
Chapter Review

I. AMERICAN COMMUNITIES: THE AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE IN FRANCE

The American Expeditionary Force in France, 600,000 men, was the largest military force in American history. The 1917 Selective Service required 24 million men to register for the draft and another 2 million volunteered. The soldiers came from a wide range of places, social backgrounds, and levels of education. Despite their differences, these “doughboys” shared many common experiences. Many progressives saw the army as an arena for continuing social improvements and additional education, and the Committee on Public Information focused on patriotic themes and the importance of fighting for democracy. In the last months of the war the Meuse-Argonne offensive in France became a virtual stalemate where 26,000 American soldiers lost their lives. In early 1919, returning veterans formed the American Legion, a social and political group for returning soldiers. The American Legion promoted “100 Per Cent Americanism,” opposing radical political ideals like communism and socialism.

II. BECOMING A WORLD POWER

Early twentieth-century America pursued an expansionist military and economic foreign policy. In Asia and the Western Hemisphere, “progressive diplomacy” stressed the link between American commercial expansion and foreign policy, with rhetoric about morality and the God-given role of the United States as a world power. In reality this policy was merely a brand of imperialism akin to that being practiced by the European powers.

a. Roosevelt: The Big Stick

Theodore Roosevelt, like many of his contemporaries, took for granted the superiority of Protestant-Anglo-American culture and the goal of spreading its values and influence—ideas which formed his foreign policy. Roosevelt used military muscle and back door deals to secure his foreign policy objectives. Two examples of this, the independence of Panama and the Root-Takahira Agreement with Japan, exemplify Roosevelt’s foreign policy style. When the Columbian Senate rejected the Panama Canal treaty, Roosevelt supported a revolution in Panama, allowing the canal to be built and controlled by the United States. After intervening in the Russo-Japanese War to force a settlement in 1906, Roosevelt followed with the 1908 Root-Takahira Agreement, which ensured the continued Open Door trade policy with China while recognizing Japan’s new status in Asia.

b. Taft: Dollar Diplomacy
Taft sought a less militarist foreign policy through “dollar diplomacy,” hoping that political influence would follow increased American trade and investment. Although American investment in Central America grew rapidly, Taft was forced to send American troops to protect American economic interests in Honduras and Nicaragua. In China, Taft and Secretary of State Knox tried to increase American investment and involvement. Russia and Japan saw American intervention in China’s foreign-owned railroad industry as a threat to their own economic interests. After a nationalist revolt overthrew the Manchu dynasty in China, the Open Door closed, Russia and Japan signed a friendship treaty, and American-Japan relations began a slow disintegration.

**MHL document:** *William H. Taft, “Dollar Diplomacy” (1912)* at www.myhistorylab.com

c. Wilson: Moralism and Intervention in Mexico

Woodrow Wilson saw American economic expansion and the accompanying democratic principles of Christianity as a moral crusade to bring a civilizing force to the world. Wilson’s policies toward Mexico illustrate the problems he had with foreign policy of this kind. A series of revolutionary governments ruled Mexico after Porfirio Díaz was overthrown in 1911. Wilson’s moralistic meddling in Mexico succeeded only in creating tensions that almost led to war on multiple occasions. After Pancho Villa raided New Mexico in 1916, Wilson sent Pershing and 15,000 troops on a fruitless intervention which only ended when European issues demanded Wilson’s attention. Wilson’s failure in Mexico foreshadowed the problems the United States would face in entering WWI as a moral crusade.

### III. THE GREAT WAR

World War I was originally known as the Great War. The battles fought throughout the Great War were not those of a quick victory that both sides had predicted. Instead the Great War took an enormous toll on human life and dragged on for more than four years.

a. The Guns of August

A complex alliance system had kept Europe at peace since 1871. The Triple Alliance (Central Powers) of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy competed with the Triple Entente (Allies) of Great Britain, France, and Russia. The alliance system had prevented small wars from threatening the peace, but threatened to involve all nations if major war erupted. On June 28, 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary was assassinated in Sarajevo by a Serbian nationalist. Germany supported Austria-Hungary pressure on Serbia, which turned to Russia for protection. Escalating mobilizations followed, and by early August the nations had exchanged declarations of war. Initially, both sides assumed that the war would be both glorious and short. However, the war settled into a long and bloody stalemate made only more deadly by the new advances in weaponry such as the tank, machine gun, and the invention of trench warfare. As fighting spread to Africa and Asia, a European war turned global.
b. American Neutrality

When war broke out in Europe, President Wilson issued a formal proclamation of American neutrality. This would be easier said than done since at the time nearly one-third of all Americans were either foreign-born or had parents who were foreign-born. Both the Central Powers and the Allied Powers tried to persuade the United States in their favor. Close economic ties between the United States and the Allied Powers made true neutrality impossible. The American economy profited greatly from the European war boom.

c. Preparedness and Peace

In February 1915, Germany declared the waters around the British Isles a war zone and began unrestricted submarine warfare. After German U-boats sunk the Lusitania in 1915 and the Sussex in 1916, President Wilson threatened to break off diplomatic relations with Germany unless they ended their policy of unrestricted marine warfare. At the same time, the American Congress passed the National Defense Act, which greatly increased the size of the regular army. Many Americans—progressives, women, and southern Democrats—opposed U.S. involvement and Wilson appealed to them in his 1916 reelection campaign with the slogan “He Kept Us Out of War,” helping him defeat the Republican Hughes in a close race.

MHL document: Eugene V. Debs, Critique of World War (1918) at www.myhistorylab.com

d. Safe for Democracy

On February 1, 1917, Germany resumed unrestricted submarine warfare against all neutral and enemy ships. Wilson was furious about Germany’s decision and broke off diplomatic relations. After the Zimmerman note, which suggested an alliance between Mexico and Germany if the United States entered the war, was intercepted and as American ships began to be sunk by U-boats, Wilson called a special session of Congress and asked for a declaration of war. In his speech to the Congress, Wilson linked American commercial and diplomatic interests with the concepts of freedom of the seas and neutral rights, winning over all but the most rigid of his critics, and on April 6, Wilson signed the declaration of war.

IV. AMERICAN MOBILIZATION

Wilson’s speech received an enthusiastic response from newspapers, religious leaders, and many important public figures. The Wilson Administration was less certain about the sentiments of the American public and their willingness to help fight a war in Europe. The administration took immediate action to win over public support for the war effort and to place a legal muzzle on antiwar dissenters. War mobilization became an effort to unify the country.

a. Selling the War
One week after declaring war, President Wilson created the Committee on Public Information, chaired by George Creel, to organize public opinion regarding the war. However, it soon became an aggressive and sophisticated agency for promoting the war. The CPI produced more than 100 million pieces of literature explaining the causes and meaning of the war. They also led an aggressive campaign against all things German and encouraged ethnic Americans to fully embrace America by breaking their ties with the Old Country, but also provoked violence against German Americans, radicals, and peace activists.

**MHL document:** *Joseph Buffington, “Friendly Words to the Foreign Born”* (1917) at www.myhistorylab.com

b. Fading Opposition to War

President Wilson won American majority opinion by presenting the war as a moral crusade. Liberals and progressives were attracted by the opportunity the war provided for continued social change. Although the president defined the war as an idealistic crusade to defend democracy and spread liberal principles throughout Europe, the war was not without its critics. Among the war’s critics were Randolph Bourne, a dissenting intellectual, and the Woman’s Peace Party. But the National Women’s Suffrage Association encouraged women to mobilize and do war work in hopes of winning support for voting rights.

c. “You’re in the Army Now”

The issue of how to raise and deploy U.S. armed forces was a central question for the Wilson Administration. The solution to the problem was the Selective Service Act, which required all men between the ages of 21 to 35 to register for classification for military service. Progressives also saw the military as an opportunity for reform measures including education, alcohol, and sex. The hope was that the military would prove to be a field for social reform and education, and in some ways a tool for Americanization. Culturally based “intelligence” testing of recruits reinforced racism and nativism and left a lasting mark on American education.

d. Racism in the Military

African Americans who served in the U.S. military confronted severe limitations, including completely segregated units in branches of the military where blacks were allowed to serve, and humiliating and violent treatment at the hands of white officers and civilians. More than 200,000 African Americans served in France before the war’s end, although the vast majority did not experience combat. Their friendly reception in France contrasted sharply with their treatment at home, spurring post-war tensions.

**MHL document:** *Statement to French Concerning Black American Troops* (1918) at www.myhistorylab.com
e. Americans in Battle

Recalled from Mexico, General John J. Pershing led the American Expeditionary Force (AEF) as a separate command in Europe. Although the AEF’s participation was not long, it was intense, in part owing to Pershing’s philosophy that the object of war should be the total destruction of the enemy’s military power. By the time the war ended on November 11, 1918, approximately 2 million men had served in the AEF and 60,000 Americans had died in battle. These figures, while tragic, pale in comparison to the casualties suffered by the European powers.

MHL map: World War I at www.myhistorylab.com

MHL document: Eugene Kennedy, “A ‘Doughboy’ Describes the Fighting Front” (1918) at www.myhistorylab.com

f. The Russian Revolution, the Fourteen Points, and Allied Victory

In 1917, the Russian Czar was overthrown and the radical Bolsheviks took control of the Russian government. President Wilson refused to recognize the new government, in part because Bolshevism represented a threat to the liberal-capitalist values that Wilson believed to be the foundation of America’s power, setting the stage for future Cold War conflict. In January 1918, Wilson presented his blueprint for peace, the Fourteen Points, based on principles of national self-determination, the governing of international conduct, and the establishment of a League of Nations to resolve future disputes. After the Bolsheviks made a punitive peace with Germany in March, the Allied powers faced a reinforced German army on the western front but, with American aid, ground the Germans down. On November 11, 1918 the war ended with an armistice. While significant, U.S. losses left America far less scarred by war than the exhausted Europeans.

MHL document: Woodrow Wilson, “Fourteen Points” (1917) at www.myhistorylab.com

V. OVER HERE

World War I can be understood as a reform movement in its own right. The federal government expanded its role in wartime manufacturing and production. Planning, efficiency, cooperation and analysis became key principles for government agencies and volunteer organizations. The experiences of the war initiated some important and lasting organizational trends in American life.

a. Organizing the Economy

Created in 1917, War Industries Board (WIB) led by Bernard Baruch was a clearinghouse for industrial mobilization to support the war effort and a key component in the expansion of the federal government’s regulatory power. The WIB balanced price
controls against war profits and encouraged the standardization of goods, which brought large savings and increased profits. The 1917 Food and Fuel Act regulated the production and distribution of the food and fuel necessary to win the war effort under Herbert Hoover’s supervision. The enormous $33 billion cost of the war required higher and broader taxes on incomes and profits, replacing excise and customs levies as the government’s major source of revenue. Liberty Bonds sold to the American public raised $23 billion, and the national debt ballooned to over $20 billion by 1920.

b. The Government-Business Partnership

In general, the war meant high profits for American business, with huge capital investments and profits as well as swelling farm production. The most important was the shift toward corporatism in American business. The wartime need for efficient management, manufacturing, and distribution could be met only with greater reliance on the productive and marketing power of large corporations. Entire industries and economic sectors were organized, regulated, and subsidized as a result of the government’s involvement in wartime production. Some Americans worried about the increasingly active role of the government in their lives. After the war, some institutions and practices continued to grow stronger including the Federal Reserve Board, the income tax system, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Farm Bureau.

c. Labor and the War

Organized labor’s power and prestige grew during the war as the government was forced to work with labor to ensure cooperation and continued productivity. In short, the government took in labor as a junior partner in the mobilization of the economy. After Samuel Gompers, president of the AFL, pledged the union’s patriotic support for the war effort, Wilson appointed him to the National War Labor Board which served to arbitrate disputes to avoid disruptions in production. It also supported the rights of workers to unionize and worked to further the acceptance of an eight-hour workday. Although the war gave additional power and prestige to the AFL, it undermined the more radical elements of the labor movement like the IWW, a group that hoped to unionize unskilled laborers. Meanwhile new agreements with Mexico led to the loosening of immigration laws to allow cheap contract workers to enter the United States, exemptions which business would insist continue after the war.

d. Women at Work

The war was an opportunity for many women already in the workforce to leave low paying jobs for higher paying war work. An additional 1 million women joined the workforce for the first time as a result of the war. In addition to improved employment opportunities, World War I marked the first time that women were directly mobilized into the armed forces. The Labor Department created the Women in Industry Service (WIS), the federal government’s first involvement in improving working conditions for women. The WIS called for an eight-hour workday, equal pay for equal work, a minimum wage, and the prohibition of night work. At the war’s end, women lost nearly all defense-related
jobs. However, the war increased female employment in areas already dominated by women and led Congress to create a postwar Women’s Bureau in the Department of Labor.

e. Woman Suffrage

Prior to World War I, the fight for woman suffrage had been fought largely at the state level. The United States’s entry into the war provided a unique opportunity for suffrage groups to shift their strategy to a national campaign for a constitutional amendment granting women the right to vote led by the National American Woman Suffrage Association. The more militant and smaller National Woman’s Party used more radical tactics such as women chaining themselves to the White House fence, which made the NAWS seem more appealing and acceptable to mainstream Americans and to President Wilson. In August 1920, the Nineteenth Amendment was ratified, making woman’s suffrage legal nationwide.

MHL map: Woman Suffrage before the Nineteenth Amendment at www.myhistorylab.com

f. Prohibition

Temperance advocates saw drinking as harmful to the working class and a major source of family violence, unemployment, and poverty. The Woman’s Christian Temperance Movement had become the single largest women’s organization in American history with a quarter-million members. German ownership of much of the brewing industry added a patriotic element, and in 1917, a coalition of progressives and rural fundamentalists in Congress successfully passed a constitutional amendment providing for a national ban on alcoholic drinks. The Eighteenth Amendment was ratified by the states in January 1919 and became law in 1920.

MHL document: Eighteenth Amendment, Prohibition of Intoxicating Liquor (1919) at www.myhistorylab.com

g. Public Health and the Influenza Pandemic

Wartime mobilization also brought about more government involvement in public health issues such as sexual hygiene, child welfare, and disease prevention, as well as a campaign against venereal disease in the army. The government’s involvement in citizen welfare continued after the end of the war. The Children’s Bureau, created in 1912, took on new missions during and after the war by studying issues affecting children particular to the war and by starting clinics for prenatal care that were instrumental in lowering the infant mortality and maternal mortality rates. The worldwide influenza pandemic of 1918–1919 posed an even larger problem to national public health. Although relatively unnoticed in comparison to the media’s coverage of the war, the influenza pandemic killed approximately 550,000 Americans in ten months.
VI. REPRESSION AND REACTION

World War I intensified many of the deepest social tensions in American life. The push for national unity in the face of war led the government to censor a wide spectrum of dissenters. The war also inflamed racial hatred and led to a brief but militant labor movement at the war’s end. From 1918–1920 the federal government directed a repressive antiradical campaign that would have important implications for the nation’s future.


The 1917 Espionage Act set severe penalties for anyone found guilty of aiding the enemy, obstructing military recruitment, or causing insubordination in the armed forces and empowered the postmaster to seize “treasonous” mail. To enforce the Espionage Act, the agency that would eventually become the FBI, was created. In May 1918, the Espionage Act was amended with the Sedition Act, which outlawed disloyal, profane, or abusive language directed at the government, the Constitution, or the flag. In a series of cases, the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the Espionage Act, including the jailing of Eugene V. Debs for making antiwar speeches. Vigilante justice in the West contributed to the collapse of the IWW, while the self-appointed American Protective League promoted raids on “slackers” and draft evaders. The CPI supported a campaign to ban German-language teaching or the performance of German music.


b. The Great Migration and Racial Tensions

The economic opportunities brought about by the war triggered a massive migration of 300,000 rural southern blacks to northern cities in search of profitable work in the wartime industries. Rigid residential segregation in northern cities laid the groundwork for the segregated ghettos of twentieth-century northern cities. Kinship and community networks played a vital role in the transmission of knowledge about job opportunities and housing that made the Great Migration so prolific. Although many African Americans migrated to escape racial violence in the South, there was racial violence in the North as well. Race riots broke out in July 1917 in East St. Louis, IL, and Chicago, IL, in part as a result of the tensions brought about by wartime migration. The worst outbreak was the 1921 destruction of the Greenwood community in Tulsa, OK, with a loss of 300 black lives at the hands of white mobs. The heightened sense of race consciousness and activism in black veterans returned from war promoted increasing membership and activism of the NAACP.

MHL document: Letters from the Great Migration (1917) at www.myhistorylab.com

MHL document: The Chicago Riot (1919) at www.myhistorylab.com

c. Labor Strife
The relative labor peace enjoyed during the war disappeared after the armistice. Many employers withdrew their recognition of labor unions and difficult working conditions such as long hours and unsafe conditions were still routine in many industries. The modest wartime increase in wages was lost to increasing inflation and high prices for food, housing, and fuel after the war. In 1919 alone, more than 4 million American workers were involved in approximately 3,600 strikes. Massachusetts Governor Calvin Coolidge used the National Guard to break a Boston police strike, and state and federal force crushed an AFL-sponsored steel strike as public opinion turned against postwar union activism.

VII. AN UNEASY PEACE

Although the battlefield fighting ended in November 1918, the fight for a peace agreement continued at the palace of Versailles where delegates from 27 countries spent five months negotiating a settlement. Russia and Germany were not represented at the talks and much of the proceedings were dominated by the “Big Four”: Great Britain, France, Italy, and the United States, but Wilson’s idealism had little impact, while at home the treaty led to a crushing defeat.

a. Peacemaking and the Specter of Bolshevism

British and French leaders were fixated with the Bolshevik danger and the possibility of revolution spreading through Central Europe. President Wilson refused to recognize the new Bolshevik government. By August 1918, Wilson agreed to British and French plans to send troops into northern Siberia to protect the Eastern and Trans-Siberian railways. Wilson’s idealistic support of the self-determination of nations had succumbed to the demands of international power politics. The result was 15,000 American troops serving in northern and eastern Russia and a widening gulf between Russia and the West.

b. Wilson in Paris

Wilson saw his Fourteen Points as an opportunity for America to lead the rest of the world toward a new vision of international relations. The most controversial part of Wilson’s plan was the formation of the League of Nations, which called for the system of collective security to keep the peace. Much of the negotiating in Paris was done in secret among the Big Four. Although the conference failed to guarantee the right of self-determination for Africans living in former German colonies and placed blame for the war as solely Germany’s responsibility by imposing $33 billion in war reparations, Wilson did succeed in incorporating the League of Nation charter into the treaty.

c. The Treaty Fight

In 1918, Republicans won majorities in both the House and the Senate. Wilson, a Democrat, faced extreme opposition in the Senate by a group of 16 “irreconcilables” who opposed the treaty in any form. Wilson also faced opposition from less dogmatic but more influential Republican senators like Henry Cabot Lodge. This group had strong
reservations about the League of Nations because they felt it interfered with congressional authority to declare war and restrained the nation’s ability to pursue an independent foreign policy. In September, Wilson began a speaking tour across the country to build support for the League of Nations and for the Treaty. After his collapse in Pueblo, CO, in September, Wilson was too ill to influence events. As a result, the United States never signed the Versailles Treaty and it did not join the League of Nations.

**MHL document:** Henry Cabot Lodge, *Objections to Treaty of Versailles (1919)* at www.myhistorylab.com

d. The Red Scare

The revolutionary changes taking place in Russia had an important impact on American domestic policy. In the United States it became common and acceptable to blame socialism, trade unionism, and racial disturbances on foreign radicals and their alien ideologies. With public alarm growing about the potential dangers of socialism and communism, Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer, in conjunction with other federal officials, coordinated a campaign to root out subversives deporting hundreds with little evidence and less due process. While an alarmed public mainly supported Palmer, the American Civil Liberties Union was created in response. Red baiting was also used to weaken labor unions and women’s rights groups suspected of less than “100 percent Americanism.”

**MHL document:** A. Mitchell Palmer, *On the Menace of Communism (1920)* at www.myhistorylab.com

e. The Election of 1920

Wilson did not run for reelection in 1920. A divided Democratic Party compromised on James M. Cox of Ohio while the Republicans nominated Senator Warren G. Harding of Ohio. Harding had no qualifications for the office and his campaign was appropriately vague and ambiguous. Despite his lack of experience, Harding won in a landslide, as Americans seemed eager to pull back from moralism in public and international controversies, yet Socialist Eugene V. Debs, conducting his campaign from jail, still got 900,000 votes. Despite the renunciation of Wilsonianism a return to “normalcy” seemed unlikely.


**VIII. CONCLUSION**

The war and its aftermath set loose powerful economic, social, and political disruptions with lasting consequences. The size and scope of federal government grew while the United States became a global power, willingly or unwillingly. Yet hyper-patriotism, racism, and
xenophobia set loose by war persisted into the postwar years, leading to more anxiety than normalcy.

**Learning Objectives:**

Students should be able to answer the following questions after studying Chapter 22:

1. How and where did the United States expand its role on the international scene?
2. Why did the United States move from neutrality to participation in the Great War?
3. What methods and techniques did the federal government use to achieve wartime mobilization?
4. How did U.S. entry into the war alter the political landscape, especially with respect to dissent?
5. How can we explain Woodrow Wilson’s failure to win the peace?

**Discussion Suggestions and Possible Answers**

1. What central issues drew the United States deeper into international politics in the early years of the century? How did American presidents justify a more expansive role? What diplomatic and military policies did they exploit for these ends?

   **Answer:** American foreign policy combined economic expansion and military power. While invoking rhetoric about America’s commitment to moralism and its God-given role as a world power, presidents like Teddy Roosevelt used a combination of military might and backroom deals to secure foreign policy goals. Aiding American businesses and overseas investment was the most important goal of American foreign policy.

2. Compare the arguments for and against American participation in the Great War. Which Americans were most likely to support entry? Which were more likely to oppose it?

   **Answer:** America initially sought to remain neutral as World War I began in Europe in August 1914. However, close economic ties between the United States and Allied Powers made true neutrality impossible to achieve. On the other hand, millions of Americans had emigrated from nations of the Central Powers, especially Germany and Ireland. Although some critics remained, particularly those from the women’s movement, most liberals and progressives supported the war as a means of supporting social change.

3. How did mobilizing for war change the economy and its relationship to government? Which of these changes, if any, spilled over to the postwar years?

   **Answer:** Mobilizing for war emphasized the need to unify the country. However, the economic necessities of mobilization required much greater government involvement in the economy. The War Industries Board balanced price controls and war profits and successfully standardized production, improving efficiency and lowering costs. War production moved American businesses toward corporatism, while labor was accepted as a junior partner in the
war effort. Government arbitration enabled unions to secure long-fought-for gains and added to the prestige of the AFL while undermining more radical labor groups like the IWW.

4. How did the war affect political life in the United States? What techniques were used to stifle dissent? What was the war’s political legacy?

**Answer:** The Espionage Act of 1917, still law today, provided stiff penalties for aiding the enemy, interfering with the armed services or promoting insubordination among troops. The enforcement of the Espionage Act eventually led to the creation of the FBI, as government police powers expanded dramatically. In addition, censorship of texts considered to be treasonous was permitted. Overall, the government muzzled a wide spectrum of dissenters during the war years.

5. Analyze the impact of the war on American workers. How did the conflict affect the lives of African Americans and women?

**Answer:** The power and prestige of organized labor grew during the war years, as AFL President Samuel Gompers was rewarded with a more neutral government attitude on labor relations in exchange for his support of the war. More radical labor groups like the IWW, however, found themselves marginalized in their efforts to unionize unskilled workers. African Americans embarked on the Great Migration seeking to take advantage of the economic opportunities generated by the mobilization for war. Although they expected better living conditions as well, northern cities quickly became rigidly segregated like the South. African Americans also served in segregated military units and by war’s end, more than 200,000 served in France. An additional one million women joined the work force during the war years and many others served in military auxiliaries for the first time. The war also pushed the women’s suffrage movement to success, as the national campaign and greater recognition of women’s contribution to the war effort led to the passage of the Twentieth Amendment in August 1920.

6. What principles guided Woodrow Wilson’s Fourteen Points? How would you explain the United States’ failure to ratify the Treaty of Versailles?

**Answer:** Wilson’s Fourteen Points emphasized the creation of new countries out of the Austro-Hungarian Empire on the basis of national self-determination. They also promoted more openness in international diplomacy, free trade and navigation and arms control agreements. Lastly, Wilson proposed a League of Nations where countries could use diplomacy instead of force to resolve disputes. Although Wilson expected the Fourteen Points to be the basis for a lasting peace in Europe, Britain and especially France were more determined to see Germany punished and blamed for starting the war. At home, Republicans objected to the League of Nations, claiming it limited the nation’s ability to pursue an independent foreign policy, and despite a cross-country effort by Wilson to gain support, the Senate rejected the League and never signed the peace treaty.
Lecture Outline

American Communities: The American Expeditionary Force in France
Becoming a World Power
   Roosevelt: The Big Stick
   Taft: Dollar Diplomacy
   Wilson: Moralism and Intervention in Mexico

The Great War
   The Guns of August
   American Neutrality
   Preparedness and Peace
   Safe for Democracy

American Mobilization
   Selling the War
   Fading Opposition to War
   “You’re In the Army Now”
   Racism in the Military
   Americans in Battle
   The Russian Revolution, the Fourteen Points, and Allied Victory

Over Here
   Organizing the Economy
   The Government-Business Partnership
   Labor and the War
   Women at Work
   Woman Suffrage
   Prohibition
   Public Health and the Influenza Pandemic

Repression and Reaction
   Muzzling Dissent: the Espionage and Sedition Acts
   The Great Migration and Racial Tensions
   Labor Strife

An Uneasy Peace
   Peacemaking and the Specter of Bolshevism
   Wilson in Paris
   The Treaty Fight

   The Red Scare
   The Election of 1920
Resources (Web, Films/Video)

Films/Video

American Experience: Panama Canal. (90 minutes, color). PBS, 2011. The building of the canal is profiled using contemporary photographs and film and interviews with canal workers.

Men of Bronze. (52 minutes, color). 1977. Discusses the story of the African American combat regiment that served with the Fourth French Army.


My History Lab Connections

Read and Review

Read the Documents
William H. Taft, “Dollar Diplomacy” (1912)
Eugene V. Debs, Critique of World War (1918)
Joseph Buffington, “Friendly Words to the Foreign Born” (1917)
Statement to French Concerning Black American Troops (1918)
Eugene Kennedy, “A ‘Doughboy’ Describes the Fighting Front” (1918)
Woodrow Wilson, “Fourteen Points” (1917)
Eighteenth Amendment, Prohibition of Intoxicating Liquor (1919)
Letters from the Great Migration (1917)
The Chicago Riot (1919)
Henry Cabot Lodge, Objections to Treaty of Versailles (1919)
A. Mitchell Palmer, On the Menace of Communism (1920)

See the Maps
World War I
Woman Suffrage before the Nineteenth Amendment
Research and Explore

Read the Documents
Exploring America: Becoming American

Read the Biographies
Alice Paul
General John J. Pershing

History Bookshelf
Walter Lippmann, Public Opinion (1922)

Hear the Audio
Over There

See the Videos
American Entry into WWI
The Outbreak of World War I
The Panama Canal

Critical Thinking Exercises

The decision to enter WWI was contested. Students could be assigned to portray representative Americans and recreate that debate. Students might be prowar or antiwar representatives, radical or moderate labor leaders, radical or moderate suffragists, etc. The debate should focus not only on what is good for the United States, but how these individuals see the war affecting the interests they represent.