CHAPTER 22

The Quest for Empire, 1865–1914

LEARNING OBJECTIVES
After you have studied Chapter 22 in your textbook and worked through this study guide chapter, you should be able to:

1. Examine the late-nineteenth-century sources of American expansionism and imperialism.
2. Discuss the role of ideology and culture in American expansionism and imperialism during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
3. Describe the expansionist vision of William H. Seward, and indicate the extent to which this vision was realized by the late 1880s.
4. Examine and evaluate relations between the United States and the following nations in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries:
   a. Great Britain
   b. Canada
5. Discuss the modernization of the United States Navy in the late nineteenth century.
6. Discuss the causes and consequences of the Hawaiian and Venezuelan crises.
7. Examine the causes (both underlying and immediate) and discuss the conduct of the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War, and indicate the provisions of the Treaty of Paris.
8. Outline the arguments presented by both the anti-imperialists and the imperialists in the debate over acquisition of an empire, and explain why the imperialists prevailed.
9. Examine and evaluate late-nineteenth- and early-twentieth-century American policy toward Asia in general and toward the Philippines, China, and Japan, specifically.
10. Examine and evaluate United States policy toward the countries of Latin America in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century.

THEMATIC GUIDE
The expansionist and eventually imperialistic orientation of United States foreign policy after 1865 stemmed from the country’s domestic situation. Those who led the internal expansion of the United States after the Civil War were also the architects of the nation’s foreign policy. These national leaders, known collectively as the foreign policy elite, believed that extending American influence abroad would foster American prosperity, and they sought to use American foreign policy to open and safeguard foreign markets.

Many Americans harbored fears of the wider world, but the foreign policy elite realized that those fears could be alleviated if the world could be remade in the American image. Therefore, after the Civil War, these leaders advocated a nationalism based on the idea that Americans were a special people favored by God. Race-based arguments, gender-based arguments, and Social Darwinism were used to support
the idea of American superiority and further the idea of expansion, and American missionaries went forth to convert the “heathen.” Furthermore, a combination of political, economic, and cultural factors in the 1890s prompted the foreign policy elite to move beyond support of mere economic expansion toward advocacy of an imperialistic course for the United States—an imperialism characterized by a belief in the rightness of American society and American solutions.

The analysis of American expansionism serves as a backdrop for scrutiny of the American empire from the end of the Civil War to 1914. William H. Seward, as secretary of state from 1861 to 1869 and as a member of the foreign policy elite, was one of the chief architects of this empire. In examining Seward’s expansionist vision and the extent to which it was realized by the late 1880s, we again see the relationship between domestic and foreign policy.

Acquisition of territories and markets abroad led the United States to heed the urgings of Captain Alfred T. Mahan and to embark on the building of the New Navy. The fleet gave the nation the means to protect America’s international interests and to become more assertive, as in the Hawaiian, Venezuelan, and Cuban crises of the 1890s. The varied motives that led the United States into the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War offer another striking example of the complex links between domestic and foreign policy. In these crises of the 1890s, the American frame of reference toward peoples of other nations became more noticeable in the shaping of foreign policy. In the Cuban crisis, as in the Venezuelan crisis, Americans insisted that the United States would establish the rules for nations in the Western Hemisphere.

The Treaty of Paris, which ended the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War, sparked a debate between imperialists and anti-imperialists over the course of American foreign policy. We examine the arguments of the two groups and the reasons for the defeat of the anti-imperialists.

In the last two sections of the chapter, we turn to the American empire in Asia and Latin America. The American frame of reference with regard to other ethnic groups, along with American political, economic, and social interests, led to U.S. oppression of the Filipinos and shaped the Open Door policy as well as relations with Japan. The same factors determined American relations with Latin America. But in Latin America the United States used its power to impose its will and, through the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, assumed the role of “an international police power.”

**BUILDING VOCABULARY**

Listed below are important words and terms that you need to know to get the most out of Chapter 22. They are listed in the order in which they occur in the chapter. After carefully looking through the list, (1) underline the words with which you are totally unfamiliar, (2) put a question mark by those words of which you are unsure, and (3) leave the rest alone.

As you begin to read the chapter, when you come to any of the words you’ve put question marks beside or underlined (1) slow your reading; (2) focus on the word and on its context in the sentence you’re reading; (3) if you can understand the meaning of the word from its context in the sentence or passage in which it is used, go on with your reading; (4) if it’s a word that you’ve underlined or a word that you can’t understand from its context in the sentence or passage, look it up in a dictionary and write down the definition that best applies to the context in which the word is used.

**Definitions**

- **proselytize**
- **ardent**
- **derogatory**
gape
indigenous
lucrative
usurp
unabashed
espouse
cosmopolitan
luminary
debase
tutelage
ethnocentric
obviate
aggrandizement
fruition
waft
lampoon
persevere
protectorate
postulate
oligarchy
rectitude
collusion
fiat
sensibility
insurgent
jettison
hegemony
inveterate
motley
rue
chafe
condescending
futile
embroilment
garner
IDENTIFICATION AND SIGNIFICANCE

After studying Chapter 22 of *A People and a Nation*, you should be able to identify fully and explain the historical significance of each item listed below.

- Identify each item in the space provided. Give an explanation or description of the item. Answer the questions *who, what, where,* and *when*.
- Explain the historical significance of each item in the space provided. Establish the historical context in which the item exists. Establish the item as the result of or as the cause of other factors existing in the society under study. Answer this question: *What were the political, social, economic, and/or cultural consequences of this item?*

1. Lottie Moon
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

2. expansionism versus imperialism
   a. Identification
   b. Significance
3. the foreign policy elite
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

4. the idea of a racial hierarchy
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

5. male ethos and imperialism
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

6. Our Country
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

7. the Burlingame Treaty
   a. Identification

   b. Significance
8. the massacre at Rock Springs, Wyoming
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

9. the San Francisco School Board’s segregation order
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

10. Student Volunteers for Foreign Missions
    a. Identification

    b. Significance

11. William H. Seward
    a. Identification

    b. Significance

12. the purchase of Alaska
    a. Identification

    b. Significance
13. the transatlantic cable
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

14. Hamilton Fish
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

15. the Washington Treaty
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

16. the Samoan Islands
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

17. navalism
   a. Identification
   b. Significance
18. Captain Alfred T. Mahan
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

19. the New Navy
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

20. Turner’s frontier thesis
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

21. the Hawaiian-annexation question
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

22. Hawai‘i’s 1887 constitution
   a. Identification
   b. Significance
23. the McKinley Tariff of 1890
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

24. the 1893 overthrow of the Hawaiian government
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

25. the Venezuelan crisis of 1895
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

26. the Cuban revolution
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

27. José Martí
   a. Identification

   b. Significance
28. the Wilson-Gorman Tariff
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

29. General Valeriano Weyler
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

30. the Maine
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

31. the de Lôme letter
   a. Identification
   b. Significance

32. McKinley’s war message
   a. Identification
   b. Significance
33. the Teller Amendment
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

34. the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

35. Commodore George Dewey
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

36. the Treaty of Paris
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

37. anti-imperialist arguments
   a. Identification

   b. Significance
38. imperialist arguments
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

39. Emilio Aguinaldo
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

40. the Philippine Insurrection
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

41. the Moros
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

42. the Jones Act
   a. Identification

   b. Significance
43. the Open Door policy
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

44. the Boxer Rebellion
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

45. the United Fruit Company
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

46. the Platt Amendment
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

47. Walter Reed
   a. Identification

   b. Significance
48. Puerto Rican–United States relations
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance

49. the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty of 1901
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance

50. the Panamanian revolution
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance

51. the Panama Canal
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance

52. the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance
53. American investments in Mexico
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

54. the Portsmouth Conference
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

55. the Taft-Katsura Agreement
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

56. the Root-Takahira Agreement
   a. Identification

   b. Significance

57. the Great White Fleet
   a. Identification

   b. Significance
58. dollar diplomacy
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance

59. Anglo-American rapprochement
   a. Identification
   
   b. Significance
## ORGANIZING, REVIEWING, AND USING INFORMATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Conspiratorial Activity</th>
<th>Economic Activity</th>
<th>Military Activity</th>
<th>Diplomatic Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Protection of property of Americans or American companies abroad</td>
<td>Acquisition of territory or access to assets of military or economic value</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chart A**

American Use of Its Power and Influence Abroad, 1865–1914
### Chart A

**American Use of Its Power and Influence Abroad, 1865–1914**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Diplomatic Activity</th>
<th>Military Activity</th>
<th>Economic Activity</th>
<th>Conspiratorial Activity</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee of trade and tariff policies favorable to American business interests</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Management of a civil war, insurrection, or potential secession in another country</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Effect</td>
<td>Conspiratorial Activity</td>
<td>Economic Activity</td>
<td>Military Activity</td>
<td>Diplomatic Activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Control of the form of government, legal institutions, trade agreements or treaties of another country/territory</td>
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<tr>
<td>Influence on another country’s cultural development, religious makeup, or value system</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
# America’s Quest for Empire

**Territorial Expansion, 1865-1914**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How Acquired</th>
<th>Type of Acquisition</th>
<th>Primary Reason for Acquisition</th>
<th>Advantages and Disadvantages to Indigenous Population</th>
<th>Indigenous People</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>military force or intimidation, agreement with indigenous leaders, plot to overthrow government, etc.)</td>
<td>(claim, purchase, treaty after war, annexation, etc.)</td>
<td>(Advantage to U.S—naval base, resources, protection of trade, etc.)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## NORTH AMERICA (INCL. CENTRAL AMERICA)

- **Alaska (1867)**
- **Panama Canal Zone (1903)**

## CARIBBEAN AND EXTREME W. ATLANTIC

- **Puerto Rico (1898)**

## SOUTH PACIFIC

- **American Samoa (1899)**
### Chart B

**America’s Quest for Empire Territorial Expansion, 1865–1914**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How Acquired</th>
<th>Type of Acquisition</th>
<th>Primary Reason for Acquisition</th>
<th>Advantages and Disadvantages to Indigenous Population</th>
<th>Relations with Indigenous People</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(military force or intimidation, agreement with indigenous leaders, plot to overthrow government, etc.)</td>
<td>(claim, purchase, treaty after war, annexation, etc.)</td>
<td>(Advantage to U.S—naval base, resources, protection of trade, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Opposition to American role, local autonomy, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CENTRAL PACIFIC</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hawai‘i (1897)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Midway Islands (1867)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>WEST PACIFIC</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wake Island (1898)</td>
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<td>Guam (1898)</td>
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<td><strong>EAST ASIA</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Philippines (1898)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
IDEAS AND DETAILS

Objective 1
1. Foreign policy decisions in the late nineteenth century were shaped largely by
   a. the opinions of the American people.
   b. the business community.
   c. the foreign policy elite.
   d. generals and admirals.

Objective 1
2. One of the sources of the expansionist sentiment of the late nineteenth century was the
   a. desire of American farmers to learn new agricultural techniques from foreign agricultural specialists.
   b. belief that foreign economic expansion would relieve the problem of overproduction at home.
   c. belief that more immigrants would solve domestic labor problems.
   d. desire of Latin American countries for the United States to exert political control over them.

Objectives 1 and 2
3. Our Country by Josiah Strong provides evidence that
   a. most American religious leaders in the late nineteenth century were critical of American foreign policy in general and of American imperialism in particular.
   b. belief in the superiority of Anglo-Saxons was used in the late nineteenth century to justify American expansion.
   c. late-nineteenth-century American foreign policy was based on the principle that all nations in the world should be allowed to determine their own form of government and economic system.
   d. the unprofessional nature of the American diplomatic corps in the late nineteenth century was a constant embarrassment to the United States.

Objective 3
4. William H. Seward’s vision of an American empire
   a. was confined to the Americas.
   b. included the building of a Central American canal.
   c. involved acquisition of territory by military conquest.
   d. took a giant step forward with the purchase of the Danish West Indies in 1867.

Objective 5
5. The person largely responsible for popularizing the New Navy was
   a. Andrew Carnegie.
   b. Ulysses Grant.
   c. Hamilton Fish.
   d. Alfred T. Mahan.
Objective 6

6. President Grover Cleveland opposed the annexation of Hawai‘i because he
   a. saw no economic advantages to it.
   b. wanted no close ties with people of another race.
   c. learned that a majority of Hawaiians opposed annexation.
   d. was afraid it would lead to war.

Objective 6

7. In the settlement of the Venezuelan crisis of 1895,
   a. the United States showed a disregard for the rights of Venezuela.
   b. the United States insisted that Venezuela adopt a democratic form of government.
   c. Great Britain was able to bully the United States into submission.
   d. the United States Navy showed its inability to operate in a crisis.

Objectives 7 and 10

8. The Teller Amendment
   a. announced that the United States would annex Cuba.
   b. led to the declaration of war against Spain.
   c. expanded the theater of war to the South Pacific.
   d. renounced any American intentions to annex Cuba.

Objective 7

9. Which of the following is the best explanation for the United States’s declaration of war against Spain in 1898?
   a. The war was undertaken out of a humanitarian desire to help the Cuban people.
   b. Many farmers and businesspeople believed that victory would open new markets for America’s surplus production.
   c. Many conservatives believed that the war would act as a national unifier by unleashing a spirit of patriotism.
   d. All of the above were motives for the war because different groups justified the war in different ways.

Objective 7

10. Most American casualties in the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War were incurred
    a. through diseases contracted during the war.
    b. in the Santiago campaign.
    c. in Admiral Dewey’s battle with the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay.
    d. by the Rough Riders in the charge up San Juan Hill.

Objective 8

11. The anti-imperialist campaign against the Treaty of Paris was
    a. based on purely constitutional arguments.
    b. hindered by the inconsistency of the anti-imperialist arguments.
    c. successful because of the influence of people like Mark Twain and Andrew Carnegie.
    d. successful because of Bryan’s decision to support the treaty.
Objective 9
12. In the Philippines, the United States
   a. fought to suppress an insurrection against American rule.
   b. quickly lived up to its promise to give the country its independence.
   c. held a referendum to determine the wishes of the Filipino people.
   d. established a democratic government that guaranteed the same basic rights enjoyed by Americans.

Objective 9
13. Which of the following best expresses the ideology behind the Open Door policy?
   a. The self-determination of other nations must be preserved.
   b. The closing of any area to American trade is a threat to the survival of the United States.
   c. Freedom of the seas will lead to the economic expansion of the world community of nations.
   d. All nations of the world should be considered equals.

Objective 10
14. Which of the following best explains the rationale behind the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine and the imperialistic behavior of the United States in Latin America?
   a. The United States believed it had the duty to help Latin Americans find the political system best suited to their culture.
   b. The United States believed prevention of outside intervention in Latin America, and thus the preservation of its own security, required stability in the region.
   c. The United States believed it should share its wealth and resources with the people of Latin America.
   d. The United States believed that it had the right to colonize Latin America to exploit the resources of the region.

Objective 9
15. Relations between the United States and Japan were negatively affected by
   a. the extension of American aid to French colonies in Indochina.
   b. American refusal to recognize Japanese hegemony in Korea.
   c. President Roosevelt’s extension of military aid to Russia during the Russo-Japanese war.
   d. the involvement of American bankers in an international consortium to build a Chinese railway.

ESSAY QUESTIONS

Objectives 1, 2, 6, 7, 8 and 10
1. Defend or refute the following statement in the context of American policy toward Central America and the Caribbean in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries: “The persistent American belief that other people cannot solve their own problems and that only the American model of government will work produced what historian William Appleman Williams has called ‘the tragedy of American diplomacy.’”
Objective 1
2. Explain the relationship between domestic affairs and foreign affairs. How did domestic affairs during the late nineteenth century lead to an expansionist foreign policy?

Objective 8
3. Discuss the debate between the imperialists and the anti-imperialists, and explain why the former prevailed.

Objective 9
4. Explain American foreign policy toward China in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

MAP EXERCISE
On the outline map that follows and using the map on page 614 in the textbook as a guide:
1. Label the southernmost states of the United States.
2. Locate and mark the following Latin American countries and cities:
   - Countries
     - Mexico
     - Guatemala
     - British Honduras (now Belize)
     - Honduras
     - El Salvador
     - Nicaragua
     - Costa Rica
     - Panama
     - Colombia
     - Venezuela
     - Cuba
     - Jamaica
     - Haiti
     - Dominican Republic
     - Puerto Rico
   - Cities
     - Miami
     - New Orleans
     - Columbus, New Mexico
• Mexico City
• Tampico
• Veracruz

3. Using an atlas, mark the locations of the capitals of the Latin American countries that are shown on the outline map.

4. The United States has long been interested in and involved in Latin American affairs. Why?
ANSWERS

Multiple-Choice Questions

1. c. Correct. The foreign policy elite, made up of “opinion leaders” from many areas of American society (business, politics, the military, labor, agriculture), were instrumental in the late nineteenth century, as they are instrumental today, in shaping American foreign policy. See pages 598–599.
   a. No. The American public has not traditionally paid a great deal of attention to nor been well educated on foreign policy issues. As a result, foreign policy, unlike domestic policy, is not usually “shaped” by the people. See pages 598–599.
   b. No. Although the business community has a hand in the shaping of foreign policy, it is a mistake to say that the business community alone was “largely” responsible for foreign policy decisions. See pages 598–599.
   d. No. Although military leaders have a hand in the shaping of foreign policy, it is a mistake to say that such policy in the late nineteenth century was “shaped largely” by this one group. See pages 598–599.

2. b. Correct. In the final third of the nineteenth century, depressions affected the U.S. economy about once a decade. Many business and farm leaders believed overproduction was a major cause of economic declines and advocated expansion into foreign markets as a preventive measure. See page 599.
   a. No. American farm leaders did not seek an expansionist foreign policy for the purpose of learning new agricultural techniques from foreign agricultural specialists. See page 599.
   c. No. The expansionist sentiment of the late nineteenth century was not fueled by the belief that domestic labor problems could be solved by increasing the number of immigrants. See page 599.
   d. No. Although U.S. economic and political influence increased in Latin America in the late nineteenth century, especially after the Spanish-American War, the states of Latin America did not want the United States to exert political control over them. See page 599.

3. b. Correct. In his book, Reverend Josiah Strong stated the belief that the Anglo-Saxon race was superior to and was destined to lead others. See page 600.
   a. Although some religious leaders doubtless criticized American foreign policy in the late nineteenth century, it is a mistake to say that “most” did so. Certainly, Reverend Josiah Strong was not critical of American imperialism in Our Country. See page 600.
   c. No. Our Country does not provide evidence that late-nineteenth-century American foreign policy was based on the principle of self-determination. See page 600.
   d. No. Although it is true that the American diplomatic corps was one of the worst in the world in the late nineteenth century, this was not a topic that Reverend Josiah Strong dealt with in his book. See page 600.
4. **b. Correct.** Seward advocated a canal through Central America as essential to the unity of the large American empire that he envisioned. See page 602.
   
   a. **No.** Seward’s vision of an American empire included Iceland, Greenland, Hawai‘i, and certain Pacific islands as well as expansion throughout the Americas. See page 602.
   
   c. **No.** Seward believed that other peoples would find the republican principles of American society attractive. Therefore, they would naturally gravitate toward the United States, making expansion by military means unnecessary. See page 602.
   
   d. **No.** Although in 1867 Seward signed a treaty with Denmark to buy the Danish West Indies, the treaty was not ratified by the Senate. The Danish West Indies did not become part of the American empire until 1917. See page 602.

5. **d. Correct.** Alfred T. Mahan argued that a modern, efficient naval force was essential for any nation that aspired to great-power status. Through his lectures and published works, he had an enormous impact on the successful drive to modernize the United States Navy, popularly known as the “New Navy.” See page 604.
   
   a. **No.** Andrew Carnegie was founder of the Carnegie Steel Company, which controlled most of the steel production in the United States by 1900. Although he supported the concept of the “New Navy” and signed a lucrative naval contract in 1883, he was not responsible for “popularizing” the New Navy. See page 604.
   
   b. **No.** Ulysses Grant was not responsible for popularizing the New Navy. See page 604.
   
   c. **No.** Hamilton Fish, secretary of state under President Grant, was not responsible for popularizing the New Navy. See page 604.

6. **c. Correct.** Cleveland supported economic expansion but did not believe it should lead to imperialism. (See page 597 for the distinction between economic expansion and imperialism.) The facts of the Hawaiian revolution, revealed to him through an investigation he ordered, convinced the new president that annexation was being forced on the Hawaiians and was, therefore, imperialistic. See page 605.
   
   a. **No.** Grover Cleveland was an expansionist who recognized the economic advantages of annexing the Hawaiian islands. His opposition to annexation was not based on economic questions. See page 605.
   
   b. **No.** Cleveland’s opposition to the annexation of Hawaii was not based on racial questions. See page 605.
   
   d. **No.** Cleveland’s opposition to the annexation of Hawaii was not based on fear that it would lead to war. See page 605.
7. a. Correct. The boundary dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain was settled by an Anglo-American arbitration board that barely consulted Venezuela in its deliberations. By disregarding Venezuela’s rights and sensibilities in this manner, the United States displayed an imperialistic attitude. See pages 605–606.

b. No. The crisis did not center on the question of the type of government Venezuela had. See pages 605–606.

c. No. The United States sent a strong protest to the British concerning their actions in Venezuela. The British stalled at first but then, not wanting war, bowed to American pressure. As a result, the Monroe Doctrine was strengthened and the United States and Great Britain began to form closer ties. See pages 605–606.


8. d. Correct. After passing resolutions declaring Cuba to be free, Congress adopted the Teller Amendment, which disclaimed any intention by the United States to annex Cuba. See page 607.

a. No. The Teller Amendment did not announce American intentions to annex Cuba. See page 607.

b. No. The Teller Amendment, passed by the U.S. Congress, was related to the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War, but it was not a reason for the war. See page 607.

c. No. The Teller Amendment did not have the effect of expanding the Spanish-American-Cuban-Filipino War to the South Pacific. See page 607.

9. d. Correct. Those who supported the war came from a variety of groups in the United States, with each group having its own reason for supporting the war. To review the mixed and complex motives for the war, see page 608.

a. No. Although there was a humanitarian aspect to United States entry into the Spanish-American War, this is not the best answer to this question. See page 608.

b. No. Although farmers and businesspeople did support the war because they believed victory would open new markets for America’s surplus production, this is not the best answer to the question. See page 608.

c. No. Although many conservatives supported the war because they believed it would act as a national unifier by unleashing a spirit of patriotism, this is not the best answer to the question. See page 608.

10. a. Correct. Of the over 5,400 Americans who died in the war, only 379 died in combat. All others died from malaria or yellow fever. See pages 608–609.

b. No. In the destruction of the Spanish fleet outside Santiago harbor, the Spanish suffered 474 killed and wounded, and the United States suffered one killed and one wounded. This does not constitute “most” of the 5,400 Americans who lost their lives in the Spanish-American War. See pages 608–609.

c. No. In the Battle of Manila Bay (May 1, 1898) Spanish losses numbered 381 killed, and American casualties consisted of 8 wounded. See pages 608–609.

d. No. In the charge up San Juan Hill, the Rough Riders lost about 89 men. This does not constitute “most” of the 5,400 Americans who lost their lives in the Spanish-American War. See pages 608–609.
11. b. Correct. The anti-imperialists came from many different interest groups in American society. Each group looked at domestic issues differently and also found it impossible to speak with one voice on foreign policy issues. Therefore, they were hindered by the inconsistency of their arguments. See page 610.

a. No. The anti-imperialists used a variety of arguments in their campaign against the Treaty of Paris. See pages 609–610.

c. No. Although Mark Twain and Andrew Carnegie spoke against the Treaty of Paris, the treaty passed by a 57-to-27 vote in the Senate. See pages 609–610.

d. No. Believing it best to end the war and then push for Filipino independence, William Jennings Bryan supported the Treaty of Paris. However, his support for the treaty did not aid the anti-imperialist campaign. The treaty passed by a 57-to-27 vote. See pages 609–610.

12. a. Correct. The Filipinos felt betrayed by the Treaty of Paris and, under the leadership of Emilio Aguinaldo, fought for their independence in the Philippine Insurrection. American forces finally suppressed the insurrection in 1901, leaving 5,000 Americans and 200,000 Filipinos dead. See page 610.

b. No. The Philippines were not granted independence until 1946. See page 610.

c. No. The United States assumed that it knew what was best for the Filipino people and held no referendum. See page 610.

d. No. The United States held sovereignty over the Philippines for forty-eight years. Although it attempted to establish a democratic government over the years, the United States did not guarantee to the Filipino people the same rights enjoyed by American citizens. See page 610.

13. b. Correct. The ideology expressed in the Open Door was that the United States required exports; therefore, any area closed to American products, citizens, or ideas threatened the survival of the United States.

a. No. As an ideology rather than just a policy, the Open Door was not based on the preservation of the self-determination of other nations. See page 613.

c. No. As an ideology rather than just a policy, the Open Door was not based on the idea that freedom of the seas would lead to the economic expansion of the world community of nations. See page 613.

d. No. As an ideology rather than just a policy, the Open Door was not based on the belief that all nations of the world should be considered equals. See page 613.
14. **b. Correct.** The United States believed that the debts-default crisis in Latin America invited intervention by European powers acting to protect the financial interests of European banks. President Roosevelt deemed this to be a threat to the security of the United States and its interests in the region, which included not only American commercial and investment interests, but the Panama Canal as well. Therefore, the United States, to preserve its own security, believed that financial and political stability were essential in Latin America. Both the Roosevelt Corollary and U.S. behavior in the region demonstrate that the United States was willing to be the policeman of the region to protect its economic interests, its dominance, and to establish order. See page 616.

a. **No.** Both the Roosevelt Corollary and U.S. actions in Latin America support the idea that in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries the United States believed in the rightness of its political system for Latin America. See page 616.

c. **No.** Although the United States has shared some of its wealth and resources with the people of Latin America, this clearly is not the rationale behind the Roosevelt Corollary. See page 616.

d. **No.** The Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine was an attempt to prevent European intervention in Latin America, not encourage it. See page 616.

15. **d. Correct.** In an effort to increase American influence in Manchuria, President Taft was able to gain agreement on the inclusion of a group of American bankers in a four-power consortium to build a Chinese railway. In response (and in defiance of the Open Door policy), Japan signed a treaty with Russia by which the two staked out spheres of influence in China for themselves. This strengthened Japan’s position in Manchuria and caused more friction between the U.S. and Japan. See page 617.

a. **No.** The United States did not extend aid to French colonies in Indochina in the early twentieth century. See page 617.

b. **No.** In its efforts to protect American interests in the Pacific (especially in the Philippines), the United States made concessions to Japan—the dominant power in Asia. Therefore, in the Taft-Katsura Agreement of 1905 the United States recognized Japanese hegemony in Korea and, in return, the Japanese pledged not to interfere with American interests in the Philippines. See page 617.

c. **No.** The United States did not want either Russia or Japan to become dominant in Asia but wanted each to balance the power of the other. Therefore, the U.S. remained neutral in the conflict and President Roosevelt, at the request of the Japanese, agreed to mediate the crisis. See page 617.