CHAPTER 23

U.S. Involvement Overseas

ONE AMERICAN’S STORY
In 1852, President Millard Fillmore sent Commodore Matthew Perry on a mission to open Japan to U.S. trade. For over two centuries, Japan’s rulers had kept the country closed to most foreigners. Perry wanted to break Japan’s traditional policy.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
[I was determined] to adopt an entirely contrary plan of proceedings from that of all others who had . . . visited Japan on the same errand [to open up trade]: to demand as a right and not to [ask] as a favor those acts of courtesy which are due from one civilized nation to another.

Commodore Matthew Perry, Personal Journal

Under the threat of force, Japan signed a treaty in 1854 giving American ships access to its ports. In this section, you will read more about U.S. involvement in Asia, as well as in Latin America.

A Power in the Pacific
Throughout the 1800s, the United States continued to expand its involvement in Asia. Toward the end of the century, the United States acquired a chain of islands—including Hawaii and Guam—that stretched across the Pacific Ocean to Asia.

During the Spanish-American War, Americans fought in the Philippine Islands, a Spanish colony in eastern Asia. After the war, the United States annexed the islands and put down the Filipino independence movement.

Some Americans objected to the annexation of the Philippines. However, supporters of imperialism, such as Indiana senator Albert Beveridge, applauded U.S. actions. Beveridge boasted, “The Philippines...
are ours forever. And just beyond the Philippines are China’s [unlim-
ited] markets. We will not retreat from either. . . . The power that rules
the Pacific is the power that rules the world.”

Many Americans looked forward to the profits promised by Asian markets and resources. Others saw a chance to extend U.S. democracy and culture in the region. The Philippines would provide a base for these activities.

The United States in China

As Senator Beveridge noted, control of the Philippines gave Americans greater access to China. However, by the time the United States acquired the islands, other imperialist nations, including Japan, were already deeply involved in China.

When Commodore Perry opened Japan to U.S. trade in the 1850s, he also opened the nation to Western ideas. After Perry’s voyages, Japan began to modernize and soon emerged as a world power. In the 1890s, Japan demonstrated its strength in a successful war against China.

After the war, both Japan and the major European powers expanded their spheres of influence in China. These were areas where foreign nations claimed special rights and economic privileges. By the late 1890s, France, Germany, Britain, Japan, and Russia had established prosperous settlements along the coast of China. They also claimed exclusive rights to railroad construction and mining development in the nation’s interior.

The competition for spheres of influence worried U.S. leaders who wanted access to China’s markets and resources. In 1899, Secretary of State John Hay asked nations involved in the region to follow an Open Door Policy. This meant that no single country should have a monopoly on trade with China. Eventually, most of the nations accepted Hay’s proposal.

Many Chinese people were not pleased by the presence of foreigners. One group, called the “Boxers,” was angered by the privileges given to foreigners and the disrespect they showed toward Chinese traditions. In 1900, Chinese resentment toward foreigners’ attitude of cultural superiority led to a violent uprising known as the Boxer Rebellion. Many foreigners were killed before the uprising was put down by an international force.

“The power that
rules the Pacific . . .
rules the world.”

Albert Beveridge
The Panama Canal

As American interests in the Pacific expanded, easy access to the region became vital. For that reason, U.S. leaders proposed a canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. A canal would mean that U.S. ships would not have to travel around South America. The Spanish-American War, fought in both oceans, also made clear the need for such a shortcut.

The South American nation of Colombia controlled the best spot for the canal—the Isthmus of Panama. But Colombia was unwilling to give up this land. Ignoring Colombia’s right to control its territory, President Roosevelt sent the U.S. Navy to support a revolution on the isthmus. Out of this revolution, the new nation of Panama was created in 1903.

The new Panamanian leaders granted the U.S. government rights to a ten-mile-wide strip of land called the Canal Zone. In return, the United States paid Panama $10 million and an annual fee of $250,000. There, the United States would build the Panama Canal, the shortcut that would connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

Some people in Latin America and the United States opposed Roosevelt’s actions. They believed that he had interfered in Colombia’s affairs in order to cheat it out of land. In 1921, the United States finally paid Colombia $25 million for the loss of Panama.

Building the Canal

Building the canal was extremely difficult. The land was swampy and full of mosquitoes that carried the organism that causes malaria. In spite of the difficulties, the project moved forward. When Roosevelt visited Panama in 1906, he wrote a letter describing the work.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
Steam shovels are hard at it; scooping huge masses of rock and gravel and dirt previously loosened by the drillers and dynamite blasters, loading it on trains which take it away. . . . They are eating steadily into the mountain cutting it down and down. . . . It is an epic feat.

Theodore Roosevelt, from a letter sent to his son

More than 45,000 workers, including many black West Indians, labored for years on the canal. They did not finish the work until 1914. The canal cost $352 million, the most expensive project up to that time. It was expensive in human terms, too. More than 5,000 workers died from diseases or accidents.

Vocabulary
isthmus: a narrow strip of land connecting two larger masses of land

Reading History
B. Summarizing
What political difficulty faced U.S. leaders who wanted to build the Panama Canal?

Background
In 1977, the United States signed a treaty that transferred ownership of the canal to Panama on December 31, 1999.
How the Panama Canal Works

Engineers faced a problem in building the Panama Canal. Because of the region’s different landscape elevations, no waterway would remain level. They solved this dilemma by building three sets of locks—water-filled chambers that raise or lower ships to match a canal's different water levels.

1. The lock gates open on one end to allow the ship to enter.
2. The gates close, and water is pumped in or out depending on whether the ship is moving up or down.
3. Once the water in the chamber and the canal ahead is level, the second gate opens and the ship moves on.

The locks, whose steel gates rise six stories high, can hold as much as 26 million gallons of water—enough to supply a major U.S. city for one day.

This cross-section shows the different elevations and locks that a ship moves through on the 8–9 hour trip through the canal. Before the canal was built, a trip around South America could take two months.

CONNECT TO HISTORY

1. Drawing Conclusions Why did the United States want a shorter route between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans?

CONNECT TO TODAY

2. Researching What is the economic and political status of the Panama Canal today?
U.S. Involvement in Latin America

The Panama Canal was only one sign of U.S. involvement in Latin America. As the U.S. economy continued to grow, so did Americans’ interest in the resources of their southern neighbors.

Businesses in the United States found that they could cheaply buy food and raw materials—for example, bananas, coffee, and copper—from Latin America. They shipped these goods to the United States and sold them for higher prices. U.S. companies also bought large amounts of land in the region for farming and mining.

As economic interests drew the United States deeper into Latin American affairs, U.S. leaders became concerned about political stability in the region. They were especially worried that instability might tempt European nations to intervene in the region.

Policing the Hemisphere

During his presidency, Theodore Roosevelt made it clear that the United States would remain the dominant power in the Western Hemisphere. He summed up his foreign policy toward the region with an African saying: “Speak softly, but carry a big stick.” Roosevelt, however, rarely spoke softly. He made sure that everyone knew the United States would use military force if its interests were threatened.

Roosevelt reminded European powers of the Monroe Doctrine—the policy that prevented other nations from intervening in Latin America. In 1904, he added the Roosevelt Corollary. Now, the doctrine would not only prevent European intervention in Latin America; it also authorized the United States to act as a ‘policeman’ in the region. That is, U.S. leaders would now intervene in Latin America’s domestic affairs.
when they believed that such action was necessary to maintain stability.

In 1905, the United States used the Roosevelt Corollary to take control of the Dominican Republic’s finances after the country failed to pay its foreign debts. A year later, when a revolt threatened Cuba’s government, the policy was used to send troops there.

Later presidents expanded on Roosevelt’s “big stick diplomacy.” William Howard Taft urged American businesses to invest in Latin America, promising military action if anything threatened these investments. He kept his word. In 1912, Taft sent marines to Nicaragua to restore order.

President Taft’s successor, Woodrow Wilson, also intervened in Latin America. When a revolution in Mexico began to threaten U.S. interests, Wilson took action. In 1914, he sent a fleet to Veracruz after U.S. sailors were arrested. Two years later, he sent troops into Mexico after a Mexican revolutionary named Pancho Villa (PAHN•choh VEE•yah) raided New Mexico and killed 19 Americans in the town of Columbus.

Americans rarely questioned U.S. actions in Latin America. They saw their nation as a good police officer, maintaining peace and preventing disorder. But many Latin Americans saw the United States as an imperial power that cared only about its own interests. This mistrust continues to trouble U.S. relations with its neighbors. In the next chapter, you will read about U.S. involvement in another part of the world—Europe.

Background
Taft’s policy was known as “dollar diplomacy.”

2. Using Graphics
Use a chart like the one below to record details about U.S. involvement in Asia and Latin America.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Latin America</th>
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<td>sphere of influence</td>
<td>Open Door Policy</td>
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<td>Panama Canal</td>
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<td>Panama Canal</td>
<td>Roosevelt Corollary</td>
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How was U.S. involvement in Asia different from that in Latin America?

3. Main Ideas
a. Why was the United States interested in the Philippines?
b. Why was the nation of Panama created in 1903?
c. How did the Roosevelt Corollary change U.S. foreign policy?

4. Critical Thinking
Drawing Conclusions
Why did the United States become so heavily involved in Asia and Latin America?

THINK ABOUT
• U.S. economic growth
• American military interests

ACTIVITY OPTIONS
SCIENCE
Research the Panama Canal. Build a simple model of the canal or create a graph that shows how many ships use the canal each year.

MATH