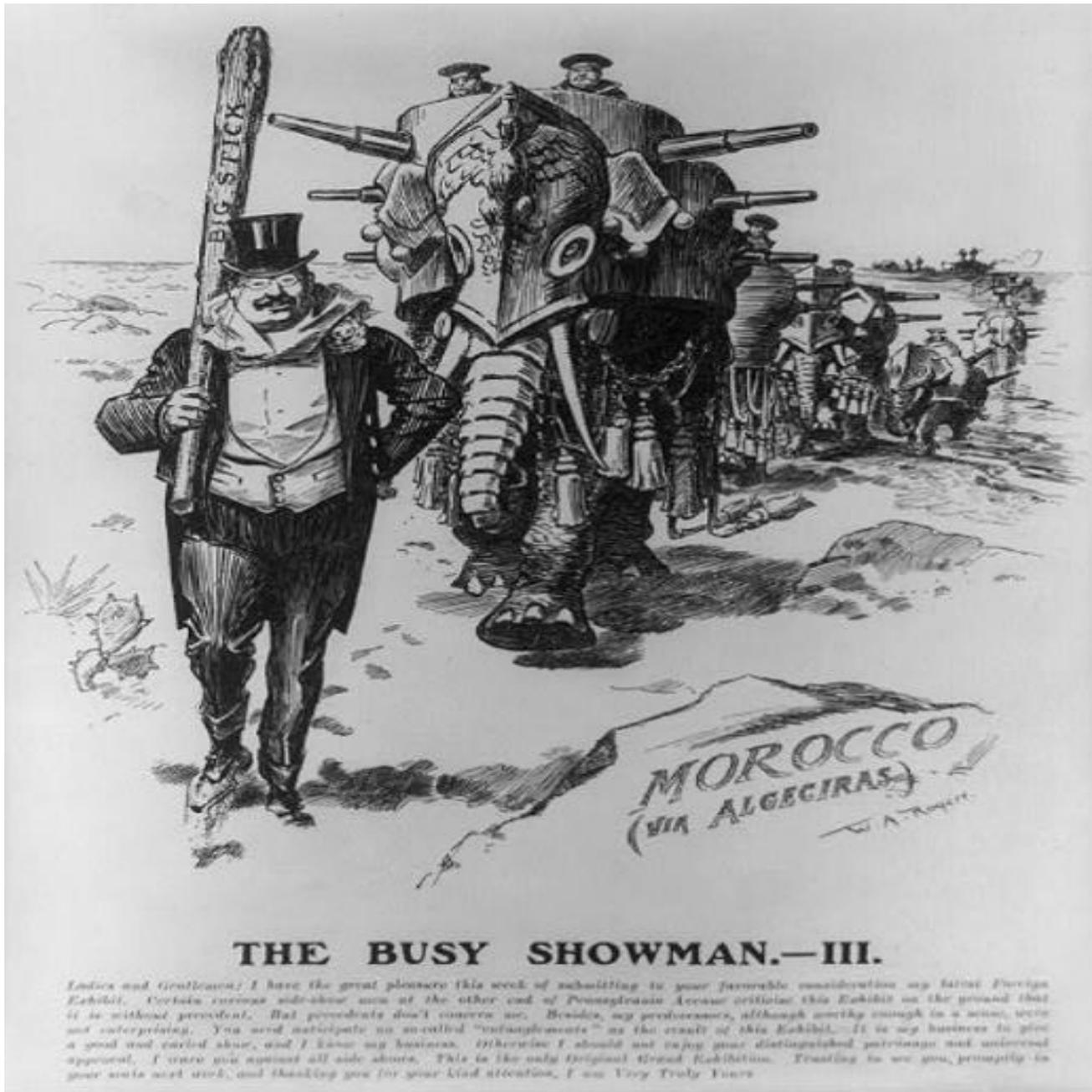
Rogers, W. A. , Artist. "Good offices" / W. A. Rogers. , 1905. Photograph.

<https://www.loc.gov/resource/cph.3a11884/>

SQ4: Featured Source H

The Busy Showman

Background: Photograph of a cartoon showing Theodore Roosevelt carrying a "big stick" as he leads a formation of armored elephants carrying cannons and naval personnel out of the sea; rock in foreground reads Morocco (via Algeciras).



Rogers, W. A. , Artist. The busy showman.--III. , 1906. February 3. Photograph.

<https://www.loc.gov/item/2010645507/>.

Summative Performance Task

At this point in the inquiry, students have examined a variety of primary and secondary sources which utilize different mediums to express opinions, messages, and historical accounts. Because of the work they've conducted over the course of the inquiry, students should have a firm understanding of the political, economic, and social issues prevalent during this period of imperialism within United States' history, as well as the conflicting views surrounding these issues.

Students should be expected to demonstrate the breadth of their understandings and their abilities to use evidence from multiple sources to support their claims. In this task, students must create an argumentative essay in which they take a stance on whether or not more harm or good came from the strength possessed by the United States during the end of the 19th and start of the 20th century. Students must assess their findings, determine an appropriate answer, and argue whether or not the expansion and increased involvement of the United States within the global world, and the way the nation went about doing so, was justifiable and/or beneficial to the nations affected by it. Students will utilize the information they've gathered throughout the Formative Performance tasks in addition to a minimum of five outside resources which they must independently find, assess, and utilize as evidence for their argument.

Students' arguments will likely vary, but could include any of the following:

- The constant threat of force exerted by the United States created a sense of fear amongst other nations of the world, many of which within western hemisphere and the pacific were unable to resist out of threat of military retaliation
- The efforts and policies of the united states during this time period allowed for major political, social, and economic developments that world improve the world in the long term such as the finishing of the Panama Canal, the limitation of European powers within the western hemisphere (the same powers that would trigger and escalate the first world war), and allow for the US to negotiate, mediate, and at times police certain crises from a position of strength.

To support students in their writing, the teacher will reinforce the importance of the skills of sourcing, close reading, document analysis, contextualization, and the efficient recording of findings and research. All of which are skills students have been developing and engaging with over the course of this inquiry.

To extend their arguments, students will either individually present their arguments to the class or participate in a class debate over their arguments (dependent upon teacher's decision). If the opinion of the classroom is evenly divided (at least around 7/13) then the appropriate use of the extension portion of the inquiry will be a debate held between each side in which students will be graded on the structure, clarity, and academic professionalism they display in addition to their argumentative essays. If the divide between stances taken by the students is inadequate for a debate, then students should be expected to present their findings through a medium of their choice [speech, PowerPoint, video presentation, physical poster, etc]

After fulfilling the Formative and Summative Performance tasks, students should have a better understanding of the overall trends, justification, and consequences of US involvement/authority within the global world. Students have the opportunity to utilize their knowledge and take Informed Action by selecting one modern example of our nation

C3 TEACHERS

becoming involved (politically, socially, economically, or militarily) in the affairs of other nations [No more than 15 years ago]. Students must analyze the cause, effects, justification, and opposition to the actions taken by the United States. Additionally, they must display how such involvement coincides, correlates, and or contradicts the policies of Theodore Roosevelt. They conclude this Informed Action by creating some medium to display their findings and evidence based argument, and then making it publicly accessible either by submitting it to the school, local history center/site, or the Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

<p>The World Before the Spanish American War</p>	<p>The World After the Spanish American War</p>
<p>Causes of the Spanish American War</p>	<p>Effects of the Spanish American War</p>

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

Directions: In a minimum of two paragraphs, answer the question “How did the Spanish American War change the world?”. Be sure to utilize the resources previously provided as well as your notes from the previous page.

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

“Well I hardly know which to take first!” (1898)

What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political

Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism

What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.

What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

“Fun for the boys” (1900)

What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political

Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism

What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.

What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

NAME:

“School begins” (1899)

What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political

Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism

What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.

What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

“I rather like that imported affair” (1904)

What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political

Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism

What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.

What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

“Lesson for Anti-Expansionists” (1899)

What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political

Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism

What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.

What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

“And, After All, the Philippines are Only the Steppingstone to China” (1900)

What event, individual, or event is being represented within the political

Is the cartoon pro or anti-imperialism

What evidence within the cartoon supports that claim.

What message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

Directions: In four to eight sentences, how do you believe a strong nation should conduct itself when dealing with other nations; what do you believe are its responsibilities?

Directions: In a similar length response to the previous question, based on what you’ve learned thus far, has the United States of the late 19th and early 20th century has met or failed to meet your expectations.

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

Directions: Students will be looking into primary and secondary sources that cover actions taken by the United States surrounding the locations of the South America, Panama, and the Philippines. In each section, students must use the resources provided to note down: (1) What actions were taken in regard to that specific location, (2) What were the justifications for the actions taken, and (3) Whether or not they agree or disagree with the justifications for the actions taken, as well as an explanation of their decision

South America

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

Panama

The Philippines

NAME:

“IS IT WRONG TO BE STRONG?” INQUIRY NOTE PACKET

