

# Chapter 5 Study Guide

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## Section 1: The Roots of Imperialism

During the late 1800s, the United States began to acquire influence and territory outside of its continental borders. It pursued a policy of **imperialism**, or the use of economic, political, and military control over weaker territories. Many imperialist nations wanted colonies to serve as **extractive economies**. Raw materials would be removed from these colonies and sent to the home country. In America there was a surplus of goods. American industrialists would benefit because they could sell their commodities in new colonial markets around the world.

**Alfred T. Mahan**, a historian and officer in the United States Navy, called upon the government to build a large navy in order to protect American interests around the world. To justify imperialism, many imperialists used ideas of racial, national, and cultural superiority. One of these ideas was **Social Darwinism**, the belief that life is a competitive struggle and that some races are superior to others and more fit to rule. Historian **Frederick J. Turner** wrote that America needed a large amount of unsettled land to succeed. Some Americans felt that the nation should expand into foreign lands.

In 1853, Commodore **Matthew Perry** sailed a large naval force to Japan. Perry won the Japanese emperor's favor by showering him with lavish gifts. Within a year, Japan agreed to trade with the United States. In 1867, Secretary of State William Seward bought Alaska from Russia. The purchase almost doubled the size of the United States and provided timber, oil, and other natural resources. In Latin America, U.S. businessmen sought to expand their trade and investments, which expanded the U.S. sphere of influence.

The Hawaiian Islands had been economically linked to the United States for almost a century. American sugar planters owned much of the Hawaiian land. They used their influence to exclude many Hawaiians from the voting process. **Queen Liliuokalani**, the ruler of Hawaii, tried to limit the political power of the white minority. In 1893, the planters overthrew the queen and set up a new government. The United States annexed Hawaii in 1898. The United States was abandoning isolationism and emerging as a new power on the global stage.

## Section 2: The Spanish-American War

At the end of the nineteenth century, tensions were rising between Spain and its colony in Cuba. Cuban patriot **José Martí** launched a war for independence from Spain in 1895. Many Americans supported the Cubans, whose struggle for freedom and democracy reminded Americans of their own struggle for independence.

Newspaper publishers Joseph Pulitzer and **William Randolph Hearst** heightened the public's dislike of the Spanish government. Their publications, known as the **Yellow Press**, pushed for war with Spain by printing exaggerated stories of Spanish atrocities. In February 1898, Hearst's *New York Journal* published

a letter written by Spain's ambassador, which called McKinley a weak and stupid politician. The letter fueled American **jingoism**, or aggressive nationalism. Soon after, the American battleship *Maine* exploded in Havana harbor. The Yellow Press promptly accused Spain of blowing up the battleship. In April 1898, the U.S. Congress declared war on Spain, beginning the Spanish-American War.

In the Spanish-held Philippines, Commodore **George Dewey** quickly destroyed a large part of the Spanish fleet. While Dewey was defeating the Spanish navy, Filipino nationalists led by **Emilio Aguinaldo** were defeating the Spanish army. In August, Spanish troops surrendered to the United States.

Meanwhile, American troops landed in Cuba in June 1898. Although the troops were poorly trained, wore unsuitable uniforms, and carried old, obsolete weapons, they were successful. Spanish forces in Cuba surrendered to the United States. Future President Theodore Roosevelt organized a force known as the **Rough Riders**. Joined by African American soldiers from the Ninth and Tenth Cavalry regiments, the Rough Riders played a key role in the war.

In December 1898, Spain and the United States signed the **Treaty of Paris**, officially ending the Spanish-American War. Spain gave up control of Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Pacific island of Guam. It also sold the Philippines to the United States. While many were happy with America's expanded role in world affairs, some Americans argued that imperialism was unjust and un-American. The Spanish-American War marked a turning point in the history of American foreign policy.

### **Section 3: The US and East Asia**

During the Spanish-American War, Filipino nationalist Emilio Aguinaldo viewed America as an ally in the Filipino struggle for independence. However, when the United States kept possession of the Philippines after the war, Aguinaldo grew disillusioned. He helped organize an **insurrection**, or rebellion, against U.S. rule.

The Filipino insurgents relied on **guerrilla warfare** tactics, including surprise raids and hit-and-run attacks. In turn, the U.S. military used extraordinary measures to crush the rebellion. The war in the Philippines highlighted the rigors of fighting against guerrilla insurgents. Nearly 5,000 Americans and 200,000 Filipinos were killed in the fighting.

The United States also wanted to increase trade with China. By 1899, Britain, France, Germany, and Russia had carved China into distinct **spheres of influence**, or zones. Because the United States did not have a zone, this system of privileged access to Chinese markets threatened to limit American trade. U.S. Secretary of State **John Hay** made it clear that America demanded equal trade access.

In May 1900, a Chinese nationalist group launched the **Boxer Rebellion** in objection to the presence of foreigners. As the rebellion engulfed China, Secretary of State Hay reasserted America's **Open Door Policy**, which stated that the United States wanted free trade, not colonies, in China. A multinational force of European, American, and Japanese troops put down the uprising.

In 1905, President Roosevelt negotiated an end to the **Russo-Japanese War**. The President's intervention displayed America's growing role in world affairs. However, in 1906, the segregation of Japanese children in San Francisco schools drew Japan's immediate wrath. President Roosevelt negotiated a "**Gentlemen's Agreement**" with Japan to ease the tension.

While Roosevelt used diplomacy with Japan, he also promoted military preparedness to protect U.S. interests in Asia. In 1907, Roosevelt sent a force of navy ships, known as the **Great White Fleet**, on a cruise around the world to demonstrate America's increased military power.

## **Section 4: The US and Latin America**

After the Spanish-American War, the United States assumed control of Puerto Rico and Cuba. In 1900, the U.S. Congress passed the **Foraker Act**, which established a civil government in Puerto Rico. Later, in 1917, Puerto Ricans gained more citizenship rights and greater control over their own legislature.

Before the United States Army withdrew from Cuba in 1902, Congress forced Cuba to add the **Platt Amendment** to its constitution. The amendment restricted the rights of newly independent Cubans, gave the United States the right to intervene in Cuba, and made Cuba a protectorate of the United States.

After assuming the presidency, Theodore Roosevelt promoted "**big stick**" **diplomacy**, which relied on a strong U.S. military to achieve America's goals. Roosevelt used this forceful approach to intimidate Colombia and gain control over the "Canal Zone" in Panama. America then built the **Panama Canal**, a waterway that connected the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

In 1904, President Roosevelt announced the **Roosevelt Corollary**, which updated the Monroe Doctrine for an age of economic imperialism. The policy stated that the United States would serve as the policing power in Latin America and would restore order when necessary. Many Latin Americans resented America's role as the hemisphere's police force.

President William Howard Taft shared Roosevelt's basic foreign policy objectives. However, Taft stressed "**dollar diplomacy**," which aimed to increase American investments throughout Central America and the Caribbean. In 1913, President Woodrow Wilson, who had criticized imperialism, promoted his policy of "**moral diplomacy**." Wilson promised that America would work to promote "human rights, national integrity, and opportunity."

Although he intended to take U.S. policy in a different direction, President Wilson nevertheless used the military on a number of occasions. During the Mexican Revolution, Wilson sent marines to help Venustiano Carranza, a reformer, to assume the presidency. Wilson also sent troops to capture **Francisco "Pancho" Villa**, whose raid into New Mexico left 18 Americans dead. America's triumph over Spain and U.S. actions in Asia and Latin America demonstrated that America had emerged as a global power.