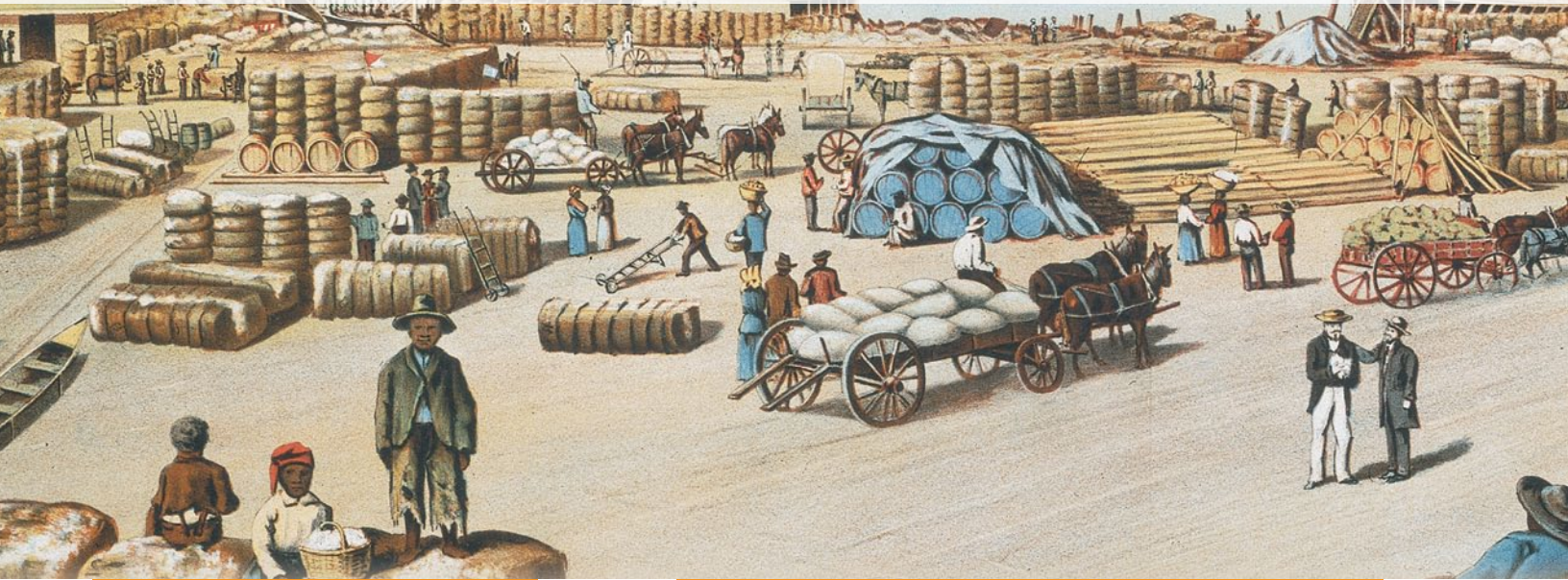


Nationalism and Sectionalism

Essential Question

Can a nation thrive when its regions have differing economic and political priorities?



About the Print: This print by Currier and Ives, titled *Levee*, illustrates the bustling activity of the Port of New Orleans. Located at the mouth of the Mississippi River, the city of New Orleans was a major center for the southern cotton trade.

In this module you will analyze how nationalism gave way to sectionalism and influenced the conflict over states' rights.

What You Will Learn . . .

Lesson 1: Regional Economies. 232

The Big Idea The North and the South developed different economic systems that led to political differences between the regions.

Lesson 2: The Rise of Nationalism 241

The Big Idea Nationalism exerted a strong influence in the courts, foreign affairs, and westward expansion in the early 1800s.

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The Big Idea Andrew Jackson's policies spoke for the common people but violated Native American rights.

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The Big Idea Andrew Jackson confronted two important issues during his presidency—states' rights and a national bank.

Lesson 5: The Market Revolution 263

The Big Idea Technological changes created greater interaction and more economic diversity among the regions of the nation.

Explore ONLINE!



HISTORY

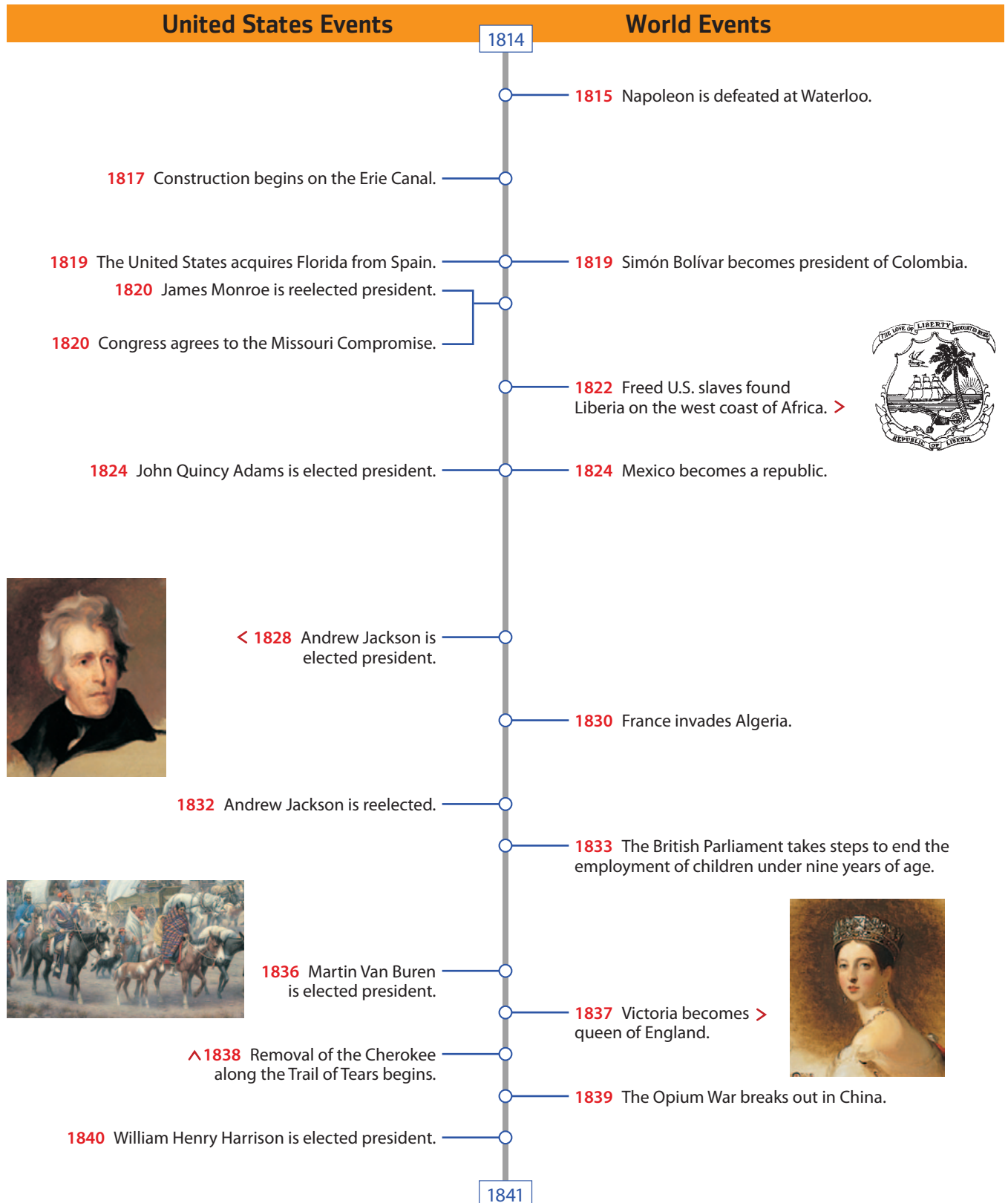
VIDEOS, including...

- James Monroe
- The Industrial Revolution
- Erie Canal
- Jackson's Personality and Legacy
- Jackson vs. the Cherokee
- Jackson vs. South Carolina
- Jackson vs. the National Bank

- ✓ Document-Based Investigations
- ✓ Graphic Organizers
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- ✓ Compare Images: Northern and Southern Farms
- ✓ Animation: The Cotton Gin

Timeline of Events 1814–1841

 Explore ONLINE!



Regional Economies

The Big Idea

The North and the South developed different economic systems that led to political differences between the regions.

Why It Matters Now

Different regions of the country continue to have differing political and economic interests today.

Key Terms and People

Eli Whitney
interchangeable parts
mass production
Industrial Revolution
cotton gin
Henry Clay
American System
National Road
Erie Canal
Tariff of 1816

One American's Story

In a dramatic presentation in front of President John Adams in 1801, inventor **Eli Whitney** demonstrated the first musket made of **interchangeable parts**, parts that are exactly alike. He assembled a musket from pieces chosen at random from crates full of parts. Whitney had made his musket parts the old-fashioned way, by hand. Nonetheless, his efforts were the first steps toward developing tools with which unskilled workers could make uniform parts.

“One of my primary objects is to form the tools so the tools themselves shall fashion the work and give to every part its just proportion—which when once accomplished will give expedition, uniformity, and exactness to the whole. . . . In short, the tools which I contemplate are similar to an engraving on copper plate from which may be taken a great number of impressions exactly alike.”

—Eli Whitney, quoted in *Eli Whitney and the Birth of American Technology*



In 1798 Eli Whitney manufactured 10,000 muskets in just two years. At that time, arms factories could produce only around 300 guns a year.

Better tools sped up the manufacture of goods and improved their reliability. Inventions and ideas such as these would affect different regions of the young nation in different ways.

Another Revolution Affects America

During the 19th century, new approaches to manufacturing, such as Eli Whitney's interchangeable parts, took industry out of American households and artisans' workshops. Factories became the new centers of industry. The factory system (using power-driven machinery and laborers assigned to different tasks) made **mass production**—the production of goods in large quantities—possible. These changes in manufacturing brought about an **Industrial Revolution**—social and economic reorganization that took place as machines replaced hand tools and large-scale factory production developed.

GREAT BRITAIN STARTS A REVOLUTION The Industrial Revolution actually first began in Great Britain. It was in Britain, during the 18th century, that inventors came up with ways to generate power using swiftly flowing streams and bountiful supplies of coal. Inventors then developed power-driven machinery and ways to use this machinery to quickly mass-produce goods such as textiles. British merchants built the first factories. When these factories prospered, their owners had the money to build more factories, invent more labor-saving machines, and industrialize the nation.

One reason Great Britain was able to industrialize was because it possessed all the necessary factors of production. First, it had sufficient land and resources to support industry. Britain had sufficient deposits of coal and enough rivers to power the factories built there, plus raw wool, iron, and other materials to be refined. Second, it had a large enough labor force to keep the factories running. This labor force included not only the workers in the factory itself—many of whom were uneducated and untrained. It also included technicians, builders, and supervisors—positions that required a fair amount of expertise. Third, British industrialists could provide the capital needed. Capital refers to money and materials needed to run a business: tools, machines, storage spaces, and so on. The final factor of production was the industrialists themselves, people with the imagination, drive, and courage to take a risk beginning a new enterprise. Without these daring individuals, the Industrial Revolution could not have taken place.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN THE UNITED STATES Like Britain, the United States had all the factors of production necessary for industrialization. What it did not yet have was a spark. The primary source of income in America after the War of Independence was trade, not manufacturing. Farms and plantations produced agricultural products such as grain and tobacco, which were shipped to Great Britain, southern Europe, and the West Indies.

However, two events—the passage of President Thomas Jefferson's Embargo Act of 1807 and the War of 1812—turned the attention of Americans toward the development of domestic industries. Jefferson's embargo, which prohibited Americans from shipping goods to Europe, brought to a standstill the once-thriving foreign trade. In fact, by the time Congress repealed the act in 1809, many shipping centers—especially those in New England—had shut down.

Then, just as these seaports recovered, the War of 1812 broke out, and the British navy blockaded much of the coastline. With ships unable to get into or out of U.S. harbors, Americans had to invest their capital in ventures other than overseas shipping. Some chose to build factories, and the Industrial Revolution began in America.

NEW ENGLAND INDUSTRIALIZES Probably nowhere else in the nation was the push to invest in industry as great as in New England. There, citizens had depended heavily upon shipping and foreign trade for income. Agriculture in the region was not highly profitable.

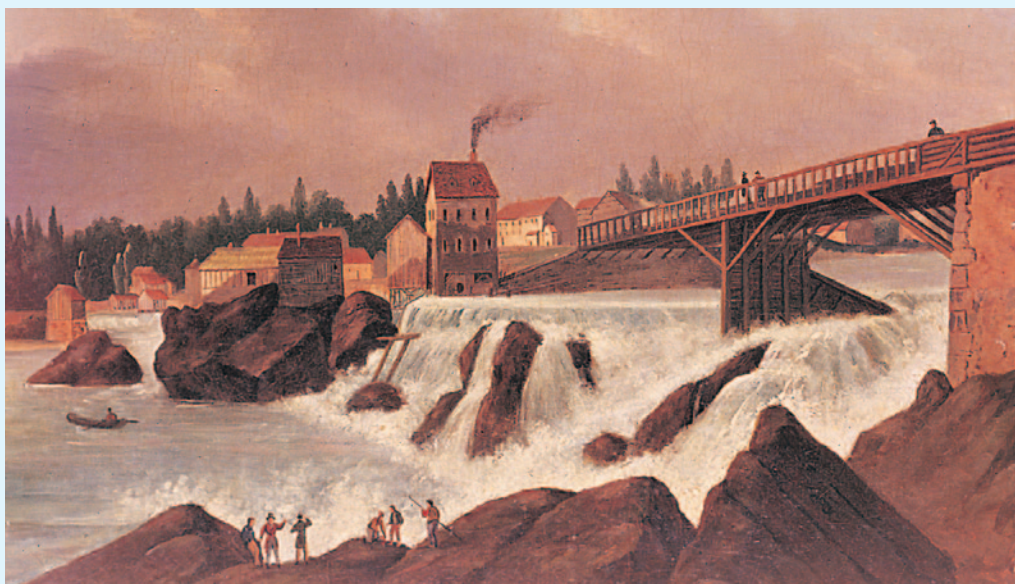
In 1793 a British immigrant named Samuel Slater had established in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, the first successful mechanized textile factory in America. However, Slater's factory and those modeled after it still only mass-produced one part of the textile, or finished cloth: thread.

Then, in 1813, three Bostonians revolutionized the American textile industry by mechanizing all the stages in the manufacture of cloth. Using plans from an English mill, Francis Cabot Lowell, Nathan Appleton, and Patrick Tracy Jackson built a weaving factory in Waltham, Massachusetts, and outfitted it with power machinery. By 1822 Appleton and Jackson had made enough money to build a larger operation. The changes that their factory triggered in the town of Lowell—named for their deceased partner, Francis Cabot Lowell—exemplify the changes wrought by the Industrial Revolution. By the

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

Slater's Mill

This painting from around 1790 shows Samuel Slater's mill, the first cotton mill in the United States. The mill, located in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, drew its power from the Blackstone River.



Analyze Historical Sources

How does this painting illustrate the changing nature of the American economy in the 1790s?

Reading Check

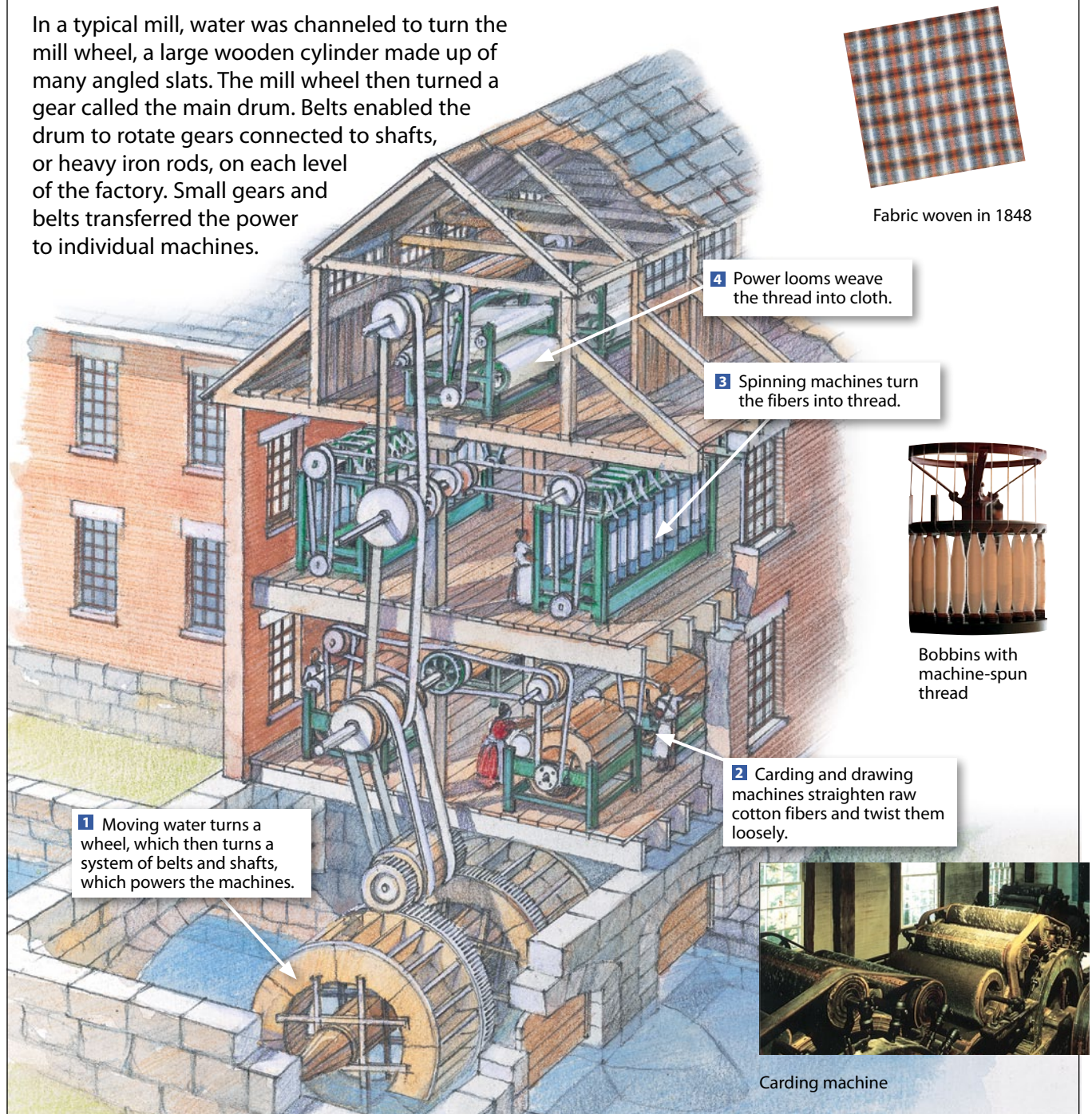
Summarize How did manufacturing develop in New England?

late 1820s quiet little Lowell had become a booming manufacturing center. Thousands of people—mostly young women who came to Lowell because their families' farms were in decline—journeyed there in search of work.

In the years that followed, more factories like the one at Lowell appeared throughout the North, especially in New England. Such factories were usually located along rivers, which provided the power used to drive industry. They helped turn New England into the industrial heart of the United States.

A New England Textile Mill

In a typical mill, water was channeled to turn the mill wheel, a large wooden cylinder made up of many angled slats. The mill wheel then turned a gear called the main drum. Belts enabled the drum to rotate gears connected to shafts, or heavy iron rods, on each level of the factory. Small gears and belts transferred the power to individual machines.



Two Economic Systems Develop

Northeasterners, prompted by changing economic conditions, invested their capital in factories and manufacturing operations. Cash crops did not grow well in the northern soil and climate. The fertile soil and climate of the South, on the other hand, were ideal for growing profitable crops, including cotton. With the invention of the cotton gin, southerners had begun to reap huge profits from cotton by the mid-1790s. Therefore the South had little incentive to industrialize further. As a result, the North and the South continued to develop two distinct economies, including very different agricultural systems.

AGRICULTURE IN THE NORTH The North had not eliminated agriculture. However, the type of land and the growth of cities in the North encouraged farmers to cultivate smaller farms than southerners did, and to grow crops that did not require much labor to flourish.

Farmers in the North usually started out growing only what their families needed. Then farming practices in the Old Northwest—the area north of the Ohio River, encompassing what is now the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan—diverged from farming practices in the Northeast. As cities grew, farmers in the Old Northwest discovered that they could raise one or two types of crops or livestock (corn and cattle, for example), and sell what they produced at city markets. They could then purchase from stores whatever else they needed. Such grain crops as corn did not require much labor to grow, nor were they hugely profitable, so there was little demand for slaves. In the Northeast, farms were even smaller than those in the Northwest, so here too there was little demand for slavery.

By the late 1700s slavery in the North was dying out. Farmers had little economic motivation to use slaves as workers. Also, an increasing number of northerners began to voice their religious and political opposition to slavery. Consequently, by 1804 almost all of the northern states had voluntarily abolished slavery.

NOW & THEN

Agriculture and Migration

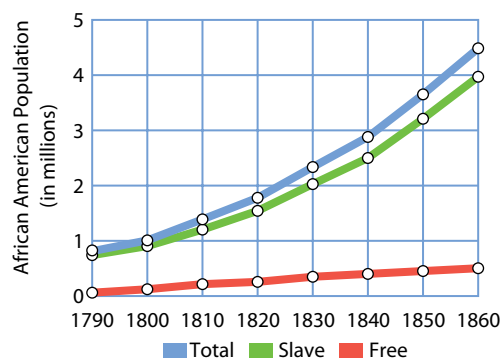
Changes in agricultural technology often cause large population movements. In the early 1800s the cotton gin led to a mass movement of planters and slaves into Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Mechanical cotton pickers replaced huge communities of field hands in the 1930s. Many of the suddenly jobless laborers were African Americans, who then migrated from rural to urban areas in search of work.

Today's agricultural technology enables farmers to plant and grow crops with fewer workers than in the past, but many hands are still needed at harvest time. The United States has about half a million migrant agricultural workers. Whole



families may move seasonally following the harvest. Children of migrant workers often help in the fields at peak harvest times.

African American Population in the United States, 1790–1860



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Negro Population: 1790–1915*.

Interpret Graphs

1. About how many African American slaves were in the United States in 1860?
2. How do the number of free African Americans and the number of slaves compare from 1790 to 1860?

COTTON IS KING IN THE SOUTH The growth of agriculture in the South was a different story from its development in the rest of the country. With its long, hot summers, the South provided an ideal environment for growing a number of crops, including cotton—suddenly in high demand because of industrialization in the textile industry.

In the late 1700s few southerners grew cotton. Although the crop was valuable, separating cotton seeds from the fluffy cotton fibers was slow and expensive. Eli Whitney's invention of a **cotton gin** (short for "cotton engine") in 1793, however, had helped to change the South's course of development. Short-staple (or short-fiber) cotton was easier to grow but harder to clean than long-staple cotton. Whitney's gin made it possible for southern farmers to grow short-staple cotton for a profit. Workers who previously could clean only one pound of cotton per day could now, using the gin, clean as much as fifty pounds per day. Cotton production increased from three thousand bales in 1790 to more than two million bales in 1850.

Cotton was in great demand in Britain and, increasingly, in the North. Consequently, an efficient machine for cleaning the seeds from short-staple cotton proved a major breakthrough. Armed with the cotton gin, poor, nonslaveholding farmers quickly claimed land in the area between the Appalachians and the Mississippi south of the Ohio to begin cultivating this cash-producing crop. Wealthier planters followed, bought up huge areas of land, and then put an enormous slave labor force to work cultivating it. By 1820 this plantation system of farming had transformed Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama into a booming Cotton Kingdom. In this way, the cotton gin accelerated the expansion of slavery.

Economically, the southern plantation was in many ways similar to the northern industrial mill. Each depended on the mass production of a single commodity—manufactured goods in the North and crops in the South. In each case, a wealthy owner reaped the profits from the sale of that commodity but was largely uninvolved in its production, which was carried out by laborers. However, the nature of those laborers differed between the two regions.

SLAVERY BECOMES ENTRENCHED Although slave importation had declined during the American Revolution, by the 1820s the demand for slaves had begun to grow. Increases in cotton production and increases in the number of slaves owned paralleled each other. From 1790 to 1810, cotton production surged from 3,000 bales a year to 178,000 bales, while the number of slaves in the South leapt from 700,000 to 1,200,000. By 1808 slave traders had brought 250,000 additional Africans to the United States. That equaled the number that had been brought to the mainland American colonies between 1619 and 1776.

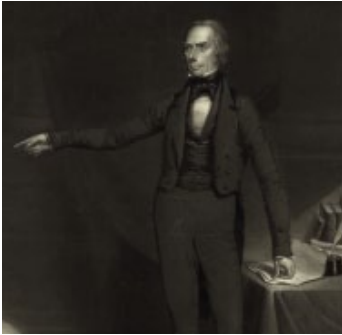
Reading Check

Contrast How were the agricultural systems of the North and South different?

Clay Proposes the American System

As the North and South developed different economies, the creation of a plan to unify the nation became increasingly important. Swept up in a wave of patriotic fervor after the War of 1812, President Madison presented such a plan to Congress in 1815. He hoped his agenda would both unite the different regions of the country and create a strong, stable economy that would make the nation self-sufficient. His plan included three major points:

- developing transportation systems and other internal improvements
- establishing a protective tariff
- resurrecting the national bank (established during Washington's administration but reduced in influence under Jefferson)



Henry Clay

The plan held promise. Recognizing this, even former critics of the president—including **Henry Clay** and John C. Calhoun—rallied behind it. House Speaker Henry Clay began to promote it as the **American System**.

As Clay explained it, the American System would unite the nation's economic interests. An increasingly industrial North would produce the manufactured goods that farmers in the South and West would buy. Meanwhile, a predominantly agricultural South and West would produce most of the grain, meat, and cotton needed in the North. A nationally accepted currency and improved transportation network would facilitate

the exchange of goods. With each part of the country sustaining the other, Americans would finally be economically independent of Britain and other European nations.

ERIE CANAL AND OTHER INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS For people in different regions to do business with one another and for the economy to grow, they had to communicate, travel, and transport goods. The first steam locomotive in the United States was built in 1825. Railroads offered several advantages over existing modes of transport; they were fast, could cross almost any terrain, and worked in any weather. Most transportation, however, was still accomplished using roads and canals. Eventually, better roads and canals would lower costs. But in the short run, they would cost money.

Many states built turnpikes, which paid for themselves through the collection of tolls paid by users who, literally, turned a pike (or spiked pole) to continue their journey along the road. At the same time the federal government experimented with funding highways, which would connect different regions by land. Construction of the **National Road** began in 1811. By 1838 the new road extended from Cumberland, Maryland, to Vandalia, Illinois.

One of the most impressive projects, the **Erie Canal**, stretched 363 miles. The "Big Ditch," as it was called, took eight years to dig. By 1825 it linked the Hudson River to Lake Erie—or, in effect, the Atlantic to the Great Lakes. For the first time, goods could be shipped by boat from the East Coast to areas far inland. Because of its location near the canal, New York City became the busiest port in the country. Shipping goods by boat cost a fraction of what it cost to ship them overland, and the canal was immediately busy. Within 12 years, canal tolls had completely paid for its construction. In their rush to make similar profits, other states built over 3,000 miles of canals by 1837.

TARIFFS AND THE NATIONAL BANK Why were the tariffs on imports proposed by Madison and promoted by Clay necessary? Ever since the end of the War of 1812, British goods such as iron and textiles—stockpiled during the war—were sold far below the cost of American-made merchandise. Consequently, few bought the more expensive American products. Placing a tariff on imports would increase the cost of foreign goods and thereby eliminate their price advantage. Moreover, tariff revenues would help pay for internal improvements, such as roads, canals, and lighthouses. For these reasons, President James Madison proposed the **Tariff of 1816**.

Most northeasterners welcomed protective tariffs with relief. However, people in the South and West, whose livelihoods did not depend on manufacturing, were not as eager to tax European imports. They resented any government intervention that would make goods more expensive. Nevertheless, Clay, who was from the West (Kentucky), and Calhoun, a southerner from South Carolina, managed to sway congressmen from their regions to approve the Tariff of 1816 in the national interest.

Attitudes toward the proposed Second Bank of the United States (BUS) were less divided. After the first Bank of the United States dissolved, the only financial institutions in the country were privately owned banks. These banks performed several important functions. They granted loans, allowing people

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Major Roads, Canals, and Railroads, 1840



to buy land and tools. Such loans helped finance many of the developments of the Industrial Revolution. Banks also issued currency in the form of bank notes, paper slips that could be redeemed for gold and silver. However, this currency was not universal. Each bank issued its own notes, which could only be redeemed at that bank. In addition, many banks, calculating that most people would never try to redeem their notes for gold, issued more notes than they had gold to back. These unscrupulous practices led many banks to fail.

By 1815 most leaders agreed that a national bank would benefit all. The Second Bank would make available a currency guaranteed to be accepted nationwide. It would be easier for people in different regions to do business with one another. A national bank would also be able to lend money to smaller banks in times of emergency to keep them from failing. In practice, this would give the national bank some regulatory control over smaller banks, thus helping prevent economic crises. In 1816 Congress chartered the Second Bank of the United States for a 20-year period.

A NEW NATIONAL SPIRIT By the time the Second Bank was chartered, people were pleased with the way the country was developing. They had witnessed huge technological leaps, including the birth of industrialism and the beginning of a network of canals that promised to change the country's economy forever. Such advances made Americans believe that the country had a bright future full of endless possibility. This optimism gave birth to the idea of the American Dream, the notion that any individual could improve his or her life through his or her own efforts. The creation of the national bank furthered that dream. With credit from the bank, Americans could buy land, open businesses, or work to change their lives for the better.

The new national spirit was also reflected in politics. In 1816 Americans elected James Monroe of Virginia as president. Soon after his inauguration in 1817, Monroe took a goodwill tour of New England, receiving a warm welcome in Boston. The idea of a Republican from Virginia being welcomed in a northern Federalist stronghold impressed the nation. The Boston *Columbian Centinel* declared that Americans had entered an "Era of Good Feelings."

Reading Check

Summarize What was the intention of the American System?

Lesson 1 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Use a two-column chart to compare the agricultural and manufacturing systems of the North and the South.

Economies	
North	South
Agriculture	Agriculture
Manufacturing	Manufacturing

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.
3. **Analyze Effects** What shifts in population might be attributed to advances in technology and changes in regional economies during the Industrial Revolution? Support your answer with examples from the text.

Think About:

- the industrialization of New England
 - agricultural changes in the South
 - improvements in internal transportation systems
4. **Compare** How were the northern mill system and the southern plantation system economically similar?
 5. **Synthesize** How was the American System expected to unite the nation's economic interests? Provide several examples.
 6. **Predict** Do you think the invention of the railroad would hasten or slow the construction of new roads and canals? Why?

The Rise of Nationalism

The Big Idea

Nationalism exerted a strong influence in the courts, foreign affairs, and westward expansion in the early 1800s.

Why It Matters Now

Nationalism continues to affect such decisions as whether we should involve the country in foreign conflicts and what limits can be placed on business, communications, and trade.

Key Terms and People

McCulloch v. Maryland

John Quincy Adams

nationalism

Adams-Onís Treaty

Monroe Doctrine

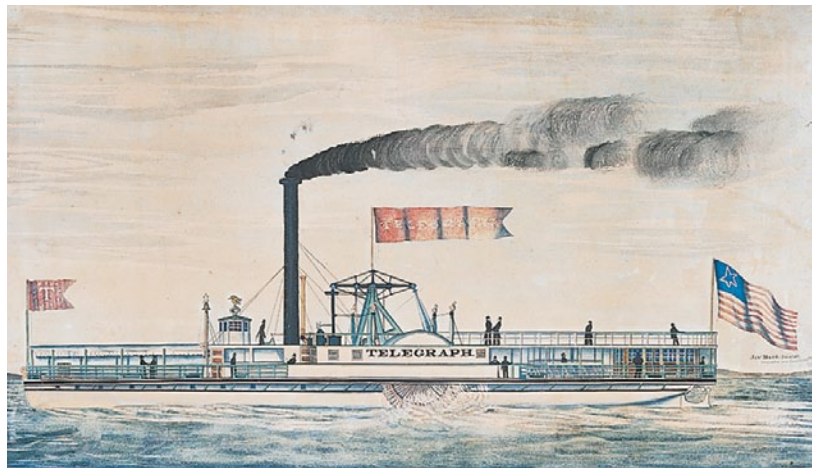
Missouri Compromise

One American's Story

In 1807 Robert Fulton's boat, the *Clermont*, propelled by a steam engine, cruised the 150 miles up the Hudson River from New York City to Albany in 32 hours. This successful demonstration marked the beginning of the steamboat era. Within a year, Fulton rebuilt the ship to be larger and more ornate. The new *Clermont* was so luxurious that it had a wood-paneled dining room and private bedrooms. Fulton posted regulations on his opulent steamboat.

"As the steamboat has been fitted up in an elegant style, order is necessary to keep it so; gentlemen will therefore please to observe cleanliness, and a reasonable attention not to injure the furniture; for this purpose no one must sit on a table under the penalty of half a dollar each time, and every breakage of tables, chairs, sofas, or windows, tearing of curtains, or injury of any kind must be paid for before leaving the boat."

—Robert Fulton, quoted in *Steamboats Come True: American Inventors in Action*



Like Fulton's *Clermont*, the *Telegraph* was a 19th-century steamboat.

Steamboats carried freight as well as passengers. This new method of transportation spread quickly to the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. For the next 20 years, the steamboat was one factor that helped to unite the economic life of the North and the South. It thus contributed to the growing national spirit.

The Supreme Court Boosts National Power

In 1808 Robert Fulton and Robert Livingston received a charter from the New York legislature. The charter gave them the exclusive right to run steamboats on rivers in that state. They were granted a monopoly (exclusive legal control of a commercial activity). They profited from the charter by charging steamboat operators for licenses to operate on various stretches of river.

One of these operators was Aaron Ogden. Ogden was licensed by Fulton and Livingston under the laws of New York State to run his steamship line between New York and New Jersey. Ogden believed that he was the only operator legally entitled to run a steamboat service on that stretch of the Hudson. Then Thomas Gibbons began to run a similar service in the same area. He claimed that he was entitled to do so according to federal law. Ogden took Gibbons to court to stop him. However, in 1824 the Supreme Court ruled that interstate commerce could be regulated only by the federal government. In other words, Ogden's "exclusive" right granted by New York was not legal, since the route crossed state lines.

More important, the *Gibbons v. Ogden* decision clarified that Congress had authority over interstate commerce. This clarification helped to ensure that the federal government has the power to regulate just about everything that crosses state lines. In modern life, that authority means everything from air traffic to television and radio waves to interstate cellular communications. In addition, this decision led to future rulings favoring competition over monopolies. In this way, nationalism exerted a strong influence on the legal system.

STRENGTHENING GOVERNMENT ECONOMIC CONTROL In *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819), as in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, Chief Justice John Marshall had also guided the Supreme Court to a ruling that strengthened the federal government's control over the economy. The Court's ruling also supported the national government over the state governments.

Maryland had levied a heavy tax on the local branch of the Bank of the United States, hoping to make it fail. Marshall declared that if this were allowed, states would in effect be overturning laws passed by Congress. The Chief Justice denied the right of Maryland to tax the Bank, stating that "the power to tax is the power to destroy." He declared the Bank of the United States constitutional.

LIMITING STATE POWERS Under Chief Justice Marshall, the Supreme Court made several rulings that blocked state interference in business and commerce. Sometimes this meant overturning existing state law. In *Fletcher v. Peck* (1810), for example, the Court nullified a Georgia law that had violated individuals' constitutional right to enter into contracts. In the *Dartmouth College v. Woodward* (1819) decision, the Court declared that the state of New Hampshire could not revise the original charter it had granted to the college's trustees in colonial times. A charter was a contract, the Court said, and the Constitution did not permit states to interfere with contracts.

Reading Check

Summarize In what ways did the Supreme Court boost federal power?

Nationalism Shapes Foreign Policy

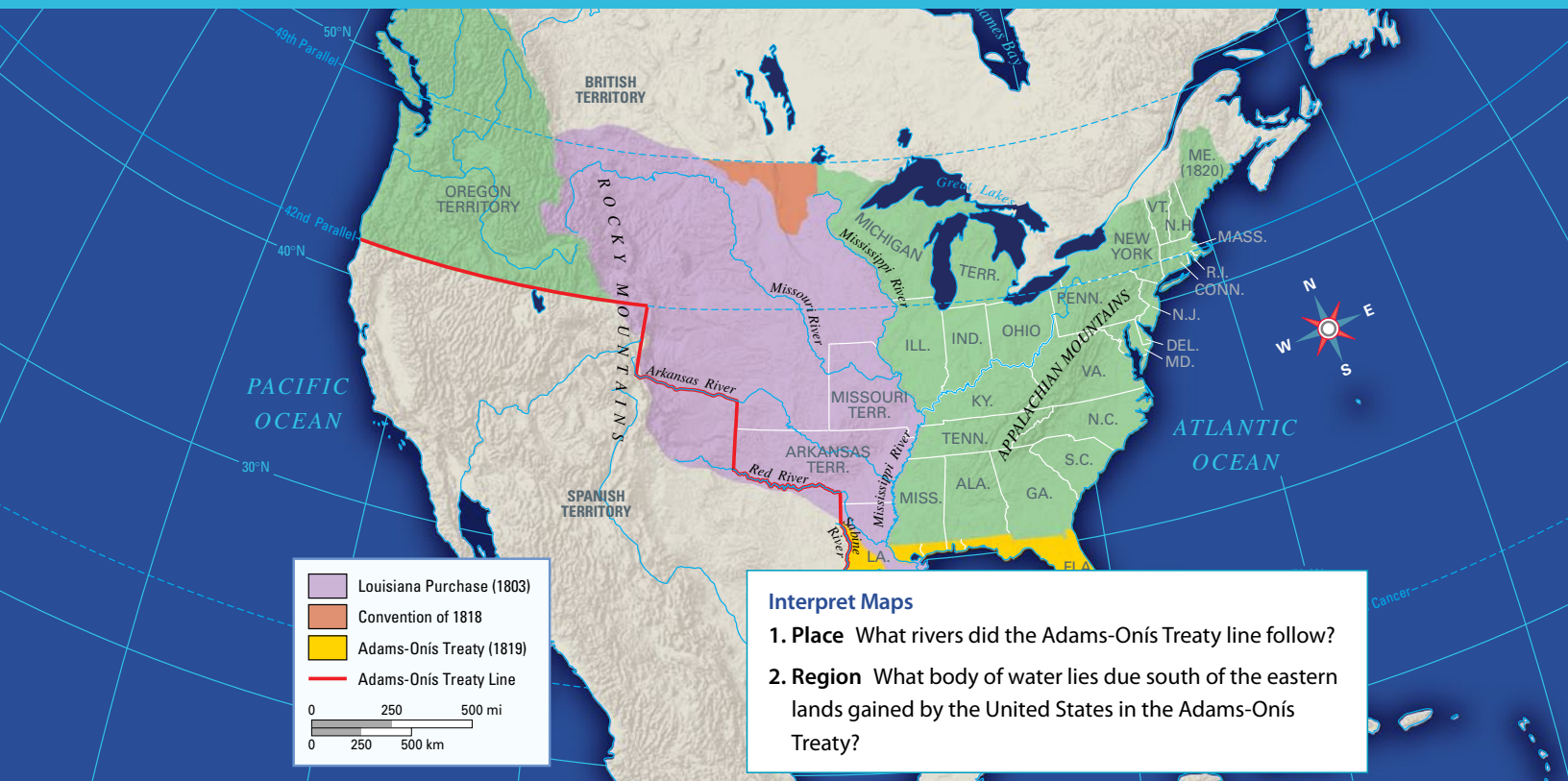
Chief Justice Marshall led the Supreme Court to decisions that increased the power of the federal government over the state government. At the same time, Secretary of State **John Quincy Adams** established foreign policy guided by **nationalism**. Nationalism is the belief that national interests should be placed ahead of regional concerns or the interests of other countries.

TERRITORY AND BOUNDARIES Working under President James Monroe, Adams prioritized the security of the nation and expansion of its territory. To further these interests, Adams forged a treaty with Great Britain to reduce the Great Lakes fleets of both countries to only a few military vessels. The Rush-Bagot Treaty (1817) eventually led the United States and Canada to completely demilitarize their common border. Adams also arranged the Convention of 1818, which fixed the U.S.-Canada border at the 49th parallel up to the Rocky Mountains. Finally, he reached a compromise with Britain to jointly occupy the Oregon Territory, the territory west of the Rockies, for ten years.

There remained one outstanding piece of business. Most Americans assumed that Spanish Florida would eventually become part of the United States. By 1819 Spain was too weak to police its New World territories. It ceded Florida to the United States in the **Adams-Onís Treaty** and gave up its claims to the Oregon Territory.

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U.S. Boundary Settlements, 1803–1819



James Monroe (1758–1831)

By the time he became president, James Monroe had been a soldier, a governor, and a senator. He was a skilled diplomat—appropriate for a president whose claim to fame was a statement of foreign policy. A negotiator of the Louisiana Purchase, Monroe served at various times as minister to France, Great Britain, and Spain.

As president, Monroe helped usher in a period known as the Era of Good Feelings. He dreamed of eliminating petty government squabbles, hoping to rid the country of political parties. Unfortunately for Monroe, bitter sectional debates dominated much of his administration.



THE MONROE DOCTRINE In 1815 an alliance of European powers, including Spain and Portugal, defeated Napoleon, the French emperor who had conquered much of Europe. With the French defeated, the Spanish and Portuguese wanted to reclaim their former colonies in Latin America. Meanwhile, the Russians, who had been in Alaska since 1784, were establishing trading posts in what is now California.

With Spain and Portugal trying to move back into their old colonial areas, and with Russia pushing in from the northwest, the United States knew it had to do something. Many Americans were interested in acquiring northern Mexico and the Spanish colony of Cuba. They also wanted to expand American economic interests into South America. They did not wish to see European powers bringing military forces into these areas. Moreover, the Russian action posed a threat to American trade with China, which brought huge profits. In addition, many Americans—less than 50 years after winning their own independence—were socially opposed to the establishment of new colonies in the Americas.

Hence, in his 1823 message to Congress, President Monroe warned all outside powers not to interfere with affairs in the Western Hemisphere. They should not attempt to create new colonies, he said, or try to overthrow the newly independent republics in the hemisphere. The United States would consider such action “dangerous to our peace and safety.” At the same time, the United States would not involve itself in European affairs. It would not interfere with existing colonies in the Western Hemisphere. These principles became known as the **Monroe Doctrine**.

The Monroe Doctrine was a bold expression of nationalism. The president had declared his intention to defend American interests, even if it meant taking on the powerful nations of Europe. Without a powerful army or navy, though, the United States lacked the ability to enforce Monroe’s new policies. However, Monroe’s speech won strong support from Great Britain, which did have a navy strong enough to take action.

Reading Check
Synthesize How did
the foreign policies
of John Quincy
Adams and James
Monroe serve national
interests?

This British support was largely the result of complicated European geopolitics, or the interplay of geography, economics, and politics. The British government had no interest in seeing its rival, Spain, regain land and resources in South America. In addition, British industrialists viewed the new South American republics as potential markets for their products. As a result, the British were happy to assist American efforts to keep other European powers out of the Western Hemisphere. This partnership laid the foundation for a long-standing alliance between the United States and Great Britain.

Nationalism Pushes America West

While presidents Adams and Monroe established policies that expanded U.S. territory, American settlers pushed into the Northwest Territory. In present-day Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan, settlers turned lush prairies into farms and waterfronts into city centers.



Jim Beckwourth

EXPANSION TO THE WEST While some settlers went west to escape debts or even the law, most pushed westward in search of economic gain. Land was not only plentiful and fertile but cheap. There were also social gains to be made. For example, one could change occupations more easily on the frontier. Jim Beckwourth (1798–1867), the son of a white man and an African American woman, ventured westward with a fur-trading expedition in 1823. He lived among the Crow, who gave him the name “Bloody Arm” because of his skill as a fighter. Later he served as an Army scout. In California in 1850, he settled down and became a rancher, yet this was not his last occupation.

“In the spring of 1852 I established myself in Beckwourth Valley, and finally found myself transformed into a hotel-keeper and chief of a trading-post. My house is considered the emigrant’s landing-place, as it is the first ranch he arrives at in the golden state, and is the only house between this point and Salt Lake. Here is a valley two hundred and forty miles in circumference, containing some of the choicest land in the world.”

—Jim Beckwourth, quoted in *The Life and Adventures of James P. Beckwourth*

Westward expansion changed the political nature of the country. As Americans moved west, they organized into territories. When a territory’s population reached about 60,000, the people of the territory could petition the Union for admission. They could draft a state constitution, elect representatives, and become part of the United States, once Congress approved. With statehood came the right to vote in national elections. By 1818 the United States had grown to 22 states, and the voting population had grown accordingly.

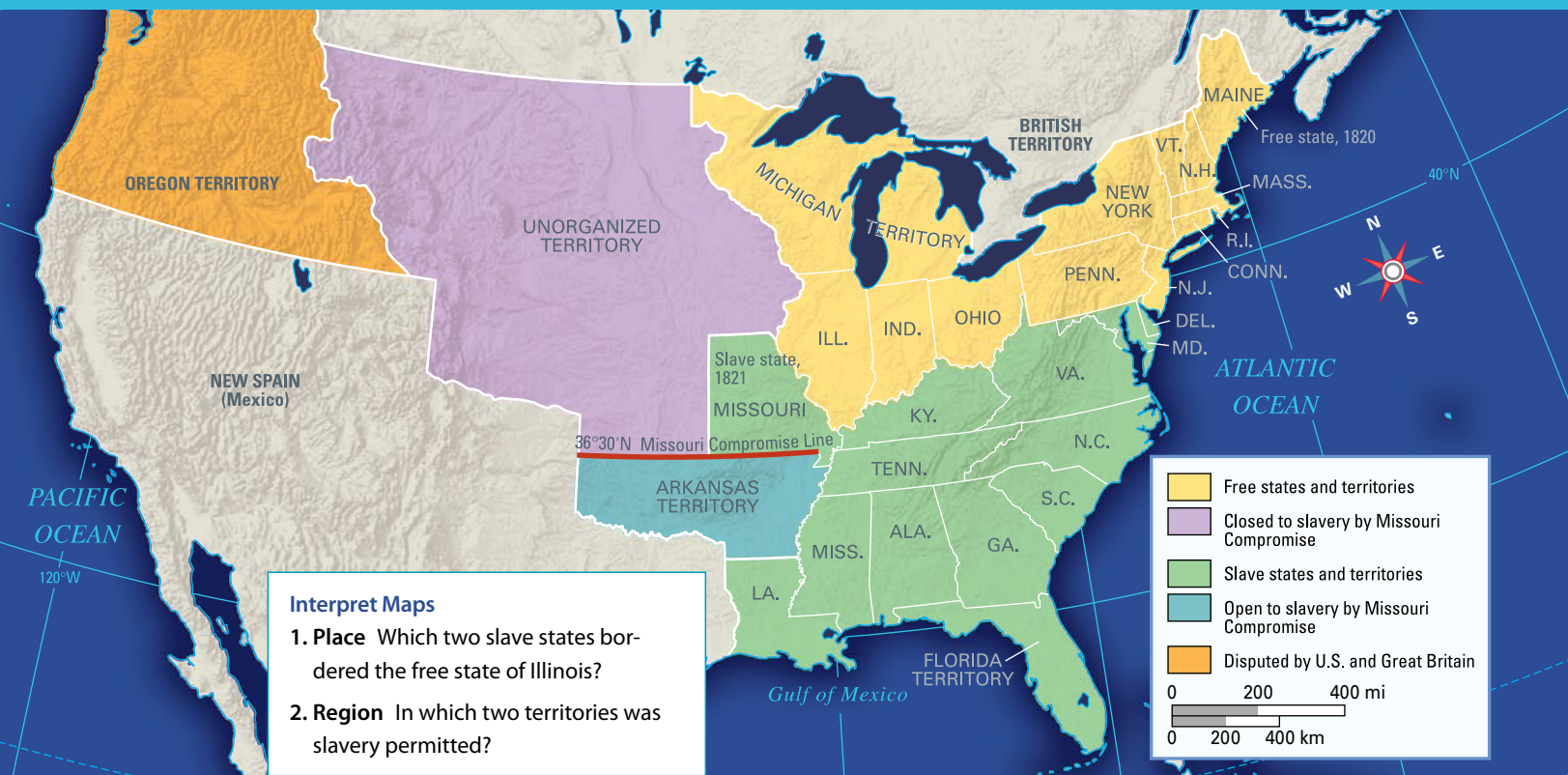
THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE By 1819 nearly 100,000 people had settled in Missouri. However, when settlers there requested admission into the Union, conflict arose. In Missouri the new spirit of nationalism was challenged by an issue that had previously confronted the framers of the Constitution. That issue was the question of slavery.

Until 1818 the United States had consisted of ten free and ten slave states. The government admitted Illinois as the eleventh free state in 1818. Southerners then expected that Missouri would become the eleventh slave state, thereby maintaining the balance between free states and slave states in Congress. However, New York Congressman James Tallmadge amended the Missouri statehood bill to require Missouri to gradually free its slaves, a bill that passed the House. Southerners, perceiving a threat to their power, blocked the bill's passage in the Senate. As arguments raged, Alabama was then admitted to the Union as a slave state. With 11 free to 11 slave states, Missouri's status became crucial to the delicate balance.

The slaveholding states claimed that northerners were trying to end slavery. Northerners accused southerners of plotting to extend the institution into new territories. Hostilities became so intense that at times people on both sides even mentioned civil war and the end of the Union. Indeed, the issues that came to light during these debates foreshadowed the war to come. "We have the wolf by the ears," wrote the aging Thomas Jefferson of this crisis, "and we can neither hold him, nor safely let him go."

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The Missouri Compromise, 1820–1821



Under the leadership of Henry Clay, however, Congress managed to temporarily resolve the crisis. The series of agreements were collectively called the **Missouri Compromise**. Maine was admitted as a free state and Missouri as a slave state, thus preserving the sectional balance in the Senate. The rest of the Louisiana Territory was split into two spheres of interest, one for slaveholders and one for free settlers. The dividing line was set at 36° 30' north latitude. South of the line, slavery was legal. North of the line—except in Missouri—slavery was banned.

Despite this peaceful resolution, many Americans feared for the Union's future after the Missouri Compromise. Among them was Thomas Jefferson, who wrote of his concerns to Congressman John Holmes of Maine. Jefferson's words would prove prophetic.

"This momentous question, like a firebell in the night, awakened and filled me with terror. I considered it at once as the knell of the Union. It is hushed, indeed, for the moment. But this is a reprieve only, not a final sentence."

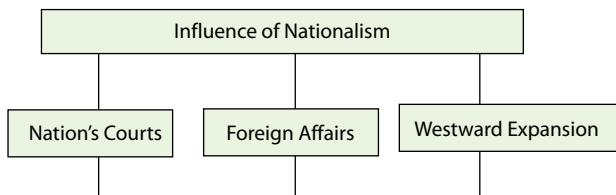
—Thomas Jefferson, from a letter to John Holmes, April 22, 1820

Despite the fears of some Americans, President Monroe signed the Missouri Compromise in 1820. For a generation, the problem of slavery in federal territories seemed settled. This was not, however, the last time that the issue would arise, and future politicians would find compromise to be a more elusive prospect.

Reading Check
Summarize What were the terms of the Missouri Compromise?

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Use a graphic organizer to record historical examples that illustrate the influence of nationalism.



2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.
3. **Make Inferences** What short- and long-term goals might President Monroe have had in mind when he formulated the Monroe Doctrine in 1823? Support your answer.

Think About:

- European nations' presence in the Western Hemisphere
- people's political, economic, military, and social concerns
- the influence of nationalism on foreign policy
- westward expansion

4. **Synthesize** What agreements did Congress reach that are regarded collectively as the Missouri Compromise? Why were they important at the time?
5. **Evaluate** From what you know about the Missouri Compromise and the controversy that preceded it, do you think the new spirit of nationalism in the United States was strong or fragile? Support your opinion.

The Age of Jackson

The Big Idea

Andrew Jackson's policies spoke for the common people but violated Native American rights.

Why It Matters Now

The effects of land losses and persecution faced by Native Americans in the 1800s continue to be reflected in their legal struggles today.

Key Terms and People

Andrew Jackson
Democratic-Republican Party
spoils system
Indian Removal Act
Trail of Tears

One American's Story

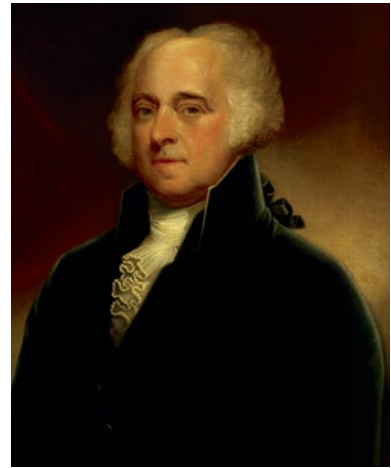
The era of the leaders who had founded the nation passed with Adams's and Jefferson's deaths in 1826. During an extended conversation with John Adams in 1776, Thomas Jefferson had tried to convince him to draft the Declaration of Independence.

"[Adams] said 'I will not.' . . .

*'What can be your reasons?'
'Reason first—You are a Virginian, and a Virginian ought to appear at the head of this business. Reason second—I am obnoxious, suspected, and unpopular. You are very much otherwise. Reason third—You can write ten times better than I can.'*

'Well,' said Jefferson, 'if you are decided, I will do as well as I can.'"

—John Adams, quoted in *John Adams: A Biography in His Own Words*



This Gilbert Stuart portrait of John Adams was begun in 1798, when Adams was 63.

Thus began a mutual regard that would last for 50 years. On July 4, 1826, exactly 50 years after the delegates approved the Declaration of Independence, both men died. Now the presidency belonged to another generation.

Background

The Battle of New Orleans in 1815 made Jackson a national hero. The British attacked Jackson's forces at New Orleans in January 1815. American riflemen mowed down advancing British forces. American casualties totaled 71, compared to Britain's 7,000.

Reading Check

Draw Conclusions

How might reducing property requirements for voting have affected political campaigns?

Expanding Democracy Changes Politics

When John Adams died, his son John Quincy Adams was in the second year of his single term as president. He had succeeded James Monroe as president but was not effective as the nation's chief executive. The principal reason was **Andrew Jackson**, his chief political opponent. As the winner of the Battle of New Orleans during the War of 1812, Jackson was widely considered a war hero and was popular nationwide.

TENSION BETWEEN ADAMS AND JACKSON In the election of 1824, Andrew Jackson won the popular vote but lacked the majority of electoral votes. The House of Representatives had to decide the outcome, since no candidate had received a majority of the votes of the electoral college.

Because of his power in the House, Henry Clay could swing the election either way. Clay disliked Jackson personally and mistrusted his lack of political experience. "I cannot believe," Clay commented, "that killing twenty-five hundred Englishmen at New Orleans qualifies [him] for the various difficult and complicated duties of [the presidency]." Adams, on the other hand, agreed with Clay's American System. In the end, Adams was elected president by a majority of the states represented in the House.

Jacksonians, or followers of Jackson, accused Adams of stealing the presidency. When Adams appointed Clay secretary of state, the Jacksonians claimed that Adams had struck a corrupt bargain. The Jacksonians left the Republican Party to form the **Democratic-Republican Party** (the political forerunner of today's Democratic Party). They did whatever they could to sabotage Adams's policies.

DEMOCRACY AND CITIZENSHIP During Adams's presidency most states eased the voting requirements, thereby enlarging the voting population. Fewer states now had property qualifications for voting. In the presidential election of 1824, approximately 350,000 white males voted. In 1828 over three times that number voted, and their votes helped Andrew Jackson. However, certain groups still lacked political power. Free African Americans and women did not enjoy the political freedoms of white males.

Jackson's New Presidential Style

The expansion of voting rights meant that candidates had to be able to speak to the concerns of ordinary people. Andrew Jackson had this common touch.

JACKSON'S APPEAL TO THE COMMON CITIZEN During the 1828 campaign Jackson characterized Adams as an intellectual elitist. By contrast, he portrayed himself as a man of humble origins—though he was actually a wealthy plantation owner. He and his supporters held public rallies, barbecues, and parades to win favor with the people. Jackson's strategy worked: people turned out in record numbers to vote for him.

Jackson won the election by a landslide. He was so popular that record numbers of people came to Washington to see “Old Hickory” inaugurated. Thousands of people crowded into the White House, climbing on the furniture, spilling food, and breaking dishes as they tried to catch a glimpse of the new president.

In many ways, the election of Andrew Jackson marked a shift in American politics. He became a symbol that anyone, not only members of established political families, could win elections. One did not need a lofty bloodline to hold office. Common sense and the willingness to work hard would serve just as well. After Jackson’s election, more and more common people began to run for public office, both at the federal and state levels. Historians refer to this change in the perception of government as Jacksonian democracy.

JACKSON’S SPOILS SYSTEM If Jackson knew how to inspire loyalty and enthusiasm during a campaign, he also knew how to use the powers of the presidency upon gaining office. He announced that his appointees to federal jobs would serve a maximum of four-year terms. Unless there was a regular turnover of personnel, he declared, office holders would become inefficient and corrupt.

Jackson’s administration practiced the **spoils system**—so called from the saying “To the victor belong the spoils of the enemy.” In a spoils system, incoming officials throw out former appointees and replace them with their own friends. He fired nearly 10 percent of the federal employees, most of them holdovers from the Adams administration, and gave their jobs to loyal Jacksonians. Jackson’s friends also became his primary advisers, dubbed his “kitchen cabinet” because they supposedly slipped into the White House through the kitchen.

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

Andrew Jackson’s Inauguration

On March 4, 1829, thousands of cheering Americans flocked to the White House to witness the inauguration of Andrew Jackson. The new president opened his doors to the crowd, with perhaps unforeseen results.



“The President, after having been literally nearly pressed to death and almost suffocated and torn to pieces by the people in their eagerness to shake hands with Old Hickory [Jackson], had retreated through the back way, or south front, and had escaped to his lodgings at Gadsby’s. Cut glass and china to the amount of several thousand dollars

had been broken in the struggle to get the refreshments. . . . Ladies fainted, men were seen with bloody noses, and such a scene of confusion took place as is impossible to describe; those who got in could not get out by the door again but had to scramble out of windows.”

—Mrs. Samuel Harrison Smith, from a letter dated March 1829

Analyze Historical Sources

How did Jackson’s inauguration reflect changes in American politics?

Andrew Jackson (1767–1845)

Andrew Jackson thought of himself as a man of the people. The son of Scots-Irish immigrants, he had been born in poverty in the Carolinas. He was the first president since George Washington without a college education.

At the time of his election at the age of 61, however, Jackson had built a highly successful career. He had worked in law, politics, land speculation, cotton planting, and soldiering. Victory at New Orleans in the War of 1812 had made him a hero. His Tennessee home, the Hermitage, was a mansion. Anyone who owned more than a hundred slaves, as Jackson did, was wealthy.



Underlying Jackson's iron will was a fiery temper. He survived several duels, one of which left a bullet lodged near his heart and another of which left his opponent dead. His ire, however, was most often reserved for special-interest groups and those whose power came from privilege.

Reading Check
Summarize What is the spoils system?

Replacing the old guard of officials was one step in Jackson's efforts to strengthen the presidency. He wanted to make it clear that he would not be bound to how things had been done in the past. During his administration, Jackson also proved that he was willing to stand up to Congress to support his own agenda. For example, he was quick to veto bills with which he disagreed. During his time in office, Jackson vetoed more bills than all six of his predecessors combined.

Removal of Native Americans

Since the 1600s white settlers had held one of two attitudes toward Native Americans. Some whites favored the displacement and dispossession of all Native Americans. Others argued in favor of assimilating the Native Americans, or absorbing them into white culture. That meant converting the Native Americans to Christianity, turning them into farmers, and convincing them to give up their native languages and cultures.

Since the end of the War of 1812, some southeastern tribes—the Cherokee, Choctaw, Seminole, Creek, and Chickasaw—had begun to adopt elements of the European culture of their white neighbors. These “five civilized tribes,” as they were called by whites, occupied large areas in Florida, Georgia, North and South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee. However, many white planters and miners wanted that land.

INDIAN REMOVAL ACT OF 1830 Jackson thought that assimilation could not work. Another possibility—allowing Native Americans to live in their original areas—would have required too many troops to keep the areas free of white settlers. Jackson believed that the only solution was to move the Native Americans from their lands to areas farther west.

Congress passed the **Indian Removal Act** in 1830. Under this law the federal government funded negotiation of treaties that would force the Native Americans to move west. About 90 treaties were signed. For Jackson, the removal policy was “not only liberal, but generous,” because it would allow the Native Americans to maintain their way of life. However, Jackson supported the argument that states had the right to govern matters within their own boundaries, and so he had no problem forcing the Native Americans to move to distant parts of the country.

Jackson wasted no time implementing the new law. In 1830 he pressured the Choctaw to sign a treaty that required them to move from Mississippi. In 1831 he ordered U.S. troops to forcibly remove the Sauk and Fox from their lands in Illinois and Missouri. In 1832 he forced the Chickasaw to leave their lands in Alabama and Mississippi.

POINT



COUNTERPOINT

“The Indian Removal Act of 1830 was a terrible injustice.”

John Marshall, chief justice of the Supreme Court, believed that the Cherokee had “an unquestionable right” to their territory “until title should be extinguished by voluntary cession to the United States.”

In their protest against the Indian Removal Act, the Cherokee referred to past treaties with the federal government and stated, “We have a perfect and original right to remain without interruption and molestation.” Congressman Edward Everett of Massachusetts described Indian removal as “inflicting the pains of banishment from their native land on seventy or eighty thousand human beings.” Rejecting claims that the removal was necessary to protect the Indians against white settlers, Everett demanded, “What other power has the Executive over a treaty or law, but to enforce it?”

In their 1832 protest against the Act, the Creek pointedly asked, “Can [our white brethren] exempt us from intrusion in our promised borders, if they are incompetent to our protection where we are?”

“The Indian Removal Act of 1830 was unfortunate but necessary.”

Blame for the displacement of Native Americans was sometimes placed on the states or on the law, which, it was argued, all people must obey. As Secretary of War John Eaton explained to the Creek of Alabama: “It is not your Great Father who does this; but the laws of the Country, which he and every one of his people is bound to regard.”

President Andrew Jackson contended that the Indian Removal Act would put an end to “all possible danger of collision between the authorities of the General and State Governments on account of the Indians.”

Jackson also claimed that the Indian Removal Act would protect Native Americans against further removal from their lands. He found support for his point of view from Secretary of War Lewis Cass, who defended “the progress of civilization and improvement.” Cass wished “that the aboriginal population had accommodated themselves to the inevitable change of their condition,” but asserted that “such a wish is vain.”

Critical Thinking

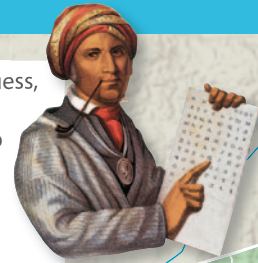
1. Connect to History On what central issue regarding the Indian Removal Act did Jackson and Native American tribes disagree? Explain your opinion of the Act.

2. Connect to Today Research how one of the five tribes was affected by the Indian Removal Act. Write a proposal for how the U.S. government might today make reparations to the group for land losses in the 19th century.

Effects of the Indian Removal Act, 1830s–1840s

By 1840 about 16,000 Cherokee had been forcibly moved 800 miles west on routes afterward called the Trail of Tears. Because of the suffering they endured from cold, hunger, and diseases such as tuberculosis, smallpox, and cholera, one-fourth died.

Sequoyah, or George Guess, devised the Cherokee alphabet in 1821 to help preserve the culture of the Cherokee Nation against the growing threat of American expansion.



Nearly 15,000 Creek, many in manacles and chains, were moved from Alabama and Georgia to the Canadian River in Indian Territory in 1835.

By 1834 about 14,000 Choctaw had relocated along the Red River under the terms of the Indian Removal Act of 1830. About 7,000 remained in Mississippi.

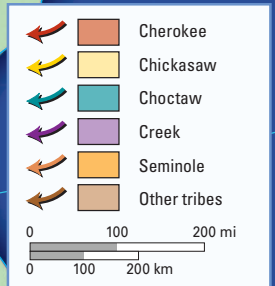
MEXICO



Detail from *Trail of Tears*, a painting by Robert Lindeux.

Interpret Maps

- Place** Where were most of the tribes moved?
- Movement** What do you think were the long-term effects of this removal on Native Americans?



When the U.S. Army attempted to force the Seminole to leave Florida in 1835, however, they met resistance. The Seminole refused to give up their land and reacted with armed force. Seminole men conducted hit-and-run attacks on American soldiers, while women and children hid in the dense Florida swamps. About 3,000 Seminole were eventually forced to move to Indian Territory, but many more continued to resist. They were never officially defeated, and their descendants still live in Florida today.

THE CHEROKEE FIGHT BACK IN COURT Meanwhile, the Cherokee Nation tried to win just treatment through the U.S. legal system. Chief Justice John Marshall refused to rule on the first case the Cherokee brought against Georgia, though. In his view the Cherokee Nation had no federal standing; it was neither a foreign nation nor a state, but rather a “domestic dependent nation.” Undaunted, the Cherokee teamed up with Samuel Austin Worcester, a missionary who had been jailed for teaching Indians without a state license. The Cherokee knew the Court would have to recognize a U.S. citizen’s right to be heard.

In *Worcester v. Georgia* (1832), the Cherokee Nation finally won recognition as a distinct political community. The Court ruled that, under the Constitution, Georgia was not entitled to regulate the Cherokee nor to invade their lands. Only the federal government could deal with Native American nations. Jackson refused to abide by the Supreme Court decision, supposedly saying: “John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it.”

Cherokee leader John Ross still tried to fight the state in the courts, but other Cherokee began to promote relocation. In 1835 federal agents declared the minority who favored relocation the true representatives of the Cherokee Nation and promptly had them sign the Treaty of New Echota. This treaty gave the last eight million acres of Cherokee land to the federal government in exchange for approximately \$5 million and land “west of the Mississippi.” The signing of this treaty marked the beginning of the Cherokee exodus.

NOW & THEN

Native American Lands

During Jackson’s administration, Native American tribes were forced to leave lands that their ancestors had lived on for generations. Despite protests, the Native Americans were forced to leave their homelands and migrate to distant areas. Throughout the rest of the century, more Native American peoples were forced from their lands into restricted areas.

Even today Native Americans continue to struggle for recognition of land rights. In the 2002 picture above, Native American leaders testify during a Congressional hearing on the protection of sacred sites. Many of these sites are threatened by development, pollution, or vandalism.



Other present-day Native Americans have won recognition of their land claims. Over the past 30 years, the federal government has settled property disputes with several tribes in Connecticut, Maine, and other states and has provided them with funds to purchase their ancestral lands.

However, by 1838 nearly 20,000 Cherokee still remained in the East. President Martin Van Buren (Jackson's successor) ordered their forced removal. U.S. Army troops under the command of General Winfield Scott rounded up the Cherokee and drove them into camps to await the journey. Few Americans protested the government's forced removal policies.

THE TRAIL OF TEARS Beginning in October and November of 1838, the Cherokee were sent off in groups of about 1,000 each. These groups were forced into camps before they began the long journey west. A Baptist missionary described the scene.

"The Cherokees are nearly all prisoners. They had been dragged from their houses and encamped at the forts and military places, all over the nation. In Georgia especially, multitudes were allowed no time to take anything with them except the clothes they had on. Well-furnished houses were left as prey to plunderers."

—Evan Jones, from *Baptist Missionary Magazine*, June 16, 1838

The 800-mile trip was made partly by steamboat and railroad but mostly on foot. As the winter came on, more and more of the Cherokee died en route. Along the way, government officials stole the Cherokee's money, while outlaws made off with their livestock. The Cherokee buried more than a quarter of their people along what came to be known as the **Trail of Tears**. When they reached their final destination, they ended up on land far inferior to that which they had been forced to leave.

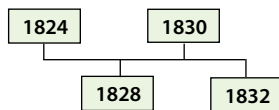
Reading Check

Analyze Issues

Why did Jackson think that Native Americans should be moved west of the Mississippi?

Lesson 3 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Create a timeline listing key events relating to Jackson's political career.



Do you think Jackson was an effective leader? Why or why not?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Events** In your opinion, what factors set the stage for the Indian Removal Act? Which of those factors were most influential in bringing about its passage? Support your answer.

4. **Evaluate** If you were a citizen voting in the 1828 presidential election, would you cast your ballot for John Quincy Adams or Andrew Jackson? Support your choice.

Think About:

- each candidate's background and political experience
- each candidate's views of the national bank and tariffs
- where you live—the South, the West, or New England

States' Rights and the National Bank

The Big Idea

Andrew Jackson confronted two important issues during his presidency—states' rights and a national bank.

Why It Matters Now

The conflict between states' rights and federal government control continues to flare up in such arenas as education, commerce, and law enforcement.

Key Terms and People

Daniel Webster
sectionalism
John C. Calhoun
Tariff of Abominations
Bank of the United States
Whig Party
Martin Van Buren
panic of 1837
William Henry Harrison
John Tyler

One American's Story

On January 26, 1830, Massachusetts senator **Daniel Webster** rose in the Senate and delivered one of the great speeches of American history.

"When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union. . . . Let their last feeble and lingering glance rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the republic . . . bearing for its motto, no such miserable interrogatory as 'What is all this worth?' nor those other words of delusion and folly, 'Liberty first and Union afterwards'; but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, . . . that other sentiment, dear to every true American heart—Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!"

—Daniel Webster, from a speech delivered in the Senate on January 26 and 27, 1830



Daniel Webster defended the federal government's power to make laws that applied to all states in the Union. Webster's Reply to Hayne (date unknown), G.P.A. Healy. Courtesy of the Boston Art Commission 2007

"Liberty first and Union afterwards" was favored by John C. Calhoun, one of Webster's greatest opponents in the struggle between states' rights and federal authority. The question of how much power the federal—as opposed to the state—government should have come to a head over the issue of tariffs.

A Tariff Raises the States' Rights Issue

When the War of 1812 ended, British manufacturers wanted to destroy their American competitors by flooding the U.S. market with inexpensive goods. In response, Congress in 1816 passed a tariff to protect the infant American industries. The tariff was increased in 1824 and again in 1828. Although it was intended to safeguard the interests of all Americans, the tariff resulted in a resurgence of **sectionalism**—putting the needs and wishes of one region of the country ahead of the needs and wishes of the whole. Many southerners were strongly opposed to the tariff and devoted themselves to its repeal.

OPPOSITION TO THE TARIFF Among these opponents was Jackson's vice-president, **John C. Calhoun** of South Carolina. He referred to the 1828 tariff as a **Tariff of Abominations**, calling it “disgusting and loathsome.” He also considered it punishing to the South. As an agricultural region dependent on cotton, the South had to compete in the world market. Previously, southerners had bought British manufactured goods, which were cheaper than those produced in the North. The high tariff on manufactured goods, however, reduced British exports to the United States. As a result, the South was forced to buy the more expensive northern manufactured goods. From the South's point of view, the North was getting rich at the expense of the South. One observer remarked that when southerners “see the flourishing villages of New England they cry, ‘We pay for all this.’”

Calhoun was in an unusual and politically dangerous position. He had long been known as a nationalist spokesman, and he had supported the protective tariff of 1816. Calhoun was building a career as a national statesman, having served under both Adams and Jackson as vice-president. The situation in his home state, however, had made him change his views. South Carolina's economy had failed to recover fully from an economic depression. Cotton prices remained low because planters and their slaves were moving to more fertile lands in Alabama and in the lower Mississippi River valley. Some South Carolinians began to wonder if Calhoun really cared about the needs of his state. He soon showed them that he did.

THE NULLIFICATION THEORY Calhoun devised a nullification theory, which basically questioned the legality of applying some federal laws in sovereign states. Calhoun's argument was that the United States Constitution was based on a compact among the sovereign states. If the Constitution had been established by 13 sovereign states, he reasoned, then each had the right to nullify, or reject, a federal law that it considered unconstitutional. If the states did not have this right, Calhoun argued, then a majority in the federal government might trample on the rights of a minority.

In 1828 Calhoun wrote down his theory in a document entitled “The South Carolina Exposition,” but he did not sign his name to it. Nor did he say what he privately felt. Calhoun believed that if the federal government refused to permit a state to nullify a federal law, the state had the right to withdraw from the Union.

HAYNE AND WEBSTER DEBATE STATES' RIGHTS The tariff question (and the underlying states' rights issue) was discussed in one of the great debates in American history. In January 1830 visitors to the Senate listened to Senator Robert Hayne of South Carolina debate Senator Daniel Webster of Massachusetts. Hayne delivered a pointed condemnation of the tariff.

"The measures of the federal government . . . will soon involve the whole South in irretrievable ruin. But even this evil, great as it is, is not the chief ground of our complaints. It is the principle involved in the contest—a principle, which substituting the discretion of Congress for the limitations of the constitution, brings the States and the people to the feet of the federal government, and leaves them nothing they can call their own."

—Robert Hayne, from a speech to Congress, January 21, 1830

On January 26 Webster replied that he could not conceive of a "middle course, between submission to the laws, when regularly pronounced

— BIOGRAPHY —

John C. Calhoun (1782–1850)



John Caldwell Calhoun entered national politics in 1811 when he was elected to the House of Representatives. There he was labeled a War Hawk for his support of the War of 1812. As President Monroe's secretary of war starting in 1817, Calhoun improved the army's organization.

This ambitious and handsome man with dark, flashing eyes served as vice-president under two presidents—John Quincy Adams, elected in 1824, and Andrew Jackson, elected in 1828.

Calhoun had a hard and humorless side. He took a tough position on slavery, arguing that it was not only necessary but even good:

"There never has yet existed a wealthy and civilized society in which one portion of the community did not . . . live on the labor of the other."

Daniel Webster (1782–1852)



In New England he was known as the "godlike Daniel." New Hampshire native Daniel Webster actually began his career in favor of states' rights. After moving to Boston, Massachusetts, in 1816, however, his views changed. New England's textile manufacturers needed a strong national government to protect their interests. As a lawyer and a congressman, Webster represented Boston's business interests. He argued several landmark cases before the Supreme Court, including *Gibbons v. Ogden*.

Webster was best known for his skill as an orator, but he hungered after the presidency. He ran for the highest office twice, never winning. Late in his career he said:

"I have given my life to law and politics. Law is uncertain and politics is utterly vain."

Reading Check
Contrast What were Jackson's and Calhoun's differing opinions on states' rights versus federal authority?

constitutional, on the one hand, and open resistance, which is revolution, or rebellion, on the other." He then asked a crucial question: was the Union the creation of state legislatures or of the people? If it was legislatures, then Webster agreed states should be able to control the Union—if they could agree how to do so. However, he personally believed that the Union was created by and for the people.

Once the debates ended, the people wanted to hear President Jackson's position. On April 13, at a public dinner, he clarified his position in a toast: "Our Union: it must be preserved." Calhoun replied equally pointedly: "The Union, next to our liberty, the most dear; may we all remember that it can only be preserved by respecting the rights of the States and distributing equally the benefit and burden of the Union." The two men would not work together again; in fact, Calhoun resigned the vice-presidency in 1832. Jackson would run for reelection with former secretary of state Martin Van Buren.

SOUTH CAROLINA REBELS The issue of states' rights was finally put to a test in 1832 when Congress passed a tariff law that South Carolina legislators still found unacceptable. They responded by declaring the tariffs of 1828 and 1832 "unauthorized by the Constitution" and "null, void, and no law." Then they threatened to secede, or withdraw, from the Union, if customs officials tried to collect duties.

Jackson was furious. Although himself a southerner and a slaveholder, he believed that South Carolina's action in declaring a federal law null and void flouted the will of the people as expressed in the U.S. Constitution. He declared South Carolina's actions treasonous and threatened to hang Calhoun and march federal troops into South Carolina to enforce the tariff. To make good on his threats, Jackson next persuaded Congress to pass the Force Bill in 1833. This bill allowed the federal government to use the army and navy against South Carolina if state authorities resisted paying proper duties.

A bloody confrontation seemed inevitable until Henry Clay stepped in. In 1833 the Great Compromiser proposed a tariff bill that would gradually lower duties over a ten-year period. For now, the crisis between states' rights and federal authority was controlled, but the issue would continue to cause conflict in the 1840s and 1850s and would be a major cause of the Civil War.

Jackson Attacks the National Bank

Although Andrew Jackson never did resort to sending troops into South Carolina, he did wage a very personal war on the **Bank of the United States** (BUS). In fact, during the same year he dealt with the South Carolina crisis, 1832, he vetoed the bill to recharter the Bank.

JACKSON OPPOSES THE BANK The Second Bank's 20-year charter was not due to expire until 1836. However, Henry Clay and Daniel Webster wanted to introduce the renewal earlier to make it a campaign issue. They thought Jackson might veto a new charter and, in so doing, lose some of his support. They underestimated, however, both the public's dislike of the BUS and Jackson's political skill.

"King Andrew the First"

Andrew Jackson once justified his tendency to place presidential prerogative above constitutional law or national policy by stating that "one man with courage makes a majority." His critics replied with accusations of tyranny. The Whig convention of 1834 declared, "Your president has become your MONARCH." This sentiment is reflected in this political cartoon that portrays Jackson as a king. Beneath Jackson's feet are the torn pages of the Constitution, which he has trampled. In one hand he holds a scepter, a symbol of kingly power. In the other hand he is holding the veto, a symbol of presidential power.



Analyze Historical Sources

1. What does this cartoon suggest about Jackson's attitude toward the Constitution?
2. How does this cartoon specifically comment on Jackson's use of presidential power?

Jackson and his allies made certain that the general public came to think of the BUS as a privileged institution. Jacksonians did have some powerful facts to support their opinions. Since all federal tax revenues were deposited in the BUS rather than state or private banks, the Second Bank had an unfair advantage over other banks. Furthermore, BUS stockholders, not average American taxpayers, earned the interest from these deposits. A privileged few were making money that should have benefited all the taxpayers. In addition, the bank's president, Nicholas Biddle, often extended loans to congressmen at much lower rates of interest than the bank gave to the average citizen.

PET BANKS In 1832 Jackson told his running mate, Martin Van Buren, that the BUS was a "monster" that corrupted "our statesmen" and wanted "to destroy our republican institution." "The bank, Mr. Van Buren, is trying to kill me, but *I will kill it.*" After Jackson's reelection in 1832, he tried to kill the BUS before its charter ran out in 1836. He appointed a secretary of the treasury who was willing to place all government funds in certain state banks. The banks were called "pet banks" because of their loyalty to the Democratic Party.

In an attempt to save the BUS, Nicholas Biddle decided to have the bank call in—or demand repayment of—loans. He also refused to make new loans. He hoped that these actions would cause a frustrated public to demand the passage of a new bank charter. Businessmen descended on Washington, DC, to plead with Jackson for help. Jackson firmly told them they were talking to the wrong man. "Go to Nicholas Biddle," he said.

Pressure from financial leaders finally forced Biddle to adopt a more generous loan policy. However, the entire chain of events had by this time cost Biddle much of his backing. In 1836, when its charter expired, the Second Bank of the United States became just another Philadelphia bank. Five years later it went out of business.

Reading Check

Analyze Motives

What were some of Jackson's reasons for opposing the Second Bank of the United States?

THE WHIG PARTY FORMS Jackson's tactics and policies regarding nullification and the bank had angered many people, including some members of his own Democratic Party. In 1834 the discontented—including Henry Clay, John Quincy Adams, and Daniel Webster—channeled their frustrations into action. They formed a new political party called the **Whig Party**.

The Whigs backed the ideals of the American System, as promoted by Henry Clay. Besides a protective tariff, they wanted to use federal money to construct roads and canals to foster the exchange of goods between regions. The Whigs also backed federal control of the banking system and a nationally accepted currency.

Van Buren Deals with Jackson's Legacy

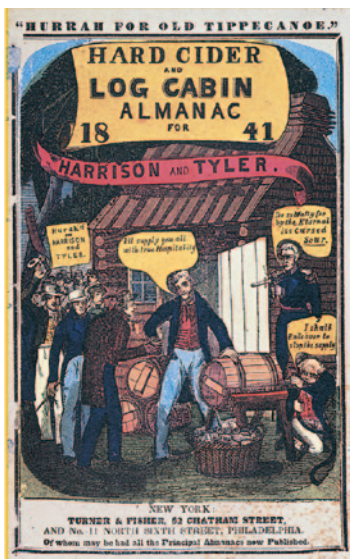
When Jackson announced that he would not run for a third term, the Democrats chose Vice-President **Martin Van Buren** as their candidate. The newly formed Whig Party, which in 1836 was not able to agree on a single candidate, ran three regional candidates against him. With Jackson's support Van Buren won the election easily. Along with the presidency, however, Van Buren inherited the dire consequences of Jackson's bank war and money policies.

JACKSON'S LEGACY Many of Jackson's pet banks—where federal funds had been deposited—were wildcat banks. These banks printed bank notes wildly in excess of the gold and silver they had on deposit. They were doomed to fail when many people attempted to redeem their currency for gold or silver.

Since the notes printed by wildcat banks were nearly worthless, the federal government was left holding the bag when people used them to purchase land from the government. Jackson realized what was happening. He caused the Treasury Department to issue an order that made only gold and silver, called specie, acceptable payment for public land. The order went into effect on August 15, 1836, and sent people rushing to banks to trade paper currency for gold and silver. In turn, many banks, which had limited specie, suspended the redemption of bank notes.

By May 1837 New York banks stopped accepting all paper currency. Other banks soon did the same. In the **panic of 1837**, bank closings and the collapse of the credit system cost many people their savings. It also bankrupted hundreds of businesses and put more than a third of the population out of work.

Van Buren tried to help by reducing federal spending, but that caused already declining prices to drop further. Then he tried to set up an independent treasury that would use only gold and silver coin. In 1840 Congress established this treasury, but the demand for gold and silver it created only worsened matters.



An almanac cover celebrating the election of William Henry Harrison and John Tyler. His campaign symbols, hard cider (an alcoholic beverage) and a log cabin, were meant to show that Harrison was a man of the people.

HARRISON AND TYLER That same year, the Democratic Party candidate Van Buren ran for reelection against Whig Party candidate **William Henry Harrison**. This time the Whigs had an advantage. They portrayed Harrison, the old war hero, as a man of the people and Van Buren as a pampered,

Political Advertisements

In 1840 the campaign slogan “Tippecanoe and Tyler, too” helped William Henry Harrison win the White House. Like Jackson had more than a decade before, Harrison was attempting to appeal to the common man. As part of their effort to win popular support, Harrison’s party, the Whigs, printed their slogan on ribbons, metal badges, and even dinner plates.

Today, politicians find TV an efficient way to reach a large audience. During the 2012 election cycle, political parties, candidates, and issue advocacy

groups spent 50 percent more on TV ads than they had in 2008. However, critics believe that television ads have a negative impact on the democratic process. Candidates outside the two-party system rarely can afford as many TV ads as the major-party candidates. Some have proposed that TV stations voluntarily provide five minutes a day of candidate coverage to help balance this inequality, but few participate. The rise of social media has allowed more candidates access to huge pools of potential voters for little expense. The nature of social media, however, takes control of the campaign largely out of candidates’ hands.

Reading Check

Analyze Causes

How did Jackson’s actions hurt the nation’s economy?

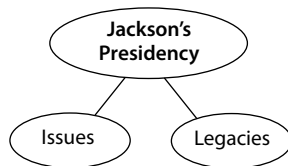
privileged aristocrat. Actually, Van Buren was more of a common man. He was the son of a tavern owner and never earned much money. Harrison, on the other hand, came from a wealthy family and lived in a 16-room mansion.

Harrison won and immediately took steps to enact the Whig program to revitalize the economy, which was still in a severe depression. However, just a month after his inauguration he died of pneumonia.

John Tyler, Harrison’s vice-president and successor, opposed many parts of the Whig program for economic recovery. The Whigs had put Tyler on the ballot to pick up southern votes. They never thought he would play much of a role in government. During the next four years, however, they would see his inclusion on the ticket as a grave mistake—and would begin referring to President Tyler as “His Accidency.”

Lesson 4 Assessment

- 1. Organize Information** Use a web diagram to list the key issues that Jackson confronted and the important legacies of his administration.



In what ways does one of these legacies continue today?

- 2. Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- 3. Form Generalizations** In what ways do you think the tariff crises of 1828 and 1832 might be considered important milestones in American history before the Civil War? Use evidence from the text to support your response.

Think About:

- Calhoun’s nullification theory
- the Hayne-Webster debate
- why Jackson pushed Congress to pass the Force Bill

- 4. Analyze Issues** How do you think Jackson might have countered his critics’ accusation that he was acting like a king? Support your answer.
- 5. Compare** Compare the strategy William Henry Harrison used in the 1840 presidential campaign to strategies used in today’s political campaigns. In what ways are they alike? Give examples.

The Market Revolution

The Big Idea

Technological changes created greater interaction and more economic diversity among the regions of the nation.

Why It Matters Now

The linking of markets continues today, as new technologies are opening the United States to globalized trade.

Key Terms and People

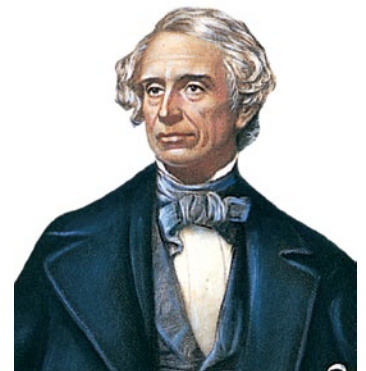
Samuel F. B. Morse
specialization
market revolution
capitalism
entrepreneur
telegraph
John Deere
Cyrus McCormick

One American's Story

In 1837 painter and scientist **Samuel F. B. Morse**, with Leonard Gale, built an electromagnetic telegraph. Morse's first model could send signals ten miles through copper wire. Morse asked Congress to fund an experimental telegraphic communication that would travel for 100 miles.

"This mode of instantaneous communication must inevitably become an instrument of immense power, to be wielded for good or for evil. . . . Let the sole right of using the Telegraph belong, in the first place, to the Government, who should grant . . . the right to lay down a communication between any two points for the purpose of transmitting intelligence."

—Samuel F. B. Morse, quoted in
Samuel F. B. Morse: His Letters and Journals



Samuel Morse was a painter before he became famous as an inventor.

Congress granted Morse \$30,000 to build a 40-mile telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington, DC. In 1844 Morse tapped out in code the words "What hath God wrought?" The message sped from Washington, DC, over a metal wire in less than a second. As new communication links began to put people into instant communication with one another, new transportation links carried goods and people across vast regions.

U.S. Markets Expand

In the early 19th century, rural American workers produced their own goods or traded with neighbors to meet almost all of their needs. Farm families were self-sufficient. They grew crops and raised animals for food and made their own clothing, candles, and soap. At local markets, farmers sold wood, eggs, or butter for cash, which they used to purchase the coffee, tea, sugar, or horseshoes they couldn't produce themselves.

By midcentury, however, the United States had become more industrialized, especially in the Northeast. There the rise of textile mills and the factory system changed the lives of workers and consumers. Now, workers spent their earnings on goods produced by other workers. Farmers began to shift from self-sufficiency to **specialization**. They raised one or two cash crops that they could sell at home or abroad.

These developments led to a **market revolution**, in which people bought and sold goods rather than making them for their own use. The market revolution created a striking change in the U.S. economy and in the daily lives of Americans. In these decades, goods and services multiplied while incomes rose. In fact, in the 1840s the national economy grew more than it had in the previous 40 years.

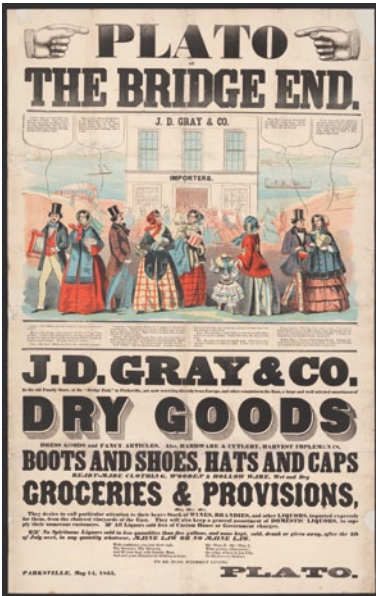
THE ENTREPRENEURIAL SPIRIT The quickening pace of U.S. economic growth depended on **capitalism**. Capitalism is the economic system in which private businesses and individuals control the means of production—such as factories, machines, and land—and use them to earn profits. Capitalism is based on the idea that everyone has the right to pursue economic success through lawful means. Individual business owners are free to produce any goods or services they wish, to determine how they should be produced, and to sell them to anyone they choose. At the same time, consumers are free to purchase from whichever company or individual they choose.

Capitalism took root in the United States during the market revolution. For example, in 1813 Francis Cabot Lowell and other Boston merchants had put up \$400,000 to form the Boston Manufacturing Company, which produced textiles. Other businesspeople supplied their own funds to create capital—the money, property, machines, and factories that fueled America's expanding economy.

These investors are called **entrepreneurs** from a French word that means “to undertake.” They risked their own money in new industries in pursuit of the American Dream. They risked losing their investment, but they also stood to earn huge profits if they succeeded. Alexander Mackay, a Scottish journalist who lived in Canada and traveled in the United States, applauded the entrepreneurs' competitive spirit.

“America is a country in which fortunes have yet to be made. . . . All cannot be made wealthy, but all have a chance of securing a prize. This stimulates to the race, and hence the eagerness of the competition.”

—Alexander Mackay, quoted in *The Western World*



By the 1850s people looked to stores for such products as clothing, shoes, and groceries rather than making their own.

Reading Check
Analyze Events
Describe the impact of
the market revolution
on potential
customers.

NEW INVENTIONS Inventor-entrepreneurs began to develop goods to make life more comfortable for more people. For example, Charles Goodyear developed vulcanized rubber in 1839. Unlike untreated India rubber, the new product didn't freeze in cold weather or melt in hot weather. People first used the product to protect their boots. Then, in the early 1900s, it became indispensable in the manufacturing of automobile tires.

A natural place for the growth of industrialization was in producing clothing, a process greatly aided by the invention of the sewing machine. Patented by Elias Howe in 1846, the sewing machine found its first use in shoe factories. Homemakers appreciated I. M. Singer's addition of the foot treadle, which drastically reduced the time it took to sew garments. More importantly, the foot-treadle sewing machine led to the factory production of clothing. When clothing prices tumbled by more than 75 percent, increasing numbers of working people could afford to buy store-bought clothes.

IMPACT ON HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY While entrepreneurial activity boosted America's industrial output, American agriculture continued to flourish. Workers in industrial cities needed food. To meet this demand, American farmers began to use mechanized farm equipment produced in factories. Farmers, therefore, made significant contributions to the American industrial machine and became important consumers of manufactured items. Manufactured items grew less expensive as technology advances lowered expenses. For example, a clock that had cost \$50 to craft by hand in 1800 could be turned out by machine for half a dollar by midcentury. Falling prices meant that many workers, both urban and rural, became regular consumers. Americans no longer needed to supply all their own needs. They purchased new products not only for work, but for comfort as well.

In many cases, the money to pay for these products came from work by women. Freed from the demands of field work, many rural women created home businesses of their own. Some spun cloth or made garments while others gathered and sold eggs, milk, butter, or similar products. In cities, many women took jobs in new factories. In both rural and urban areas, the added income these women brought to their households made it easier to afford new products.

The Economic Revolution

These new inventions, many developed in the United States, contributed immensely to important changes in American life. Some of these inventions simply made life more enjoyable. Other inventions fueled the economic revolution of the midcentury, and transformed manufacturing, transportation, and communication.

IMPACT ON COMMUNICATION Improving on a device developed by Joseph Henry, Samuel F. B. Morse, a New England artist, created the first **telegraph** in 1837. The telegraph carried messages, tapped in code, across copper wire. Within ten years, telegraph lines connected the larger cities on the East Coast.

From Telegraph to Internet

What do the telegraph and the Internet have in common? They are both tools for instant communication. The telegraph relied on a network of wires that spanned the country. The Internet—an international network of smaller computer networks—allows any computer user to communicate instantly with any other computer user in the world.

MORSE CODE

In 1837 Samuel Morse patents the telegraph, the first instant electronic communicator. Morse taps on a key to send bursts of electricity down a wire to the receiver. An operator “translates” the coded bursts into understandable language within seconds.



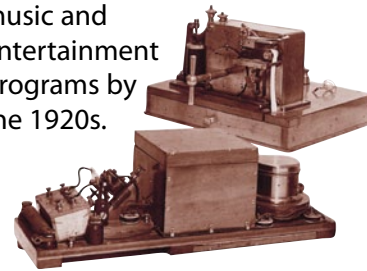
TELEPHONE

In 1876 Alexander Graham Bell invents the telephone. It relies on a steady stream of electricity, rather than electrical bursts, to transmit sounds. By 1900 there are over one million telephones in the United States.



MARCONI RADIO

In 1895 Guglielmo Marconi, an Italian inventor, sends telegraph code through the air as electromagnetic waves. By the early 1900s “the wireless” makes voice transmissions possible. Commercial radio stations are broadcasting music and entertainment programs by the 1920s.



TELEVISION

In the late 1800s scientists begin to experiment with transmitting pictures as well as words through the air. In 1923 Vladimir Zworykin, a Russian-born American scientist, files a patent for the iconoscope, the first television camera tube suitable for broadcasting. In 1924 he files a patent for the kinescope, the picture tube used in receiving television signals. In 1929 Zworykin demonstrated his new television.



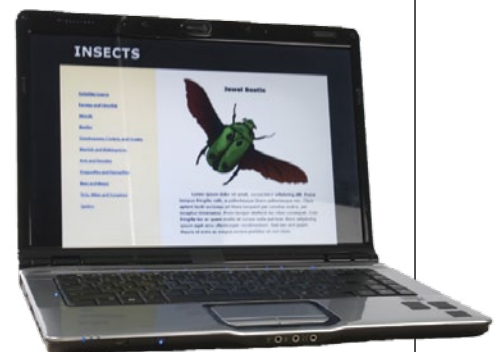
COMPUTERS

Scientists develop electronically powered computers during the 1940s. In 1951 UNIVAC I (UNiversal Automatic Computer) becomes the first commercially available computer. In 1964 IBM initiates System/360, a family of mutually compatible computers that allow several terminals to be attached to one computer system.



INTERNET

Today, on the Internet, through email (electronic mail) or online conversation, any two people can have instant dialogue. The Internet becomes the modern tool for instant global communication not only of words, but also of images.



By the early 1860s the telegraph network had stretched all the way to the West Coast. By the end of the 19th century, most of the world was connected by telegraph lines.

Businesses used the new communication device to transmit orders and to relay up-to-date information on prices and sales. The telegraph was a huge success. The new railroads employed the telegraph to keep trains moving regularly and to warn engineers of safety hazards. By 1854 some 23,000 miles of telegraph wire crossed the country.

Advances in technology also changed the nature of print communication. The development of steam-operated printing presses allowed publishers to produce cheap newspapers and sell them for as little as one penny. This penny press allowed common citizens to keep informed about local news and events. It also helped spread political ideas among the lower classes. The role of common citizens in the political process continued to increase throughout the Jacksonian era.

IMPACT ON TRANSPORTATION Better and faster transportation became essential to the expansion of agriculture and industry. Farmers and manufacturers alike sought more direct ways to ship their goods to market.

In 1807 Pennsylvanian Robert Fulton had ushered in the steamboat era. His boat, the *Clermont*, made the 150-mile trip up the Hudson River from New York City to Albany, New York, in 32 hours. Ships that had previously only been able to drift southward down the Mississippi with the current could now turn around to make the return trip because they were powered by steam engines. Two hundred steamboats traveled the nation's western rivers by 1830, thus slashing freight rates as well as voyage times.

Water transport was particularly important in moving heavy machinery and raw materials such as lead and copper. Where waterways didn't exist, workers excavated them. In 1816 America had a mere 100 miles of canals. Twenty-five years later the country boasted more than 3,300 miles of canals.

The Erie Canal was the nation's first major canal, and it was heavily used. Shipping charges fell to about a tenth of the cost of sending goods over land. Before the first shovel broke ground on the Erie Canal in 1817, for example, freight charges between Buffalo, New York, and New York City averaged 19 cents a ton per mile. By 1830 that average had fallen to less than 2 cents. Completed in 1825, construction of the Erie Canal helped train many of the engineers who built other American canals.

The Erie Canal's success led to dozens of other canal projects. Farmers in Ohio no longer depended on Mississippi River passage to New Orleans. They could now ship their grain via canal and river to New York City, the nation's major port. The canals also opened the heartland of America to world markets by connecting the Northeast to the Midwest.

EMERGENCE OF RAILROADS The heyday of the canals lasted only until the 1860s, due to the rapid emergence of railroads. Although shipping by rail cost significantly more in the 1840s than did shipping by canal, railroads offered the advantage of speed. In addition, trains could operate in the winter, and they brought goods to people who lived inland.

The New York Herald

In 1848 the editors of the *New York Herald* published an article praising the telegraph. They predicted the new technology would bring great changes to their city and the rest of the country.

“By this wonderful process, the city of New York becomes the central point of the nation, and all the cities connected with it by telegraph, on the Atlantic sea board, become its faubourgs—its wards—communicating with them as rapidly and readily every hour, as Wall street does with Chambers street, or Astor Place does with the Park. In fact, time is not only beaten, but it is annihilated. We can send a message from New York to St. Louis at twelve o’clock at noon, and it

will reach its destination on the banks of the Mississippi at ten minutes before twelve. . . . The city of Washington, and Congress, are now part of the metropolis of New York, by means of the telegraph; and by our system of reporting and our machinery, we have accomplished the removal of the Capitol northward, even nearer than Hoboken is to New York.”

—from “The Age of Miracles,” *New York Herald*, January 8, 1848

Analyze Historical Sources

How do the writers suggest the telegraph will change national politics and economics?

By the 1840s steam engines pulled freight at ten miles an hour—more than four times faster than canal boats traveled. Passengers found such speeds exciting, although early train travel was far from comfortable. Samuel Breck, a Philadelphia merchant, complained.

“If one could stop when one wanted, and if one were not locked up in a box with 50 or 60 tobacco-chewers; and the engine and fire did not burn holes in one’s clothes . . . and the smell of the smoke, of the oil, and of the chimney did not poison one . . . and [one] were not in danger of being blown sky-high or knocked off the rails—it would be the perfection of travelling.”

—Samuel Breck, quoted in *American Railroads*

Eventually, railroads grew to be both safe and reliable, and the cost of rail freight gradually came down. By 1850 almost 10,000 miles of track had been laid, and by 1859 railroads carried 2 billion tons of freight a year.

The reduced cost of shipping, however, came with an environmental cost. Trains required level land to travel. In areas where the land was not flat, engineers worked to make it so. They cut paths and tunnels through mountains and built bridges over rivers. Steam engines required a great deal of fresh water to operate. To secure sufficient supplies of water, people built dams to create vast reservoirs. Increased railroad construction also necessitated increased mining for iron and chopping down of forests for wood.

Reading Check

Analyze Effects

How did new products, communications methods, and transportation methods help the U.S. economy?

New Markets Link Regions

By the 1840s improved transportation and communication made America's regions interdependent. Arteries like the National Road, whose construction began in 1811, had also opened up western travel. By 1818 the road extended from Cumberland, Maryland, west to Wheeling, Virginia. By 1838 it reached as far west as Springfield, Illinois.

Growing links between America's regions contributed to the development of regional specialties. The South exported its cotton to England as well as to New England. Grain and livestock from the West fed hungry factory workers in eastern cities and in Europe. The East manufactured textiles and machinery.

SOUTHERN AGRICULTURE Most of the South remained agricultural and relied on such crops as cotton, tobacco, and rice. Southerners who had seen the North's "filthy, overcrowded, licentious factories" looked with disfavor on industrialization. Though one-third of the nation's population lived in the South by 1850, the South produced under 10 percent of the nation's manufactured goods. At the same time that northern railroad lines were expanding, southerners were mostly using rivers to transport goods.

Even if wealthy southerners wanted to build factories, they usually lacked the capital to do so. Their money was tied up in land and the slaves required to plant and harvest the crops. By 1840 the American South was the world's leading producer of cotton, thanks to cotton gin technology. Cotton soon accounted for more than half of the total U.S. exports. Cotton from the South was shipped to markets around the world, including Great Britain, the world's leading industrial power. Cotton directly or indirectly provided work for one in eight people in Great Britain, which imported four-fifths of its cotton from the South. To keep up with world-wide demand, cotton farmers needed to increase production, which meant increasing their labor force. They demanded more slaves.

Because slavery was widespread in the South, few immigrants settled there. African Americans, whether enslaved or free, met most of the available need for artisans, mechanics, and laborers. Those immigrants who did settle in the South, however, displayed significant opposition to slavery. For example, German-American newspapers in Texas and in Baltimore, Maryland published editorials in favor of universal voting rights and freedom for African Americans.

The conflict over slavery rattled southern society. In three southern states—Mississippi, Louisiana, and South Carolina—African Americans were in the majority. In Alabama and Florida, African Americans composed almost half of the population. While blacks dreamed of an end to slavery, many southern whites feared that any restriction of slavery would lead to a social and economic revolution. South Carolina senator John C. Calhoun warned his fellow southerners that such a revolution would condemn blacks as well as whites "to the greatest calamity, and the [South] to poverty, desolation, and wretchedness."

Though the new transportation and communication lines were less advanced in the South, these improvements helped Americans from every region stay in touch with one another. Furthermore, they changed the economic relationships between the regions, creating new markets and interdependencies.

NORTHEAST SHIPPING AND MANUFACTURING Heavy investment in canals and railroads transformed the Northeast into the center of American commerce. After the opening of the Erie Canal in 1825, New York City became the central link between American agriculture and European markets. In fact, more cotton was exported through New York City than through any other American city.

The most striking development of the era, however, was the rise in manufacturing. Although most Americans still lived in rural areas and only 14 percent of workers had manufacturing jobs, these workers produced more and better goods at lower prices than had ever been produced before. As the North industrialized, factories turned out ever-increasing amounts of products, from textiles and sewing machines to farm equipment and guns. Railroads—with more than 20,000 miles of track laid by the 1850s—carried raw materials eastward and manufactured goods and settlers westward. Small towns like Chicago matured into cities almost overnight, due to the sheer volume of goods and people arriving by railroad. Telegraph wires strung along the railroad tracks provided a network of instant communication for the North.

The growth of commerce during the Market Revolution led to a demand for increased labor in the North's factories. Among these new workers were immigrants from Europe, who entered the industrial workplace in growing numbers. Many became voters with a strong opposition to slavery. They feared the expansion of slavery for two main reasons. First, it might bring slave labor into direct competition with free labor, or people who worked for wages. Second, it threatened to reduce the status of white workers who could not successfully compete with slaves.



Cyrus McCormick patented the first successful horse-drawn grain reaper.

MIDWEST FARMING As the Northeast began to industrialize, many people moved to farm the fertile soil of the Midwest. There they owned and managed their own family farms. These farms varied widely in size: some were much larger than others. However, the distribution of wealth among settlers in the Midwest was much less uneven than in the rest of the country. Few people in the Midwest were as wealthy as southern plantation owners or northern industrialists.

Before midwesterners could create farms of any size, though, they had to work very hard to make the land arable, or fit to cultivate. Many wooded areas had to be cleared before fields could be planted. Two ingenious inventions allowed farmers to develop the farmland more efficiently and

Reading Check
Summarize How did the transportation revolution bind U.S. regions to one another and to the rest of the world?

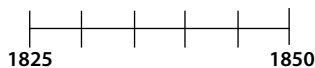
cheaply and made farming more profitable. In 1837 blacksmith **John Deere** invented the first steel plow. It sliced through heavy soil much more easily than existing plows and therefore took less animal power to pull. Deere's steel plow enabled farmers to replace their oxen with horses.

Once harvest time arrived, the mechanical reaper, invented by **Cyrus McCormick**, permitted one farmer to do the work of five hired hands. The reaper was packed in parts and shipped to the farmer, along with a handbook of directions for assembling and operating. Armed with plows and reapers, ambitious farmers could shift from subsistence farming to growing cash crops such as wheat and corn.

Life in the Midwest afforded Americans new opportunities not available in the North or South. Among those who most benefitted from these new opportunities were women. New arrivals to the region—both men and women—had to throw themselves fully into often backbreaking farm work. On top of their work in the fields, midwestern women were expected to care for children, cook, make and wash clothes, and tend the house. Gradually their hard work and dedication won the respect of men in their communities. This respect made it easier for some women to start or run businesses of their own. Throughout the Midwest, women managed large farms, ran stores, and operated other businesses that only men were allowed to run back East. However, women still had few political or legal rights.

Lesson 5 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Create a timeline on which you label and date the important innovations in transportation, communication, and manufacturing in the United States during the early 19th century.



Which innovation do you think was most important? Why?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Effects** During the 1830s and 1840s, transportation and communication linked the country more than ever before. How did these advances affect ordinary Americans?

Think About:

- the new kinds of transportation
- the efforts of inventors and entrepreneurs
- specific changes in communications
- the new industries of the time period

4. **Compare and Contrast** Compare economies of the different regions of the United States in the mid-1800s. Use details from the lesson to support your answer.
5. **Draw Conclusions** Why were the reaper and the steel plow important?

Module 6 Assessment

Key Terms and People

For each term or person below, write a sentence explaining its significance during the early 19th century.

1. Eli Whitney
2. Industrial Revolution
3. John Quincy Adams
4. nationalism
5. Missouri Compromise
6. Andrew Jackson
7. spoils system
8. Trail of Tears
9. Bank of the United States (BUS)
10. Samuel F. B. Morse

Main Ideas

Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

Regional Economies

1. What key changes in technology and methods of organizing manufacturing spurred the Industrial Revolution?
2. How did economic developments, such as industrialization and the growth of plantations, influence where people lived in the United States?
3. How did people in the Northeast, the South, and the West react to the Tariff of 1816?
4. What effects did the Embargo Act of 1807 and the War of 1812 have on Americans involved in shipping and foreign trade?
5. Why was slavery abolished in the North?

The Rise of Nationalism

6. How did the cases *Gibbons v. Ogden* and *McCulloch v. Maryland* strengthen the power of the federal government?
7. Why did conflict arise when Missouri requested admission into the Union?
8. How did the expansion of the United States to the west affect American democracy?

9. How did the Monroe Doctrine seek to protect the country's national interests, and how did it affect relationships with foreign powers?

The Age of Jackson

10. What changes occurred in the voting population and in voting patterns between the presidential elections of 1824 and 1828?
11. What alternatives did President Jackson have in shaping a policy to tackle the problem of Native Americans?
12. How did the Seminole and the Cherokee react to the Indian Removal Act?
13. To what does the term *Jacksonian Democracy* refer?

States' Rights and the National Bank

14. What was Calhoun's nullification theory?
15. What measures was Jackson willing to take in response to South Carolina's threat to secede in 1832?
16. Why did Jackson oppose the Bank of the United States?
17. Why did the United States create new tariffs in the 1820s and 1830s, and why did some states oppose the tariffs? What compromise did the supporters and opponents of the tariffs reach?
18. How did Jackson's policies contribute to the formation of the Whig Party?

The Market Revolution

19. What are the basic principles of capitalism?
20. What inventions and technological advancements changed lives as part of the market revolution?
21. How did the inventions and innovations of the mid-19th century encourage various regions to specialize in certain industries?
22. Why did innovators look for new forms of communication and transportation in the 1800s?
23. List three ways the North and the South differed in the mid-1800s.

Module 6 Assessment, continued

Critical Thinking

1. **Evaluate** Create a continuum similar to the one below, labeled with *compromise* at one end and *confrontation* at the other. Mark where you think Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, and John C. Calhoun would fall on the continuum. Support your ratings by citing historical events in which these men played critical roles.



2. **Predict** What do you think would have happened if the Indian Removal Act of 1830 had not been passed and Native Americans had remained on their lands? Use evidence to support your answer.
3. **Make Inferences** To what extent do you think the American Dream was attainable by all Americans during this time? How might one's race or social class have affected one's chances for success?
4. **Analyze Primary Sources** Read the quotation from John C. Calhoun. How does his choice of words reflect issues of the time? Explain your response.
"I never use the word 'Nation' in speaking of the United States. We are not a Nation, but a Union, a confederacy of equal and sovereign States."
5. **Analyze Effects** What was the impact of the new methods of communication during this period? Use details from the text to support your response.
6. **Analyze Causes** What led to the rise of capitalism?
7. **Analyze Issues** What general trend emerged during this period in regard to states' rights versus federal rights? Consider the Missouri Compromise, nullification crisis, and Indian removal in your answer.

Engage with History

Imagine that you are a senator in 1832, a witness to the debate about nullification and the fight over tariffs and states' rights. Consider your position on the issue. Think about the nature of the U.S. political system, the feelings of people in your state, and the positions of such influential leaders as Jackson, Calhoun, and Clay. With some of your classmates, form a small group and discuss the following question: Would you have supported the federal or state government? Each member of the group should be free to express his or her opinion on the issue and to debate with other members.

Focus on Writing

Write a comparative essay analyzing the principles of nationalism and sectionalism. In your essay, consider each principle's origins and purposes. Cite specific examples of nationalist and sectionalist policies and actions in your essay, and assess how each principle contributed to the history of the United States during this period.

Multimedia Activity

Choose a technological development of the early 1800s and create a website to advertise it. Possible inventions include the cotton gin, the steam engine, the telegraph, and the sewing machine. Use vivid language to describe how the invention works, what it accomplishes, what kind of labor it requires, and its effects on how people live or work. Include an image of the invention.