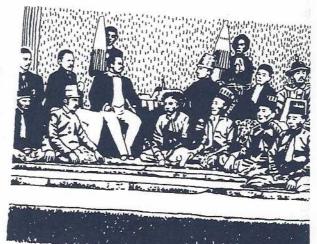
Yhap. 20 Review Sheet 8th History-Mr Mc Menimon Test Date- Test Format-Define the following terms -1 T. Roosevelt 21 Imperialism 2 M. Perry 22 Treaty of Kangawa 3 W. Seward 4 "White Man's Burden 5 "Open Door Policy 6 W. Mc Kinley 23 Annex 24 Tresty of Paris, 1898 25 Queen Liliuokalani 26 Emilio Aquinaldo 27 "Seward's Folly "/"Seward's Icebox 28 Frederick Jackson Turner 7 "Rough Riders 8 U.S. S. Maine 9 G. Devey 29 José Martí 30 William Gorgas 10 Parama Cara 11 Isthmus Gen. John Pershing Protectorate 12 G. Goethals 13 Boxer Rebellion Reconcentration 14 Roosevelt Grollary
15 Dollar Diplomacy
16 Big Stick Diplomacy
17 Gunfont Diplomacy
18 Pancho Villa 34 William Rundolph Hears 35 W. Wyson Spanish, American War 19 Isolationsa 39 Rudyard Kipling 40 Russo-Japanese War 20 Jingolsm

IMPERIALISM AND THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

In the early 1870s Europe began its great Imperial Age. Large sections of Asia and Africa were either conquered or claimed as colonies by the industrialized nations. The colonies were either ruled directly by their conquerors or indirectly through native rulers who were controlled by the Europeans. England, France, Belgium, Germany, and the Netherlands became the rulers of vast areas of the globe, while other European nations held smaller colonies.

The Industrial Revolution contributed directly to the European nations' abilities to rule over their colonies. Europe's industrial strength



European countries controlled colonies in Asia ar Africa that supplied raw materials and new marke for European goods.

gave its armies weapons that were vastly superior to anything that the Asian and African societie could produce. For example, an army of only 75,000 British troops was able to control the million of people of India. The advent of the steamship also gave Europeans the ability to easily cross oceans and made ruling distant colonies more practical.

The countries of Europe had many reasons for conquering distant colonial people. Some justified holding colonies as a means to spread Christianity. Control of colonial areas allowed missionaries to preach unrestricted by local laws. Others believed colonies were a source of national pride for the ruling nation. Competition between the various nations for control of Africa and Asia was certainly fierce, and relations between European nations often became strained as a result. Some believed that they had a duty to "civilize" the conquered peoples, ignoring the fact that native peoples already had civilizations that had existed for centuries. In their arrogance, Europeans believed that their own civilization was the best and that all people should imitate it. Economy also played a major role in the building of colonies. Europeans had become dependent of the European diet. Rubber, petroleum, cotton, copper, and a variety of other raw materials were needed for European industries. A steady supply of these raw materials was vital to the European industries could prosper.

The colonies also provided a source for European investments and products. The colonial territories had not yet begun to industrialize, and thus needed railroads, mines, warehouses, docks, factories, and refineries. European investors provided these structures, often at a suppliers. European products were readily purchased by the native populations, but often bankrupted local producers who could not compete using preindustrial methods.

Essentially, the colonies were exploited by Europeans. In some cases the native populations were treated quite cruelly by their conquerors. In almost all cases, the colonized people resented their European rulers. After World War I, pressure mounted on the nations to free their colonies. Sporadic revolts broke out, and one by one the colonies freed themselves from European rule. By the 1960s most of the colonies had become free and independent nations.



The United States Expands Its Territories

IT'S IMPORTANT:

- To understand how and why the United States grew during the 19th century
- To recognize that
 American territorial
 and economic growth
 had widespread
 economic, political,
 and social impacts
 both at home and
 abroad
- To understand the relative importance of United States domestic and foreign policies over time
- To analyze the role played by the United States in international politics, past and present
- To compare and contrast different interpretations of key events and issues in New York State and United States history and offer reasons for these different accounts

Until the late 1800s, the United States tried to stay out of foreign affairs. The majority of Americans chose to focus their attention on domestic concerns such as economic growth and settlement of the West. Toward the end of the 19th century, however, several factors contributed to America's emerging interest in foreign lands.

Growth of Imperialist Sentiment

Americans were already migrating to new lands in North America with the 1867 purchase of Alaskan territory from Russia. It was a natural progression to begin dreaming of an overseas empire—the force behind **imperialism** (political or economic control of other nations). Part of this was due to an interest in developing new markets. By the 1880s, the United States was manufacturing more goods and growing more food than could be sold at home. Gradually, the United States began to break through world markets previously controlled by European nations.

The idea of **manifest destiny** also helped set the stage for the new American interest in overseas markets and territories. Manifest destiny was a sense of mission Americans had about their country and its future. It came to stand for both the faith Americans had in their system of democracy and their desire for expansion. Unfortunately, the perceived moral obligation to extend America's way of life to others often resulted in racist and ethnocentric attitudes.

Technology played an important role in America's potential for expansion. Steamships and telegraphs were a link to the world beyond broad oceans. The United States did not want other foreign nations taking control of strategic locations that could be used for naval bases or steamship coaling stations.

Quick Review 1: Explain how the Industrial Revolution
and the desire for new markets led to the growth of U.S.
involvement in foreign affairs.





VNIT **7**

William McKinley and the Spanish-American War

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

rilliam McKinley was the seventh child of William and Nancy McKinley, born in Ohio in 1843. He spent his childhood in Poland, Ohio. After a brief stay in Allegheny College, he enlisted in the Union army at the outbreak of the Civil War, seeing action with the Twenty-third Ohio Volunteer Regiment in the Shenandoah Valley and at Antietam. McKinley left the army with the brevet (temporary) rank of major. Returning home, he studied for the bar and opened his own legal practice in 1867, becoming Stark county prosecutor in 1869. McKinley married in 1871, though the couple's two children died and the strain left his wife, Ida, an invalid.

McKinley ran for Congress in 1876 as a Republican and served in the House for fourteen years. His political career advanced rapidly in the House, though he lost the race for the speakership in 1889 to Thomas Reed. After a brief stint as Chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee, McKinley lost his House seat in the Democratic landslide of 1890. McKinley then won the governorship of Ohio in 1891, serving two terms and firmly establishing himself on the national political scene.

McKinley positioned himself as the front-runner for the Republican nomination for president in the 1896 election, winning the party nomination on the first ballot. McKinley soundly defeated the Democratic nominee, William Jennings Bryan, and took office in 1897. Although the campaign had focused on domestic issues, foreign policy would dominate his presidency. Spain had been engaged in suppressing a revolt in Cuba, and the American

press was making it into a political issue by calling for American intervention. McKinley at first brought diplomatic pressure to bear on the Spanish, but they refused to grant Cuban independence. Then, the American battleship Maine sank in Havana harbor. It was probably the result of an accident on board the ship, though at the time the press encouraged the popular beleif that the sinking resulted from Spanish sabotage. This sinking, on top of Spanish refusal to negotiate, led to a congressional declaration of war.

Although the struggle grew out of the Cuban revolt, American forces also took Puerto Rico and the Philippines during the brief war. Cuba gained nominal independence in 1902, but the issue of the Philippines proved much more difficult. McKinley directed Admiral Dewey to seize the islands at the outbreak of the war because of their strategic importance in the Pacific. McKinley (who hinted that he had received divine guidance on the matter) convinced Congress to accept the American annexation of the islands despite strong opposition from anti-imperialists. Filipinos fought back through an independence movement led by Emilio Aguinaldo. American troops crushed the movement, using many of the same tactics that the Spanish had used during the Cuban revolt to much public outcry. McKinley, this time with "Rough Rider" hero Theodore Roosevelt as his running mate, again defeated Bryan in the 1900 election and began to call for a more global role for America. In 1901 an anarchist assassinated McKinley, and Roosevelt became president.

Critical Thinking Using Primary Sources in U.S. History



The Spanish-American War

The Spanish-American War signaled the emergence of the United States as a world power. Cuba, an island only 90 miles off the coast of Florida, fought for its independence from Spain in 1895. The revolt resulted in much bloodshed and serious damage to the Cuban economy, which included a great deal of American investment. In order to protect American interests, many politicians looked to the **Monroe Doctrine**, which stated that the United States would not tolerate European intervention in the Americas. The United States, therefore, insisted that the Spanish grant Cuba its independence and get out, but Spain refused.

In early 1898, the U.S. Navy sent the warship *Maine* to Cuba to protect American property and citizens. In February, the *Maine* exploded and sank in Havana harbor. Two hundred and sixty sailors were killed. Most Americans blamed the Spanish, although many historians today believe the explosion was an accident.

Newspapers helped shape public opinion over the *Maine* incident. Throughout the Cuban rebellion, two New York City newspapers—Joseph Pulitzer's *World* and William Randolph Hearst's *Journal*—played up the extremely cruel Spanish acts against Cubans. Pulitzer and Hearst knew that war stories sold newspapers and tried to outdo each other with tabloid headlines and sensationalized articles screaming for war. This type of writing, which tried to stir up the emotions of readers, became known as **yellow journalism**. A few months after the *Maine* incident, the yellow press finally got what it had been clamoring for: In April 1898, the United States declared war on Spain.

The Spanish-American War lasted throughout the summer of 1898. The most important battle was fought on the other side of the world, where the U.S. Navy captured the Philippine Islands, Spain's major colony in Asia. After Spain surrendered, it granted Cuba its independence. The United States bought the Philippines from Spain and took over the island of Puerto Rico. The Spanish-American War marked the United States' entrance onto the international stage.

<i>N</i> ar. How did the Monroe Doctrine play a role in the c	conflict?			
	War. How did the Monroe Doctrine play a role in the conflict?			

Why was the battleship Maine sent to Cuba?

- A. to launch an attack on Cuba
- B. to protect American lives and property in Cuba
- C. to help Cuba gain its independence from Spain
- D. to transport American sugar and tobacco to Cuba





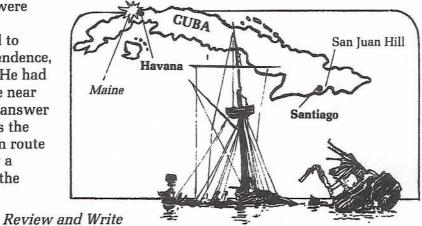
Spanish-American War: Beginnings

In the mid-1890s, there were serious social, economic, and political problems on the neighboring island of Cuba. Cuban rebels were attempting to free Cuba from Spanish control which dated back to the late 1400s. As Cuba lies only ninety miles from the tip of Florida, the United States has always taken a strong interest in the events happening there. At that time, many Americans sympathized with the efforts of the Cubans. Also, many had invested heavily in the Cuban sugar industry.

In 1896, the Spanish government attempted to put an end to the rebel cause. General Valeriano Weyler was sent to crush the rebellion. Weyler destroyed sugar plantations and built prison camps for Cubans in rebel-held areas. News of mistreatment of the Cubans came to America. Stories were told of 100,000 captured Cubans starving to death in the Spanish camps. The atrocities were given much coverage in the American press, and in some cases reports were grossly exaggerated.

Although many Americans were prepared to support the Cubans in their move for independence, President McKinley took a cautious stance. He had hoped the situation would be resolved in the near future, but a series of events made a simple answer impossible. One highly publicized event was the publishing of a letter that was intercepted en route to a post office in Havana, Cuba. Written by a Spanish diplomat stationed in Washington, the

letter insulted McKinley and referred to him as a "weakling" and a "crowd pleaser." The derogatory tone of the letter angered many Americans. More serious in nature, a second event involved the deaths of American sailors. On the night of February 15, 1898, an explosion ripped through the hull of the Maine, an American vessel docked in the Havana Harbor. The ship had been sent to protect Americans on the island. No one was ever to know for sure who or what had caused the explosion in which more than 250 Americans lost their lives. The tragedy stirred the American spirit, and many blamed the Spaniards. Public pressure finally forced McKinley to take action. On April 11, the President went before Congress to request a declaration of war against Spain. Two weeks later, on April 25, the United States declared war against the old colonial power. With the rallying cry, "Remember the Maine," many Americans eagerly joined the fight.



Spanish-American War: Battles and Outcome

Even before the official declaration of war against Spain, the American fleet in the Pacific was steaming off to the Philippines, which had been a part of the Spanish empire for over 300 years. In the event that war was declared against Spain, they were to capture the enemy squadron in Manila, the Philippine capital. On May 1, 1898, just days after the official declaration of war, Commodore George Dewey and six ships arrived in Manila Bay to begin bombardment of the fleet. In a matter of hours, the United States navy had destroyed the Spanish fleet and blockaded the harbor. American troops entered the Philippine islands the day after an **armistice**, or agreement to stop fighting, was signed.

Meanwhile, in Cuba, the Spanish fleet in the Atlantic was docked in Santiago Harbor. By the end of May, United States warships had arrived to blockade the Cuban harbor. The next month, on June 22, U.S. troops landed in Cuba just east of Santiago. The Americans found the going rough in the hills of Cuba, for the Spanish had strongly fortified positions. Casualties were high. Among the troops which drew heavy fire was a volunteer unit called the "Rough Riders." It was led by Theodore Roosevelt, who had resigned his office as Assistant Secretary of the Navy to join the cause. The Rough Riders were actually a cavalry unit, but this time they fought only on foot, for their horses never made it to the island.

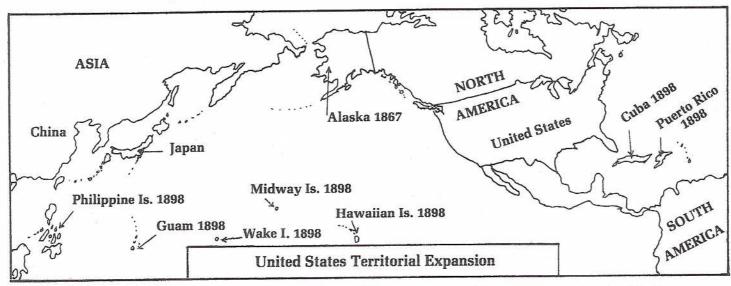
Two days after Roosevelt's men succeeded in taking Kettle Hill on the ridge overlooking Santiago, the most decisive battle of the war took place. (See map p. 25.) In the battle of San Juan Hill, the Americans emerged victorious, and Roosevelt became an instant hero.

On July 3, 1898, the Spanish attempted to move their fleet out of Santiago Harbor. The Americans opened fire, destroying all the escaping ships. On July 17, the Spanish in Santiago surrendered. With no options remaining, the Spanish government in Cuba also surrendered. Shortly after this victory, the U.S. occupied Puerto Rico, an island southeast of Cuba. Along with Cuba, the Philippines, and the island of Guam, Puerto Rico came under the protection of the United States. The war with Spain was over. With the ratification of the Treaty of Paris early in 1899, America became an imperialist country with an empire stretching from the Caribbean to the distant Pacific.

In the election of 1900, William Jennings Bryan again represented the Democrats. McKinley proved a tough opponent, running on a platform of expanded territories and continued prosperity under a Republican Administration. Aiding the ticket was the nomination for Vice-President of Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, hero of San Juan Hill. Winning easily, the Republicans remained in the White House.

Use the Map

- What lands did the U.S. gain following the
 Spanish-American War?
- 2. What part of North America was under U.S. control before the Spanish-American War?
- 3. The first American victory in the war occurred in the Philippines. Why?





Spanish-American War: (proceed from where we left off) In the Philippines, Commodore George Dewey defeated the Spanish navy easily in the Battle of Manila Bay. In one day, the U.S. Navy had overwhelmed the much weaker Spanish navy. Dewey would become an instant hero in the U. S.

In Cuba, the U.S. Army fought inland from Santiago. Teddy Roosevelt would become a national hero by leading, the Rough Riders to a marvelous victory at San Juan Hill. The Spanish fled and eventually their navy was destroyed. On 7/16/1898, Cuba surrendered to the U.S. Two days later, Spain surrendered.

After the war, the U.S. felt obliged to step in and take over the former Spanish colonies. This would be an extension of "The White Man's Burden". The U.S. stated that other nations would have stepped in to seize control of the colonies. Therefore we had the right to do it first. President McKinley stated that "there was nothing left for us to do but to take them all, and to educate the Filipinos, and uplift and civilize and Christianize them..." He failed to realize that the Filipino people had practiced the Roman Catholic faith for almost 400 years (long before the U.S. was ever created).

The peace negotiations were held in Paris, France. On 12/10/1898, the Spanish-American War was officially over. Cuba was granted full independence. The U.S. received the Philippines (for \$20 million), Puerto Rico, Guam, and Wake Island. In separate treaties, the U.S. annexed Hawaii and American Samoa.

In the Philippines, the U.S. agreed to religious freedom, but made no promise of American citizenship and rights. The Filipinos thought that they would be independent (like Cuba). They fought against the U.S. for 2 years and were eventually crushed into submission. The U.S set up a civilian govt. with William H. Taft as its governor. American culture and school systems were introduced, but the Filipinos wanted freedom, not Americanization. In 1934, as part of the Tydings-McDuffie Act, the U.S. stated that the Philippines would gain their independence when its new self-governed govt. had been operating for 10 years. Final independence was achieved in 1946.

In Puerto Rico, the people also wanted independence. In 1952, the U.S. granted the island the status of a self-governing commonwealth. The Puerto Ricans enjoy a voluntary association with the U.S. They vote in our elections, have no restrictions on immigration, and do not have to pay U.S. taxes.

In the Teller Amendment, Cuba was granted independence, but the U.S. was reluctant to pull out. We established an island wide sanitation system, a republican govt., and a system of public education. (Please note that



they were done in order of importance !)

In 1902, the Platt Amendment granted the U.S. the right to send troops into Cuba to protect the lives and property of the Cuban people whenever they were threatened by their own govt. We also got a long term naval base at Guantanamo Bay. We intervened repeatedly. In 1934, the Platt Amendment was abolished, but we still hold Guantanamo Bay.

The Open Door Policy:

The European powers were slicing China into spheres of influence and created trade monopolies within them. The U.S. wanted a share of the pie, but were too late. Sect. of State John Hay declared the Open Door policy. China was opened to all countries for trade with no special privileges. Hay would later use the Open Door policy to protect China from being sliced up by the European powers during the Boxer Rebellion.

The Russo-Japanese War:

In 1903, Teddy Roosevelt used the Open Door policy to express his anger over Russian expansion into Manchuria. He encouraged Japan to halt Russia's moves. This led to an attack on the Russian fleet and war in 1904. Financial difficulties hurt the Japanese despite several important military victories. Rather than have Japan lose the war, Roosevelt called for a peace conference in Portsmouth, New Hampshire in the summer of 1905. Peace was declared and Roosevelt won the Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts.

The Roosevelt Corollary:

Teddy Roosevelt established the U.S. as a major world power. The Roosevelt Corollary was an extension of the Monroe Doctrine. The Monroe Doctrine stated that no European power may interfere in the affairs of any nation in the Western Hemisphere. The Roosevelt Corollary declared that if anyone interfered in the affairs of a country in the Western Hemisphere, the U.S. would consider it a personal attack. The U.S. became known as "The Policeman to the World".

Roosevelt used the threat of American firepower to enforce its views. He declared that the U.S. would "speak softly and carry a big stick". His foreign policy would become known as "Big Stick Diplomacy". Roosevelt's successors would use the economic and military might of the U.S. to enforce their foreign policy. President Taft would use U.S. economic aid to promote democracy around the world. This policy was called "Dollar Diplomacy". President Wilson would use the U.S. Navy to enforce his policies. This was known as "Gunboat Diplomacy".

Panama Canal:

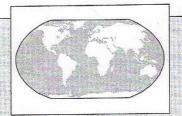
The Panama Canal is probably the most important aspect of U.S. foreign policy in the Western Hemisphere.



The Canal allows U.S. trade and war ships to pass easily from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. In times of war, the Panama Canal has helped the U.S. move its forces rapidly to the area of conflict.

In 1901, the U.S. signed a 99 year lease to control the Canal. In 1978, President Carter signed a new treaty stating that in the year 2000, the Panama Canal would be returned to the Panamanians. This treaty helped improved the image of the U.S. to its Central American neighbors. In the U.S., however, Carter was severely criticized for giving up such a vital part of U.S. military and economic policy.





Opposition to Imperialism

After the Spanish-American War, the United States had colonies in Latin America and the Pacific. Whereas some Americans were excited by their new empire, others thought that imperialism was wrong. The United States had been founded on the principles of democracy and self-rule, but having an empire often meant ruling without the consent of the governed. Expansionists backed imperialism by arguing that the people who had come under U.S. rule were "not fit" to govern themselves. Opponents insisted that imperialism went against the American ideals of liberty and independence. Many pointed to the situation in the Philippines. The people of the Philippines had believed their islands would become an independent country after the Spanish left, but American leaders saw the islands as an important base for American trade in Asia. Between 1899 and 1902, Filipino rebels fought unsuccessfully against American troops for independence. The United States, critics said, had become a colonial power like Great Britain.

A New Foreign Policy

By the turn of the century, American territories included the Hawaiian Islands, the Philippines, American Samoa, Guam, and Puerto Rico. The United States, however, had very little experience in dealing with international affairs.

In order to insure American success in the struggle for world markets, President **Theodore Roosevelt** created a new foreign policy that favored using military power to protect national interests. Roosevelt believed in the Monroe Doctrine. Not only was it aimed at keeping European countries from interfering in North and South America, but he felt it also gave the United States special rights as "policeman" in the region. American forces went to Cuba, Haiti, Nicaragua, Honduras, and the Dominican Republic to either support or remove governments, depending on what the United States felt would best serve its interests. Roosevelt's view of America's role is often called **big-stick diplomacy**, from one of his favorite sayings: "Speak softly and carry a big stick."

To protect U.S. merchant ships, Roosevelt added modern steam-powered warships to the navy's growing fleet. He also supported the **Open Door Policy**, begun under President McKinley to encourage free trade in China. In the 19th century, the major world powers had divided China into spheres of influence. The Open Door Policy asked those powers to keep China open to all nations seeking investment opportunities there. Roosevelt also helped negotiate a peace settlement to end the Russo-Japanese War and establish a balance of power in the Far East.

In 1907, Roosevelt decided to give the world a demonstration of American military might. Following protests from Japan over the segregation of Asian students in San Francisco, nationalists in both the United States and Japan called for war. Roosevelt sent the entire U.S. battle fleet on a trip around the world. The Japanese were impressed by the American fleet (only Britain had a larger navy), and by the time the battleships returned to America, the two countries had signed a pledge settling most of their differences.

Quick Review 3: Roosevelt's foreign policy can best be described as an effort to

- A. stay out of foreign affairs.
- B. use the military to protect the country's interests.
- C. close China off to investors outside of the United States.
- D. ignore European intervention in North and South America.



Foreign Affairs: Roosevelt's "Big Stick"

Upon taking over the presidency from McKinley in 1901, Roosevelt immediately worked to create an office strong in both domestic and foreign policy. Because of his fondness for an African proverb, "Speak softly, and carry a big stick; you will go far," Roosevelt's foreign policies were dubbed the "Big Stick." His decisions in international affairs had important results as the following three examples will show.

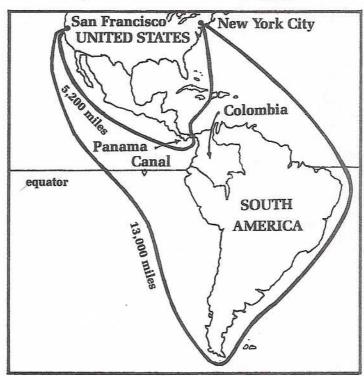
The Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine
The Dominican Republic felt the big stick first. The
small Caribbean country was deeply in debt in 1904,
owing over \$22 million to various European powers.
The Europeans threatened to collect the debt by force.
Roosevelt saw this threat as a challenge to the Monroe
Doctrine and stepped in. He assured the nations that
the U.S. would collect custom duties to repay the
debts. The navy then arrived to protect the U.S.
collectors. In this case, Roosevelt placed America in
a position of "police officer" in the Western
Hemisphere.

The Panama Canal As early as the 1880s, France had attempted to build a canal across the isthmus of Panama. In 1902, the French company was ready to sell its canal rights for \$40 million. However, the province of Panama was controlled by Colombia. Despite Roosevelt's offer of \$10 million more plus annual rental fees, the Colombian government refused the deal.

In 1903, with U.S. support, the Panamanians revolted and overthrew the Colombian government. The new Panamanian government then made a treaty with the U.S. to build a canal. Construction began in 1904 and took ten years to complete. Roosevelt's "big ditch" had become a reality.

Roosevelt as Mediator In 1904, war broke out between Japan and Russia over control of northern China and Manchuria. Roosevelt hoped that no nation would become too powerful, as this might then interfere with China's "Open Door Policy." This policy allowed free trade to outside nations including the United States.

The following year, Roosevelt agreed to assist in peace talks between the two powers by serving as **mediator**, or one who acts as a go-between for conflicting parties. Both sides agreed to meet at Portsmouth, New Hampshire. Roosevelt kept the talks going and saw them to a successful end. This led to his winning the Nobel Peace Prize in 1906.



Review and Write

oach is consistent with his efforts in dealing with 1) the Dominican Republic,



Wilson's Foreign Policy: The Mexican Example

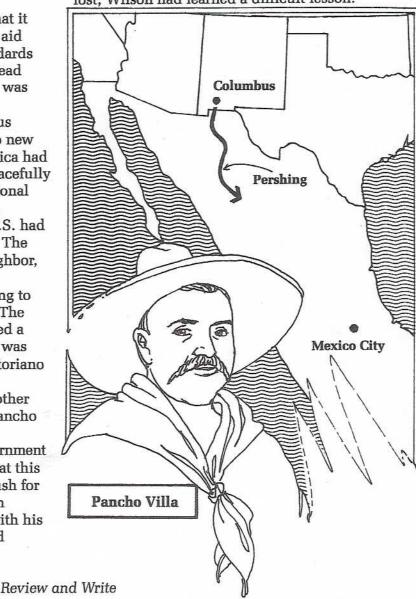
Prior to his election in 1912, Wilson had not been active in the field of foreign affairs. His campaign med centered on the domestic issues of the Progressivism of the period. Although he had strong opinions about foreign affairs and about "morality" in the way nations dealt with other nations, Wilson had had little experience in this field.

One of the new President's opinions was that it was the responsibility of the United States to aid other nations and work to improve their standards of living. He felt it was America's duty to spread democratic ideals abroad. That, said Wilson, was where America could be the strongest. He disapproved of the imperialism of the previous decades and thought that America needed no new territory. Wilson wanted to believe that America had no enemies and that all nations could live peacefully with one another. But as tensions in international relations grew during his presidency, Wilson discovered he would have to face facts: the U.S. had enemies both in our hemisphere and abroad. The closest example was that of our southern neighbor, Mexico.

By 1910, the nation of Mexico was beginning to feel the rumblings of yet another revolution. The new leader, Francisco Madero, had established a democratic government. But the government was not a powerful one and, in 1913, General Victoriano Huerta's agents killed Madero, and Huerta proclaimed himself the new President. Two other Mexican leaders, Venustiano Carranza and Pancho Villa, then took up arms against Huerta.

Wilson refused to recognize the Huerta government and threw his support to Carranza, feeling that this Mexican leader was the one most likely to push for free elections. But in aiding Carranza, Wilson angered Villa, who in March 1916, crossed with his army into Columbus, New Mexico, and killed seventeen Americans.

The President responded by sending U.S. troops deep into Mexico to try to capture Villa. After months of searching, the U.S. cavalry, under the command of General John "Black Jack" Pershing, returned to the States empty-handed. During the period from 1914-1917, hundreds of lives had been lost; Wilson had learned a difficult lesson.



1.	Describe Wilson's approach to foreign affairs.	
2.	How did Wilson's philosophy determine his response to the Mexican revolution of 1910?	
3.	Do you think Wilson's involvement in Mexican affairs showed a foreign policy that was similar to or different from that of Roosevelt and Taft? Explain.	