Synthesis Readings

Chapter 21 America as a World Power (1865–1914)
In the late 1800s the United States became a world power. It looked for new markets in Alaska, Hawaii, Japan, and China. The Spanish-American War left the United States in control of Cuba, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. The United States built the Panama Canal and increased its influence over Latin America. The United States also became involved in the Mexican Revolution.

Chapter 21
Section 1: The United States Gains Overseas Territories
In this section you will learn how the United States began to look overseas for a source of new lands, raw materials, and markets in the late 1800s. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

imperialism
isolationism
McKinley Tariff
subsidy
spheres of influence
Open Door Policy
Boxer Rebellion

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:
• Why did some people favor expansionism over isolationism?
• What events led to the U.S. annexation of Hawaii?
• What was the goal of U.S. foreign policy in Japan and China?

Chapter 21.1 Section Summary
By the late 1800s many European nations were engaging in imperialism—the practice of extending a nation’s power by gaining territories for a colonial empire. Imperialism gave nations new sources of raw materials to maintain their industrial growth and economic strength. It also opened new markets to merchants.

The United States, however, was following a policy of isolationism, or avoiding involvement in the affairs of other nations. Some people thought the United States needed more territories in order to gain raw materials for industry and new markets for U.S. goods. In 1867 the United States bought Alaska from Russia. Meanwhile in Hawaii, Americans were gaining influence by establishing businesses, such as sugar plantations.

In 1875 the United States signed a treaty with Hawaii allowing it
to ship sugar to the United States duty-free, giving Hawaiian producers a great trade advantage. In 1890, however, Congress passed the McKinley Tariff, which allowed all countries to send sugar duty-free to the United States. It also gave sugar producers in the United States a subsidy, or bonus payment, of two cents per pound. Sugar producers in Hawaii could not compete, and Hawaii’s economy collapsed.

In 1893 some planters revolted against the Hawaiian monarchy with the help of 150 U.S. marines and set up a new government with Sanford B. Dole as president. In 1898 President William McKinley persuaded Congress to annex the islands, and Hawaii became a U.S. territory in 1900.

The United States also worked to open new markets in Japan, which had kept itself isolated from the rest of the world for centuries. However, in 1853 Commodore Matthew Perry sailed into Japan to open it to trade. The following year he returned with seven warships, and this show of force persuaded Japan to sign a treaty that would open trade with the United States.

In 1868 Japan began to modernize and industrialize and soon expanded into China and Korea. European nations also wanted influence in China, so they established spheres of influence—areas where they could control trade and natural resources. The United States did not want to be closed out of Chinese markets. In 1899 U.S. secretary of state John Hay introduced the Open Door Policy, which stated that all nations should have equal access to trade with China.

Many Chinese people resented the power that foreigners had in China, and in 1900 this antiforeign hostility boiled over, producing the Boxer Rebellion. The Boxers were members of a nationalist group called the Fists of Righteous Harmony. They killed two foreign diplomats and attacked the foreign settlement in Beijing. U.S. Marines ended the rebellion two months later.
Chapter 21

Section 2: The Spanish-American War

In this section you will learn how the United States went to war with Spain, and how that affected Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

yellow journalism
Teller Amendment
Anti-Imperialist League
Platt Amendment

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

• How did the press affect U.S. involvement in the conflict in Cuba?
• What enabled the United States to win the war with Spain?
• How did the Spanish-American War affect the Philippines, Cuba, and Puerto Rico?

Chapter 21.2 Section Summary

In the late 1800s Cuban rebels revolted against Spain, which cracked down harshly on Cuba. The Spanish imprisoned many Cubans in camps, where there was little food and poor sanitation. U.S. newspapers were critical of Spain’s actions. Some even practiced yellow journalism, the printing of sensational, often exaggerated news stories to attract more readers. The New York Journal even created stories. In 1898 the paper published a letter in which a Spanish minister criticized President McKinley. It was the unexplained explosion of the U.S. battleship Maine in Havana Harbor, however, that rallied American support behind a war with Spain.

In April 1898 Congress declared Cuba independent and issued the Teller Amendment, which stated that the United States would not take over Cuba. Days later, the United States and Spain were at war. While attention was focused on Cuba, the U.S. Navy won a quick victory in the Philippines, Spain’s other colonial possession. Commodore George Dewey destroyed Spain’s Pacific fleet without losing a single American life.

Victory in Cuba did not come as quickly as it had in the Philippines. U.S. soldiers were unprepared for the tropical heat and diseases, and many died. Finally in June the U.S. Navy blockaded the harbor of Santiago de Cuba, allowing U.S. troops to go inland and win battles on San Juan Hill and Kettle Hill. In July U.S. ships
destroyed every Spanish ship in the Battle of Santiago Bay, and the Spanish surrendered in August.

The Peace of Paris Treaty, signed in 1898, gave the United States control over Puerto Rico, Guam, Cuba, and the Philippines. Groups like the Anti-Imperialist League, which opposed the treaty, accused the United States of building a colonial empire. In the Philippines, people rebelled against the United States and waged war until 1902. The Philippines remained a U.S. territory until 1946.

Meanwhile in Cuba, the United States set up a military government with a constitution that included the Platt Amendment. This amendment limited Cuba’s right to make treaties with other nations, required Cuba to sell or lease land to the United States for naval stations, and allowed the United States to involve itself in Cuban affairs.

The United States also made Puerto Rico a U.S. territory and set up a nonmilitary government. In 1952 Puerto Rico became a commonwealth of the United States, which meant that it had its own constitution and elected officials.
Chapter 21

Section 3: The United States and Latin America

In this section you will learn how the United States used its political and financial muscle to extend its influence in Latin America. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

Hay-Herrán Treaty
Hay–Bunau-Varilla Treaty
Panama Canal
Roosevelt Corollary
dollar diplomacy

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

• What steps did the United States take to build a canal across Panama?
• How did U.S. involvement in Latin America change under President Theodore Roosevelt?
• How did Presidents Taft and Wilson enforce the Monroe Doctrine?

Chapter 21.3 Section Summary

In the late 1800s some U.S. leaders began considering building a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. This canal would shorten the journey from the Pacific to the Caribbean by some 8,000 miles. President Theodore Roosevelt believed the canal would increase the strength of the U.S. Navy. In 1903 the United States ratified the Hay-Herrán Treaty. This treaty would pay Colombia $10 million plus $250,000 a year for a 99-year lease on a 5-mile-wide strip of land across the Isthmus of Panama. The Colombian senate rejected the treaty, hoping for better terms.

Meanwhile, revolution erupted in the Colombian province of Panama. The U.S. government formally approved the new Panamanian government and signed the Hay–Bunau-Varilla Treaty. This treaty was identical to the Hay-Herrán Treaty, except that the canal zone was 10 miles wide. The United States was finally ready to build the canal.

Building the canal was difficult. Yellow fever and very dangerous construction work slowed the process. Some 30,000 workers died, and more than $600 million was spent. Finally in 1914 the Panama Canal opened to traffic.
After the canal opened, U.S. involvement in Latin America increased. The United States upheld the Monroe Doctrine, which stated that the Western Hemisphere was not open to European colonization. However, problems arose when European banks lent money to Latin American countries, which could not pay back their debts. Great Britain and Germany believed they had the right to collect their debts by force.

President Roosevelt realized that if the United States kept European creditors from collecting their debts, it would have to step in itself to force the debtor nations to pay. In 1904 Roosevelt added the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine. This statement announced that the United States could police the region, using military force when necessary.

When William Howard Taft became president in 1909, he used a policy called dollar diplomacy. This policy emphasized U.S. economic power and business investment to influence Latin American governments. For example, U.S. banks made large loans to Nicaragua in exchange for the right to send troops there to secure U.S. business interests. In 1911 Taft sent U.S. Marines to Nicaragua, where they remained until 1925.

The next president, Woodrow Wilson, disapproved of this policy. Instead, he hoped to protect U.S. interests by encouraging the growth of democracy in Latin America. When there was unrest in Haiti, Wilson stepped in to keep France and Germany from seizing control.
Chapter 21

Section 4: The United States and Mexico

In this section you will learn how the United States became drawn into the Mexican Revolution. As you study this material, pay attention to the following terms:

- **Mexican Revolution**
- **ABC Powers**

You will also want to keep the following questions in mind as you review this material:

- Why did the Mexican people revolt against their government in 1911?
- Why did President Woodrow Wilson get involved in the Mexican Revolution?
- Why did Mexican immigration to the United States increase in the early 1900s?

Chapter 21.4 Section Summary

Mexico was led by Porfirio Díaz from 1877 to 1911. Díaz eagerly welcomed foreign investment, and the United States became the country’s biggest investor. However, Díaz ruled his people harshly, and most Mexicans were landless and lived in poverty. In 1911 Francisco Madero led the **Mexican Revolution**, capturing Ciudad Juárez and forcing Díaz to resign. Madero then became president of Mexico.

Madero, however, was a better revolutionary than president. In 1913 General Victoriano Huerta killed Madero and took power. Angered at this violence, U.S. president Woodrow Wilson refused to recognize Huerta’s government. When a revolution against Huerta began to build, Wilson lifted an arms embargo on Mexico so Huerta’s opponents could buy weapons.

Three groups, led by Venustiano Carranza, Francisco “Pancho” Villa, and Emiliano Zapata, were trying to overthrow Huerta. They all wanted to overthrow Huerta, but each also wanted to be the one to replace him.

Many U.S. business leaders hoped Wilson would step in to protect their interests in Mexico, but Wilson was unwilling to go to war. In 1914, however, Wilson sent troops to Mexico after Huerta’s troops arrested several U.S. sailors in Tampico, Mexico.
Before the Tampico situation could be resolved, Wilson learned that a German ship carrying weapons was headed to Veracruz. Not wanting Huerta to receive these weapons, Wilson ordered troops to capture Veracruz. The United States and Mexico were on the brink of war, but the ABC Powers—Argentina, Brazil, and Chile—offered to settle the dispute. By this time, however, Huerta was already losing power. Soon he was forced from office and Carranza established a new government. U.S. troops withdrew from Veracruz.

Pancho Villa and Emiliano Zapata continued to fight the government, however, and the violence spread across the U.S. border. In 1916 Villa attacked the town of Columbus, New Mexico, killing 17 U.S. citizens. President Wilson sent General John J. Pershing and 12,000 troops to try to capture Villa, but after chasing him unsuccessfully for 300 miles, the U.S. troops eventually withdrew.

The disorder of the Mexican Revolution led many Mexicans to flee the violence. Others left because they feared political persecution or hoped to find industrial jobs. Between 1905 and 1920 several hundred thousand Mexicans moved to the United States.