

**The History of the Twentieth Century**  
**Episode 24**  
**“How Does It Feel to Be a Problem?”**  
**Transcript**

[music: Fanfare]

The midterm elections of 1902 had gone well for the Republicans, and President Roosevelt’s popularity was growing. Even the potential embarrassment of his going bear hunting and not bagging a bear had instead turned into the teddy bear craze.

But the new president’s first foreign policy challenge was already brewing in the Caribbean, as British and German naval squadrons blockaded Venezuela in retaliation for that country’s failure to pay debts. It was widely rumored that the Germans would take advantage of the debt crisis to acquire a naval base in America’s backyard.

Welcome to *The History of the Twentieth Century*.

[music: Opening Theme]

Episode 24. How Does It Feel to Be a Problem?

The United States and Britain had come into conflict over Venezuela once before, in 1895, seven years ago. That dispute had involved the border between Venezuela and British Guiana. The United States intervened diplomatically in the dispute at Venezuela’s request, citing the Monroe Doctrine.

Now the Monroe Doctrine, so called because it was first articulated by US President James Monroe, states that the US is opposed to any attempt by a European power to take control of any of the independent nations in the New World. At the time the Monroe Doctrine was first articulated, the United States lacked the military power to enforce it. But it stuck anyway, mostly because the British supported it. 19th century British governments, with their strong free-trade convictions, judged that a New World full of small, neutral states with whom Britain could trade on the same terms as other European powers was preferable to a New World in which substantial territories were controlled by rival colonial powers that would impose high tariffs on British trade.

Which is ironic, because at the end of the 19th century, as the United States is becoming a great power, the first time it really flexes its new might and asserts the Monroe Doctrine, it’s against Britain.

The initial British response was something like “What the hell?” Because the Salisbury government understood the Monroe Doctrine to mean no European power may seize territory in the New World. They did not understand the Monroe Doctrine to mean that the United States has the right to intervene in any dispute of any kind between a European power and an American nation. But, uh, yeah, basically, that’s what the US government is saying, under then-President Grover Cleveland. They pressed the British to

accept arbitration of the dispute. The British balked at this suggestion at first, but by 1896 they began to see the advantages, and they agreed to arbitration. A panel of five arbitrators – two British journalists, two American Supreme Court justices, and a Russian jurist – was appointed, and Venezuela agreed by treaty to abide by the results of the arbitration. The arbitration panel sat in Paris, and rendered a decision in 1899 which gave Britain virtually everything she wanted. The Venezuelans were disappointed, of course, but honored their treaty obligation.

The real winner here was the United States. This marked one of the earliest occasions in which the US had asserted itself in international affairs. Latin American countries appreciated the US advocacy on Venezuela's behalf, while the British government appreciated that the US helped facilitate a calm and diplomatic resolution.

In 1902, however, the government of Venezuela essentially went bankrupt. It had substantial foreign debts that it could not pay, mostly owed to lenders in Britain and Germany. And in December 1902, a joint Anglo-German naval force arrived in the Caribbean and blockaded Venezuela.

Now, this was a standard practice in those days. Creditor countries took military action against debtor countries that didn't pay their debts, sometimes even going so far as to seize the debtor nation's customs houses and collect that country's import tariffs themselves, skimming off the money owed to them before turning the rest of it over to the host government. The Germans were already talking about a "temporary occupation" of Venezuelan harbors. Most Americans still remembered how Germany "temporarily occupied" Qingdao in China in 1898, four years ago, and this temporary occupation eventually turned into a 99-year lease. In Washington, officials warned the president that any military confrontation between Germany and Venezuela could possibly turn into a German demand for reparation payments, and since Venezuela was already broke, the reparations claim could turn into a claim on a Caribbean naval base. This is kind of what happened with China. The German naval secretary, Admiral Alfred von Tirpitz, had already openly speculated about German naval bases in the Caribbean and in Brazil. There were over a million German-speaking people in Latin America, most of them recent emigrants from Germany, which might be grounds for a German military presence.

The US government, which was establishing its own naval base at Guantánamo Bay in Cuba, and laying plans for a canal across Central America, went "tilt" at the thought of a German naval base in the middle of all these American interests. Germany had the best army in the world, and one of the largest navies. On paper, the US Navy was slightly larger, with better ships, but don't forget the US has to station half its navy in the Pacific, especially in light of its recent acquisitions in Hawaii and the Philippines, and there's no, you know, canal to make it easy for these ships to be redeployed into the Atlantic.

The United States had a naval force in the Caribbean, in Puerto Rico, under the command of Admiral George Dewey, no less, no friend of Germany. The US Secretary of State made some veiled threats to the German government of American intervention in the event Germany actually tried to seize Venezuelan territory. But the decisive factor in this confrontation turned out to be the increasing embarrassment of the British government. As the British actions in the Caribbean became public knowledge back home, the British public and press reacted sharply against their country's providing cover to what looked too much to them like a German land grab. The British government agreed with the US to submit the dispute with

Venezuela to the new Permanent Court of Arbitration in The Hague. This left the German government out on a limb, and the Germans had little choice but to also agree to arbitration.

This dispute led to what is sometimes referred to as the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, which is this: In the event of a dispute between a European power and New World country, the United States would intervene and enforce any legitimate claim itself, rather than allow the European country to make its claim directly. This amounted to a broad claim of US police power in the western hemisphere.

Finley Peter Dunne wrote a piece in which his fictional pub proprietor, Martin Dooley, and his customers imagine the King of England, Kaiser Wilhelm, and Emilio Castro, President of Venezuela, hauled up before the Court of Arbitration in The Hague as if it were a district court in Chicago. I think it's pretty funny, but it's too long to read here, so I'll release it later in the week as a supplemental.

In January 1903, *McClure's Magazine* published three lengthy, groundbreaking investigative pieces. Ray Baker, who had previously investigated the new United States Steel Corporation, had a piece on union corruption. Lincoln Steffens, whose beat was political corruption, had a piece on the mayor of Minneapolis. And most importantly, Ida Tarbell published the first of a series of articles on America's corporate behemoth, John D. Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company. Tarbell pioneered what we now call investigative journalism. She spent months doing interviews and poring over government and corporate documents to compile a history of Standard Oil's corrupt and predatory practices.

That January 1903 issue of *McClure's* sold like hotcakes. Corruption in government, in labor, and in corporations – for years, there had been voices in American public life railing about corruption and the need for reform, and while suspicions abounded, finally someone, *McClure's*, was out there documenting it, ushering in a new era in journalism – the era of the “muckraker”. The term was coined by Roosevelt, citing the man with the muckrake in John Bunyan's *The Pilgrim's Progress*. Roosevelt did not mean it as a compliment, but the muckrakers embraced it – it's one of those words like “Methodist” or “Quaker” or “Impressionism”.

And speaking of Roosevelt, that issue of *McClure's* couldn't have come out at a better time for him. He was still pressing Congress for that Department of Commerce & Labor he'd asked for a year ago. The Democrats were amenable, but there was a lot of opposition in the Republican majority. In February 1903, when Ida Tarbell's groundbreaking work on the Standard Oil Company was still fresh in the memories of Americans, Roosevelt called a background briefing on a Saturday night with representatives of the three leading news services to leak the fact that six prominent Republican senators had gotten personal telegrams from John D. Rockefeller, demanding their opposition to Roosevelt's legislation.

That made the news, and afterward, when Standard Oil's lobbyists came to Washington to lobby against the bill, there was an uproar. Now, it wasn't unusual even then for corporations to send lobbyists to Washington, but in light of all the other revelations, it was just one more piece of damning evidence. The Republicans in Congress caved, and Roosevelt finally got his new Department of Commerce and Labor, a Cabinet-level government agency to protect the public from the excesses of big business. After years of effort, first as governor of New York, and later as president, Roosevelt had finally secured legislation to regulate corrupt business practices.

Roosevelt appointed as his first Secretary of Commerce and Labor George Cortelyou, who had previously been in charge of the White House. He had been President McKinley's personal secretary, and one of the people into whose arms the president fell after being shot by Leon Czolgosz. Tarbell would continue to publish a series of exposés on the Standard Oil Company over the next year. These would be collected into a book: *The History of the Standard Oil Company*, a landmark in the history of journalism. By 1904, Ida Tarbell was being called the most famous woman in America.

At about the same time, Roosevelt had to deal with a vacancy on the Supreme Court. This would be his second. He had filled the first by appointing Oliver Wendell Holmes, a Massachusetts jurist who was recommended to Roosevelt by his old friend and ally, Massachusetts Senator Henry Cabot Lodge. The Supreme Court would soon have to settle the constitutional status of the Philippines. Roosevelt badly wanted a ruling that went his way; that the Philippines were not automatically territory of the United States and the Filipinos not automatically US citizens. Lodge wanted the same thing, and both men viewed Holmes as a safe vote in favor of what they wanted.

But when the second vacancy opened, early in 1903, Roosevelt had his eye on a different pending case. This time, it was his administration's antitrust suit against Northern Securities. Everyone knew that case was going to go all the way to the Supreme Court, and everyone knew that William Howard Taft wanted to be on the Supreme Court, and Theodore Roosevelt knew that William Howard Taft saw eye-to-eye with him on the dangers of large corporations. So he sent Taft a letter. He acknowledged that Taft was doing a great job in the Philippines, and admitted that his Secretary of War, Elihu Root, wanted Taft to stay in Manila, but nevertheless told Taft he was needed back home on the Supreme Court.

Now, you may recall this is what Taft has been looking forward to for most of his life. Now, the dream was in his grasp. But he was also convinced that he was needed in the Philippines more, and that to leave now would be a grave mistake. He cabled Roosevelt: "Great honor, deeply appreciated, but must decline. Situation here most critical, change of governor most unwise. Nothing would satisfy individual taste more than acceptance. Look forward to the time when I can accept such an offer, but even if it is certain that it can never be repeated, I must now decline."

Roosevelt accepted this refusal with regret, and looked for another candidate. After a month's deliberation, he wrote Taft another letter: "I am awfully sorry old man, but I shall have to bring you home and put you on the Supreme Court. I am very sorry."

At that point, Taft felt he had no option. He wrote back to say that he still believed he should stay in the Philippines, but he would if ordered return to Washington and accept the Supreme Court appointment. But he asked Roosevelt one more time to reconsider.

Meanwhile, in Manila, word had gotten out that Taft was leaving. On the morning of January 10, 1903, William and Nellie Taft awoke to the sound of a brass band. There were 8,000 Filipinos jamming the streets of Manila for blocks around Malacañang Palace, in a surprise demonstration begging the governor-general to stay. There were flags and handmade signs that read "We want Taft" in English, in Spanish, and in Tagalog. Speaker after speaker implored him to stay. The War Department and the White

House received hundreds of telegrams from Filipinos, from American administrators in the islands, from citizen groups, and from the Filipino Bar Association, begging Roosevelt to keep Taft where he was. Three days later, Taft received a brief cable from Roosevelt: "All right, stay where you are. I shall appoint someone else to the Court."

In the spring of 1903, Roosevelt left Washington for a nine-week tour of the nation, the longest such trip any sitting president had ever taken. Before he left, he said to his new Secretary of Commerce and Labor: "I hate to leave you here alone with all these dreadful corporations, but I can't very well help it. Be careful of them, and don't let them hurt you while I am away." Roosevelt travelled on a special train that was a home on wheels, with bedrooms, kitchen, dining room, observation lounge, and quarters for the reporters covering the president and for his Secret Service detail. They stopped at small towns across America, and Roosevelt gave speeches, as many as nine in one day. He attended concerts, he met with schoolchildren, and he received a bewildering collection of presents, including a baby badger, an Indian basket, and a horse. In Butte, Montana, they gave him a two-gallon silver loving cup. What on earth he was supposed to do with it, I have no idea. Share a beer with the entire press corps, I suppose.

It was during this trip that Roosevelt first articulated the phrase that became a summation of his political philosophy: "We must treat each man on his worth and merits as a man. We must see that each is given a square deal, because he is entitled to no more, and should receive no less." On his tour, he visited Yellowstone with the naturalist John Burroughs, where he climbed trees like a small boy. He camped at Yosemite with John Muir, founder of the Sierra Club. In California, he admired the sequoias. And the topics of his speeches began to change. Instead of talking about trusts and corporate malfeasance, he began to talk about America's natural beauty, and the importance of preserving it. He visited the Grand Canyon at a time when there was a great dispute between the holders of mineral and grazing rights and those who sought to preserve the natural beauty of the canyon.

Roosevelt had one look and swore to have the canyon designated a national park. He would eventually designate the Grand Canyon a national monument in 1908, although it would not become a national park until 1919. Of the Grand Canyon, Roosevelt said: "The ages have been at work on it, and man can only mar it. Keep it for your children, your children's children, and all those who come after you."

[music: "America the Beautiful"]

The year 1903 would also see the publication of W.E.B. Du Bois' most famous work, *The Souls of Black Folk*, a collection of essays. His book opens with the prophetic words: "The problem of the twentieth century is the problem of the color line."

William Edward Burghardt Du Bois was born in Massachusetts in 1868. His family owned land and were long-established in their hometown of Great Barrington. One of Du Bois' ancestors was Tom Burghardt, a Massachusetts slave who had gained his freedom by serving in the Continental Army during the American Revolution. In the 1880s, Du Bois attended college at Fisk University in Nashville, where he experienced firsthand the rising segregation in the south. New laws to restrict the lives of African-Americans were being enacted, the right of African-Americans to vote was being taken away, and lynchings were on the rise.

Du Bois would receive bachelors' degrees first from Fisk, and then from Harvard University. He would go on to become the first African-American to earn a Ph.D. from Harvard. His graduate work included a year at the University of Berlin, where he studied under some of the greatest minds in the emerging field of sociology. In 1896, Du Bois spent a year in Philadelphia doing research at the University of Pennsylvania. This research led to a book, *The Philadelphia Negro*, published in 1899, the first ever sociological study of an African-American community.

Du Bois would go on to become an essayist and a political activist, and by the early 20th century, was the second most prominent African-American after Booker T. Washington. Du Bois was a harsh critic of Washington, and of his so-called "Atlanta Compromise", proposing that African-Americans in the south should relinquish their political voice in exchange for the freedom to learn farming and trades and become economically self-sufficient. Du Bois, in contrast, believed that African-Americans needed leaders, and that leaders, "the talented tenth", he called them, could only be cultivated through the liberal arts and university degrees. He advocated for self-government in the colonial territories in Africa and Asia. He strenuously opposed the disenfranchisement of African-Americans at home, and argued that the future of African-Americans was not in the assimilation into white America, but in the integration of African and American identities.

*Between me and the other world there is ever an unasked question: unasked by some through feelings of delicacy; by others through the difficulty of rightly framing it. All, nevertheless, flutter round it. They approach me in a half-hesitant sort of way, eye me curiously or compassionately, and then... they say, I know an excellent colored man in my town; or, I fought at Mechanicsville; or, Do not these Southern outrages make your blood boil? At these I smile, or am interested, or reduce the boiling to a simmer, as the occasion may require. To the real question, How does it feel to be a problem? I answer seldom a word.*

*And yet, being a problem is a strange experience,—peculiar even for one who has never been anything else... One ever feels his twoness,—an American, a Negro; two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled strivings; two warring ideals in one dark body, whose dogged strength alone keeps it from being torn asunder.*

*The history of the American Negro is the history of this strife,—this longing to attain self-conscious manhood, to merge his double self into a better and truer self. In this merging he wishes neither of the older selves to be lost. He would not Africanize America, for America has too much to teach the world and Africa. He would not bleach his Negro soul in a flood of white Americanism, for he knows that Negro blood has a message for the world. He simply wishes to make it possible for a man to be both a Negro and an American, without being cursed and spit upon by his fellows, without having the doors of Opportunity closed roughly in his face.*

W.E.B. Du Bois, *The Souls of Black Folk*.

[music: "Jacob's Ladder"]

In our day, a lot of Americans have forgotten this, but African-Americans had more rights and opportunities in 1884 than they had in 1904. They lost ground during this period, particularly in the southern states. The right to vote was taken away, new laws were continually enacted to restrict the opportunities of African-Americans, to bar them from many trades and professions, to regulate where they could live and what they could do. Laws were also passed to limit contact between the races. We all know about segregated schools and restrooms and water fountains, but Jim Crow laws even forbade African-Americans and white Americans from dancing together, or playing checkers together, even in a private home.

And then there were the lynchings. Lynchings were mob executions of people accused of crimes against the community, often based on little or no evidence. The American south has a long and dark history of lynchings, dating back to before the Civil War. In those days, the victims of lynchings were often white Americans opposed to slavery. During the Civil War, white southerners were sometimes lynched on suspicion of being Union sympathizers or deserters from the Confederate Army.

By 1890, however, the victims of lynchings were almost always African-Americans. For all the legal restrictions there were on African-Americans, there were also unwritten restrictions enforced by the lynch mobs. African-Americans who dared to assert even rights they held technically on paper, could still be murdered for it. The murders not only eliminated the most outspoken of the African-American communities, but sent a chilling message to everyone else: You don't want this to happen to you, now, do you?

To drive home that message, lynchings were frequently publicized. It was not unusual to see them announced in advance in the local newspaper, and reported on afterwards. The dead bodies of lynch victims were often photographed, and these photographs distributed on postcards. You can search online right now today, and pull up horrific photographs. Body parts of lynch victims were put on display in storefronts to make sure everyone else got the message.

One of the bloodiest lynchings of this era took place in St. Charles, Arkansas. It began on March 21, 1904. Jim Searcy, a white man, and Walker Griffin, an African-American man, were playing cards on a river dock. They got into an argument, and a fight broke out. A police officer arrested Walker Griffin, and told him he would be hanged for striking a white man. Griffin reacted by striking the police officer, stealing his gun, and fleeing the scene.

Whites from all over the area mobilized to find him. By March 23, there were men on horseback combing the area, harassing any African-Americans they encountered. Two African-American men were accosted and asked the whereabouts of Walker Griffin. The men responded that they did not know where he was, and if they did, they would certainly not be giving that information up to white men, and for their insolence they were killed. Upward of 60 African-American men, women and children were taken from their homes and imprisoned in a warehouse. That night, the mob outside the warehouse began to call for the building to be burned with the prisoners inside. Fortunately, at that point, some of the white men in the mob began calling out the names of African-Americans in the warehouse that were known to them, asking that they be spared. Others began to argue that torching the warehouse was going too far. In the end, the mob pulled six men from the warehouse and killed them. In all, 13 were killed, including Walker Griffin

and his brother Henry. No investigation was made into the murders, no one was charged, no one was tried, no one was punished. That was perhaps the worst lynching in American history, but they happened every month or so, and it would continue for the next few decades.

I've already mentioned Theodore Roosevelt's trepidation about getting elected to the presidency. Historically, no American vice president who succeeded to the office on the death of his predecessor had ever won election to the presidency in his own right. Roosevelt meant to be the first.

But he had to overcome the opposition of Mark Hanna, the Ohio political boss who had engineered William McKinley's nomination to the presidency. Hanna was now a sitting US Senator from Ohio. He's the guy who said "that damned cowboy is president now" on the news of McKinley's death. Hanna was effectively the national boss of the Republican Party, and he figured there were plenty of other Republicans who were better qualified to be president in 1904. For instance... Senator Mark Hanna?

The jockeying began in 1903, when Ohio senior Senator Joseph Foraker, no friend of Mark Hanna's, introduced a resolution at the 1903 Ohio State Republican Convention to endorse Roosevelt for reelection the following year. Hanna wanted to quash the resolution, but he needed Roosevelt's support to get nominated for another term in the Senate, so he had no choice but to let it go forward. Hanna and his supporters nominated one of their own for governor of Ohio, but allowed Foraker's faction to pick the lieutenant governor. They chose a fellow named Warren G. Harding. Hanna campaigned hard for the Republican ticket in Ohio in the fall of 1903, and the Republicans won a large victory, enhancing Hanna's stature in the party. Roosevelt, in a rather obvious ploy, asked Hanna to be his campaign manager in 1904. Hanna declined. Rumors began to circulate that Hanna would challenge Roosevelt for the Republican nomination. J.P. Morgan is said to have offered substantial financial support to a Hanna presidential campaign.

But Hanna was not going to take the presidency away from Theodore Roosevelt if the muckrakers at *McClure's Magazine* had something to say about it. Lincoln Steffens, whose beat was political corruption, set to work on a Mark Hanna exposé, detailing how Hanna had become involved in politics mostly for the sake of growing his business, and how he used campaign contributions and outright bribery, first at the municipal level, and then at the state level, and then at the national level, to make himself a \$7 million fortune. That was a lot of money back then. Along the way, Steffens warned, Hanna had gotten powerful enough to make a president. Now, he wanted to *be* a president.

As it turned out, though, Lincoln Steffens' piece would not be published, at least not in that form. The 66 year old Mark Hanna came down with typhoid fever in January 1904 and died the following month.

Hanna's death ensured that Roosevelt would be the Republican nominee for president. To appease conservatives in the party, the vice presidential nominee would be Charles Fairbanks, a senator from Indiana. Roosevelt did not want to run with Fairbanks, but judged the vice presidential nomination not important enough to fight over. The Democratic Party faced an unusual situation. For the first time in 24 years, it would nominate a presidential candidate not named Grover Cleveland or William Jennings Bryan. Both men declined to take on Roosevelt. They settled on Alton Parker, the chief judge of the New York Court of Appeals. That's the court that in any other state would be called the supreme court. Parker



was a conservative choice that alienated the progressive, pro-labor, antitrust wing of the Democratic Party. His vice presidential candidate was Henry Davis, the 80 year old retired senator from West Virginia who was, and remains to this day, the oldest person ever nominated by a major party for a national office. The Democrats nominated him because they hoped that he could carry his home state of West Virginia for the ticket. As it turned out, he couldn't.

In May of 1904, an American citizen named Ion Perdicaris was kidnapped in Morocco. The situation in Morocco had been deteriorating for some time. Back in 1894, the Sultan, Hassan, passed away, and rule of the country fell to his 16 year old son, Abdelaziz. There was a regency until 1900, but then the 22 year old began to rule on his own. His free-spending ways drained the Moroccan treasury, and he proved easy for foreign "advisors" to manipulate. This led to unrest and rebellions in the interior of the country.

Among these rebels was Mulai Ahmed er Raisuni, who is usually known to English-speakers as Raisuli for some reason. He was either a freedom fighter or a bandit chieftain, depending on who you talk to. He kidnapped Perdicaris, who was a wealthy Greek-American living in Tangier, and demanded a ransom of \$70,000 from the sultan, which was an exorbitant amount of money for the time. The Roosevelt administration was incensed, and it sent a squadron of seven US naval vessels to Morocco, although what they could actually do to resolve the crisis was not clear.

It got even more awkward in June, when the US government learned that Ion Perdicaris was not actually a US citizen. He had been born in the US, but he had renounced his citizenship and taken Greek citizenship in 1862 during the Civil War, because he owned property in South Carolina, which was liable to be seized by the Confederate government because it was owned by a US citizen. And we all know the southern rebellion was all about property rights, right? Anyways, Perdicaris took Greek citizenship in order to protect his holdings in South Carolina, and the US government found itself in the awkward position of rallying in support of an ex-US citizen who had bailed on his native country during its darkest hour. Oh well.

Theodore Roosevelt took the view that Perdicaris's Greek citizenship didn't really matter, since Raisuli had believed him to be a US citizen when he kidnapped him, and so he continued to press the matter as if Perdicaris was a US citizen. The American public would not find out about Perdicaris's citizenship status for another 25 years.

The Secretary of State, John Hay, announced the US government position to the Republican National Convention that June, declaring dramatically that "this government wants Perdicaris alive, or Raisuli dead." At the request of the US government, Britain and France pressed the sultan to pay the ransom, which he eventually did, and Perdicaris was released. During his captivity, Perdicaris said, he was treated well, and he and Raisuli had come to befriend one another. Perdicaris declared of Raisuli: "He is not a bandit, not a murderer, but a patriot forced into acts of brigandage to save his native soil and his people from the yoke of tyranny."

It sounds like something out of a Gilbert & Sullivan operetta, but it was considered deadly serious business at the time, and "Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead" became a Republican campaign slogan.

The election result was a landslide for Roosevelt. The Democrats carried all the states of the former Confederacy, plus Maryland and Kentucky. The Republican ticket prevailed everywhere else. Roosevelt was elected president by the widest margin since James Monroe's uncontested reelection back in 1820.

We'll have to stop there for today, but I hope you'll join me next week on *The History of the Twentieth Century* as we return to Paris. We'll take another look at the Paris Exposition of 1900, and we'll meet an 18 year old painter who believes himself to be the greatest painter of the 20th century. Um, he's right about that, but at this point, he's the only one who knows it. That's next week, on *The History of the Twentieth Century*.

Oh, and one more thing. In 1975, Columbia Pictures released director John Milius' film *The Wind and the Lion*, a motion picture loosely based (*very* loosely based) on the Perdicaris Affair, starring Brian Keith as Theodore Roosevelt, Sean Connery as Raisuli, and Candice Bergen as Ion Perdicaris. Well, I told you it was loose. The film's climax is a firefight between US Marines (who never actually landed in Morocco) and German soldiers (who were never actually in Morocco in the first place). Oh, Hollywood, don't ever change.

[music: Closing Theme]