

## A. Early Foreign Policy

### 1. US Influence on Central and South America

#### a) Monroe Doctrine and its application

- (i) European intervention in the Pacific Northwest and Latin America threatened to become a new source of anxiety for American leaders.
- (ii) In 1821, Russia claimed control of the entire Pacific coast from Alaska to Oregon and closed the area to foreign shipping. This development coincided with rumors that Spain, with the help of its European allies, was planning to reconquer its former colonies in Latin America.
- (iii) European intervention threatened British as well as American interests. Not only did Britain have a flourishing trade with Latin America, which would decline if Spain regained its New World colonies, but it also occupied the Oregon region jointly with the United States.
- (iv) In 1823, British Foreign Minister George Canning proposed that the United States and Britain jointly announce their opposition to further European intervention in the Americas.
- (v) Monroe initially regarded the British proposal favorably. But his secretary of state, John Quincy Adams, opposed a joint Anglo-American declaration.
- (vi) Secure in the knowledge that the British would use their fleet to support the American position, Adams convinced President Monroe to make an independent declaration of American policy.
- (vii) In his annual message to Congress in 1823, Monroe outlined the principles that have become known as the Monroe Doctrine. He announced that the Western Hemisphere was henceforth closed to any further European colonization, declaring that the United States would regard any attempt by European nations "to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety."

- (viii) European countries with possessions in the hemisphere--Britain, France, the Netherlands, and Spain--were warned not to attempt expansion. Monroe also said that the United States would not interfere in internal European affairs.
- (ix) For the American people, the Monroe Doctrine was the proud symbol of American hegemony in the Western Hemisphere. Unilaterally, the United States had defined its rights and interests in the New World.
- (x) It is true that during the first half of the nineteenth century the United States lacked the military power to enforce the Monroe Doctrine and depended on the British navy to deter European intervention in the Americas, but the nation had clearly warned the European powers that any threat to American security would provoke American retaliation.

b) Panama Canal

- (i) The canal's construction was a phenomenal undertaking. In 1850, U.S. interests in Panama built a railroad across the Isthmus to transport '49ers to California.
- (ii) In 1879, the French, fresh from their success in building the Suez Canal, started building the canal. Over the next 20 years, between 16,000 and 22,000 workers died from malaria, yellow fever, typhoid, snake bites, and accidents. Torrential rains averaging 200 inches a year washed away much of the work.
- (iii) America's 1898 war with Spain made a canal seem essential. During the Spanish American War, the only way for U.S. battleships to sail from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean was to make an 8,000-mile journey around Cape Horn at the tip of South America.
- (iv) The canal was completed in the face of seemingly insurmountable political, medical, and technological obstacles. The Isthmus of Panama was located in Colombia, which had rejected a U.S. proposal to build a canal. "You could no more make an agreement with them than you could nail currant jelly to a wall," President Theodore Roosevelt said in response to the rejection.

- (v) A French adventurer, Philippe Bunau-Varilla, and an American lawyer, Nelson Cromwell, conceived of the idea of creating the Republic of Panama. They persuaded Roosevelt to support a Panama.
- (vi) Bunau-Varilla engineered a revolution and U.S. warships prevented Colombia from stopping Panama's attempt to break away (In 1921, the U.S. paid an indemnity to Colombia in recognition of the U.S. role in the Panamanian revolution).
- (vii) Bunau-Varilla repaid the United States for its assistance by signing a treaty on behalf of the Panamanians, which gave the United States a zone stretching five miles from each bank of the canal in perpetuity. Within the zone, U.S. laws, police, and courts ruled.
- (viii) Years later, President Roosevelt said that the people of Panama rebelled against Colombia "literally as one man." A senator quipped, "Yes, and the one man was Roosevelt."
- (ix) In 1911, Roosevelt said bluntly, "I took the Isthmus, started the canal and then left Congress not to debate the canal but to debate me."
- (x) In 1906, eager to see the greatest accomplishment of his presidency, he became the first president to travel overseas. He went to Panama at the height of the rainy season and took the controls of a 95-ton steam shovel.
- (xi) During the construction of the canal, William Gorgas, an army physician, tried to reduce the number of deaths caused by disease. He oversaw the massive draining of swamps in order to eliminate mosquitoes that carried yellow fever and malaria.
- (xii) The French had attempted to build a canal at sea level, but grossly underestimated the difficulty of achieving this goal. To allow ships to travel between the oceans, American engineers designed a system of locks capable of raising and lowering ships 64 feet by using the force of gravity and 40-horsepower motors to move the gates.
- (xiii) One set of locks used enough concrete to build a wall 8-feet thick and 12-feet high, stretching between Cleveland and Pittsburgh.

- (xiv) At its peak in 1913, the workforce consisted of 44,000 persons. West Indian workers were the canal's unsung heroes. Each day, 200 trainloads of dirt had to be hauled away. More than 25,000 worked as canal diggers--three times the number of Americans who worked on the canal.
- (xv) Between 1904 and 1915, some 5,600 lives were lost to disease and accidents. Most of those who died were from Barbados. The quinine used to treat malaria left many workers deaf. In December 1908, a massive 22 tons of dynamite exploded prematurely, killing 23 workers.
- (xvi) Built at a cost of \$387 million over a period of 10 years, the Panama Canal was a declaration of America's coming of age in the world.

c) Roosevelt Corollary

- (i) For many years, the Monroe Doctrine was practically a dead letter. The bold proclamation of 1823 that declared the western hemisphere forever free from European expansion bemused the imperial powers who knew the United States was simply too weak to enforce its claim.
- (ii) By 1900, the situation had changed. A bold, expanding America was spreading its wings, daring the old-world order to challenge its newfound might. When Theodore Roosevelt became president, he decided to reassert Monroe's old declaration.
- (iii) Cuba became the foundation for a new Latin American policy. Fearful that the new nation would be prey to the imperial vultures of Europe, United States diplomats sharpened American talons on the island.
- (iv) In the Platt Amendment of 1901, Cuba was forbidden from entering any treaty that might endanger their independence.
- (v) In addition, to prevent European gunboats from landing on Cuban shores, Cuba was prohibited from incurring a large debt.

- (vi) If any of these conditions were violated, Cuba agreed to permit American troops to land to restore order. Lastly, the United States was granted a lease on a naval base at Guantanamo Bay. Independent in name only, Cuba became a legal protectorate of the United States.
- (vii) Convinced that all of Latin America was vulnerable to European attack, President Roosevelt dusted off the Monroe Doctrine and added his own corollary.
- (viii) While the Monroe doctrine blocked further expansion of Europe in the western hemisphere, the Roosevelt corollary went one step further.
- (ix) Should any Latin American nation engage in "chronic wrongdoing," a phrase that included large debts or civil unrest, the United States military would intervene.
- (x) Europe was to remain across the Atlantic, while America would police the western hemisphere. The first opportunity to enforce this new policy came in 1905, when the Dominican Republic was in jeopardy of invasion by European debt collectors.
- (xi) The United States invaded the island nation, seized its customs houses, and ruled the Dominican Republic as a protectorate until the situation was stabilized.
- (xii) The effects of the new policy were enormous. Teddy Roosevelt had a motto: "speak softly and carry a big stick."
- (xiii) To Roosevelt, the big stick was the new American Navy.
- (xiv) By remaining firm in resolve and possessing the naval might to back its interests, the United States could simultaneously defend its territory and avoid war.
- (xv) Latin Americans did not look upon the corollary favorably. They resented U.S. involvement as Yankee imperialism, and animosity against their large neighbor to the north grew dramatically.
- (xvi) By the end of the 20th century, the United States would send troops of invasion to Latin America over 35 times, establishing an undisputed sphere of influence throughout the hemisphere.

2. Difficult Relations with European Powers
  - a) Monroe Doctrine and its application
    - (i) See Previous Section
  - b) Panama Canal
    - (i) See Previous Section
  - c) Roosevelt Corollary
    - (i) See previous Section
  - d) Relations with Britain during the Civil War
    - (i) Two main events acted to cause major strain in the relationship between Britain and America.
    - (ii) Though the relationship was always a little strained following the revolutionary war and the War of 1812, the Trent Affair and *Alabama* Claims were the closest to conflict between the two countries.
  - e) Trent Affair
    - (i) Trent Affair was an 1861 incident during the American Civil War involving the doctrine of freedom of the seas, which nearly precipitated war between Great Britain and the United States.
    - (ii) On Nov. 8, 1861, Captain Charles Wilkes, commanding the Union frigate *San Jacinto*, seized from the neutral British ship *Trent* two Confederate commissioners, James Murray Mason and John Slidell, who were seeking the support of England and France for the cause of the Confederacy.
    - (iii) Despite initial rejoicing by the Northern populace and Congress, this unauthorized seizure aroused a storm of indignant protest and demands for war throughout Britain.
    - (iv) The British government sent an ultimatum demanding an American apology and the release of Mason and Slidell.

(v) To avert armed conflict, Secretary of State William Seward, on December 26, replied that Wilkes had erred in failing to bring the *Trent* into port for adjudication, thus violating America's policy of freedom of the seas. The Confederate commissioners were released shortly thereafter.

f) The Alabama Claims 1862

(i) The Alabama claims were a diplomatic dispute between the United States and Great Britain that arose out of the U.S. Civil War.

(ii) The peaceful resolution of these claims seven years after the war ended set an important precedent for solving serious international disputes through arbitration and laid the foundation for greatly improved relations between Britain and the United States.

(iii) The controversy began when Confederate agents contracted for warships from British boatyards. Disguised as merchant vessels during their construction in order to circumvent British neutrality laws, the craft were actually intended as commerce raiders.

(iv) The most successful of these cruisers was the *Alabama*, which was launched on July 29, 1862. It captured 58 Northern merchant ships before it was sunk in June 1864 by a U.S. warship off the coast of France.

(v) In addition to the *Alabama*, other British-built ships in the Confederate Navy included the *Florida*, *Georgia*, *Rappahannock*, and *Shenandoah*. Together, they sank more than 150 Northern ships and impelled much of the U.S. merchant marine to adopt foreign registry.

(vi) The damage to Northern shipping would have been even worse had not fervent protests from the U.S. Government persuaded British and French officials to seize additional ships intended for the Confederacy.

(vii) Most famously, on September 3, 1863, the British Government impounded two ironclad, steam-driven "Laird rams" that Confederate agent James D. Bulloch had surreptitiously arranged to be built at a shipyard in Liverpool.

- (viii) The United States demanded compensation from Britain for the damage wrought by the British-built, Southern-operated commerce raiders, based upon the argument that the British Government, by aiding the creation of a Confederate Navy, had inadequately followed its neutrality laws.
- (ix) The damages discussed were enormous. Charles Sumner, Chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, argued that British aid to the Confederacy had prolonged the Civil War by 2 years, and indirectly cost the United States hundreds of millions, or even billions of dollars (the figure Sumner suggested was \$2.125 billion).
- (x) Some Americans adopted this argument and suggested that Britain should offer Canada to the United States in compensation. Such proposals were not taken seriously by British statesmen, but they convey the passion with which some Americans viewed the issue.
- (xi) After years of unsuccessful U.S. diplomatic initiatives, a Joint High Commission meeting in Washington, D.C. during the early part of 1871 arrived at the basis for a settlement.
- (xii) The British Government expressed regret for its contribution to the success of Confederate commerce raiders. This agreement, dated May 8, 1871, and known as the Treaty of Washington, also established an arbitration commission to evaluate the merit of U.S. financial claims on Britain.
- (xiii) In addition, the treaty addressed Anglo-American disputes over boundaries and fishing rights. The arbitration commission, which issued its decision in September 1872, rejected American claims for indirect damages, but did order Britain to pay the United States \$15.5 million as compensation for the Alabama claims.

g) Spanish – American war

- (i) In the late nineteenth century, the nations of Europe were competing for overseas colonies in Africa and Asia. Many Americans thought that the United States should enter this game of empires and demonstrate its growing power in the world.



- (ii) But the United States had not forgotten its own colonial past. When the American colonies had risen in revolt against the British, their frustration at obeying a government across an ocean had helped to define the American vision of representative democracy.
- (iii) Taking on the role of a distant overlord seemed like an essential violation of those principles.
- (iv) In 1895, Cubans rose in rebellion against Spain, which had been in control of the island since the 1500s.
- (v) In an attempt to quell the uprising, the Spanish rounded up Cubans and forced them into re-concentration camps, where poor sanitation and disease killed thousands. American newspapers, eager to sell copies, whipped the public into a frenzy against the Spanish by reporting sensational stories (both true and untrue) in a practice known as yellow journalism.
- (vi) The oppressed Cubans, they claimed, were suffering at the hands of European tyrants just as the United States had done before the American Revolution.
- (vii) In order to protect Americans and their assets in Cuba during the chaos, the United States sent the warship *USS Maine* into Havana harbor.
- (viii) Just nine days after its arrival, the *Maine* exploded, killing 260 American sailors. The Spanish claimed, correctly, that the explosion had been the result of a malfunction aboard the ship, but Americans were convinced that the *Maine* had been destroyed by Spanish sabotage.
- (ix) After a few abortive attempts at mediating the dispute, the United States declared war against Spain on April 11, 1898.
- (x) In order to prevent the possibility of us annexation of Cuba, Congress passed the Teller Amendment, which proclaimed that the United States would help the Cuban people gain their freedom from Spain but would not annex the island after victory.
- (xi) The tired remnants of Spain's new world empire were no match for brand-new American warships. On the seas, us forces quickly dispatched the Spanish fleet.

- (xii) The Spanish were surprised when the Americans captured the Philippines, a Pacific outpost of the empire whose citizens were also rebelling against Spanish.
- (xiii) On land, the contest was not quite so easy. The American military force was composed mainly of volunteers who were ill-equipped for an expedition in the tropics.
- (xiv) Future president Teddy Roosevelt, who had assembled a volunteer cavalry regiment known as the Rough Riders, garnered fame for a charge that would have had little success were it not for the support of seasoned African American soldiers serving in segregated infantry and cavalry units.
- (xv) Nevertheless, in six weeks' time, US forces were in control of the two major remaining Spanish possessions overseas, Cuba and the Philippines.
- (xvi) Fearful that Japan might attempt to take control of Hawaii while the United States was distracted by Spain, president William McKinley also signed a resolution formally annexing Hawaii on July 7, 1898.
- (xvii) Weary of war, Spain signed an armistice on August 12, 1898.
- (xviii) Fewer than four hundred Americans had died, leading Secretary of State John Hay to declare the conflict a "splendid little war." Less splendid but rarely mentioned were the more than 5000 American deaths from diseases like malaria and yellow fever.
- (xix) In the fall and winter of 1898, diplomats representing Spain and the United States met to hash out the terms of peace. In the Treaty of Paris, Spain agreed to free Cuba, and to cede the islands Guam and Puerto Rico to the United States. In addition, the United States agreed to pay Spain \$20 million for the Philippines (which the Spanish wanted back as the Americans had captured Manila *after* the August 12 armistice due to delayed communications). The United States had become an empire.
- (xx) Neither Cuban nor Filipino representatives were permitted to participate in the negotiations.

- (xxi) Although the United States did not annex Cuba outright, it did force Cubans to recognize American control in their new constitution.
- (xxii) In the Platt Amendment, Cuba agreed to permit American diplomatic, economic, and military intervention and to lease Guantanamo Bay for American use.
- (xxiii) For Filipinos, who had allied with US forces to oust Spain, the outcome of the war was a cruel joke. Although the Americans were unwilling to allow the Philippines to remain in the hands of the Spanish, they were also unwilling to give Filipinos their freedom.
- (xxiv) The Filipinos quickly realized they had traded one imperial power for another and turned their rebellion against the United States.
- (xxv) For two years, the United States fought to put down the Filipino insurrection, ironically resorting to the same tactics that the Spanish had used against the Cubans. In 1901, the United States defeated the rebels, and the Philippines became an American territory.
- (xxvi) After the Spanish-American war, the United States would never be the same. It had survived for over a hundred years as an isolationist nation, an ocean away from European powers, and emerged as an industrial behemoth in the wake of the Civil War.
- (xxvii) With its decisive rout of Spain and the acquisition of a far-reaching empire, the United States had arrived as a major player on the world stage.

### 3. US Imperialism

#### a) Dollar Diplomacy

- (i) **Dollar Diplomacy** was a foreign policy created by U.S. Pres. William Howard Taft (served 1909–13) and his secretary of state, Philander C. Knox, to ensure the financial stability of a region while protecting and extending U.S. commercial and financial interests there.

- (ii) It grew out of Pres. Theodore Roosevelt's peaceful intervention in the Dominican Republic, where U.S. loans had been exchanged for the right to choose the Dominican head of customs (the country's major revenue source).
- (iii) In his message to Congress on December 3, 1912, in the course of a review of his foreign policy actions of the preceding year, Taft characterized his program as "substituting dollars for bullets."
  - (1) *"It is one that appeals alike to idealistic humanitarian sentiments, to the dictates of sound policy and strategy, and to legitimate commercial aims. It is an effort frankly directed to the increase of American trade upon the axiomatic principle that the government of the United States shall extend all proper support to every legitimate and beneficial American enterprise abroad."*
- (iv) The phrase was picked up by his critics and converted into "dollar diplomacy," a highly uncomplimentary term to describe Taft's dealings with other countries.
- (v) Taft's encouragement of U.S. business, especially in the Caribbean, where he felt that investors would have a stabilizing effect on the shaky governments of the region, came in for the sharpest criticism.
- (vi) Under the name of Dollar Diplomacy, the Taft administration engineered such a policy in Nicaragua. It supported the overthrow of José Santos Zelaya and set up Adolfo Díaz in his place; it established a collector of customs; and it guaranteed loans to the Nicaraguan government.
- (vii) The resentment of the Nicaraguan people, however, eventually resulted in U.S. military intervention as well.
- (viii) Taft and Knox also attempted to promulgate Dollar Diplomacy in China, where it was even less successful, both in terms of U.S. ability to supply loans and in terms of world reaction.
- (ix) The dismal failure of Dollar Diplomacy—from its simplistic assessment of social unrest to its formulaic application—caused the Taft administration to finally abandon the policy in 1912.

- (x) The following year Pres. Woodrow Wilson publicly repudiated Dollar Diplomacy, though he acted as vigorously as had his predecessors to maintain U.S. supremacy in Central America and the Caribbean.
  - (xi) Dollar diplomacy has come to refer in a disparaging way to the heedless manipulation of foreign affairs for strictly monetary ends.
- b) Panama Canal
- (i) See Previous Section
- c) Spanish – American War
- (i) See Previous Section
- d) Policy in the Pacific from 1853 onward
- (i) Manifest destiny did not die when Americans successfully lay claim to the West Coast. The newly won territory was the source of heated argument in the 1850s and a major reason for the War Between the States.
  - (ii) Once the Union was patched back together, Americans were mostly content with settling the land already under the United States flag. But as the decades passed and America grew strong with industrial might, the desire to spread the eagle's wings over additional territory came back into vogue.
  - (iii) When William Seward proposed the purchase of Alaska in 1867, his peers thought he had gone mad. Russian America, as it was called, was a “vast frozen wasteland surely not worth 7.2 million American dollars.”
  - (iv) "Seward's Folly," some scoffed. "Seward's Icebox," others razzed. The Senate saw the potential of its vast natural resources and approved the treaty, but the House stalled the purchase of the "Polar Bear Garden" for over a year.
  - (v) Not too much attention was paid to the new acquisition at first. Americans were too busy mending the fractured Union and then settling the continental West.

- (vi) Since Commodore Matthew Perry "opened" Japan in 1854, trade with Asia was a reality, earning millions for American merchants and manufacturers.
- (vii) Slowly but surely the United States acquired holdings in the region, making the ties even stronger. Already Alaska, Hawaii, and American Samoa flew the American flag. The Spanish-American War brought Guam and the Philippines as well. These territories needed supply routes and defense, so ports of trade and naval bases became crucial.
- (viii) The most populous nation on earth was already divided between encroaching European empires. China still had an emperor and system of government, but the foreign powers were truly in control.
- (ix) Although the Chinese Empire was not carved into colonies such as Africa, Europe did establish quasi-colonial entities called Spheres Of Influence after 1894.
- (x) Those enjoying special privileges in this fashion included Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, and Japan. Secretary of State John Hay feared that if these nations established trade practices that excluded other nations, American trade would suffer.
- (xi) Britain agreed and Hay devised a strategy to preserve open trade. He circulated letters among all the powers called Open Door Notes, requesting that all nations agree to free trade in China.
- (xii) While Britain agreed, all the other powers declined in private responses. Hay, however, lied to the world and declared that all had accepted. The imperial powers, faced with having to admit publicly to greedy designs in China, remained silent and the Open Door went into effect.
- (xiii) In 1900, foreign occupation of China resulted in disaster. A group of Chinese nationalists called the Fists of Righteous Harmony attacked Western property.
- (xiv) The Boxers, as they were known in the West, continued to wreak havoc until a multinational force invaded to stop the uprising.

- (xv) The Boxer Rebellion marked the first time United States armed forces invaded another continent without aiming to acquire the territory. The rebels were subdued, and China was forced to pay an indemnity of \$330 million to the United States.
- (xvi) Japan was also a concern for the new imperial America. In 1904, war broke out between Russia and Japan. The war was going poorly for the Russians.
- (xvii) Theodore Roosevelt offered to mediate the peace process as the war dragged on. The two sides met with Roosevelt in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and before long, a treaty was arranged.
- (xviii) Despite agreeing to its terms, the Japanese public felt that Japan should have been awarded more concessions. Anti-American rioting swept the island.
- (xix) Meanwhile, Roosevelt was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts. This marked the first time an American President received such an offer.
- (xx) Relations with Japan remained icy. In California, Japanese Immigrants to America were faced with harsh discrimination, including segregated schooling.
- (xxi) In the informal Gentleman's Agreement Of 1907, the United States agreed to end the practice of separate schooling in exchange for a promise to end Japanese immigration.
- (xxii) That same year, Roosevelt decided to display his "big stick," the new American navy. He sent the flotilla, known around the world as the Great White Fleet, on a worldwide tour.
- (xxiii) Although it was meant to intimidate potential aggressors, particularly Japan, the results of the journey were uncertain.
- (xxiv) Finally, in 1908, Japan and the United States agreed to respect each other's holdings on the Pacific Rim in the Root-Takahira Agreement.
- (xxv) Sending troops overseas, mediating international conflicts, and risking trouble to maintain free trade, the United States began to rapidly shed its isolationist past.

- e) Roosevelt Corollary
  - (i) See Previous Section

#### 4. US Enters WWI

- a) Dollar Diplomacy
  - (i) See Previous Section
- b) US attitudes to war in Europe 1914 – 1919
  - (i) When the US entered World War I, approximately one-third of the nation (32 million people) were either foreign-born or the children of immigrants, and more than 10 million Americans were derived from the nations of the Central Powers. Furthermore, millions of Irish Americans sided with the Central Powers because they hated the English.
  - (ii) Because of this perceived conflict of loyalties, the Wilson administration was convinced that it had to mobilize public opinion in support of the war. To influence public opinion, the federal government embarked on its first ever domestic propaganda campaign.
  - (iii) Wilson chose muckraking journalist George Creel to head the government agency, the Committee on Public Information (CPI). The CPI placed pro-war advertisements in magazines and distributed 75 million copies of pamphlets defending America's role in the war.
  - (iv) Creel also launched a massive advertising campaign for war bonds and sent some 75,000 "Four-Minute Men" to whip up enthusiasm for the war by rallying audiences in theaters.
  - (v) The CPI also encouraged filmmakers to produce movies, like *The Kaiser: The Beast of Berlin*, that played up alleged German atrocities. For the first time, the federal government had demonstrated the power of propaganda.
  - (vi) German American and Irish American communities had come out strongly in favor of neutrality. The groups condemned massive loans and arms sales to the allies as they saw the acts as violations of neutrality.



- (vii) Once the United States entered the war, a search for spies and saboteurs escalated into efforts to suppress German culture. Many German-language newspapers were closed down. Public schools stopped teaching German. Lutheran churches dropped services that were spoken in German.
- (viii) Germans were called "Huns." In the name of patriotism, musicians no longer played Bach and Beethoven, and schools stopped teaching the German language.
- (ix) Americans renamed sauerkraut "liberty cabbage"; dachshunds "liberty hounds"; and German measles "liberty measles." Cincinnati, with its large German American population, even removed pretzels from the free lunch counters in saloons.
- (x) More alarming, vigilante groups attacked anyone suspected of being unpatriotic. Workers who refused to buy war bonds often suffered harsh retribution, and attacks on labor protesters were nothing short of brutal.
- (xi) The legal system backed the suppression. Juries routinely released defendants accused of violence against individuals or groups critical of the war.
- (xii) A St. Louis newspaper campaigned to "wipe out everything German in this city," even though St. Louis had a large German American population. Luxembourg, Missouri became Lemay; Berlin Avenue was renamed Pershing; Bismarck Street became Fourth Street; Kaiser Street was changed to Gresham.
- (xiii) Perhaps the most horrendous anti-German act was the lynching in April 1918 of 29-year-old Robert Paul Prager, a German-born bakery employee, who was accused of making "disloyal utterances." Before the lynching, he was allowed to write a last note to his parents in Dresden, Germany:
- (xiv) Dear Parents: I must on this, the 4th day of April, 1918, die. Please pray for me, my dear parents.
- (xv) In the trial that followed, the defendants wore red, white, and blue ribbons, while a band in the court house played patriotic songs. It took the jury 25 minutes to return a not-guilty verdict. The German government lodged a protest and offered to pay Prager's funeral expenses.

c) Isolationism

- (i) Isolationism refers to America's longstanding reluctance to become involved in European alliances and wars. Isolationists held the view that America's perspective on the world was different from that of European societies and that America could advance the cause of freedom and democracy by means other than war.
- (ii) American isolationism did not mean disengagement from the world stage. Isolationists were not averse to the idea that the United States should be a world player and even further its territorial, ideological and economic interests, particularly in the Western Hemisphere.
- (iii) Nevertheless, pressures were mounting abroad that would undercut and demolish that policy near the mid-20th century.
- (iv) The advent of German and Japanese expansionism would threaten and later nearly snuff out the contented aloofness enjoyed by the United States.
- (v) The United States' occupation of the Philippines during the Spanish-American War thrust U.S. interests into the far western Pacific Ocean — Imperial Japan's sphere of interest.
- (vi) Such improved transportation and communication as steamships, undersea cable, and radio linked the two continents. The growth of shipping and foreign trade slowly enhanced America's world role.
- (vii) There also were basic changes at home. The historic ascendancy of urban-based business, industry, and finance, and the sidelining of rural and small-town America — the bastion of isolationism — contributed to its eventual demise.

d) Contribution of the US to Allied effort in WWI

- (i) President Wilson was reluctant to enter World War I. When the War began, Wilson declared U.S. neutrality and demanded that the belligerents respect American rights as a neutral party.

- (ii) He hesitated to embroil the United States in the conflict, with good reason. Americans were deeply divided about the European war, and involvement in the conflict would certainly disrupt Progressive reforms.
- (iii) In 1914, he had warned that entry into the conflict would bring an end to Progressive reform. "Every reform we have won will be lost if we go into this war," he said. A popular song in 1915 was "I Didn't Raise My Boy to Be a Soldier."
- (iv) In 1916, President Wilson narrowly won re-election after campaigning on the slogan, "He kept us out of war." He won the election with a 4,000-vote margin in California.
- (v) Shortly after war erupted in Europe, President Wilson called on Americans to be "neutral in thought as well as deed." The United States, however, quickly began to lean toward Britain and France.
- (vi) Convinced that wartime trade was necessary to fuel the growth of American trade, President Wilson refused to impose an embargo on trade with the belligerents. During the early years of the war, trade with the Allies tripled.
- (vii) This volume of trade quickly exhausted the Allies' cash reserves, forcing them to ask the United States for credit. In October 1915, President Wilson permitted loans to belligerents, a decision that greatly favored Britain and France. By 1917, American loans to the Allies had soared to \$2.25 billion; loans to Germany stood at a paltry \$27 million.
- (viii) In January 1917, Germany announced that it would resume unrestricted submarine warfare. This announcement helped precipitate American entry into the conflict.
- (ix) Germany hoped to win the war within five months, and they were willing to risk antagonizing Wilson on the assumption that even if the United States declared war, it could not mobilize quickly enough to change the course of the conflict.

- (x) Then a fresh insult led Wilson to demand a declaration of war. In March 1917, newspapers published the Zimmerman Note, an intercepted telegram from the German Foreign Secretary Arthur Zimmerman to the German ambassador to Mexico.
- (xi) The telegram proposed that Mexico ally with Germany in the event that the United States entered the war against Germany. In return, Germany promised to help Mexico recover the territory it had lost to the U.S. during the 1840s, including Texas, New Mexico, California, and Arizona.
- (xii) The Zimmerman Note and German attacks on three U.S. ships in mid-March led Wilson to ask Congress for a declaration of war.
- (xiii) Wilson decided to enter the war so that he could help design the peace settlement. Wilson viewed the war as an opportunity to destroy German militarism.
- (xiv) "The world must be made safe for democracy," he told a joint session of Congress. Only 6 Senators and 50 Representatives voted against the war declaration.
- (xv) In 1917, a High German official scoffed at American might: "America from a military point-of-view means nothing, and again nothing, and for a third time nothing." The U.S. Army at the time had only 107,641 men.
- (xvi) Within a year, however, the United States raised a five million-man army. By the war's end, the American armed forces were a decisive factor in blunting a German offensive and ending the bloody stalemate.
- (xvii) Initially, President Wilson hoped to limit America's contribution to supplies, financial credits, and moral support. But by early 1917, the allied forces were on the brink of collapse.
- (xviii) Ten divisions of the French army had begun to mutiny. In March 1917, the Bolsheviks, who had seized power in Russia in November, accepted Germany's peace terms and withdrew from the war. Then, German and Austrian forces routed the Italian armies.

- (xix) The United States was forced to quickly assume an active role in the conflict. As a preliminary step, American ships relieved the British of responsibility for patrolling the Western Hemisphere, while another portion of the U.S. fleet steamed to the north Atlantic to combat German submarines.
- (xx) To raise troops, President Wilson insisted on a military draft. More than 23 million men registered during World War I, and 2,810,296 draftees served in the armed forces. To select officers, the army launched an ambitious program of psychological testing.
- (xxi) In March 1918, the Germans launched a massive offensive on the western front in France's Somme River valley. With German troops barely 50 miles from Paris, Marshal Ferdinand Foch, the leader of the French army, assumed command of the allied forces.
- (xxii) Foch's troops, aided by 85,000 American soldiers, launched a furious counteroffensive. By the end of October, the counterattack pushed the German army back to the Belgian border.
- (xxiii) American entry into the war quickly overcame the German military's numerical advantage. In June 1918, some 279,000 American soldiers crossed the Atlantic; in July over 300,000; in August, 286,000 more.
- (xxiv) All told, 1.5 million American troops arrived in Europe during the last six months of the war. By the end of the conflict, the allies could field 600,000 more men than the Germans.
- (xxv) The influx of American forces led the Austro-Hungarian Empire to ask for peace, Turkey and Bulgaria to stop fighting, and Germany to request an armistice.
- (xxvi) President Wilson announced that he would negotiate only with a democratic regime in Germany.
- (xxvii) When the military leaders and the Kaiser wavered, a brief revolution forced the Kaiser to abdicate, and a civilian regime assumed control of the government. At 11:00 a.m., November 11, 1918, the guns stopped.