

What Does it Take to Lead the United States?



Clinedinst, Barnett Mcfee, photographer. President Roosevelt and his Tennis Cabinet. United States, 1909. [1 March] Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2013650863/>.

Supporting Questions

- SQ 1: How should a nation utilize resources?
- SQ 2: What role should the United States have in the world?
- SQ 3: What are the challenges a nation must face?
- SQ 4: What is greatness, and what is strife?

11th Grade United States History Inquiry

What Does it Take to Lead the United States?	
Standards and Content	11.5 b Rapid industrialization and urbanization created significant challenges and societal problems that were addressed by a variety of reform efforts.
Staging the Compelling Question	Students will first think independently of three prevalent issues they can identify within their local community, the nation, or the other parts of the world. Students will then engage in a class discussion to identify which issues are frequently encountered, and are also tasked with identifying at least two differing viewpoints or groups of interest surrounding those issues. The teacher will then split the class into groups with these differing stances and role, with the exception of two students. Before being assigned roles and split into groups, the class will select a “Most Important Person” (MIP) and a “Second Most Important Person” (SMIP). These two students must listen to the various student groups and attempt to come up with and write down a list of solutions to these issues without being voted out of their positions, which the class can do at any time in the activity. After the list is made, the class will be informed that the MIP has suffered an accident, and it is now the SMIP who must fulfill the list. The question is then asked: What does it take to lead the United States?

Supporting Question 1
How should a nation utilize resources
Formative Performance Task
This task is divided in three parts: (1) Students will analyze the three key groups of Conservationist, Industrialist, and Labor Worker, explaining the causes, effects, goals, and methods of these three groups and whether or not they believe a compromise is possible between them; (2) Students will theorize what actions the President should take to lead the members of these groups, and to predict what actions he would take; (3) Students explain how their predictions compare and contrast with the actions taken by Theodore Roosevelt.

Supporting Question 2
What role should the United States have in the world?
Formative Performance Task
Students will take a closer look into the growing involvement and influence the United States was having on the political world stage. Using primary and secondary sources, students will learn of the United States’ involvement in the world at the time surrounding Theodore Roosevelt’s inauguration and during his president, and to analyze Roosevelt’s foreign policies and immigration trends of the time period. Students will then select four topics that connect Theodore Roosevelt’s presidency to the modern administrations and will identify how and why the US was involved and determine whether or not the it was justified.

Supporting Question 3
What are the challenges a nation must face?
Formative Performance Task
Students will explore key issues present within the US when Theodore Roosevelt became president. Beginning with a presentation from the Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site, which covers Roosevelt’s stances towards topics such as poverty, racial conflict, balance of labor and industry, environmentalism, and international affairs, students will analyze primary and secondary sources for information regarding these issues as well as the solutions implemented by Roosevelt. In the third portion of this formative task, students will engage with modern examples of these issues to determine lingering trends or patterns that emerge.

Supporting Question 4
What is greatness, and what is strife?
Formative Performance Task
Students will read and analyze excerpts of Teddy Roosevelt’s 1910 speech, “The Man in the Arena”. After reading the provided excerpts of the speech, students must find examples from Roosevelt’s and modern presidencies that have upheld the ideals expressed, identifying at least five examples of strife and five examples of greatness within these presidencies. Then, students must construct a three-paragraph essay which compares and contrasts these examples from the past and present to show their understanding of how the efforts and responsibilities of those leading the United States have changed or remained the same over time.

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Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
<p>Source A: Overview of the rise of industrial America from the Library of Congress</p> <p>Source B: Library of Congress article “Work in the Late 19th Century”</p> <p>Source C: Students of History webpage Gilded Age Robber Barons</p> <p>Source D: Political Cartoon “The Tournament of Today - A Set-to Between Labor and Monopoly” (1883)</p> <p>Source E: Kahn Academy, “Labor battles in the Gilded Age”</p> <p>Source F: Library of Congress Article “Conservation in the Progressive Era”</p> <p>Source G: Theodore Roosevelt’s at Fitchburg, Massachusetts (1901-1909?)</p> <p>Source H: Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Thomas J. Dolan (1907)</p> <p>Source I: “Theodore Roosevelt: Domestic Affairs”, by Sidney Mikis</p>	<p>Source A: Library of Congress article “America at the Turn of the Century”</p> <p>Source B: Webpage - Roosevelt’s “Big Stick” Foreign Policy</p> <p>Source C: Article in which Roosevelt discusses the Monroe Doctrine and its application in South America (1914)</p> <p>Source D: Boundless Immigration article “Immigration During Theodore Roosevelt’s Presidency”</p> <p>Source E: Wikipedia webpage “2020s in United States political history”</p>	<p>Source A: Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site theater room presentation</p> <p>Source B: Library of Congress, “Cities During the Progressive Era”</p> <p>Source C: Photograph “Street Arabs in ‘sleeping quarters’” (1888)</p> <p>Source D: Photograph “Family in poverty gap, N.Y.C. tenement room” (1889)</p> <p>Source E: Teddy Roosevelt Center Article “Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform”</p> <p>Source F: Bill of Rights Institute webpage, “Jim Crow and Progressivism”</p> <p>Source G: “How Teddy Roosevelt’s Belief in a Racial Hierarchy Shaped His Policies”, Christopher Klein</p> <p>Source H: Teddy Roosevelt Center Articles “The Square Deal”</p> <p>Source I: Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Albion W. Tourgee (1901)</p> <p>Source J: Political Cartoon “Next!” (1904)</p> <p>Source K: Political Cartoon “The Broncho Buster at Work” (1902)</p> <p>Source L: Teddy Roosevelt Center Article “Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform”</p> <p>Source M: National Park Service webpage “Theodore Roosevelt and Conservation”</p> <p>Source N: Kahn Academy webpage “Introduction to the age of empire”</p> <p>Source O: Political cartoon “And, After All, the Philippines are Only the Steppingstone to China”</p>	<p>Source A: Theodore Roosevelt “Man in the Arena” Speech excerpt</p>

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		<p>(1900) Source P: Political cartoon “The Coup d’etat.” (1903) Source Q: Excerpt from Roosevelt’s Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine (1905)</p>	
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Summative Performance Task	<p>ARGUMENT: Students must construct an evidence based argumentative essay or presentation in which they exhibit an understanding of the role and responsibilities of the President of the United States, how the position has changed and/or remained the same since Theodore Roosevelt, and what skills and challenges are historically associated with the position</p>
	<p>EXTENSION: Students will share their findings to the class through a digital presentation and must use their understanding of the topic and evidence to support their claims against differing viewpoints</p>
Taking Informed Action	<p>UNDERSTAND: Students must select one key issue that is present within any society, such as the ones discussed within this inquiry. This can include balancing economic progress with social stability, addressing poverty, discrimination within society, international relations, and other similar topics. After selecting an issue as a topic for this assignment, students will then select from 4-5 presidents that have worked to address this issue, the only requirement is that Teddy Roosevelt and the current president must be included.</p> <p>ASSESS: Students will compare and contrast how the presidents selected for this project addressed the chosen issue during their time in office, and make their research presentable through mediums such as a posterboard, research paper, PowerPoint, or AI presentation. They must then present their findings to the class.</p> <p>ACT: Students will make their final product accessible to their community or a wider audience by submitting it to a local or historic site for display. This could include their school, local library, 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 presidency of Theodore Roosevelt, the challenges facing the nation when entered the presidency, and what actions he took to address these challenges.

This this inquiry highlights the following additional standards:

- 11.5 a: New technologies and economic models created rapid industrial growth and transformed the United States.
- 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.

It is important to note that this inquiry requires prerequisite knowledge of the effects of the US Industrial Revolution, growing conflict between large businesses and labor unions, early examples of US imperialism such as the acquisition of Hawaii and role within the Spanish American War, and the economic and cultural buildup leading to the Pan America Exposition held in Buffalo, New York.

Note: This inquiry is expected to take eight to fifteen 50-minute class periods. This includes one to two days dedicated to each Supporting Question and then two to three days, each, for the Summative Task and the Taking Informed Action. 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 use Theodore Roosevelt's presidency as a means to learn of the political, social, and economic challenges facing the United States in the early 20th century, many of which persist to this day, and how the actions taken the president established trends, mindsets, and solutions to these issues which can still be found influencing the nation and the world in the modern age.

Staging the Compelling Question

For the first part in staging the compelling question activity, task each student to think of at least three issues that they believe need to be addressed within their community, the county, or the world as a whole. Have them then talk amongst each other to discuss these issues and see if there are any common issues that are multiply repeated. Then, have the students think about two opposing viewpoints regarding the issue. These could include differing views, opposing goals, and differing groups of interest surrounding the issue. Have students write down what advice or ideas these groups would have in order to address these issues and what individuals belonging to these groups/views would want done by someone in a position of power who could act on them.

Throughout this activity, the teacher will be jotting down the issue and at least two opposing views on the issue [considering which groups agree, disagree, or work off of each other] to ensure that the activity can progress to the next stage. This next stage of the activity begins with assigning all but two students to at least one of these groups, the other two will be selected by the class as the “Most Important” and “Second Most Important Person” (MIP and SMIP). These two students will be tasked with listening to the various groups to create a list of solutions, policies, and/or ideas that will be implemented for each problem. The other student must work to convince these two to put a solution/idea beneficial to them into this list, but can vote in a new one by a majority vote at any point in the activity. The SMIP is the chief advisor of the MIP, who is in charge of making the decisions of what is to be done and writing it down.

After this has been achieved, regardless of how many MIP and SMIP are voted in and out, the class will be informed that the MIP has suffered a tragic accident, and the SMIP is now in charge of fulfilling and/or changing the list. This is when the teacher will ask the question: what does it take to lead the United States?

It is at this point that the teacher may distribute the Inquiry Note Packet to the classroom, which will be utilized for recording answers and notes over the course of this inquiry.

Supporting Question 1

The first supporting question— How should a nation utilize resources?

The formative task will have students analyze the resources discussing the resources available to a nation. These are the resources of nature, industrialization, and labor. Using primary and secondary sources will further their understanding on the topics of Nature Conservationism, Industrialization, clashes between Big Business and Labor Unions.

This task is divided in three parts, students will record their answers and observations for each portion of this task onto their Inquiry Note Packet: (1) Students read the first set of primary and secondary sources [Sources A through F] and will analyze the three key groups of Conservationist, Industrialist, and Labor Worker. Students will explain the causes, effects, goals, and methods of these three groups and then determine whether or not they believe a compromise is possible between them; (2) Students will use the information gathered to determine what actions the President should take to balance out and successfully lead the members of these groups. Afterwards, they will be provided two letters written by Theodore Roosevelt [Sources G and H] to predict what actions he would take; (3) Students read the Domestic Affairs article [Source I] and must explain how their own opinions and predictions compare and contrast with the actions taken by Theodore Roosevelt.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Contextualizing and Close Reading 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 and Inquiry Packet

The following sources were selected to provide students with a clear comprehension of the context of the progressive era and three key groups of interest that were politically prominent and significant during this time, in addition to students developing a better understanding of the intricate factors dictating how a nation’s resources are utilized.

- **Featured Source A:** Overview of the rise of industrial America from the Library of Congress
- **Featured Source B:** Library of Congress article “Work in the Late 19th Century”
- **Featured Source C:** Students of History webpage Gilded Age Robber Barons
- **Featured Source D:** Political Cartoon "The Tournament of Today - A Set-to Between Labor and Monopoly" (1883)
- **Featured Source E:** Kahn Academy, “Labor battles in the Gilded Age”
- **Featured Source F:** Library of Congress Article “Conservation in the Progressive Era”
- **Featured Source G:** Theodore Roosevelt’s at Fitchburg, Massachusetts (19012-1909?)
- **Featured Source H:** Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Thomas J. Dolan (1907)
- **Featured Source I:** “Theodore Roosevelt: Domestic Affairs”, by Sidney Mikis – Excerpt

SQ1: Featured Source A

[Library of Congress: Rise of Industrial America - Overview](#)

In the decades following the Civil War, the United States emerged as an industrial giant. Old industries expanded and many new ones, including petroleum refining, steel manufacturing, and electrical power, emerged. Railroads expanded significantly, bringing even remote parts of the country into a national market economy.

Industrial growth transformed American society. It produced a new class of wealthy industrialists and a prosperous middle class. It also produced a vastly expanded blue collar working class. The labor force that made industrialization possible was made up of millions of newly arrived immigrants and even larger numbers of migrants from rural areas. American society became more diverse than ever before.

Not everyone shared in the economic prosperity of this period. Many workers were typically unemployed at least part of the year, and their wages were relatively low when they did work. This situation led many workers to support and join labor unions. Meanwhile, farmers also faced hard times as technology and increasing production led to more competition and falling prices for farm products. Hard times on farms led many young people to move to the city in search of better job opportunities.

Americans who were born in the 1840s and 1850s would experience enormous changes in their lifetimes. Some of these changes resulted from a sweeping technological revolution. Their major source of light, for example, would change from candles, to kerosene lamps, and then to electric light bulbs. They would see their transportation evolve from walking and horse power to steam-powered locomotives, to electric trolley cars, to gasoline-powered automobiles. Born into a society in which the vast majority of people were involved in agriculture, they experienced an industrial revolution that radically changed the ways millions of people worked and where they lived. They would experience the migration of millions of people from rural America to the nation's rapidly growing cities.

“Overview : Rise of Industrial America, 1876-1900: U.S. History Primary Source Timeline: Classroom Materials at the Library of Congress: Library of Congress.” The Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/rise-of-industrial-america-1876-1900/overview/>

SQ1: Featured Source B

Work in the Late 19th Century

The late 19th-century United States is probably best known for the vast expansion of its industrial plant and output. At the heart of these huge increases was the mass production of goods by machines. This process was first introduced and perfected by British textile manufacturers.

In the century since such mechanization had begun, machines had replaced highly skilled craftspeople in one industry after another. By the 1870s, machines were knitting stockings and stitching shirts and dresses, cutting and stitching leather for shoes, and producing nails by the millions. By reducing labor costs, such machines not only reduced manufacturing costs but lowered prices manufacturers charged consumers. In short, machine production created a growing abundance of products at cheaper prices.

Mechanization also had less desirable effects. For one, machines changed the way people worked. Skilled craftspeople of earlier days had the satisfaction of seeing a product through from beginning to end. When they saw a knife, or barrel, or shirt or dress, they had a sense of accomplishment. Machines, on the other hand, tended to subdivide production down into many small repetitive tasks with workers often doing only a single task. The pace of work usually became faster and faster; work was often performed in factories built to house the machines. Finally, factory managers began to enforce an industrial discipline, forcing workers to work set hours which were often very long.

One result of mechanization and factory production was the growing attractiveness of labor organization. To be sure, craft guilds had been around a long time. Now, however, there were increasing reasons for workers to join labor unions. Such labor unions were not notably successful in organizing large numbers of workers in the late 19th century. Still, unions were able to organize a variety of strikes and other work stoppages that served to publicize their grievances about working conditions and wages. Even so, labor unions did not gain even close to equal footing with businesses and industries until the economic chaos of the 1930s.

“Work In the Late 19th Century .” The Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/rise-of-industrial-america-1876-1900/work-in-late-19th-century/>.

SQ1: Featured Source C

Students of History: Gilded Age Robber Barons

During the Gilded Age, a number of businessmen made large sums of money by gaining control of whole industries such as railroads, banking, or oil. The practice of controlling an entire industry is known as having a monopoly over that industry.

Four men in particular created monopolies and gained vast wealth during the Gilded Age: JP Morgan, Cornelius Vanderbilt, John D. Rockefeller, and Andrew Carnegie.

JP Morgan was born John Pierpont Morgan on April 17, 1837. He dominated the banking and finance industry during the Gilded Age. During the financial Panic of 1907, Morgan helped save the American economy leading a bail out of failing banks. Morgan financed several multinational corporations including U.S. Steel and General Electric.

His power of the economy made some in the government nervous. As a result, Congress passed the Federal Reserve Act in 1913, which created America's central banking system the Federal Reserve.

Even wealthier than JP Morgan was John D. Rockefeller, America's first billionaire and founder of the Standard Oil Company. While Morgan was born into wealth, Rockefeller started at the bottom as a clerk.

After the Civil War, Rockefeller realized that oil would be the future of powering an industrialized America. He bought up every oil company he could and created a monopoly. This process of buying up companies to eliminate competition is known as "horizontal integration".

At this time, oil was an important commodity in the United States, as it was first used as a light source and later as a way to power automobiles. He even sold oil by products to create tar, petroleum jelly, paint, and chewing gum.

His ruthless business practices came under criticism, particularly from the muckraker Ida Tarbell. In 1911, the Supreme Court ruled that Standard Oil violated federal antitrust laws. It was broken up into 34 separate entities, including the future ExxonMobil and Chevron.

In his later years, Rockefeller became a philanthropist and gave great sums of his money to charities that helped medicine, education, and scientific research.

Cornelius Vanderbilt was an American businessman who built his wealth through the railroad and shipping industries. Born in 1794, Vanderbilt was an early investor in America's first railroads. He got into the industry at the ground floor and was able to accumulate incredible wealth.

After 1849, when people flocked to the West with the promise of finding gold, Vanderbilt took advantage of Americans' wishes to head to California. He set up the Accessory Transit Company, which many hopefuls used to travel to the West Coast during the Gold Rush.

Vanderbilt's railroads needed steel, as did America's growing cities. Andrew Carnegie, an immigrant from Scotland, realized this need and became one of the richest people in American history through his Carnegie Steel Company.

Carnegie immigrated to Pittsburgh with his parents in 1848 at age 12. Like Rockefeller, he started at the bottom and worked 12-hour days at a cotton mill as a young boy.

He later found work as a telegraph operator for a railroad company and worked his way up after investing in railroads, oil, and steel. America's industrialization led Carnegie Steel Company to become one of the most successful companies in the world.

Carnegie utilized "vertical integration" in which he owned every aspect of the business, from the mines to the factories, to the railroads that shipped his steel. It was because he was in charge of the process from the first step to the last that he became so wealthy.

JP Morgan would later buy Carnegie Steel and transform it into his U.S. Steel Corporation. Like Rockefeller, Carnegie retired and became a philanthropist.

There is still a debate in American history if these wealthy business tycoons are robber barons or captains of industry. They helped to create the idea of the American Dream, that hard work and good fortune would bring wealth. However, they also exploited workers, often children, with low wages, long hours, and dangerous working conditions.

A group of progressives would challenge them and help create laws that would better protect America's workers.

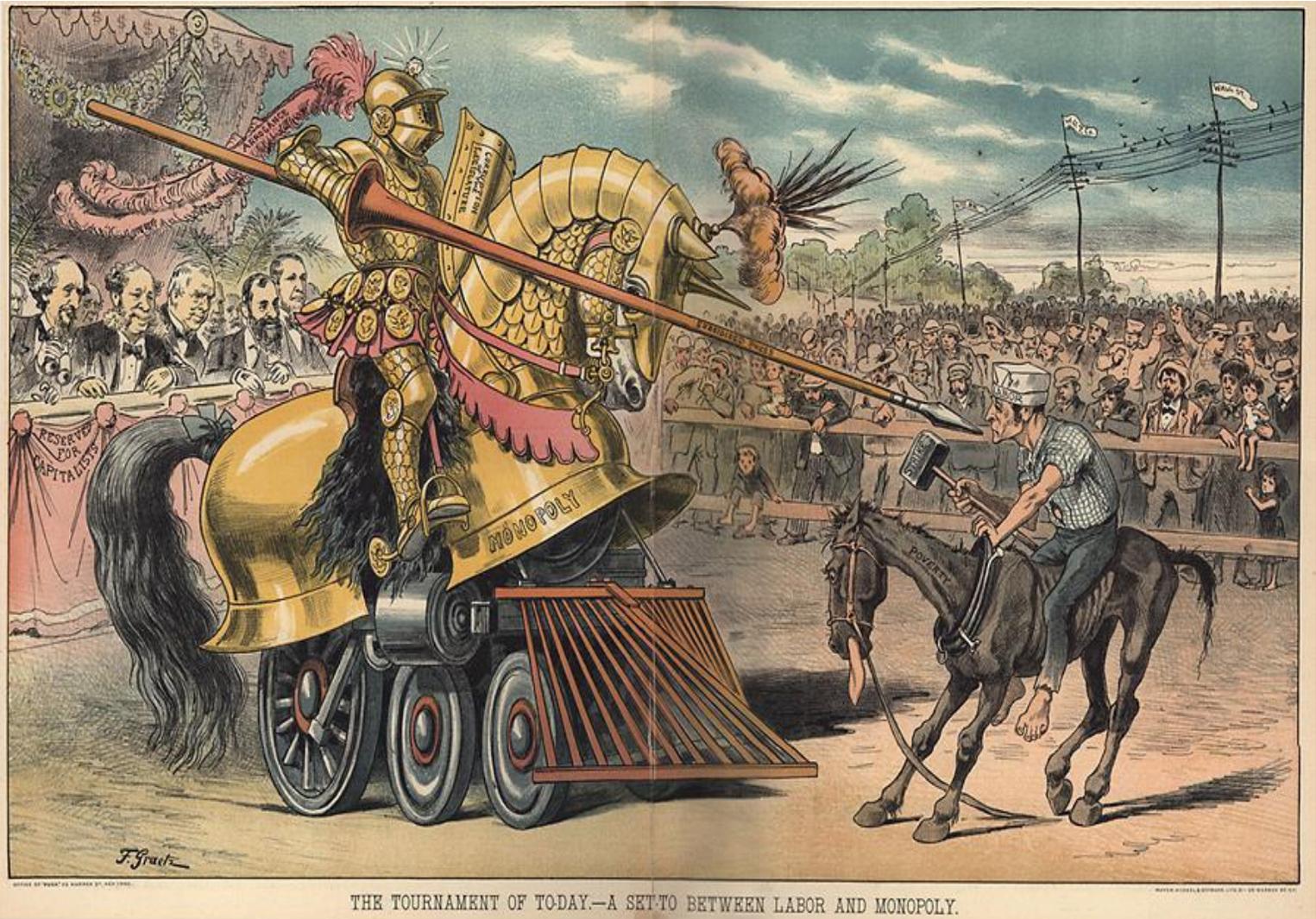
"Gilded Age Robber Barons." Students of History Teaching Resources, 2024.

<https://www.studentsofhistory.com/gilded-age-robber-barons>.

SQ1: Featured Source D

"The Tournament of Today - A Set-to Between Labor and Monopoly"

Background: This 1883 cartoon from the satirical magazine Puck imagines a medieval-style joust between working people and the industrialists and railroad owners who largely controlled the U.S. economy in the late nineteenth century. The spectators in the section of the audience marked "Reserved for Capitalists" include railroad company owners Jay Gould and William Henry Vanderbilt.



F. Graetz, "The Tournament of Today - A Set-to Between Labor and Monopoly," chromolithograph, Puck, 1 August 1883, available from Georgia State University Library, <http://www.library.gsu.edu/spcoll/pages/pages.asp?ldID=105&guideID=510&ID=4223>

SQ1: Featured Source E

Labor Battles in the Gilded Age**Gilded Age Capitalism and the Rise of Unions**

By the late 1800s the United States' industrial output and GDP was growing faster than that of any other country in the world.

At the center of the nation's economic success was a dynamic and expansive industrial capitalism, one consequence of which was mass immigration. From 1865 to 1918, 27.5 million immigrants poured into the United States, many aspiring to the opportunities afforded by the nation's economic successes.

The late nineteenth century was a time when industrial capitalism was new, raw, and sometimes brutal. Between 1881 and 1900, 35,000 workers per year lost their lives in industrial and other accidents at work, and strikes were commonplace: no fewer than 100,000 workers went on strike each year. In 1892, for example, 1,298 strikes involving some 164,000 workers took place across the nation. Unions—which function to protect workers' wages, hours of labor, and working conditions—were on the rise.

Strikes and strikebreaking: The Homestead Strike

On June 29, 1892, Henry Clay Frick, the manager of the Homestead Steelworks outside Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania—motivated by a desire to break the union of skilled steel workers who for years had controlled elements of the workflow on the shop floor in the steel mill and slowed output—locked the members of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers (AA) out of the Homestead Steelworks. In response, the next day, AA members struck the plant.

In the first days of the strike, Frick decided to bring in a group of strikebreakers (commonly called scabs). To get inside the steelworks, the replacement workers would have the daunting task of making their way past picketing strikers who had surrounded the steelworks. But Frick hadn't hired any old strikebreakers: he decided to hire men from the Pinkerton detective agency, who were technically dubbed “detectives” but who were actually armed men seeking to push past striking workers and forcibly reopen the steelworks.

On July 6, gunfire broke out between striking workers and some of the three hundred Pinkerton detectives that Frick had hired. The Pinkerton agents, who were aboard barges being towed toward the side of the steelworks that bordered the Monongahela River, were pinned down in the barges by gunfire from the striking workers. By the next afternoon, with several having been killed on both sides, the Pinkertons raised a white flag of surrender.

Five days later, however, 6,000 state militiamen who had been dispatched by the governor of Pennsylvania marched into town, surrounded the steelworks, and reopened the plant. The state government had sided with the owners. The union had been defeated.

The Pullman Strike

George Pullman was an engineer who designed a popular railroad sleeping car. (Before the advent of cars and airplanes, Americans traveled long distances by rail and slept in railroad cars on the trains.) George Pullman manufactured the nation's most popular sleeping cars, and Pullman was so successful that he built a company town outside Chicago, where the 12,000 workers who built Pullman sleeping cars worked and lived. But when, in the spring of 1894, amid a general economic downturn and decline in prices nationally, Pullman cut workers' wages without also proportionally reducing rents on the company-owned houses or prices of goods sold in the company-owned stores, workers struck.

The Pullman Strike, which had begun in May, spread the next month to become a nationwide railroad strike as the American Railway Union, led by Eugene V. Debs, called out workers on railroads across the country in sympathy with Pullman workers.

In turn, the railroad companies placed bags of US Mail onto trains striking workers were refusing to move. Declaring that the American Railway Union was illegally obstructing the delivery of the United States mail, rail owners enlisted the support of US President Grover Cleveland. Cleveland dispatched troops to Chicago, ostensibly to protect the US Mail, and an injunction was issued against the union. Debs and other strike leaders were imprisoned when they refused to abide by the court-ordered injunction and call off the strike. The injunction was upheld by the courts, and the strike was ended by late July. Again, government—this time the federal government—had sided with employers in a labor-management dispute.

The Federal Government and the Labor Movement

The limits and legal rights of those who own companies and those who work in companies is an ongoing debate in American politics. As a nation equally committed to both capitalism and the rights of individuals, the United States has struggled to balance the needs of corporations and the needs of workers.

As in the Homestead and Pullman strikes, government in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries often sided with management and against unions. But not always. In the 1902 anthracite coal strike President Teddy Roosevelt threatened coal mine owners that if they did not bargain in good faith with the coal workers' union that the federal government—would take over control of the mines. The owners quickly capitulated to his demands and the strike was settled.

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In the Great Depression, the federal government enacted provisions on behalf of workers and labor unions. President Franklin Roosevelt signed the Wagner Labor Relations Act into law on July 5, 1935. The Wagner Act established federal guidelines for allowing unions to organize and established the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) as a federal agency to enforce the Act's pro-labor provisions.

In 1947, however, Congress amended the Wagner Act with the Taft-Hartley Act (still in effect today), which restricts the activities and power of labor unions.

“Labor Battles in the Gilded Age (Article).” Khan Academy. <https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/us-history/the-gilded-age/gilded-age/a/labor-battles-in-the-gilded-age#:~:text=The%20Homestead%20Strike%20occurred%20at,steelworkers%20ultimately%20lost%20the%20strike.>

SQ1: Featured Source F

Conservation in the Progressive Era

In the mid to late 19th century, natural resources were heavily exploited, especially in the West. Land speculators and developers took over large tracts of forests and grazing land. Acreage important to waterpower was seized by private concerns. Mining companies practiced improper and wasteful mining practices. Assuming a seemingly inexhaustible supply of natural resources, Americans developed a "tradition of waste."

Alarmed by the public's attitude toward natural resources as well as the exploitation of natural resources for private gain, conservationists called for federal supervision of the nation's resources and the preservation of those resources for future generations. In President Theodore Roosevelt, the conservationists found a sympathetic ear and man of action. Conservation of the nation's resources, putting an end to wasteful uses of raw materials, and the reclamation of large areas of neglected land have been identified as some of the major achievements of the Roosevelt era.

President Roosevelt's concern for the environment was influenced by American naturalists, such as John Muir, and by his own political appointees, including Gifford Pinchot, Chief of Forestry. Working in concert with many individuals and organizations, the Roosevelt administration was responsible for the following: the Newlands Act of 1902, which funded irrigation projects from the proceeds of the sale of federal lands in the West; the appointment of the Inland Waterways Commission in 1907 to study the relation of rivers, soil, forest, waterpower development, and water transportation; and the National Conservation Commission of 1909, which was charged with drawing up long-range plans for preserving national resources. Along with a vocal group of conservationists, the Roosevelt administration created an environmental conservation movement whose words and actions continue to be heard and felt throughout the nation today.

"Conservation in the Progressive Era: Progressive Era to New Era, 1900-1929." The Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/progressive-era-to-new-era-1900-1929/conservation-in-progressive-era/>.

SQ1: Featured Source F

[Extract of President Roosevelt's Speech at Fitchburg, Massachusetts](#)

free space

If some of those who have seen cause for wonder in what I have said this fall on the subject of the great corporations, which are popularly, although with technical inaccuracy, known as trusts, would take the trouble to read my messages when I was Governor, what I said on the stump two years ago, and what I put into my first message to Congress, I think they would have been less astonished. I said nothing on the stump that I did not think I could make good, and I shall not hesitate now to take the position which I then advocated. I am even more anxious that you who hear what I say should think of it than that you should applaud it. I am not going to try to define with technical accuracy what ought to be meant when we speak of a trust. But if by trust we mean merely a big corporation, then I ask you to ponder the utter folly of the man who either in a spirit of rancor or in a spirit of folly says "destroy the trusts", without giving you an idea of what he means really to do. I will go with him if he says "destroy the evil in the trusts, gladly (Applause). I will try to find out that evil, I will seek to apply remedies, which I have already outlined in other speeches. But if his policy, from whatever motive, whether hatred, fear, panic or just sheer ignorance, is to destroy the trusts in a way that will destroy all our prosperity,- No. Those men who advocate wild and foolish remedies which would be worse than the disease, are doing all in their power to perpetuate the evils against which they nominally war, because if we are brought face to face with the naked issue of either keeping or totally destroying a prosperity in which the majority share, but in which some share improperly, why as sensible men we must decide that it is a great deal better that some people should prosper too much than that no one should prosper enough. So that the man who advocates destroying the trusts by measures which would paralyze the industries of the country, is at best a quack and at worst an enemy to the republic.

Referring to the conditions which existed in 1898, the Presi-

~~dent said:~~

There was no trouble about anybody making too much money then. The trusts were down, but the trouble was that we were all of us down. Nothing but harm to the whole body politic can come from ignorant agitation, carried on partially against real evils, partially against imaginary evils, but in a spirit which would substitute for the real evils, evils just as real and infinitely greater. Those men if they should succeed could do nothing to bring about a solution of the great problems with which we are concerned. If they should destroy certain of the evils at the cost of overthrowing the well being of the entire country, it would mean merely that there would come a reaction in which they and their remedies would be hopelessly discredited. x x x x x

Now it does not do anybody any good, and it will do most of us a great deal of harm, to take steps which will check any proper growth in a corporation. We wish not to penalize but to reward a great captain of industry or the men banded together in a corporation who have the business forethought and energy necessary to build up a great industrial enterprise. Keep that in mind. A big corporation may be doing excellent work for the whole country and you want, above all things, when striving to get a plan which will prevent wrongdoing by a corporation which desires to do wrong, not at the same time to have a scheme which will interfere with a corporation doing well if that corporation is handling itself honestly and squarely. Now what I am saying ought to be treated as simple, elementary truths. The only reason it is necessary to say them at all is that apparently some people forget them. I believe something can be done by national legislation. When I state that I ask you to note my words. I say I believe. It is not in my power to say I know. When I talk to you of my own executive duties I can tell you definitely what will and what will not be done. When I speak of the actions of anyone else I can only say that I believe something more can be done by national legislation. I believe it will be done. I think we can get laws which will measurably increase the power of the federal government over corporations;

but, gentlemen, I believe firmly that in the end there will have to be an amendment to the constitution of the nation conferring additional power upon the federal government to deal with corporations. To get that will be a matter of difficulty and a matter of time.

I want you to think of what I have said because it represents all of the sincerity and earnestness that I have, and I say to you here from this platform nothing that I have not already stated and nothing that I would not say at a private table with any of the biggest corporation managers in the land.

Extract of President Roosevelt's Speech at Fitchburg, Massachusetts. Theodore Roosevelt Papers. Library of Congress Manuscript Division. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o288770>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ1: Featured Source G

Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Thomas J. Dolan

April 29, 1907.

My dear Mr. Dolan:

No letter could have pleased me more than yours. You took just the ground that a good, sane, American citizen ought to take. I do not regard a man as fit to hold public office in America if he is not a staunch friend of labor; and personally I am not merely a friend of labor, but a strong friend of organized labor, a strong believer in unions; and the very fact that I believe with all my heart in the cause of the wage-worker and would do everything *legitimate* for him, makes me feel it incumbent on me to set my face like a flint against lawlessness and disorder and violence, and scrupulously to try to do real justice without regard to persons as between labor and capital, rich man and the man who is not so well off.

Let me repeat how much genuine pleasure your letter gave me.

Sincerely yours,

Theodore Roosevelt

Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Thomas J. Dolan. Theodore Roosevelt Papers. Library of Congress Manuscript Division. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o199234>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ1: Featured Source H

Theodore Roosevelt: Domestic Affairs

When Theodore Roosevelt took the oath of office in September 1901, he presided over a country that had changed significantly in recent decades. The population of the United States had almost doubled from 1870 to 1900 as immigrants came to U.S. cities to work in the country's burgeoning factories. As the United States became increasingly urban and industrial, it acquired many of the attributes common to industrial nations—overcrowded cities, poor working conditions, great economic disparity, and the political dominance of big business. At the turn of the twentieth century, Americans had begun to look for ways to address some of these problems. As chief executive, Roosevelt felt empowered by the people to help ensure social justice and economic opportunity through government regulation. He was not a radical, however; TR believed that big business was a natural part of a maturing economy and, therefore, saw no reason to abolish it. He never suggested fundamentally altering American society or the economy to address various economic and social ills. In fact, he often stated that there must be reform in order to stave off socialism; if government did not act, the people would turn to more extreme measures to seek remedies. In addition, TR was a politician who understood the need to compromise in order to implement his ideas. Coming into office following William McKinley's assassination, Roosevelt pledged to maintain the fallen President's policies so as not to upset the nation in a time of mourning. And even when he began to chart his own course, Roosevelt knew that he had to work with congressional Republicans to get the G.O.P. nomination for President in 1904.

The Great Regulator

One of Roosevelt's central beliefs was that the government had the right to regulate big business to protect the welfare of society. However, this idea was relatively untested. Although Congress had passed the Sherman Antitrust Act in 1890, former Presidents had only used it sparingly. So when the Department of Justice filed suit in early 1902 against the Northern Securities Company, it sent shockwaves through the business community. The suit alarmed the business community, which had hoped that Roosevelt would follow precedent and maintain a "hands-off" approach to the market economy. At issue was the claim that the Northern Securities Company—a giant railroad combination created by a syndicate of wealthy industrialists and financiers led by J. P. Morgan—violated the Sherman Antitrust Act because it was a monopoly. In 1904, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in favor of the government and ordered the company dismantled. The high court's action was a major victory for the administration and put the business community on notice that although this was a Republican administration, it would not give business free rein to operate without regard for the public welfare.

Roosevelt then turned his attention to the nation's railroads, in part because the Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC) had notified the administration about abuses within the industry. In addition, a large segment of the population supported efforts to regulate the railroads because so many people and businesses were dependent on them. Roosevelt's first achievement in this area was the Elkins Act of 1903, which ended the practice of railroad companies granting shipping rebates to certain companies. The rebates allowed big companies to ship goods for much lower rates than smaller companies could obtain. However, the railroads and big companies were able to undermine the act. Recognizing that the Elkins Act was not effective, Roosevelt pursued further railroad regulation and undertook one of his greatest domestic reform efforts. The legislation, which became known as the Hepburn

Act, proposed enhancing the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission to include the ability to regulate shipping rates on railroads. One of the main sticking points of the bill was what role the courts would play in reviewing the rates. Conservative senators who opposed the legislation, acting on behalf of the railroad industry, tried to use judicial review to make the ICC essentially powerless. By giving the courts, which were considered friendly to the railroads, the right to rule on individual cases, the ICC had less power to remedy the inequities of the rates. When Roosevelt encountered this resistance in Congress, he took his case to the people, making a direct appeal on a speaking tour through the West. He succeeded in pressuring the Senate to approve the legislation. The Hepburn Act marked one of the first times a President appealed directly to the people, using the press to help him make his case. The passage of the act was considered a major victory for Roosevelt and highlighted his ability to balance competing interests to achieve his goals.

Square Deal

Roosevelt believed that the government should use its resources to help achieve economic and social justice. When the country faced an anthracite coal shortage in the fall of 1902 because of a strike in Pennsylvania, the President thought he should intervene. As winter approached and heating shortages were imminent, he started to formulate ideas about how he could use the executive office to play a role—even though he did not have any official authority to negotiate an end to the strike. Roosevelt called both the mine owners and the representatives of labor together at the White House. When management refused to negotiate, he hatched a plan to force the two sides to talk: instead of sending federal troops to break the strike and force the miners back to work, TR threatened to use troops to seize the mines and run them as a federal operation. Faced with Roosevelt's plan, the owners and labor unions agreed to submit their cases to a commission and abide by its recommendations. Roosevelt called the settlement of the coal strike a "square deal," inferring that everyone gained fairly from the agreement. That term soon became synonymous with Roosevelt's domestic program. The Square Deal worked to balance competing interests to create a fair deal for all sides: labor and management, consumer and business, developer and conservationist. TR recognized that his program was not perfectly neutral because the government needed to intervene more actively on behalf of the general public to ensure economic opportunity for all. Roosevelt was the first President to name his domestic program and the practice soon became commonplace, with Woodrow Wilson's New Freedom, Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal, and Harry S. Truman's Fair Deal.

Conservation

Roosevelt was the nation's first conservationist President. Everywhere he went, he preached the need to preserve woodlands and mountain ranges as places of refuge and retreat. He identified the American character with the nation's wilderness regions, believing that our western and frontier heritage had shaped American values, behavior, and culture. The President wanted the United States to change from exploiting natural resources to carefully managing them. He worked with Gifford Pinchot, head of the Forestry Bureau, and Frederick Newell, head of the Reclamation Service, to revolutionize this area of the U.S. government. In 1902, Roosevelt signed the Newlands Reclamation Bill, which used money from federal land sales to build reservoirs and irrigation works to promote agriculture in the arid West. After he won reelection in his own right in 1904, Roosevelt felt more empowered to make significant changes in this domain. Working with Pinchot, he moved the Forest Service from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture. This gave the Forest Service, and Pinchot as head of it, more power to achieve its goals. Together, Roosevelt and Pinchot reduced the role of state and local government in the management of natural resources, a policy that met with considerable resistance. Only the

federal government, they argued, had the resources to oversee these efforts. Roosevelt used his presidential authority to issue executive orders to create 150 new national forests, increasing the amount of protected land from 42 million acres to 172 million acres. The President also created five national parks, eighteen national monuments, and 51 wildlife refuges.

Roosevelt and the Muckrakers

The emergence of a mass-circulation independent press at around the turn of the century changed the nature of print media in the United States. Instead of partisan publications that touted a party line, the national media was becoming more independent and more likely to expose scandals and abuses. This era marked the beginning of investigative journalism, and the reporters who led the effort were known as "muckrakers," a term first used by Roosevelt in a 1906 speech. One of the best examples of Roosevelt's relationship with the muckrakers came after he read Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*, which described in lurid detail the filthy conditions in the meat packing industry—where rats, putrid meat, and poisoned rat bait were routinely ground up into sausages. Roosevelt responded by pushing for the Meat Inspection Act and the Pure Food and Drug Act of 1906. Both pieces of legislation endeared him to the public and to those corporations that favored government regulation as a means of achieving national consumer standards.

Roosevelt was the first President to use the power of the media to appeal directly to the American people. He understood that his forceful personality, his rambunctious family, and his many opinions made good copy for the press. He also knew that the media was a good way for him to reach out to the people, bypassing political parties and political machines. He used the media as a "bully pulpit" to influence public opinion.

On Race and Civil Rights

Theodore Roosevelt reflected the racial attitudes of his time, and his domestic record on race and civil rights was a mixed bag. He did little to preserve black suffrage in the South as those states increasingly disenfranchised blacks. He believed that African Americans as a race were inferior to whites, but he thought many black individuals were superior to white individuals and should be able to prove their merit. He caused a major controversy early in his presidency when he invited Booker T. Washington to dine with him at the White House in October 1901. Roosevelt wanted to talk to Washington about patronage appointments in the South, and he was surprised by the vilification he received in the Southern press; he did not apologize for his actions. Although he appointed blacks to some patronage positions in the South, he was generally unwilling to fight the political battles necessary to win their appointment. One incident in particular taints Roosevelt's reputation on racial issues. In 1906, a small group of black soldiers was accused of going on a shooting spree in Brownsville, Texas, killing one white man and wounding another. Despite conflicting accounts and the lack of physical evidence, the Army assumed the guilt of the black soldiers. When not one of them admitted responsibility, an irritated Roosevelt ordered the dishonorable discharge of three companies of black soldiers (160 men) without a trial. Roosevelt and the white establishment had assumed the soldiers were guilty without affording them the opportunity for a trial to confront their accusers or prove their innocence.

Milkis, Sidney. "Theodore Roosevelt: Domestic Affairs." Miller Center, August 28, 2023.

<https://millercenter.org/president/roosevelt/domestic-affairs>.

Supporting Question 2

The second supporting question - What role should the United States have in the world?

In this formative task, students will take a closer look into the growing involvement and influence the United States was having on the political world stage, and the influence such involvement having on the United States in turn. Students will utilize the primary and secondary sources to learn more of the state of the United States in the world at the time surrounding Theodore Roosevelt’s inauguration and during his president, and to analyze Roosevelt’s foreign policies and immigration trends of the time period. Using their notes from these documents along with a summary of key developments in the 2020’s, as well as personal knowledge of current events, students will select four topics that connect Theodore Roosevelt’s presidency to the modern administrations. In doing so, students will have to identify how and why the US was involved and determine whether or not the involvement was justified.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Contextualizing and Close Reading Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Silent Reading Strategies
- Collaboration with one or more students
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies
- Personalized Responses
- Research and Outside Information Gathering Skills
- Source Evaluation
- Utilization of Current Events

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

- Annotated Text
- Inquiry Packet

The following sources were selected to provide students with a means to improve their understanding of the origins of the United States involvement in international affairs and politics, and how the trends established by Theodore Roosevelt have persisted into the modern policies and actions of the nation.

- **Featured Source A:** Library of Congress article “America at the Turn of the Century”
- **Featured Source B:** Webpage - Roosevelt’s “Big Stick” Foreign Policy
- **Featured Source C:** Article in which Roosevelt discusses the Monroe Doctrine and its application in South America (1914)
- **Featured Source D:** Boundless Immigration article “Immigration During Theodore Roosevelt’s Presidency”
- **Featured Source E:** Wikipedia webpage “2020s in United States political history”

SQ2: Featured Source A

[America at the Turn of the Century: A Look at the Historical Context](#)**The National Setting**

By 1900 the American nation had established itself as a world power. The West was won. The frontier -- the great fact of 300 years of American history -- was no more. The continent was settled from coast to coast. Apache war chief Geronimo had surrendered in 1886. Defeat of the Sioux at the battle of Wounded Knee in 1891 had brought the Indian Wars to a close. By 1900 the Indians were on reservations and the buffalo were gone. Homesteading and the introduction of barbed wire in 1874 had brought an end to the open range. The McCormick reaper had made large-scale farming profitable and, in 1900, the U.S. was by far the world's largest agricultural producer. The first transcontinental rail link had been completed in 1869. Three decades later, in 1900, the nation had 193,000 miles of track, with five railroad systems spanning the continent.

The world's first oil well had been drilled in Titusville, Pennsylvania, in 1859. By 1900, major oil fields were being tapped in Kansas, Illinois, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. The supply of American oil seemed limitless. John D. Rockefeller's Standard Oil Trust dominated the world's petroleum markets and controlled more than 90 percent of the nation's refinery capacity.

At the turn of the century, the strength of a nation's industrial capacity was measured by the number of tons of steel it produced. In the 1880s Andrew Carnegie had constructed the world's largest steel mill in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and by 1900, the United States was the largest steel producer in the world, turning out 10,000,000 tons a year.

Henry Ford had built his first gasoline engine car in 1892 and the world's first auto race was held in Chicago in 1896. With the founding of the Ford Motor Company in 1903, the age of the automobile was underway.

By 1900, telephones were in wide use. Cities were being electrified. Moving pictures were a curiosity. Guglielmo Marconi was conducting experiments that would lead to the development of the radio, and the Wright brothers were at work on a heavier-than-air flying machine.

Cities were growing. New wealth and devastating fires produced a boom in urban construction. Architects Richardson, Hunt, McKim, Mead, and White flourished; Sullivan pioneered the skyscraper and his protege, Frank Lloyd Wright, was beginning his career in Chicago.

National Politics

Republican William McKinley of Ohio was elected president in 1896 and re-elected in 1900. He had been preceded by Democrat Grover Cleveland and would be followed -- and overshadowed -- by Theodore ("Teddy") Roosevelt, who was vice-president when McKinley was assassinated in 1901, but later elected president in his own right.

McKinley was the last of five Civil War veterans to serve in the White House, signaling the end of the post-war era. He was also the fifth of the six Ohio presidents to serve during the fifty-year period 1868-1908. The ascendancy of Ohio and the Midwest in national politics demonstrated that the United States was no longer a nation oriented to the Atlantic seaboard. It stretched, as Katharine Lee Bates's 1895 anthem, America the Beautiful, put it, "from sea to shining sea."

In this period of booming growth, the nation experienced a dramatic presidential election. The 1896 campaign was perhaps the most fiercely fought contest since Andrew Jackson's time. Republican McKinley represented Eastern conservative mercantile and industrial interests; Democrat William Jennings Bryan stood for Western radical agrarian interests. McKinley was a staunch supporter of high tariffs and the Gold Standard, while Bryan favored easier credit and "free silver." Thirty-six years old, Bryan was known as the "Boy Orator from the River Platte" and compared by some with the river itself -- "a mile wide and an inch deep." His "Cross of Gold" speech became famous: "You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold," he thundered.

This was a time of both confidence and ferment. In the cities and the states, political "Progressives" were coming to power, experimenting with reforms such as women's suffrage, direct election of United States senators, the initiative, recall, the Australian ballot, primary elections, and laws setting minimum wages, work standards, and regulated rates for common carriers and services. Followers of the Progressive movement believed in the perfectibility of man and his society. It was, said historian Samuel Eliot Morison, "an attempt through government action to curb the arrogance of organized wealth and the wretchedness of poverty amid plenty." Although McKinley certainly was no Progressive, the movement was on the rise; two of the three presidents who followed him were Progressives: Republican Theodore Roosevelt and Democrat Woodrow Wilson.

McKinley looked every inch a president. Young reporter William Allen White said of him after an interview: "He was the statue in the park speaking." A dignified, reserved man, McKinley was the last of the old-style, low-key presidents. McKinley is generally considered to have been a good but weak man. He was promoted into the White House by his friend, Ohio party boss Mark Hanna; he was bullied into a war with Spain in Cuba by the sensationalist New York press and a jingoist Congress; and he was trapped into acquiring the Philippines by his Assistant Secretary of the Navy, young Theodore Roosevelt.

The Spanish-American War of 1898

This war was immensely popular with the American people. For the first time since the Civil War, men from the north and the south closed ranks and marched to war, as the bands played the marches of John Philip Sousa. The conflict lasted less than 100 days, only 289 Americans lost their lives in battle, and the United States scored a triumphant victory over Spain. This "splendid little war," as Secretary of State John Hay called it, changed the course of American history.

After 400 years, Spain was no longer a power in North or South America; the only power of importance in the Western Hemisphere was now, without doubt, the United States.

The U.S. Navy's Asiatic squadron, under the command of Commodore George Dewey, defeated the ramshackle

Spanish fleet in the battle of Manila Bay -- in less than a morning, without losing a single man. The navy gained great popular support and every schoolboy knew the names and specifications of the major ships of the line. After a two-decade effort to build a modern "steel navy," the United States was a great naval power.

The United States became an imperialist power with the taking of the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Guam, and the later annexation of Hawaii. As a new player in Asia, America would now confront the ambitions of the Japanese Empire, a confrontation that would not be played out until World War II.

By annexing the Philippines, the United States took up the so-called "White Man's Burden," as urged by poet Rudyard Kipling. It would be our purpose, said McKinley, "to take them all and to educate the Filipinos, and uplift and civilize and Christianize them." They were "our little brown brothers," Governor General William Howard Taft later said, displaying something of the racial attitudes of the time. This sense of the superiority of the white race and thus the inferiority of the colored races helps explain the rise of Jim Crow segregation laws within the United States during this period.

Having led his cavalry troop of cowboys, the "Rough Riders," up San Juan Hill in a skirmish with the Spanish in Cuba, Colonel Theodore Roosevelt became a national hero and, as fate would have it, McKinley's successor as president of the United States.

World's Fairs and World Consciousness

A number of world's fairs were staged in the turn of the century period, and some of the American Memory collections offer glimpses of these events. Edison's films offer a ringside seat at the Pan-American Exposition of 1901 in Buffalo, New York.

Like the Spanish-American War, world's fairs both contributed to and resulted from increasing American interest in the globe. They celebrated the nation's own technological achievements, from infant incubators to the electric lights (frequently featured in titles from the Edison company). But they also put on display the exotic architecture and peoples of other nations and the American West.

Just after the 1893 World's Columbian Exposition, the Field Columbian Museum in Chicago was involved in an international expedition. Railroad publicist Joseph Gladding Pangborn organized the of the World's Transportation Commission to gather information about foreign transportation systems, especially railroads. The expedition lasted from 1894 to 1896 and visited over twenty nations in today's less developed countries.

"America at the Turn of the Century: A Look at the Historical Context ." The Library of Congress.

<https://www.loc.gov/collections/early-films-of-new-york-1898-to-1906/articles-and-essays/america-at-the-turn-of-the-century-a-look-at-the-historical-context/#:~:text=By%201900%20the%20Indians%20were,the%20world's%20largest%20agricultural%20producer.>

SQ2: Featured Source B

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.

SQ2: Featured Source C

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.

SQ2: Featured Source D

Immigration During Theodore Roosevelt's Presidency

When Theodore Roosevelt became the 26th president following the 1901 assassination of President William McKinley, he was the youngest person to hold the office. He was president until 1909.

Roosevelt was president during a time of significant immigration — between 1900 and 1915 America welcomed over 15 million immigrants — as many as it had during the previous 40 years. During that time period more than 13% of the U.S. population were foreign-born, with the vast majority of them from Europe.

Key immigration laws passed during Theodore Roosevelt's administration included the 1903 Anarchist Exclusion Act, which barred political extremists, beggars and epileptics from entering the country — the first time that political beliefs had been added to the list of disqualifications for immigration.

The Naturalization Act of 1906 created a new Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization within the U.S. Commerce Department, and added English proficiency as a requirement for naturalization.

The Immigration Act of 1907 added more categories of mentally and physically disabled people to the list of those banned from immigration. The Expatriation Act of 1907, meanwhile, required women to adopt the citizenship of their husbands. This had the effect of forcing American women to renounce their U.S. citizenship if they married men who were not U.S. citizens.

After he left office, Theodore Roosevelt fell out with the Republican Party establishment and ran unsuccessfully for another term as a progressive in 1912. At the end of his life he made his most famous direct statement on immigration and naturalization. In a letter published before his death in 1919, Roosevelt wrote:

“We have room for but one flag, the American flag, and this excludes the red flag which symbolizes all wars against liberty and civilization just as much as it excludes any foreign flag of a nation to which we are hostile. We have room for but one language here and that is the English language, for we intend to see that the crucible turns our people out as Americans, and American nationality, and not as dwellers in a polyglot boarding house; and we have room for but one soul [sic] loyalty, and that is loyalty to the American people.”

“Immigration during Theodore Roosevelt's Presidency.” Boundless, August 7, 2017.

<https://www.boundless.com/blog/roosevelt/#:~:text=Roosevelt%20was%20president%20during%20a,majority%20of%20them%20from%20Europe.>

SQ2: Featured Source E

2020s in United States Political History

Note: Student should be provided the link to the webpage in order to have access to all of the information, but key topics of note will be shown within the excerpts below.

Covid-19 Pandemic

The ongoing COVID-19 pandemic was confirmed to have reached the United States in January 2020. The first confirmed case of local transmission was recorded in January, while the first known deaths happened in February. By the end of March, cases had occurred in all 50 U.S. states, the District of Columbia, and all inhabited U.S. territories except American Samoa. As of May 27, 2020, the U.S. had the most confirmed active cases and deaths in the world. As of June 5, 2020, its death rate was 330 per million people, the ninth-highest rate globally.

The Trump administration declared a public health emergency on January 31, then on February 2 began to prevent the entry of most foreign nationals who had recently traveled to China, but did not ban entry of U.S. residents who had been there, and no virus testing was implemented to screen those seeking to enter the country. The initial U.S. response to the pandemic was otherwise slow, in terms of preparing the healthcare system, stopping other travel, or testing for the virus. A lack of mass testing obscured the true extent of the outbreak. For much of February, manufacturing defects rendered many government-developed test kits unusable, commercial tests were disallowed by regulations, and strict testing requirements were in place. The U.S. tested fewer than 10,000 people by March 10. Meanwhile, President Donald Trump was optimistic and "cheer-leading the country", downplaying the threat posed by the coronavirus and claiming that the outbreak was under control.

On February 25, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) warned the American public for the first time to prepare for a local outbreak.[20] A national emergency was declared by President Trump on March 13. In early March, the Food and Drug Administration began allowing public health agencies and private companies to develop and administer tests, and loosened restrictions so that anyone with a doctor's order could be tested. By the end of the month, over 1 million people had been tested (1 per 320 inhabitants). The Trump administration largely waited until mid-March to start purchasing large quantities of medical equipment. In late March, the administration started to use the Defense Production Act to direct industries to produce medical equipment. Federal health inspectors who surveyed hospitals in late March found shortages of test supplies, personal protective equipment (PPE), and other resources due to extended patient stays while awaiting test results. By early May, the U.S. had processed around 6.5 million tests (about 1 per 50 inhabitants), and was conducting around 250,000 tests per day, but experts said this level of testing was still not enough to contain the outbreak.

The CDC warned that widespread disease transmission may force large numbers of people to seek

healthcare, which could overload healthcare systems and lead to otherwise preventable deaths. On March 16, the White House advised against any gatherings of more than ten people. Since March 19, 2020, the U.S. Department of State has advised U.S. citizens to avoid all international travel. Travel restrictions on most foreign nationals who had recently traveled to Iran or 28 European countries were implemented in March. By April 11, the federal government approved disaster declarations for all states and inhabited territories except American Samoa. State and local responses to the outbreak have included prohibitions and cancellation of large-scale gatherings (including cultural events, exhibitions, and sporting events), restrictions on commerce and movement, and the closure of schools and other educational institutions. Disproportionate numbers of cases have been observed among Black and Latino populations, and there were reported incidents of xenophobia and racism against Asian Americans. Clusters of infections and deaths have occurred in nursing homes, long-term care facilities, prisons and other detention centers, meatpacking plants, houses of worship, and urban areas; large gatherings that occurred before widespread shutdowns and social distancing (Mardi Gras in New Orleans, a conference in Boston sponsored by Biogen, and a funeral in Albany, Georgia) accelerated transmission.

George Floyd Protests

The George Floyd protests are an ongoing series of protests, riots, and demonstrations against police brutality and racism in policing. The protests began in the United States in Minneapolis on May 26, 2020, following the murder of George Floyd, a 46-year-old black man, by Derek Chauvin, a white police officer, who knelt on Floyd's neck for almost nine minutes during an arrest the previous day. The unrest began as local protests in the Minneapolis–Saint Paul metropolitan area of Minnesota before quickly spreading across the entire nation as well as George Floyd protests outside the United States in support of Black Lives Matter. While the majority of protests have been peaceful, demonstrations in some cities descended into riots and widespread looting, with more being marked by street skirmishes and significant police brutality, notably against peaceful protesters and reporters. At least 200 cities imposed curfews by 3 June, while at least 27 states and Washington, D.C, activated over 74,000 National Guard personnel due to the mass unrest. From the beginning of the protests to June 3, at least 11,000 people had been arrested, including all four police officers involved in the arrest during which Floyd was murdered.

First impeachment of President Trump

Three House committees began their impeachment inquiry on September 24, 2019, and in December the House Judiciary Committee heard hearings leading to Trump's impeachment on two counts on December 18, 2019. The impeachment trial of Donald Trump took up most of the month of January and early February 2020. On February 5, 2020, the Senate voted to acquit Trump of all charges. All 45 Democrats and the two independents voted for conviction; all 52 Republican Senators voted for acquittal, except for Mitt Romney (R-UT) who voted for conviction on the charge of abuse of power.

Foreign policy

Middle East and Central Asia

Tensions between the United States and Iran heated up in January 2020 when Iranian General Qasem Soleimani was killed in a drone attack. Iran retaliated with a strike on U.S. military bases in Iraq. Tensions let up somewhat after it is revealed that Iran accidentally shot down a civilian plane that departed Tehran for Kyiv. The U.S.-Irani relationship remained tense throughout 2020, with the U.S. sending B52s over the Persian Gulf twice in December.

In late February 2020, the United States and the Taliban signed an agreement that could lead to the end of the war in Afghanistan.

Venezuela

Ivan Duque, president of Colombia, revealed in March 2020 that his country and the United States had a three-prong policy to bring about change in Venezuela: support for the opposition, diplomatic isolation, and economic pressures including a blockade against petroleum exports and against financial support. He said the effort was paying off as social discontent increases, oil exports reach only 500,000 barrels/day, and Venezuela could not pay for industrial parts, food, or medicine.

On March 26, 2020, the United States accused Venezuelan President Nicolás Maduro of narcoterrorism and offered a \$15 million reward for information leading to his arrest.

“2020s in United States Political History.” Wikipedia, August 2022.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2020s_in_United_States_political_history

Supporting Question 3

The third supporting question—What are the challenges a nation must face?

The formative task is the exploration of examples of various issues present within the US when Theodore Roosevelt took to the office of presidency. The first resource they will engage with [Featured Source A] is a presentation from the Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site, which covers Roosevelt’s stances towards topics such as poverty, racial conflict, balance of labor and industry, environmentalism, and international affairs. Afterwards, students will begin to analyze the remaining Featured Sources [Sources B through Q]. These primary and secondary sources provide further information regarding these issues as well as the solutions implemented by Roosevelt before and during his presidency. In the third portion of this formative task, students will use required to conduct their own research and engage with modern examples of these issues; They will be tasked with finding one credible source for each of the five issues which provides information on them from a modern context. Students will use their notes gathered throughout this task to compare and contrast the issues of the past and Roosevelt’s attempts to address them to modern examples of the issues and administrations to determine lingering trends or patterns in these issues that the nation must face.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Contextualizing and Close Reading Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Silent Reading Strategies
- Collaboration with one or more students
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies
- Image Analysis Strategies
- Gradual Release of Responsibility
- Independent Research Strategies
- Source Evaluation Strategies

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

- Annotated Text
- Inquiry Packet

The following sources were selected to provide students with the opportunity to examine key social, political, and economic issues that are prevalent within the past and present of the United States, which warrant involvement of the nation’s leaders. By doing so, they will have a better understanding of what role the presidency can have in influencing the lives of US Citizens and the challenges and trends present in addressing these issues facing the nation.

- **Featured Source A:** Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site theater room presentation
- **Featured Source B:** Library of Congress, “Cities During the Progressive Era”
- **Featured Source C:** Photograph “Street Arabs in ‘sleeping quarters’” (1888)
- **Featured Source D:** Photograph “Family in poverty gap, N.Y.C. tenement room” (1889)

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- **Featured Source E:** Teddy Roosevelt Center Article “Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform”
- **Featured Source F:** Bill of Rights Institute webpage, “Jim Crow and Progressivism”
- **Featured Source G:** “How Teddy Roosevelt’s Belief in a Racial Hierarchy Shaped His Policies”, Christopher Klein
- **Featured Source H:** Teddy Roosevelt Center Articles “The Square Deal”
- **Featured Source I:** Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Albion W. Tourgee (1901)
- **Featured Source J:** Political Cartoon “Next!” (1904)
- **Featured Source K:** Political Cartoon “The Broncho Buster at Work” (1902)
- **Featured Source L:** Teddy Roosevelt Center Article “Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform”
- **Featured Source M:** National Park Service webpage “Theodore Roosevelt and Conservation”
- **Featured Source N:** Kahn Academy webpage “Introduction to the age of empire”
- **Featured Source O:** Political cartoon “And, After All, the Philippines are Only the Steppingstone to China” (1900)
- **Featured Source P:** Political cartoon “The Coup d’etat.” (1903)
- **Featured Source Q:** Excerpt from Roosevelt’s Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine (1905)

SQ3: Featured Source A

Theater For the Issues of 1901

Note: For this portion of the Formative Task, students should have access to the videos available on the Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural Site. They may watch the videos individually or as a whole class, depending on the preference of the teacher. The text below is part of the transcript of the audio presentation available on the tour of the site, the primary speaker plays the role of Theodore Roosevelt.

It is a dreadful thing to come into the Presidency this way. But it would be a far worse thing to be morbid about it. Here is the task, and I have got to do it to the best of my ability.

I am truly grateful that our economy is a mighty one. For that, all honor must be paid to the architects of our material prosperity, to the great captains of industry. Andrew Carnegie—he of the golden touch—has said: “Wealth, passing through the hands of the few, can be made a much more potent force for the elevation of our race than if it had been distributed in small sums to the people themselves.” But often, those sums are indeed miserably small. John Mitchell, who leads the mine workers’ union, is eloquent about that fact.

John Mitchell: “In Pennsylvania mines, wages were so low that parents were compelled to take their boys from school, sometimes when they were less than ten years of age, and put them to work in the breakers and the mines”

A man who visited a “breaker” wrote that: “the dust penetrates the utmost recesses of the boys’ lungs. A kind of slave-driver stands over the boys, prodding or kicking them into obedience.” I must work to curb the might of the giant industrial and financial trusts. While they do enormous good, they have much power over the lives and spirits of hard working Americans.

Jane Addams: The good we secure for ourselves is precarious and uncertain until it is secured for all of us and incorporated into our common life.

Jane Addams, a great reformer, knows that there are districts where hardly anyone is above the level of poverty. Where poverty means misery it must be met by organization and the endless labor of those who live in the midst of it, like Miss Addams. When I was Police Commissioner in New York, I used to walk the poorest neighborhoods with the photographer Jacob Riis. I will never forget what we saw together. And what of the poor immigrants—hundreds of thousands each year? Francis Walker is President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. And he thinks immigration should be restricted. He said: The entrance of vast masses of peasantry, degraded below our utmost conceptions, is a matter which no intelligent patriot can look upon without apprehension and alarm. I welcome every honest immigrant, no matter from what country he comes, provided only that he leaves off his former nationality, and becomes an American, desirous of fulfilling in good faith the duties of American citizenship.

Even here, in our own country, race is such a vexing problem. I fought beside the colored Ninth Cavalry at San Juan Hill. And I hold that if a man is good enough to be put up and shot at then he is good enough for me to do what I can to get him a square deal. Among the men of this race, I much admire Dr. Booker T. Washington—President of Tuskegee Institute. We shall never have harmony between the races until the views of men such as Senator Ben Tillman are transformed. After all, he said: “We of the South have never recognized the Negro to be the equal of the white man, and we will not submit to his gratifying his lust on our wives and daughters without lynching him.”

Booker T Washington: One man cannot hold another man down in the ditch without remaining down in the ditch with him. I have learned that success is to be measured not so much by the position that one has reached in life as by the obstacles which he has had to overcome.

The only wise and honorable and Christian thing to do is to treat each black man and each white man strictly on his merits as a man. Soon ... this very day, in fact ... I shall invite Dr. Washington to the White House.

John Muir: God has cared for these trees, saved them from drought, disease, avalanches, and a thousand tempests and floods. But he cannot save them from fools.

John Muir may be our foremost naturalist, but he does not speak the whole truth. We have become great because of the lavish use of our resources. But what will happen when our forests are gone, when the coal, the iron, the oil, and the gas are exhausted, when the soils have still further impoverished and washed into the streams? Like all Americans, I like big things; big prairies, big forests and mountains. We have fallen heirs to the most glorious heritage a people ever received. We can continue to preserve them in but one possible way, by making the proper use of them.

If we are to be a really great people, we must strive in good faith to play a great part in the world. Our whole national history has been one of expansion. We won the recent war against Spain in a very short time. And Secretary Elihu Root, to whom President McKinley entrusted the War Department, has already shown himself as good a man as ever held the portfolio. A prominent Democrat said recently:

“Governments derive their just powers not from superior force, but from the consent of the governed.” But I say it is only the warlike power of a civilized people that can give peace to the world. And so we are now guardians over Cuba, Guam, Puerto Rico and the Philippines. Above all, let us shrink from no strife within or without the nation, provided we are certain that the strife is justified; for it is only through strife that we shall ultimately win the goal of true national greatness.

So, what do I believe? Simply this: It is vital that every man who is in politics should strive steadily for reform; that he should have the highest ideals. And now I must return ... to take the oath. I am going to be President, and I am going to do my utmost to give the country a good President.

“Explore the Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural National Historic Site in 3D.” mpembed.

<https://mpembed.com/show/?m=csmA1NwSmKz&mpu=43&mpv=1>.

SQ3: Featured Source B

Cities During the Progressive Era

In the early 1900s, the United States entered a period of peace, prosperity, and progress. In the nation's growing cities, factory output grew, small businesses flourished, and incomes rose. As the promise of jobs and higher wages attracted more and more people into the cities, the U.S. began to shift to a nation of city dwellers. By 1900, 30 million people, or 30 percent of the total population, lived in cities.

The mass migration of people into the cities enriched some people but caused severe problems for others. For the emerging middle class, benefiting from growing incomes and increases in leisure time, the expanding city offered many advantages. Department stores, chain stores, and shopping centers emerged to meet the growing demand for material goods. Parks, amusement parks, and baseball stadiums were built to meet aesthetic and recreational needs. Transportation systems improved, as did the general infrastructure, better meeting the increased needs of the middle and upper class city dwellers.

Thousands of poor people also lived in the cities. Lured by the promise of prosperity, many rural families and immigrants from throughout the world arrived in the cities to work in the factories. It is estimated that by 1904 one in three people living in the cities was close to starving to death. For many of the urban poor, living in the city resulted in a decreased quality of life. With few city services to rely upon, the working class lived daily with overcrowding, inadequate water facilities, unpaved streets, and disease. Lagging far behind the middle class, working class wages provided little more than subsistence living and few, if any, opportunities for movement out of the city slums.

“Cities During the Progressive Era.” The Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/progressive-era-to-new-era-1900-1929/cities-during-progressive-era/>.

SQ3: Featured Source C

[Street Arabs in "Sleeping Quarters"](#)



Riis, Jacob A, photographer. Street Arabs in "sleeping quarters". New York, ca. 1888. [Printed Later] Photograph. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2002710294/>.

SQ3: Featured Source D

[Family In Poverty Gap, N.Y.C. Tenement Room](#)



Riis, Jacob A, photographer. Family in poverty gap, N.Y.C. tenement room. , ca. 1889. Photograph.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2002710281/>.

SQ3: Featured Source E

Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform – Excerpt

...In 1882, the freshman New York state assemblyman Roosevelt met with labor leader Samuel Gompers, who was campaigning for a bill to ban cigar manufacturing in New York City tenement buildings. At first, Roosevelt opposed the bill (as did most if not all of his Republican colleagues), but he agreed to allow Gompers to take him on a tour of these tenements. Roosevelt was shocked by the horrific conditions under which cigar makers toiled, and personally lobbied for reform to New York Governor Grover Cleveland. The bill initially floundered, and later passed, but was ultimately found unconstitutional by the New York Supreme Court.

Roosevelt often developed his opinions by seeing how the other half lived, quite literally. His friend Jacob Riis, author of *How The Other Half Lives* (1890) worked with Roosevelt as Civil Service Commissioner and New York Police Commissioner to “witness first-hand the calamitous conditions affecting the poor.” Roosevelt had actually approached Riis rather than the other way around after reading his book. Many laws intended to help the working-class people of New York were passed thanks to the Roosevelt-Riis partnership....

...Practical reform was always at the forefront of Roosevelt’s political actions. As this relates to labor, he made it his mission to strike a balance between capital and labor, seeking to curb unrestrained avarice and exploitation on the one hand, and violent uprisings on the other. Early in his presidency, he began pushing for the creation of a Department of Commerce and Labor, and he continued to push for protective laws similar to those he had championed as Governor of New York.

One of the most significant episodes of Roosevelt’s first term as president was the Anthracite Coal Strike. Because George F. Baer (President of the Reading Railroad) and other industry leaders refused to negotiate working conditions, over 100,000 laborers under the leadership of John Mitchell and the United Mine Workers walked out in May of 1902. The strike went on for months, a coal shortage developed, and Roosevelt saw no choice but to intervene. But instead of using brute force, he instead chose to use the government as a third-party arbitrator...

...The Progressives’ need to serve the people can especially be seen in their campaigning for major labor reforms. Roosevelt and the Progressive Party were for workman’s compensation, the prohibition of child labor, and the elimination of the sweatshop. The Progressive Party platform included planks for health and safety standards and at least one day off per week. There were many planks for women’s labor as well – minimum wage standards, an eight-hour day, the prohibition of night work. They were against convict contract labor – an issue on which Roosevelt had voted the other way as a state assemblyman in New York. They even included an early form of social security and unemployment insurance...

Hansard, William. “Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform.” TR Center - Labor Reform, September 5, 2022. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Blog/Item/Labor%20Reform>.

SQ3: Featured Source F

Jim Crow and Progressivism

African Americans had initially been hopeful during Reconstruction after the Civil War. The Thirteenth Amendment ended slavery in the United States, the Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed equal protection under the law and the rights of citizens, and the Fifteenth Amendment granted black male suffrage. African Americans were elected to local, state, and even national offices, and Congress passed civil rights legislation. However, the hopes of Reconstruction were dashed by horrific waves of violence against African Americans, the economic struggles of sharecropping (which, in some ways, resembled the conditions of slavery), the denial of equal civil rights including voting rights, and enforced segregation of the races. At the turn of the century, the new progressive reform movement heralded many changes, but whether African Americans would benefit from progressivism remained to be seen.

In the summer of 1896, teacher and journalist Sarah Dudley Pettey brimmed with enthusiasm as she sat down to write a newspaper column entitled “The Up-To-Date Woman.” Pettey saw opportunities for women all around her, even though she came from a small southern town in North Carolina. “Because the woman of to-day is progressive, some would laugh, her to scorn; others would call her masculine; but it is not true she is only up-to-date,” Pettey argued. She thought women could meet any challenge: “The up-to-date woman claims the ability and only asks . . . for the opportunity of clearly demonstrating her merits. . . . she is qualified to legislate and arbitrate with statesmen.” Pettey believed nothing could stop women from moving forward “side by side” with men. The year 1895 heralded “the advent of the new woman.” She joined a growing national movement for women’s suffrage that blossomed in the Progressive Era of the next 20 years. That movement culminated in the 1920 ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment, giving all women across America suffrage.

However, if progressivism at the turn of the twentieth century proved Pettey’s predictions about the up-to-date woman, it also ultimately excluded her from their ranks because she was a southern African American woman. In 1896, her faith in progress was absolute and included a bright future for black Americans. In fact, she linked womanhood and race to prove her point: “Some would say that woman is good in her place. This reminds me of what some white people say of the Negro; that ‘He is good in his place.’” African American progress since emancipation in 1865 progressed “onward and upward,” Pettey observed.

Pettey’s confidence proved to be misplaced at the turn of the twentieth century as southern states began passing laws designed to exclude black voters. Although the Fifteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution had enfranchised freedmen in 1869, southern whites now determined to take away their right to vote. The new state constitutional provisions and legislation seemed racially neutral on their face that is, they applied to all men eligible to vote but lawmakers designed and implemented them in ways that excluded black voters, sometimes along with poor whites. Mississippi had ratified a new constitution in 1890 mandating that by 1896, a voter must to “be able to read any section of the Constitution, or be able to understand the same . . . or give a reasonable interpretation thereof.” It also required a poll tax of \$2.00, a considerable sum for poor farmers. Because the state constitution required every male Mississippian to re-register to vote, the white registrars who administered the literacy test failed even literate black voters.

Louisiana followed Mississippi and passed a disenfranchising law that included a literacy test, requiring the voter to write an application in the registrar's presence. But it exempted from the test those who owned more than \$300 in property or anyone who was the "son or grandson" of someone who could vote prior to January 1, 1867. Because the Fifteenth Amendment was passed in February 1869, this law excluded anyone who had previously been enslaved and his or her descendants. The "grandfather clause," as it was called, blatantly empowered officials to violate the Fifteenth Amendment, but North Carolina followed Louisiana by enacting a similar constitutional amendment in 1902. By 1908, the entire South had passed laws that were used to disenfranchise black voters. The few African Americans who tried to vote often encountered armed whites who prevented them from doing so.

Petty's hopes that black women would go on to win suffrage were obliterated in 1898 when the U. S. Supreme Court ruled in *Williams v. Mississippi* that literacy tests as requirements for voting were constitutional. As a result, most blacks were effectively disenfranchised. It was not until 1915 that the Supreme Court found grandfather clauses, which skirted constitutional intentions, unconstitutional. By then, few African Americans were voting in the South. The federal government had abandoned the commitment it had made to them under the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments.

Nor did law enforcement often challenge white violence against southern African Americans; in fact, law enforcement often perpetrated violence. By the time Petty wrote in 1896, more than 840 African Americans had been lynched so far in the decade. Many lynchings resulted from business disputes or personal confrontations, but white southerners often claimed they lynched black men who had raped white women. There was no rape epidemic in the South, yet white politicians mounted a propaganda campaign to manipulate the fear of sexual violence as justification for lynchings. The federal government did not intervene, even in cases of white mob violence and murder against black communities.

Moreover, southern officials began to legislate new segregation laws that required black people to ride in separate train cars, banned them from street cars, prohibited them from buying homes in white neighborhoods, and excluded them from certain hotels and restaurants and other private accommodations. They called this new system Jim Crow, named for a white minstrel who performed in blackface before the Civil War. A New Orleans resident named Homer Plessy, who was of one-eighth African heritage, challenged the constitutionality of the laws all the way to the U.S. Supreme Court in *Plessy v. Ferguson*. He expected to win, but the court ruled segregation legal in 1896, as long as it was "separate but equal." Accommodations for African Americans were rarely equal, and strict segregation began.

Several factors accounted for the federal government's retreat from Reconstruction. A new generation, brought up on tales of the excesses of "Radical" Reconstruction, now held political power. With the Civil War a distant memory, African Americans found few friends in Washington. White northerners and Midwesterners had tired of the "race question" in politics. And many northern whites were sympathetic to southern views on race because they faced the influx of millions of Eastern European immigrants who were seen as racially inferior and in competition for jobs.

But the most important factor was that many whites in the North and South saw literacy requirements for voting as "progressive," and southern white politicians cast disenfranchisement as good government reform because they

argued that keeping African Americans segregated promoted a greater social order and unity, for whites. Some northern whites agreed, but only in the South did the Progressive Era's emphasis on an educated electorate work as a ploy to prevent an entire group of people from voting.

Many scholars and members of the general public embraced the idea of social Darwinism, a cultural theory derived from Charles Darwin's work on biological evolution. All people, they believed, were evolving, but white people, and particularly those of northern European background, were superior. Not all progressives were social Darwinists, but many distinguished academics and politicians espoused this view. Woodrow Wilson, who became president in 1912 and segregated the federal workforce, believed people of northern European descent had inherited a special gift for governance called the Teutonic Germ. African Americans were also subject to forced sterilization programs with the rise of eugenics, a program of forced sterilizations targeted at stopping blacks from reproducing.

Thus, the nation looked away as the South instituted legal discrimination based on race. The explosion of knowledge that made people believe society was rapidly evolving toward the perfection of what Sarah Pettey called "modern civilization" produced a distorted version of progressivism in the South that counted African Americans out of the polity. Many began leaving the South. Pettey's friend and neighbor, black member of Congress George White, protested, "I can no longer live in North Carolina and be treated as a man." He did not stand for reelection and founded a settlement in New Jersey. Between 1900 and 1910, more than 27,825 black North Carolinians moved north, and nearly 30,000 followed in the Great Migration over the next decade. Segregation and disenfranchisement stood until the civil rights movement won federal victories in the 1950s and 1960s.

Gilmore, Glenda. "Jim Crow and Progressivism." Bill of Rights Institute. <https://billofrightsinstitute.org/essays/jim-crow-and-progressivism>.

SQ3: Featured Source G

[How Teddy Roosevelt’s Belief in a Racial Hierarchy Shaped His Policies – Excerpts](#)**Roosevelt Believed Individual Self-Determination Was Possible**

Roosevelt maintained that although white men held firm at the top of the social hierarchy, “inferior” races could rise from their lower stations. “Roosevelt believed that individuals could learn positive traits within their lifetime and assumed racial mobility was within human control,” says Michael Patrick Cullinane, a history professor at London’s University of Roehampton and author of *Theodore Roosevelt’s Ghost: The History and Memory of an American Icon*. But Roosevelt didn’t come to those ideas himself. According to Cullinane, his racial ideology drew on his readings of leading evolutionary theorists such as Jean-Baptiste Lamarck and Charles Darwin.

Roosevelt “admired individual achievement above all things,” wrote biographer Edmund Morris—which is why he became the first president to invite an African American to dine at the White House when he broke bread with Tuskegee Institution founder Booker T. Washington just weeks after his inauguration. “The only wise and honorable and Christian thing to do is to treat each Black man and each white man strictly on his merits as a man, giving him no more and no less than he shows himself worthy to have,” Roosevelt wrote of his meeting.

Roosevelt also defended Minnie Cox, the country’s first African American female postmaster, after she was driven out of Indianola, Mississippi, because of the color of her skin. He appointed Black Americans to prominent positions, such as his nomination of Dr. William Crum as customs collector in Charleston, South Carolina, which drew considerable political opposition and this presidential response: “I cannot consent to take the position that the door of hope—the door of opportunity—is to be shut upon any man, no matter how worthy, purely upon the grounds of race or color.”

He Took a Dimmer View of Racial Groups as a Whole

In spite of those words, though, Roosevelt hardly saw all Black Americans as equals. “As a race and in the mass they are altogether inferior to the whites,” he confided to a friend in a 1906 letter. Ten years later, he told Senator Henry Cabot Lodge that “the great majority of Negroes in the South are wholly unfit for the suffrage” and that giving them voting rights could “reduce parts of the South to the level of Haiti.”

Roosevelt also believed that Black men made poor soldiers. He denigrated the efforts of the buffalo soldiers who fought alongside his men at San Juan Hill during the Spanish-American War, falsely claiming that they ran away under fire. “Negro troops were shirkers in their duties and would only go as far as

they were led by white officers,” he wrote. In reality, the buffalo soldiers served with distinction, and several men were officially recognized for their bravery. Twenty-six died on the slopes of San Juan Hill.

As for Native Americans, Roosevelt’s considerable time spent ranching in the Dakota Territory only hardened his mindset toward them, years before he became president. “I don’t go so far as to think that the only good Indian is the dead Indian,” he said in 1886, “but I believe nine out of every ten are, and I shouldn’t like to inquire too closely into the case of the tenth. The most vicious cowboy has more moral principle than the average Indian”...

Roosevelt's Views on Race Impacted Both His Domestic and Foreign Policies

...Roosevelt’s attitudes toward race also had a direct impact on his foreign policy as president, says Cullinane: “Because he believed that white Anglo-Saxons had reached the pinnacle of social achievement, he thought they were in a position to teach the other peoples of the world who had failed to reach such heights. The United States would help tutor and uplift the Western Hemisphere.”

That worldview formed the foundation of Roosevelt’s vocal support of American imperialism, and in the White House he presided over an expanding overseas empire that included territories won in the Spanish-American War including Puerto Rico, Guam, Cuba and the Philippines. His Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, also known famously as his “big stick” foreign policy, laid the foundation for a more interventionist policy in Latin America. He also extended American influence in the region by fomenting a rebellion in Panama that resulted in American construction of the Panama Canal...

Klein, Christopher. “How Teddy Roosevelt’s Belief in a Racial Hierarchy Shaped His Policies.” History.com, August 11, 2020. <https://www.history.com/news/teddy-roosevelt-race-imperialism-national-parks>.

SQ3: Featured Source H

The Square Deal

The Square Deal is the name given to Theodore Roosevelt’s domestic legislative program. Roosevelt did not create this phrase; it was already familiar to nineteenth century Americans. His recurrent usage of it, however, linked it to him in the public mind after the 1902 anthracite coal strike. In that labor dispute, Roosevelt mediated an end to the troubles by treating both the bosses and the workers equally.

In 1903, Roosevelt started using the term with some frequency. For example, on May 27, 1903, President Roosevelt included the phrase in speeches to two different audiences in Montana. To the colored citizens of Butte, Montana, he said: “In Santiago I fought beside the colored troops of the 9th and 10th Cavalry. If a man is good enough to have him shot at while fighting beside me under the same flag, he is good enough for me to try to give him a square deal in civil life.” That same day, Roosevelt told the Silver Bow Labor and Trades Assembly of Butte that he was “one who tries to be an American president, acting upon the principle of giving a square deal to each and every one.”

Roosevelt specifically applied the Square Deal to African American citizens, as he did in a letter in June 1903 to journalist Rollo Ogden: “[A]ll I wanted was a square deal for the negro. If he is fit to vote by the test we apply to a white man, let him vote. If he is unfit, don’t. If he is unfit in an office turn him out; not because he is a negro, but because he is unfit. If, on the other hand, he is fit, appoint him; again, not because he is a negro, but because he is fit.”

The term applied more broadly, as when Roosevelt asserted in July 1903, that “This administration stands for a square deal all around,” or when he wrote to Chicagoan Paul Lacey, “...if there is one thing that I do desire to stand for it is for a square deal, for an attitude of kindly justice as between man and man, without regard to what any man’s creed or birthplace or social position may be, so long as, in his life and in his work, he shows the qualities that entitle him to the respect of his fellows.” Roosevelt told civil servant Frank C. Nunemacher that he thought “that the motto of ‘fair play for the working man and a square deal to every American, whether employer or employee’ is as good a one as could possibly be desired.” In 1904, he confessed to journalist Ray Stannard Baker “my favorite formula—A square deal for every man.”

As Roosevelt used the phrase with such regularity, it soon became associated with him. Private citizens wrote, praising him for the lofty ideal and sometimes reminding him that they wanted a square deal from the government, too, as railroad baron E. H. Harriman did in 1905. A 1904 campaign booklet entitled “A Square Deal for Everyman,” compiled by Robert J. Thompson, included famous examples of Roosevelt’s use of the term, including his speech on May 6, 1903, at the Grand Canyon. Author Owen Wister repeated the phrase in his 1905 cover story for the *Saturday Evening Post*, “After Four Years: A Square Deal for Every Man.” The phrase appeared in *Harper’s Weekly*, and on the cover of *Puck* magazine in 1905. It graced sheet music and was used in advertisements during and after Roosevelt’s presidency.

Subsequently, historians have applied the term Square Deal to mean the legislation and acts connected with Roosevelt’s presidency, especially those which seemed to be undergirded by this sense of fair play and egalitarianism. The Northern Securities case, the Elkins and Hepburn Acts, the creation of the Bureau of Corporations, and his administration’s other actions connected with trust busting, for example, speak to

C3 TEACHERS

Roosevelt’s desire to equalize the power imbalance between corporations and common people. The Meat Inspection Act and the Pure Food and Drug Act are well-known examples of Roosevelt’s belief that corporations should not profit at the expense of the public’s wellbeing. More recently, historians have distilled the Square Deal to the “three C’s” of consumer protection, corporate regulation, and conservationism, as shorthand for the most important domestic goals of Theodore Roosevelt’s presidency.

“The Square Deal.” TR Center - Square Deal. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Learn-About-TR/TR-Encyclopedia/Politics%20and%20Government/The%20Square%20Deal>.

SQ3: Featured Source I

Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Albion W. Tourgee

November 8, 1901.

My dear Mr. Tourgee:

Your letter pleases and touches me. I too have been at my wits' ends in dealing with the black man. In this incident I deserve no particular credit. When I asked Booker T. Washington to dinner I did not devote very much thought to the matter one way or the other. I respect him greatly and believe in the work he has done. I have consulted so much with him it seemed to me that it was natural to ask him to dinner to talk over this work, and the very fact that I felt a moment's qualm on inviting him because of his color made me ashamed of myself and made me hasten to send the invitation. I did not think of its bearing one way or the other, either on my own future or on anything else. As things have turned out, I am very glad that I asked him, for the clamor aroused by the act makes me feel as if the act was necessary.

I have not been able to think out any solution of the terrible problem offered by the presence of the negro on this continent, but of one thing I am sure, and that is that inasmuch as he is here and can neither be killed nor driven away, the only wise and honorable and Christian thing to do is to treat each black man and each white man strictly on his merits as a man, giving him no more and no less than he shows himself worthy to

have. I say I am ^{sure} that this is the right solution. Of course I know that we see through a glass dimly, and, after all, it may be that I am wrong; but if I am, then all my thoughts and beliefs are wrong, and my whole way of looking at life is wrong. At any rate, while I am in public life, however short a time that may be, I am in honor bound to act up to my beliefs and convictions. I do not intend to offend the prejudices of anyone else, but neither do I intend to allow their prejudices to make me false to my principles.

Faithfully yours,

Theodore Roosevelt

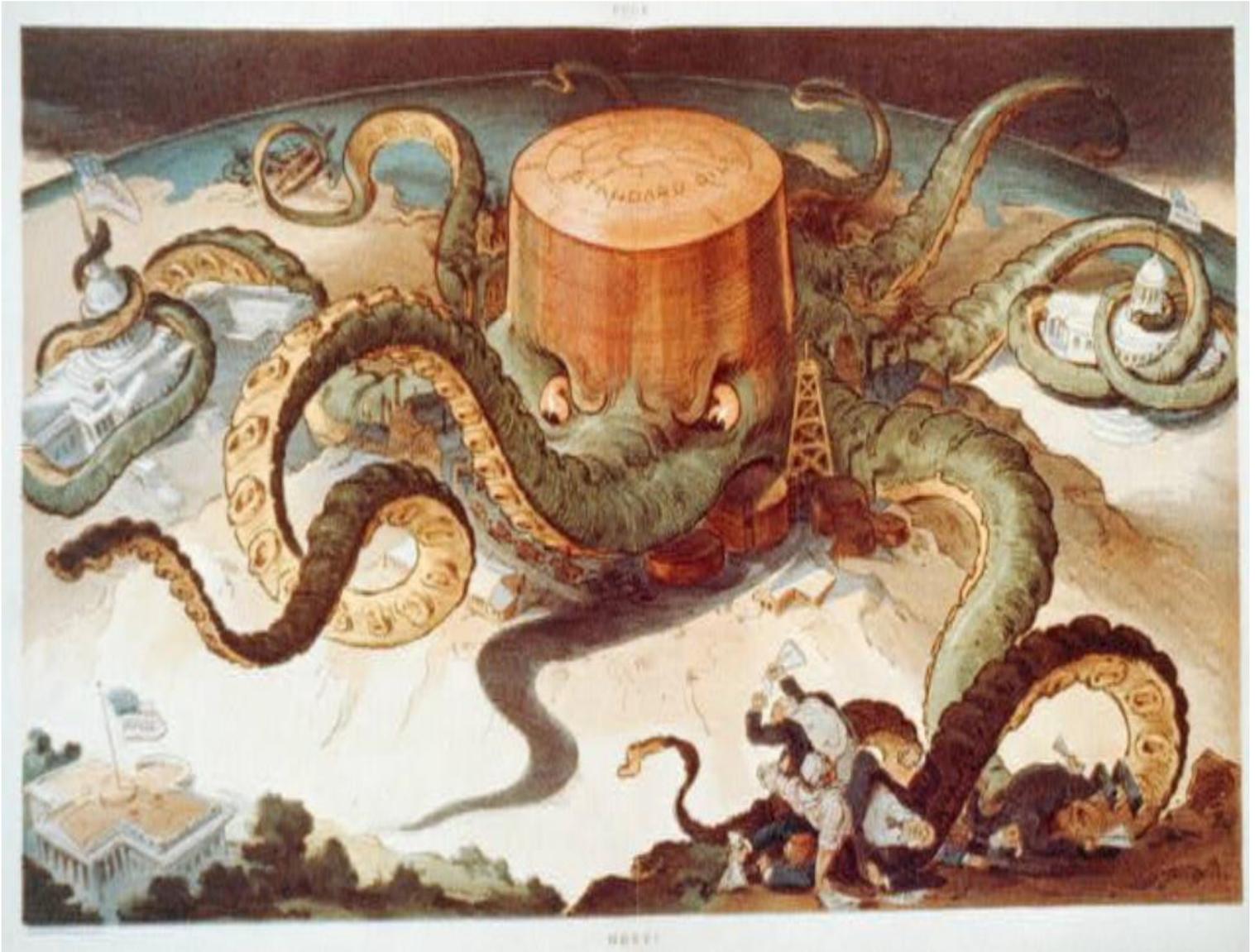
Private

Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Albion W. Tourgee. Theodore Roosevelt Papers. Library of Congress Manuscript Division. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o180529>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ3: Featured Source J

"Next!"

Background: Illustration shows a "Standard Oil" storage tank as an octopus with many tentacles wrapped around the steel, copper, and shipping industries, as well as a state house, the U.S. Capitol, and one tentacle reaching for the White House.



Keppler, Udo J., Artist. Next!. , 1904. N.Y.: J. Ottmann Lith. Co., Puck Bldg., September 7. Photograph.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2001695241/>.

SQ3: Featured Source K

The Broncho Buster at Work

The broncho buster at work. Theodore Roosevelt Papers. Library of Congress Manuscript Division. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Research/Digital-Library/Record?libID=o274648>. Theodore Roosevelt Digital Library. Dickinson State University.

SQ3: Featured Source L

Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform – Excerpt

...In 1882, the freshman New York state assemblyman Roosevelt met with labor leader Samuel Gompers, who was campaigning for a bill to ban cigar manufacturing in New York City tenement buildings. At first, Roosevelt opposed the bill (as did most if not all of his Republican colleagues), but he agreed to allow Gompers to take him on a tour of these tenements. Roosevelt was shocked by the horrific conditions under which cigar makers toiled, and personally lobbied for reform to New York Governor Grover Cleveland. The bill initially floundered, and later passed, but was ultimately found unconstitutional by the New York Supreme Court.

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One of the most significant episodes of Roosevelt’s first term as president was the Anthracite Coal Strike. Because George F. Baer (President of the Reading Railroad) and other industry leaders refused to negotiate working conditions, over 100,000 laborers under the leadership of John Mitchell and the United Mine Workers walked out in May of 1902. The strike went on for months, a coal shortage developed, and Roosevelt saw no choice but to intervene. But instead of using brute force, he instead chose to use the government as a third-party arbitrator...

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Hansard, William. “Theodore Roosevelt and Labor Reform.” TR Center - Labor Reform, September 5, 2022. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Blog/Item/Labor%20Reform>.

SQ3: Featured Source M

Theodore Roosevelt and Conservation

Theodore Roosevelt is often considered the "conservationist president." Here in the North Dakota Badlands, where many of his personal concerns first gave rise to his later environmental efforts, Roosevelt is remembered with a national park that bears his name and honors the memory of this great conservationist.

Theodore Roosevelt first came to the Badlands in September 1883. A sportsman-hunter all his life, Roosevelt sought a chance to hunt the big game of North America before they disappeared. Although his writings depict numerous hunting trips and successful kills, they are laced with lament for the loss of species and habitat.

The decimation of bison, and the eradication of elk, bighorn sheep, deer and other game species was a loss which Roosevelt felt indicative of society's perception of our natural resources. He saw the effects of overgrazing, and suffered the loss of his ranches because of it. While many still considered natural resources inexhaustible, Roosevelt would write:

We have become great because of the lavish use of our resources. But the time has come to inquire seriously what will happen when our forests are gone, when the coal, the iron, the oil, and the gas are exhausted, when the soils have still further impoverished and washed into the streams, polluting the rivers, denuding the fields and obstructing navigation.

Conservation increasingly became one of Roosevelt's main concerns. After becoming president in 1901, Roosevelt used his authority to protect wildlife and public lands by creating the United States Forest Service (USFS) and establishing 150 national forests, 51 federal bird reserves, 4 national game preserves, 5 national parks, and 18 national monuments by enabling the 1906 American Antiquities Act. During his presidency, Theodore Roosevelt protected approximately 230 million acres of public land.

Today, the legacy of Theodore Roosevelt is found across the country. There are six national park sites dedicated, in part or whole, to our conservationist president. You can find more information about these places under Theodore Roosevelt related websites.

Public Lands Established by Theodore Roosevelt

The conservation legacy of Theodore Roosevelt is found in the 230 million acres of public lands he helped establish during his presidency. Much of that land - 150 millions acres - was set aside as national forests. Roosevelt created the present-day USFS in 1905, an organization within the Department of Agriculture. The idea was to conserve forests for continued use. An adamant proponent of utilizing the country's

resources, Roosevelt wanted to insure the sustainability of those resources.

Roosevelt was also the first president to create a Federal Bird Reserve, and he would establish 51 of these during his administration. These reserves would later become today's national wildlife refuges, managed by the United States Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS). Today there is a national wildlife refuge in every state, and North Dakota boasts the most refuges of any state in the country.

During Roosevelt's administration, the National Park System grew substantially. When the National Park Service was created in 1916 - seven years after Roosevelt left office - there were 35 sites to be managed by the new organization. Roosevelt helped create 23 of those. See below for a list of the sites created during his administration which are connected with the National Park Service.

National Parks

National parks are created by an act of Congress. Before 1916, they were managed by the Secretary of the Interior. Roosevelt worked with his legislative branch to establish these sites:

Crater Lake National Park (OR) - 1902

Wind Cave National Park (SD) - 1903

Sullys Hill (ND) - 1904 (now managed by USFWS)

Platt National Park (OK) - 1906 (now part of Chickasaw National Recreation Area)

Mesa Verde National Park (CO) - 1906

Added land to Yosemite National Park (CA)

National Monuments

Roosevelt signed the Act for the Preservation of American Antiquities - also known as the Antiquities Act or the National Monuments Act - on June 8, 1906. The law gave the president discretion to "declare by public proclamation historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic and scientific interest... to be National Monuments."

Since he did not need congressional approval, Roosevelt could establish national monuments much easier than national parks. He dedicated these sites as national monuments:

Devil's Tower (WY) - 1906

El Morro (NM) - 1906

Montezuma Castle (AZ) - 1906

Petrified Forest (AZ) - 1906 (now a national park)

Chaco Canyon (NM) - 1907

Lassen Peak (CA) - 1907 (now Lassen Volcanic National Park)

Cinder Cone (CA) - 1907 (now part of Lassen Volcanic National Park)

Gila Cliff Dwellings (NM) - 1907

Tonto (AZ) - 1907

Muir Woods (CA) - 1908

Grand Canyon (AZ) - 1908 (now a national park)

Pinnacles (CA) - 1908 (now a national park)

Jewel Cave (SD) - 1908

Natural Bridges (UT) - 1908

Lewis & Clark Caverns (MT) - 1908 (now a Montana State Park)

Tumacacori (AZ) - 1908

Wheeler (CO) - 1908 (now Wheeler Geologic Area, part of Rio Grande National Forest)

Mount Olympus (WA) - 1909 (now Olympic National Park)

Roosevelt also established Chalmette Monument and Grounds in 1907, a site of the Battle of New Orleans. It is now a part of Jean Lafitte National Historical Park.

Roosevelt Writings on Conservation

Theodore Roosevelt was the first president of the 1900s, a time of great expansion and development. His devotion to conserving our natural and cultural history helped establish a precedent at an important time in our nation's history. When many still considered our resources inexhaustible, Roosevelt saw them as something to protect and cherish:

It is also vandalism wantonly to destroy or to permit the destruction of what is beautiful in nature, whether it be a cliff, a forest, or a species of mammal or bird. Here in the United States we turn our rivers and streams into sewers and dumping-grounds, we pollute the air, we destroy forests, and exterminate fishes, birds and mammals -- not to speak of vulgarizing charming landscapes with hideous

advertisements. But at last it looks as if our people were awakening.

The great preservationist John Muir, concerned over the destruction of western areas, invited President Roosevelt to camp in Yosemite National Park. After his trip, Roosevelt remarked: "It was like lying in a great solemn cathedral, far vaster and more beautiful than any built by the hand of man."

He provided a counter-balance to those who sought to exploit the natural world for personal gain. When Congress fought his efforts to create a national park at the Grand Canyon, Roosevelt used his executive power to protect it as a national monument:

In the Grand Canyon, Arizona has a natural wonder which is in kind absolutely unparalleled throughout the rest of the world. I want to ask you to keep this great wonder of nature as it now is. I hope you will not have a building of any kind, not a summer cottage, a hotel or anything else, to mar the wonderful grandeur, the sublimity, the great loneliness and beauty of the canyon. Leave it as it is. You cannot improve on it. The ages have been at work on it, and man can only mar it.

"Theodore Roosevelt and Conservation." National Parks Service, November 16, 2017.

<https://www.nps.gov/thro/learn/historyculture/theodore-roosevelt-and-conservation.htm#:~:text=The%20conservation%20legacy%20of%20Theodore,within%20the%20Department%20of%20Agriculture.>

SQ3: Featured Source N

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>.

SQ3: Featured Source P

The Coup d'ETAT (1903)



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

SQ3: Featured Source Q

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 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 Kishenev, 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>

Supporting Question 4

The fourth supporting question—What is greatness, and what is strife?

This formative task is a close reading and textual analysis of key points within the Teddy Roosevelt’s 1910 speech, “The Man in the Arena”. In it, Roosevelt speaks about the merits of those who try and fail, and then go back again. After reading the provided excerpts of the speech, students must find examples from Roosevelt’s presidency and modern presidencies that have upheld that ideal, identifying at least five examples of strife and five examples of greatness within these presidencies. In the final portion of the task, students must construct a brief three-paragraph essay which compares and contrasts these examples from the past and present to show their understanding of how the efforts and responsibilities of those leading the United States have changed or remained the same over time.

Teachers may implement this task with the following procedures:

- Contextualizing and Close Reading Strategies
- Utilization of Background Knowledge
- Silent Reading Strategies
- Collaboration with one or more students
- Note Taking and Information Recording Strategies
- Personalized Responses

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

- Annotated Text
- Inquiry Packet

The following sources were selected to provide students with the chance to engage with a historic speech within the history of the United States, one which encapsulates the ideology of Roosevelt’s presidency and provokes deep thought on the struggles and victories of individuals, key groups, and a nation over issues which students have learned of and engaged with over the course of this inquiry.

- **Featured Source A:** Theodore Roosevelt “Man in the Arena” Speech excerpt

SQ4: Featured Source A

Theodore Roosevelt “The Man in the Arena” Speech Excerpts

Background: Theodore Roosevelt delivered the speech entitled “Citizenship in a Republic” at the Sorbonne in Paris on April 23, 1910. The speech is popularly known as “The Man in the Arena.” His statements at the Sorbonne were part of a larger trip to Europe that also included visits to Vienna, Budapest, and Oslo. On May 5, 1910, he gave his Nobel Prize speech. This trip came in the midst of Roosevelt's frustration with the Taft administration and followed his African safari with Kermit. After completing his tour of Europe, Roosevelt would make a triumphant return to the U.S.

... As the country grows, its people, who have won success in so many lines, turn back to try to recover the possessions of the mind and the spirit, which perforce their fathers threw aside in order better to wage the first rough battles for the continent their children inherit. The leaders of thought and of action grope their way forward to a new life, realizing, sometimes dimly, sometimes clear-sightedly, that the life of material gain, whether for a nation or an individual, is of value only as a foundation, only as there is added to it the uplift that comes from devotion to loftier ideals. The new life thus sought can in part be developed afresh from what is roundabout in the New World; but it can be developed in full only by freely drawing upon the treasure-houses of the Old World, upon the treasures stored in the ancient abodes of wisdom and learning, such as this where I speak to-day. It is a mistake for any nation to merely copy another; but it is an even greater mistake, it is a proof of weakness in any nation, not to be anxious to learn from one another and willing and able to adapt that learning to the new national conditions and make it fruitful and productive therein. It is for us of the New World to sit at the feet of Gamaliel of the Old; then, if we have the right stuff in us, we can show that Paul in his turn can become a teacher as well as a scholar.

Today I shall speak to you on the subject of individual citizenship, the one subject of vital importance to you, my hearers, and to me and my countrymen, because you and we are great citizens of great democratic republics. A democratic republic such as ours—an effort to realize in its full sense government by, of, and for the people—represents the most gigantic of all possible social experiments, the one fraught with great responsibilities alike for good and evil. The success of republics like yours and like ours means the glory, and our failure the despair, of mankind; and for you and for us the question of the quality of the individual citizen is supreme. Under other forms of government, under the rule of one man or very few men, the quality of the leaders is all-important. If, under such governments, the quality of the rulers is high enough, then the nations for generations lead a brilliant career, and add substantially to the sum of world achievement, no matter how low the quality of the average citizen; because the average citizen is an almost negligible quantity in working out the final results of that type of national greatness. But with you and us the case is different. With you here, and with us in my own home, in the long run, success or failure will be conditioned upon the way in which the average man, the average woman, does his or her duty, first in the ordinary, every-day affairs of life, and next in those great occasional cries which call for heroic virtues. The average citizen must be a good citizen if our republics are to succeed. The stream will not permanently rise higher than the main source; and the main source of national power and national greatness is found in the average citizenship of the nation. Therefore it behooves us to do our best to see that the standard of the average citizen is kept high; and the average cannot be kept high unless the standard of the leaders is very much higher.

It is well if a large proportion of the leaders in any republic, in any democracy, are, as a matter of course, drawn from the classes represented in this audience to-day; but only provided that those classes possess the gifts of sympathy with plain people and of devotion to great ideals. You and those like you have received special advantages; you have all of you had the opportunity for mental training; many of you have had leisure; most of you have had a chance for enjoyment of life far greater than comes to the majority of your fellows. To you and your kind much has been given, and from you much should be expected. Yet there are certain failings against which it is especially incumbent that both men of trained and cultivated intellect, and men of inherited wealth and position, should especially guard themselves, because to these failings they are especially liable; and if yielded to, their—your—chances of useful service are at an end.

Let the man of learning, the man of lettered leisure, beware of that queer and cheap temptation to pose to himself and to others as a cynic, as the man who has outgrown emotions and beliefs, the man to whom good and evil are as one. The poorest way to face life is to face it with a sneer. There are many men who feel a kind of twisted pride in cynicism; there are many who confine themselves to criticism of the way others do what they themselves dare not even attempt. There is no more unhealthy being, no man less worthy of respect, than he who either really holds, or feigns to hold, an attitude of sneering disbelief toward all that is great and lofty, whether in achievement or in that noble effort which, even if it fails, comes second to achievement. A cynical habit of thought and speech, a readiness to criticize work which the critic himself never tries to perform, an intellectual aloofness which will not accept contact with life's realities—all these are marks, not as the possessor would fain to think, of superiority, but of weakness. They mark the men unfit to bear their part painfully in the stern strife of living, who seek, in the affectation of contempt for the achievement of others, to hide from others and from themselves their own weakness. The role is easy; there is none easier, save only the role of the man who sneers alike at both criticism and performance.

It is not the critic who counts; not the man who points out how the strong man stumbles, or where the doer of deeds could have done them better. The credit belongs to the man who is actually in the arena, whose face is marred by dust and sweat and blood; who strives valiantly; who errs, who comes short again and again, because there is no effort without error and shortcoming; but who does actually strive to do the deeds; who knows the great enthusiasms, the great devotions; who spends himself in a worthy cause; who at the best knows in the end the triumph of high achievement, and who at the worst, if he fails, at least fails while daring greatly, so that his place shall never be with those cold and timid souls who neither know victory nor defeat. Shame on the man of cultivated taste who permits refinement to develop into fastidiousness that unfits him for doing the rough work of a workaday world. Among the free peoples who govern themselves there is but a small field of usefulness open for the men of cloistered life who shrink from contact with their fellows. Still less room is there for those who deride or slight what is done by those who actually bear the brunt of the day; nor yet for those others who always profess that they would like to take action, if only the conditions of life were not exactly what they actually are. The man who does nothing cuts the same sordid figure in the pages of history, whether he be cynic, or fop, or voluptuary. There is little use for the being whose tepid soul knows nothing of the great and generous emotion, of the high pride, the stern belief, the lofty enthusiasm, of the men who quell the storm and ride the thunder. Well for these men if they succeed; well also, though not so well, if they fail, given only that they have nobly ventured, and have put forth all their heart and strength. It is war-worn Hotspur, spent with hard fighting, he of the many errors and the valiant end, over whose memory we love to linger, not over the

memory of the young lord who “but for the vile guns would have been a valiant soldier.” ...

... Let those who have, keep, let those who have not, strive to attain, a high standard of cultivation and scholarship. Yet let us remember that these stand second to certain other things. There is need of a sound body, and even more of a sound mind. But above mind and above body stands character—the sum of those qualities which we mean when we speak of a man’s force and courage, of his good faith and sense of honor. I believe in exercise for the body, always provided that we keep in mind that physical development is a means and not an end. I believe, of course, in giving to all the people a good education. But the education must contain much besides book-learning in order to be really good. We must ever remember that no keenness and subtleness of intellect, no polish, no cleverness, in any way make up for the lack of the great solid qualities. Self-restraint, self-mastery, common sense, the power of accepting individual responsibility and yet of acting in conjunction with others, courage and resolution—these are the qualities which mark a masterful people. Without them no people can control itself, or save itself from being controlled from the outside. I speak to a brilliant assemblage; I speak in a great university which represents the flower of the highest intellectual development; I pay all homage to intellect, and to elaborate and specialized training of the intellect; and yet I know I shall have the assent of all of you present when I add that more important still are the commonplace, every-day qualities and virtues.

Such ordinary, every-day qualities include the will and the power to work, to fight at need, and to have plenty of healthy children. The need that the average man shall work is so obvious as hardly to warrant insistence. There are a few people in every country so born that they can lead lives of leisure. These fill a useful function if they make it evident that leisure does not mean idleness; for some of the most valuable work needed by civilization is essentially non-remunerative in its character, and of course the people who do this work should in large part be drawn from those to whom remuneration is an object of indifference. But the average man must earn his own livelihood. He should be trained to do so, and should be trained to feel that he occupies a contemptible position if he does not do so; that he is not an object of envy if he is idle, at whichever end of the social scale he stands, but an object of contempt, an object of derision.

In the next place, the good man should be both a strong and a brave man; that is, he should be able to fight, he should be able to serve his country as a soldier, if the need arises. There are well-meaning philosophers who declaim against the unrighteousness of war. They are right only if they lay all their emphasis upon the unrighteousness. War is a dreadful thing, and unjust war is a crime against humanity. But it is such a crime because it is unjust, not because it is a war. The choice must ever be in favor of righteousness, and this whether the alternative be peace or whether the alternative be war. The question must not be merely, is there to be peace or war? The question must be, is it right to prevail? Are the great laws of righteousness once more to be fulfilled? And the answer from a strong and virile person must be “Yes,” whatever the cost. Every honorable effort should always be made to avoid war, just as every honorable effort should always be made by the individual in private life to keep out of a brawl, to keep out of trouble; but no self-respecting individual, no self-respecting nation, can or ought to submit to wrong.

Finally, even more important than ability to work, even more important than ability to fight at need, is it to remember that the chief of blessings for any nation is that it shall leave its seed to inherit the land. It was the crown of blessings in Biblical times, and it is the crown of blessings now. The greatest of all curses is in the curse of sterility, and the severest of all condemnations should be that visited upon willful sterility. The first essential in any civilization is that the man and the woman shall be father and mother of healthy children, so that the race shall

increase and not decrease. If this is not so, if through no fault of the society there is failure to increase, it is a great misfortune. If the failure is due to deliberate and willful fault, then it is not merely a misfortune, it is one of those crimes of ease and self-indulgence, of shrinking from pain and effort and risk, which in the long run Nature punishes more heavily than any other. If we of the great republics, if we, the free people who claim to have emancipated ourselves from the thralldom of wrong and error, bring down on our heads the curse that comes upon the willfully barren, then it will be an idle waste of breath to prattle of our achievements, to boast of all that we have done. No refinement of life, no delicacy of taste, no material progress, no sordid heaping up of riches, no sensuous development of art and literature, can in any way compensate for the loss of the great fundamental virtues; and of these great fundamental virtues the greatest is the race's power to perpetuate the race....

...Character must show itself in the man's performance both of the duty he owes himself and of the duty he owes the state. The man's foremost duty is owed to himself and his family; and he can do this duty only by earning money, by providing what is essential to material well-being; it is only after this has been done that he can hope to build a higher superstructure on the solid material foundation; it is only after this has been done that he can help in movements for the general well-being. He must pull his own weight first, and only after this can his surplus strength be of use to the general public. It is not good to excite that bitter laughter which expresses contempt; and contempt is what we feel for the being whose enthusiasm to benefit mankind is such that he is a burden to those nearest him; who wishes to do great things for humanity in the abstract, but who cannot keep his wife in comfort or educate his children....

... In short, the good citizen in a republic must realize that they ought to possess two sets of qualities, and that neither avails without the other. He must have those qualities which make for efficiency; and he also must have those qualities which direct the efficiency into channels for the public good. He is useless if he is inefficient. There is nothing to be done with that type of citizen of whom all that can be said is that he is harmless. Virtue which is dependent upon a sluggish circulation is not impressive. There is little place in active life for the timid good man. The man who is saved by weakness from robust wickedness is likewise rendered immune from robust virtues. The good citizen in a republic must first of all be able to hold his own. He is no good citizen unless he has the ability which will make him work hard and which at need will make him fight hard. The good citizen is not a good citizen unless he is an efficient citizen.

But if a man's efficiency is not guided and regulated by a moral sense, then the more efficient he is the worse he is, the more dangerous to the body politic. Courage, intellect, all the masterful qualities, serve but to make a man more evil if they are merely used for that man's own advancement, with brutal indifference to the rights of others. It speaks ill for the community if the community worships those qualities and treats their possessors as heroes regardless of whether the qualities are used rightly or wrongly. It makes no difference as to the precise way in which this sinister efficiency is shown. It makes no difference whether such a man's force and ability betray themselves in a career of money-maker or politician, soldier or orator, journalist or popular leader. If the man works for evil, then the more successful he is the more he should be despised and condemned by all upright and far-seeing men. To judge a man merely by success is an abhorrent wrong; and if the people at large habitually so judge men, if they grow to condone wickedness because the wicked man triumphs, they show their inability to understand that in the last analysis free institutions rest upon the character of citizenship, and that by such admiration of evil they prove themselves unfit for liberty...

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... The citizen must have high ideals, and yet he must be able to achieve them in practical fashion. No permanent good comes from aspirations so lofty that they have grown fantastic and have become impossible and indeed undesirable to realize. The impractical visionary is far less often the guide and precursor than he is the embittered foe of the real reformer, of the man who, with stumblings and shortcomings, yet does in some shape, in practical fashion, give effect to the hopes and desires of those who strive for better things. Woe to the empty phrase-maker, to the empty idealist, who, instead of making ready the ground for the man of action, turns against him when he appears and hampers him as he does the work! Moreover, the preacher of ideals must remember how sorry and contemptible is the figure which he will cut, how great the damage he will do, if he does not himself, in his own life, strive measurably to realize the ideals that he preaches for others. Let him remember also that the worth of the ideal must be largely determined by the success with which it can in practice be realized. We should abhor the so-called "practical" men whose practicality assumes the shape of that peculiar baseness which finds its expression in disbelief in morality and decency, in disregard of high standards of living and conduct. Such a creature is the worst enemy of the body politic. But only less desirable as a citizen is his nominal opponent and real ally, the man of fantastic vision who makes the impossible better forever the enemy of the possible good....

... We are bound in honor to refuse to listen to those men who would make us desist from the effort to do away with the inequality which means injustice; the inequality of right, of opportunity, of privilege. We are bound in honor to strive to bring even nearer the day when, as far as is humanly possible, we shall be able to realize the ideal that each man shall have an equal opportunity to show the stuff that is in him by the way in which he renders service. There should, so far as possible, be equal of opportunity to render service; but just so long as there is inequality of service there should and must be inequality of reward. We may be sorry for the general, the painter, the artists, the worker in any profession or of any kind, whose misfortune rather than whose fault is that he does his work ill. But the reward must go to the man who does his work well; for any other course is to create a new kind of privilege, the privilege of folly and weakness; and special privilege is injustice, whatever form it takes...

... The good citizen will demand liberty for himself, and as a matter of pride he will see to it that others receive liberty which he thus claims as his own. Probably the best test of true love of liberty in any country is the way in which minorities are treated in that country. Not only should there be complete liberty in matters of religion and opinion, but complete liberty for each man to lead his life as he desires, provided only that in so doing he does not wrong his neighbor. Persecution is bad because it is persecution, and without reference to which side happens at the moment to be the persecutor and which the persecuted. Class hatred is bad in just the same way, and without regard to the individual who, at a given time, substitutes loyalty to a class for loyalty to a nation, or substitutes hatred of men because they happen to come in a certain social category, for judgment awarded them according to their conduct. Remember always that the same measure of condemnation should be extended to the arrogance which would look down upon or crush any man because he is poor and to envy and hatred which would destroy a man because he is wealthy. The overbearing brutality of the man of wealth or power, and the envious and hateful malice directed against the wealth or power, are really at root merely different manifestations of the same quality, merely two sides of the same shield. The man who, if born to wealth and power, exploits and ruins his less fortunate brethren is at heart the same as the greedy and violent demagogue who excites those who have not property to plunder those who have. The gravest wrong upon his country is inflicted by that man, whatever his station, who seeks to make his countrymen divide primarily in the line that separates class from class, occupation from occupation, men of more wealth from men of less wealth, instead of remembering that the only safe standard is that which judges each man on his worth as a man, whether he be rich or whether he be poor, without regard to

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his profession or to his station in life. Such is the only true democratic test, the only test that can with propriety be applied in a republic. There have been many republics in the past, both in what we call antiquity and in what we call the Middle Ages. They fell, and the prime factor in their fall was the fact that the parties tended to divide along the line that separates wealth from poverty. It made no difference which side was successful; it made no difference whether the republic fell under the rule of an oligarchy or the rule of a mob. In either case, when once loyalty to a class had been substituted for loyalty to the republic, the end of the republic was at hand. There is no greater need to-day than the need to keep ever in mind the fact that the cleavage between right and wrong, between good citizenship and bad citizenship, runs at right angles to, and not parallel with, the lines of cleavage between class and class, between occupation and occupation. Ruin looks us in the face if we judge a man by his position instead of judging him by his conduct in that position.

In a republic, to be successful we must learn to combine intensity of conviction with a broad tolerance of difference of conviction. Wide differences of opinion in matters of religious, political, and social belief must exist if conscience and intellect alike are not to be stunted, if there is to be room for healthy growth. Bitter internecine hatreds, based on such differences, are signs, not of earnestness of belief, but of that fanaticism which, whether religious or anti-religious, democratic or anti-democratic, is itself but a manifestation of the gloomy bigotry which has been the chief factor in the downfall of so many, many nations....

“The Man in the Arena.” TR Center - Man in the Arena. <https://www.theodorerooseveltcenter.org/Learn-About-TR/TR-Encyclopedia/Culture-and-Society/Man-in-the-Arena.aspx>.

Summative Performance Task

At this point in the inquiry, students have examined the various challenges attributed to leading a nation. This includes the balancing of interests between varying groups, the proper utilization of resources available to a nation, and the issues that a nation must be led through such as discrimination, poverty, and roles within the international community. They have engaged with a variety of primary and secondary source which has allowed them to trace the gradual changes that have occurred within the roles and responsibilities of the presidency.

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 construct an evidence based argumentative essay or presentation in which they answer the question “What does it take to lead the United States?”. In this task, students must exhibit an understanding of the role and responsibilities of the President of the United States, how the position has changed and/or remained the same since Theodore Roosevelt, and what skills and challenges are historically associated with the position. In doing so, they will be

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

- The presidency is an administrative position which holds the responsibility of leading the nation and working to address the issues that face the American people. To successfully act as the leader of the United States, the president must be an active influence within society and keep the US engaged with the international community from a position of cooperation
- The presidency is a position of power within the United States that gradually accumulated more and more authority in affairs of governing and assisting the nation. To successfully lead the United States, the president must act as a mediator between key groups to reach a balance which is beneficial to all
- To successfully lead the United States, the president must be someone who acts with conviction and strength, both in domestic and foreign concerns of the nation. However, the president must first address specific key issues facing the nation, some before others, all of which are rooted in the nation’s history.

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 share their findings to the class through a digital presentation and must use their understanding of the topic and evidence to support their claims against possibly differing viewpoints.

Students can Informed Action by selecting one key issue present within society, such as the ones discussed within this inquiry. This can include balancing economic progress with social stability, addressing poverty, discrimination, international relations, and similar topics. After selecting an issue, students will then select from 4-5 presidents that have worked to address it, requiring that Teddy Roosevelt and the current president are included. Students will compare and contrast how the presidents selected addressed the issue during their time in office, and make their research presentable through mediums such as a posterboard, research paper, PowerPoint, or AI presentation. They must then present their findings. Students will make their final product accessible to their community by submitting it to a local site for display. This includes school, local library, or the TR Inaugural Site

NAME:

WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO LEAD THE US INQUIRY PACKET

Directions: Using the sources provided, provide a brief description of the three key groups listed below in addition to the causes, effects, goals, and methods of each groups.

Conservationist

Industrialists

Labor Workers

1) Based on the data you've gathered; do you believe that there is a possible way to find a successful

NAME:

WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO LEAD THE US INQUIRY PACKET

Directions: Using your notes along with Source E (summary of key developments in the 2020's), as well as personal knowledge of current events, select four topics that connect Theodore Roosevelt's presidency to the modern administrations. For each topic, you will have to provide a description of the event, how the US was involved, how it compares and contrast between the past and present, and whether or not US involvement was justified.

NAME:

WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO LEAD THE US INQUIRY PACKET

Directions: Use the primary and secondary sources provided to research the five prevalent issues within the US during the time he entered the presidency. Within each box of the chart, you must include the following information: (1) What was the issue and why was it significant, (2) What are some examples of these issues, and (3) What actions did Roosevelt take to address these issues

<p><u>Environmental Conservation</u></p>	<p><u>Question of Labor</u></p>	<p><u>Discrimination</u></p>	
	<p><u>US Role in the Global World</u></p>	<p><u>Urban Poverty</u></p>	

NAME:

WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO LEAD THE US INQUIRY PACKET

Directions: You will now conduct your own research to engage with modern examples of these issues. You are tasked with finding one credible source for each of the five issues which provides information on them from a modern context. Within each box of the chart, you must include the following information: (1) What was the issue and why was it still significant, (2) What is a recent examples of these issues, and (3) What action have modern leaders taken to address these issues

<p><u>Environmental Conservation</u></p>	<p><u>Question of Labor</u></p>	<p><u>Discrimination</u></p>
<p><u>US Role in the Global World</u></p>	<p><u>Urban Poverty</u></p>	

NAME:

WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO LEAD THE US INQUIRY PACKET

- 1) What are four ideals which Theodore Roosevelt supports within his “Man in the Arena” speech? What are some examples of these ideals you have come across within this inquiry?**

- 2) What are five examples of “Greatness” and five examples of “Strife” that have been seen in the presidency of Theodore Roosevelt and a modern administration? (10 examples in total for Roosevelt, and 10 in total for the modern administration)**

NAME:

WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO LEAD THE US INQUIRY PACKET

Directions: Using your responses from the previous two questions regarding Theodore Roosevelt's "Man in the Arena" speech, as well as notes taken throughout the inquiry, you must construct a brief, minimum of three paragraphs, essay which compares and contrasts these examples of greatness and strife from the past and present to show you understanding of how the efforts and responsibilities of those leading the United States have changed or remained the same over time