

America 1828–1850

Backwards Planning Curriculum Units

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Table of Contents

Introduction	IV
Lecture Notes	S1
Student Handouts	H1
Backwards Planning Curriculum:	
America 1828–1850: Backwards Planning Activities	1
Project #1: Was Andrew Jackson a Great President?	3
Project #2: Observations on America in the 1830s and 1840s	7
Project #3: Illustrated Timelines of the Mid-19th Century.....	12
America 1828–1850: Multiple-Choice Quiz	16
America 1828–1850: Multiple-Choice Quiz Answer Key	20

How to Use This Unit

Backwards planning offers an innovative yet simple approach to meeting curriculum goals; it also provides a way to keep students engaged and focused throughout the learning process. Many teachers approach history instruction in the following manner: they identify a topic required by state and/or national standards, they find materials on that topic, they use those materials with their students, and then they administer some sort of standard test at the end of the unit. Backwards planning, rather than just starting with a required instructional topic, goes a step further by identifying exactly what students need to know by the end of the unit—the so-called “enduring understandings.” The next step involves assessment: devising ways to determine whether students have learned what they need to know. The final step involves planning the teaching/learning process so that students can acquire the knowledge needed.

This product uses backwards planning to combine a PowerPoint presentation, activities that involve authentic assessment, and traditional tests (multiple-choice and essay) into a complete curriculum unit. Although the materials have enough built-in flexibility that you can use them in a number of ways, we suggest the following procedure:

1. Start with the “essential questions” listed on slide 2 of the PowerPoint presentation (these also appear in the teacher support materials). Briefly go over them with students before getting into the topic material. These questions will help students focus their learning and note taking during the course of the unit. You can also choose to use the essential questions as essay questions at the end of the unit; one way to do this is to let students know at the outset that one of the essential questions will be on the test—they just won’t know which one.
2. Next, discuss the activities students will complete during the unit. This will also help focus their learning and note taking, and it will lead them to view the PowerPoint presentation in a different light, considering it a source of ideas for authentic-assessment projects.
3. Present the PowerPoint to the class. Most slides have an image and bullet points summarizing the slide’s topic. The Notes page for each slide contains a paragraph or two of information that you can use as a presentation script, or just as background information for your own reference. You don’t need to present the entire PowerPoint at once: it’s broken up into several sections, each of which concludes with some discussion questions that echo parts of the essential questions and also help students to get closer to the “enduring understandings.” Spend some time with the class going over and debating these questions—this will not only help students think critically about the material, but it will also allow you to incorporate different modes of instruction during a single class period, offering a better chance to engage students.
4. Have students complete one or more of the authentic-assessment activities. These activities are flexible: most can be completed either individually or in groups, and either as homework or as in-class assignments. Each activity includes a rubric; many also have graphic organizers. You can choose to have students complete the activities after you have shown them the entire PowerPoint presentation, or you can show them one section of the PowerPoint, go over the discussion questions, and then have students complete an activity.

5. End the unit with traditional assessment. The support materials include a 20-question multiple-choice quiz; you can combine this with an essay question (you can use one of the essential questions or come up with one of your own) to create a full-period test.

6. If desired, debrief with students by going over the essential questions with them again and remind them what the enduring understandings are.

We are dedicated to continually improving our products and working with teachers to develop exciting and effective tools for the classroom. We can offer advice on how to maximize the use of the product and share others' experiences. We would also be happy to work with you on ideas for customizing the presentation.

We value your feedback, so please let us know more about the ways in which you use this product to supplement your lessons; we're also eager to hear any recommendations you might have for ways in which we can expand the functionality of this product in future editions. You can e-mail us at access@socialstudies.com. We look forward to hearing from you.

Dr. Aaron Willis
Chief Education Officer
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America 1828–1850

Following a long stretch of one-party rule, the period between 1828 and 1850 in American history saw much development in the country’s political, economic, and social conditions. President Andrew Jackson set the tone for the era: this self-professed representative of the “common man” sought to keep the country true to its agrarian roots by limiting the role of the federal government, though he actually departed from his philosophy in ways unacceptable to both his opponents and his allies. Dissatisfaction with Jackson’s policies led to the formation of a new political party—the Whigs—united in opposition to the policies of so-called Jacksonian Democracy.

Rapid industrialization required improvements to the country’s infrastructure, such as a network of railroad lines that made transportation more efficient. Economic growth helped draw millions of European immigrants who found opportunity as well as Americans resentful of their presence; however, America also experienced its first economic depression.

Settlement of the West greatly accelerated as the U.S. acquired vast new territory through treaties and war. The feeling of Manifest Destiny that Americans used to justify expansion also condemned Native Americans to relocation by the federal government to designated areas, if not to outright war and slaughter.

A host of social movements emerged from a wave of religious fervor, leading people to realize that they could organize and speak out against issues detrimental to their visions for society. The support for causes such as the abolition of slavery increased in the North, though conflict over this issue and others that would later lead to civil war festered and further divided the country along economic and geographical lines.

Essential Questions

- What challenges did the nation face between 1828 and 1850?
- In what ways did the two-party system and partisan politics both help and hinder the government's ability to address the nation's problems?
- How did governmental leaders and policies affect Native Americans during this time period?
- In what ways did the country evolve and grow between 1828 and 1850?
- How did social movements during this period work against the status quo?

Andrew Jackson: Early Life and Career

- Born in 1767
- Experiences in Revolutionary War instilled hatred of the British
- Career as a lawyer
- TN congressman, senator, and Supreme Court justice
- Cotton farmer and general store owner

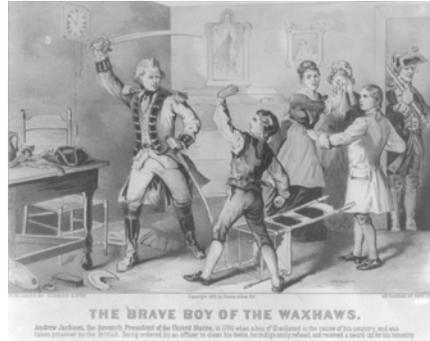


Illustration showing Jackson as a child getting wounded by a British soldier

Andrew Jackson was born in 1767 near the border of North Carolina and South Carolina (his exact birthplace remains in dispute). He became accustomed to military life at an early age. During the Revolutionary War, he served as a courier and became a British prisoner of war at the age of 13. Andrew and his brother, Robert, became ill with smallpox and almost starved to death in British captivity; Robert died shortly after the boys' release. Andrew Jackson's hatred for the British intensified when a British soldier, angry that young Andrew had refused to clean the soldier's boots, slashed him with a sword, scarring his head and left hand. Both of Jackson's parents died in the war shortly thereafter, rendering him an orphan at the age of 14.

Jackson's early career included stints working for a saddle maker and teaching school. He then studied law and moved to western North Carolina (now Tennessee) to work as a lawyer. Jackson prospered as a frontier attorney, focusing on land claim disputes and violent crime, which plagued this region.

When Tennessee gained statehood in 1796, Jackson became its representative to Congress. He won a Senate seat in 1797, serving in the Democratic-Republican party, but resigned within a year. He then served on the Tennessee Supreme Court from 1798 to 1804. While practicing law and engaging in politics, Jackson also had success as a cotton farmer, relying on slaves to work his "Hermitage" plantation, and owned a general store.

Early Life and Career (continued)



Painting depicting Jackson at the
Battle of New Orleans

- War of 1812:
 - Creek War, Battle of Horseshoe Bend
 - Battle of New Orleans
- First Seminole War (1817–1819)
- Governor of Florida Territory (1821)

During the War of 1812, Jackson commanded the Tennessee militia against Creek Indians, hoping to open Native American lands to white settlement. He led approximately 2000 men in the Battle of Horseshoe Bend, killing approximately 800 Red Stick men in a five-hour battle. The Creeks' defeat forced them to cede half of Alabama and part of Georgia to the United States.

After defeating the Creeks, Jackson marched his troops to New Orleans to defend the U.S. against the British. His toughness earned him the nickname “Old Hickory,” which stayed with him for the rest of his life (he was said to be “as tough as old hickory,” a type of wood). Jackson’s 5000 troops defeated 7500 British troops at the Battle of New Orleans on January 8, 1815, in the final battle of the War of 1812; neither party had known that a peace treaty had been signed in Europe a month earlier.

In 1817, President James Monroe sent Jackson (now a major-general) to southern Georgia to fight against the Seminole and Creek Indians, who had taken up arms against the U.S. government for not honoring treaties it had made with them. Monroe also ordered Jackson to prevent Florida from becoming an easy destination for escaped slaves, many of whom had taken refuge in Seminole villages. Jackson led raids against the Seminoles into Spanish-occupied Florida. The United States won this conflict—known as the First Seminole War—resulting in Spain’s cession of Florida to the United States in the Adams-Onís Treaty of 1819. Jackson served as governor of Florida Territory in 1821.

The Election of 1824 and the “Corrupt Bargain”

- Four Democratic-Republican candidates
- Jackson, JQ Adams, Clay, Crawford
- Jackson won the most electoral votes but not a majority
- Election decided by the House; Clay supported Adams, who won



A cartoon depicting the 1824 election as a foot race between the four candidates

Jackson ran for president in 1824. By that time, the Democratic-Republican Party had established a one-party leadership of the federal government. However, far from unified, the party divided into four competing factions, with four candidates vying for the presidency. These candidates included Jackson (from Tennessee), John Quincy Adams (from Massachusetts), William H. Crawford (from Georgia), and Henry Clay (from Kentucky).

Each candidate received majority support in particular parts of the country. The Northeast favored Adams, while the South preferred Jackson. Residents of the mid-Atlantic states also voted for Jackson, as did many westerners (Jackson won Illinois and Indiana, then considered part of the West). Missouri, Kentucky, and Ohio voted for Clay, while Georgia and Virginia voted for Crawford. No candidate fared much better or worse than the others in the overall election, and the national results proved inconclusive.

Jackson received the most electoral and popular votes but did not win the necessary majority of votes. The House of Representatives therefore held the responsibility of deciding the election's outcome. The 12th Amendment to the Constitution required the House to consider only the top three in electoral votes; this immediately pushed Henry Clay out of the running. As speaker of the House, Clay supported Adams over Jackson, whom he strongly disliked. The House elected Adams, who received the support of 13 states, as opposed to seven states for Jackson and four for Crawford.

The “Corrupt Bargain” (continued)



John Quincy Adams



Henry Clay

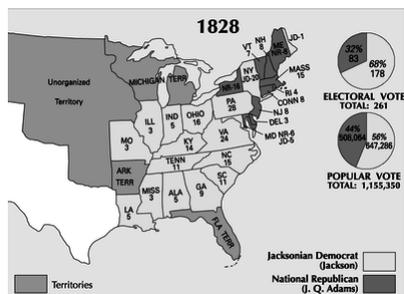
- Jackson likely won the popular vote
- Accused Clay of backing Adams in return for secretary of state position
- Little supporting evidence

This election marked the first time in which the candidate who received the most electoral votes did not win the presidency. The Constitution requires the winning candidate to receive a majority of the electoral votes, which did not happen. Although popular votes were not officially counted nationwide in those days, Jackson probably also won the most popular votes.

Shortly before the House vote, a Philadelphia newspaper published a statement allegedly written by a member of Congress who claimed that Clay supported Adams in return for Adams’s guarantee to appoint Clay as secretary of state. After Adams became president, he did appoint Clay to this position, prompting Jackson to accuse Clay and Adams of a “corrupt bargain.” Since the last four secretaries of state had become president, Adams appeared to be counting on Clay to be his successor after one or two terms. Many historians doubt whether Clay and Adams actually conspired in this manner.

The Election of 1828

- Adams vs. Jackson again
 - Adams: National Republican
 - Jackson: Democrat
- Bitterness and accusations during the campaign
- Jackson's strong base of support
- Van Buren campaigned for Jackson
- Jackson won



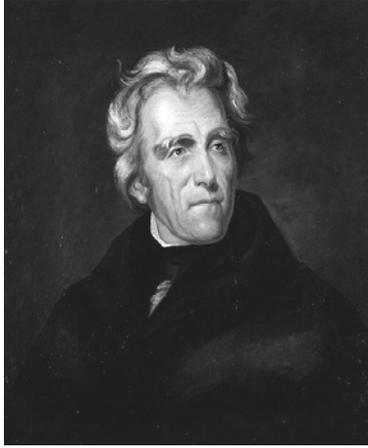
John Quincy Adams ran for a second term in 1828. Once again, he ran against Andrew Jackson. Adams's vice president, John Calhoun, campaigned this time as Jackson's vice presidential running mate. Adams and his supporters, including his vice presidential candidate Richard Rush, became known as the "National Republicans." Jackson and his supporters called themselves "Democratic-Republicans" but became known as "Democrats." No other major candidates ran in 1828.

The 1828 campaign displayed a considerable amount of contention and bitterness. The Adams campaign, for example, attacked Jackson and his wife Rachel for having married before she had officially divorced her previous husband. Adams's supporters also railed against Jackson's Indian massacres and his penchant for engaging in duels. Jackson's campaign, for its part, accused Adams of spending public funds on gambling in the White House (Adams had purchased a pool table and a chessboard).

Jackson had a strong base of supporters, including ones he had gained since the previous presidential election. New York politician Martin Van Buren campaigned in his favor; he also gained support from Southerners who favored states' rights. Jackson won 178 electoral votes to Adams's 83. Adams only won states in the New England or Mid-Atlantic regions.

Jackson took office in 1829, the first president hailing from the area west of the Appalachians. Rachel had died of a heart attack on December 22, 1828, and Jackson blamed her death on the mudslinging against her during the campaign. Thus began the Jacksonian era of government in the United States.

“Jacksonian Democracy”



- Strict interpretation of Constitution
- Hands-off approach to economy
- “Spoils” (patronage) system

Jackson’s political philosophy is often referred to as “Jacksonian Democracy.” His ideas about how the federal government should operate and relate to the public stemmed from Thomas Jefferson’s philosophies and those of the Democratic-Republican Party members who preceded him; they also differed sharply from those of John Adams and the Federalist, and later Whig, parties.

Jackson believed in a strict interpretation of the Constitution, which granted states the powers not explicitly outlined in the Constitution. However, this philosophy became a source of tension during his administration, and Jackson advocated a more expansive interpretation of as time went on.

Jackson preferred a “hands-off” (*laissez-faire*) approach to the economy. To this end, he opposed national banks. He favored a patronage system, by which elected officials appointed to office people who had helped them get elected or who had done them other special favors. Jackson and his supporters believed that this patronage (“spoils”) system would increase political participation on the part of “regular” people and would force the politicians who appointed these officials to be more accountable to their constituents. Jackson opposed long terms for elected and appointed officials, instead favoring the regular rotation of individuals in government positions.

“Jacksonian Democracy” (continued)

- Manifest Destiny
- Indian relocation
- Increased suffrage for white men
- President for the “common man”

“As long as our government is administered for the good of the people, and is regulated by their will; as long as it secures to use the rights of persons and of property, liberty of conscience and of the press, it will be worth defending.”

—Andrew Jackson

The Jacksonian era coincided with a time of increasing westward expansion. Jackson and his supporters believed in the concept of Manifest Destiny—that the United States was destined to occupy the land from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This philosophy required conquest over the Native Americans who already inhabited this land. Jackson therefore made Native American “relocation” a central part of his work as president.

The election of 1824 had been the first election in which white men without property could vote for president. Jacksonians promoted this increased suffrage for white men, expanding white male suffrage substantially during Jackson’s president. In general, Jackson considered and promoted himself as a president for the “common man.” The definition of this term at this time included only white men—not Native Americans, African Americans, or women.

Jackson's Inauguration



- Mobs of “regular people” attended inauguration for champion of the “common man”
- Unruly crowd followed him to Executive Mansion
- Chaos in the mansion
- Jackson fled to a hotel

Jackson's supporters were elated that a champion of the “common man” had been elected to the White House. Thousands of “ordinary” people turned out for the inauguration on Sunday, March 11, 1829. As the first inauguration held outside the eastern doors of the Capitol Building, this event attracted mobs of visitors who identified with Jackson's populist message. A huge crowd surrounded him as he walked to the Capitol for the ceremony, threatening to trample unfortunate revelers. After Jackson's speech, the crowds rushed onto the Capitol steps, hoping for a chance to shake hands with their new president. Jackson mounted a horse and, with difficulty, made his way to the Executive Mansion (now called the White House) with the crowd in tow.

A lack of security at the Executive Mansion prompted members of the crowd to mob that building and its grounds. Their enthusiasm to make contact with Jackson led to chaos inside the Executive Mansion, with thousands of dollars worth of china and glass broken. Outside, the refreshments provided for the “guests” ran out quickly, vastly insufficient to meet the needs of the unexpected numbers in attendance. Jackson had to enter the mansion through a back door but, upon making his appearance, became cornered against a wall, protected only by a human barrier of men trying to protect him. Some feared that the entire Executive Mansion might collapse under the weight of the revelers.

Many people suffered injuries in the mayhem. Some fled the Executive Mansion through its windows, as the masses of people blocked the doors. Jackson eventually fled to a nearby hotel.

The Spoils System

- Jackson replaced many long-serving officials
- “Rotation in office”
- Claimed government would better serve the people and uphold its ideals
- Critics called this the “spoils system”; charged that it might install unqualified “cronies” of the president



Cartoon depicting Jackson's championing of the spoils system

When Jackson became president, many appointed government officials had been in their positions since the Washington Administration (about 30 years). As part of his desire to reform the government, Jackson replaced many of these officials, particularly those he viewed as corrupt. He appointed new people whom he felt could restore a sense of morality to the federal government. These replacements typically included men who had supported Jackson's campaign.

Jackson defended his implementation of what he called a “rotation in office” by declaring that it would help move the country closer to its original intentions and ideals; in particular, he wanted to make sure the government didn't begin to appear as a monarchy, with leaders serving for life, unaccountable to the general public. He declared that this rotation system would assure that every man had an equal, intrinsic right to hold a government position and that the government would serve to benefit the people, not merely its own officials.

Jackson's critics called this system the “spoils system,” following Senator William Marcy's comment that “to the victor belongs the spoils.” They felt that this rotation gave elected officials an excuse to appoint people who had done them favors and had openly supported them, rather than selecting the best-qualified people for the jobs. As a result, they believed, the government risked sinking into incompetence.

The Tariff Issue

“...[the tariff of 1828], with the whole system of legislation imposing duties on imports, — not for revenue, but the protection of one branch of industry at the expense of others — is unconstitutional, unequal, and oppressive, and calculated to corrupt the public virtue and destroy the liberty of the country.”

—John C. Calhoun

- Tariff of 1828 (“Tariff of Abominations”)
- Jackson did not reduce tariff
- Calhoun resigned as VP; argued against tariff as SC senator
- Jackson’s compromise: Tariff of 1832
- 1832 tariff pleased only some Southerners

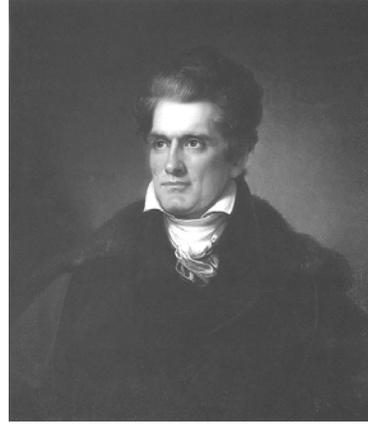
In 1828, Congress passed a tariff to protect Northern industry by raising the price of goods imported from Europe. Southerners strongly opposed this tariff, which they named the “Tariff of Abominations,” because it forced them to pay higher prices for goods they now had to import from the North and reduced Britain’s ability to pay for Southern cotton. President John Quincy Adams signed the bill into law, angering many Southerners and damaging him politically against Andrew Jackson, to whom he would lose the election later that year.

Tariff opponents expected that President Jackson would reduce the tariff. Jackson, however, felt that the tariff should not be reduced until the U.S. paid off the national debt. Jackson’s vice president John Calhoun openly opposed the tariff, resigning his office in 1832 to become a South Carolina senator. Calhoun argued against the tariff from the Senate floor.

In an attempt to placate tariff opponents’ growing anger, Jackson signed into law the Tariff of 1832, a compromise tariff that pleased some, but not all, Southern opponents of the 1828 tariff.

The Nullification Crisis

- Calhoun: only states could judge the constitutionality of federal law
- Nullification as an alternative to secession
- Force Bill
- Compromise Tariff of 1833
- Jackson lost much Southern support
- Impetus for Whig Party



John C. Calhoun

To express its continued opposition to tariffs, South Carolina in 1832 declared both the 1828 tariff and the 1832 tariff null and void (a process called “nullification”). As senator, Calhoun made it clear that without the option of nullification, South Carolina might consider seceding from the Union over the tariff issue. He argued that nullification was justified because the federal government did not possess the authority to judge the constitutionality of its own acts, and that the states alone had the right to determine whether the federal government had overstepped its powers.

In response to South Carolina’s nullification of the tariffs, Congress passed a “force bill” to uphold Jackson’s belief that the nullification violated the Constitution and was “incompatible with the existence of the Union.” Tensions mounted, and South Carolina readied its militia for an expected confrontation with the U.S. military. At the same time, Congress debated the compromise Tariff of 1833, which Calhoun and Henry Clay proposed to resolve the crisis. This compromise passed the Senate, ending the crisis. It stipulated that tariff rates be gradually reduced to their 1816 levels.

While the Tariff of 1833 settled the issue for the time being, the nullification crisis led many Southerners to question whether Jackson really represented their interests. This dissatisfaction with Jackson led to the formation of the Whig Party.

The Second Bank of the United States

- Jackson handily reelected in 1832
- Had campaigned against the Second Bank of the U.S.
- Privately held bank where the federal government deposited its money
- Jackson opposed to the bank for a variety of reasons



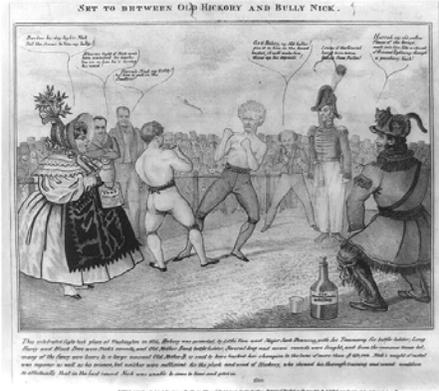
Cartoon depicting Jackson fighting the Bank, shown here as a “many-headed monster”

Andrew Jackson ran for reelection in 1832 against Henry Clay of the National Republican Party and two minority party candidates (William Wirt of the Anti-Masonic party and John Floyd of the Nullifier Party). Jackson won the election by a large margin of 219 out of 286 possible electoral votes. This was the first election in which candidates were nominated in national political conventions. Jackson’s primary campaign platform involved his opposition to the Second Bank of the United States.

In 1816, during James Madison’s presidency, Congress had authorized the Second Bank of the United States for a 20-year period. Despite its name, this bank was privately held rather than owned by the government. Its special relationship with the government, however, allowed it to accrue profits while holding the federal government’s revenues in deposit. Many state banks objected to this special relationship.

Jackson sought to end the Second Bank of the United States’ charter before the end of its 20-year term. He believed that a national bank went against his philosophy of states’ rights and the rights of common farmers and laborers over elite industrialists. He felt that the national bank dangerously concentrated the nation’s finances within a single institution, contributed to inflation, helped enrich the elite (particularly in the Northeast), held too much influence over Congress members, and risked exposing the government’s assets to foreign control should another country try to take over the U.S.

The Second Bank of the United States (continued)



Cartoon showing Jackson in a boxing match against Bank president Nicholas Biddle

- Jackson vetoed renewal of bank's charter
- Executive order ended federal deposits into Second Bank
- Deposits instead went into state banks mainly owned by Jackson supporters
- Second Bank failed

Jackson had his first opportunity to end the bank's charter in 1832, when the Bank president Nicholas Biddle applied for a renewal four years before its scheduled expiration. Henry Clay, one of Jackson's main opponents in the Senate, pushed the bill through Congress. Jackson vetoed this bill, thus not allowing the charter to be renewed.

In 1833, Jackson issued an executive order ending government deposits into the bank, instead depositing them into state banks. Treasury Secretary Louis McLane refused to carry out this order, disagreeing with Jackson's opposition to the Second Bank. Jackson subsequently replaced McLane with Roger B. Taney, who did as Jackson had asked. Jackson's supporters owned many of the state banks into which the government initially deposited the money it had withdrawn from the Second Bank of the United States. Jackson's critics called these "pet banks," expressing their opposition to Jackson's apparent favoritism.

Without federal government deposits, the Second Bank of the United States lost money and began to fail. When its charter expired in 1836, it became a regular local bank in Philadelphia.

The Whig Party

- Formed over nullification crisis, closing of Second Bank of U.S.
- Led by Clay and Webster
- Positions:
 - Stronger Congress, less powerful executive
 - Modernization of economy
 - National Bank and higher tariffs
- Contrasted sharply with Democrats' agrarian ideals

In response to the nullification crisis and the closing of the Second Bank of the United States, a group of Jackson's opponents formed the Whig Party in 1833. Initially, the Whig Party coalesced around its opposition to Jackson and his policies, particularly those against the Second Bank of the United States. The party's early leaders included Senators Daniel Webster and Henry Clay.

Whig Party members believed in a stronger Congress and a less powerful executive branch. They viewed Jackson as an arrogant and reckless leader and believed that Congress, rather than the president, better reflected the true will of the people. The party supported modernizing and industrializing the economy along the lines of Henry Clay's "American System," which advocated a national bank and higher tariffs to help fund the building of roads, canals, and other parts of the American infrastructure. Party members feared that Jackson's policies would stall the country's modernization. They also supported selling public lands to raise money for improvements to existing infrastructure. These views contrasted sharply with Jackson's and the Democrats' ideals of maintaining an agrarian republic.

“King Andrew the First”



Discussion questions: Give students a minute to examine this 1834 cartoon, and ask the following questions:

- Who does the cartoon portray, and how does it portray him? (It portrays Andrew Jackson dressed in kingly robes, holding a staff and a document that says “veto.” He is standing in front of his throne.)
- The cartoon’s author is unknown. Do you think he supported or opposed Jackson? How can you tell? (The author opposed Jackson; depicting a president as a king implied that he was arrogant or had appropriated too much power.)
- What is Jackson holding and standing on, and what do these tell you about the author’s views of Jackson? (He is holding a paper that says “veto,” while standing on both the Constitution and a paper that says “Internal Improvements U.S. Bank.” The author felt that Jackson’s veto of the Second Bank of the United States was unconstitutional and hindered the national improvements and progress that the bank represented.)
- Why do you think the author drew this cartoon? (He probably wanted to share his views on Jackson to encourage the public to be skeptical of Jackson’s position on the Second Bank of the United States and his overall use—and, in the author’s view, abuse—of executive power.)

Discussion Questions

1. What were some characteristics of Jacksonian Democracy?
2. Why did the Tariff of 1828 upset Southern politicians? Why didn't Jackson repeal the tariff once in office?
3. What events led to the formation of the Whig Party? What were some of its positions?

1. Based largely on the views of Jefferson's Democratic-Republicans of the previous era, Jacksonian Democracy included a strict interpretation of the Constitution, giving the federal government only the powers explicitly stated therein; a *laissez-faire* approach to the economy that limited governmental involvement; the "spoils system" that awarded supporters positions in federal government; the fervent support of westward expansion; and increased suffrage among white men.
2. The Tariff of 1828 (the so-called Tariff of Abominations) raised prices on the finished goods that the South had previously imported from Britain, forcing Southerners to buy Northern products, and consequently reduced the amount of cotton that Britain had been acquiring from the South. Southern politicians had expected that Jackson would repeal the tariff, but he wanted to keep it until the U.S. paid off the national debt.
3. The Whigs formed in response to Jackson's handling of the nullification crisis, but especially to his opposition to and dissolution of the Second Bank of the U.S. The Whigs promoted a stronger Congress and a less powerful executive, modernizing and industrializing the economy, and paying for improvements to the country's infrastructure with the help of a national bank, higher tariffs, and by selling public lands; all of these conflicted with the Democrats' view of the country as an agrarian republic.

The Indian Removal Act

- Jackson's long history of fighting Native Americans
- Southeastern Indian nations most affected
- Some protested government treatment
- Supreme Court decision in favor of Cherokee
- Act passed in 1830 with Jackson's support

“The consequence of a speedy removal will be important to the United States, to individual States, and to the Indians themselves...It will place a dense and civilized population in large tracts of a country now occupied by a few savage hunters.”

—Andrew Jackson on
Indian removal

Jackson's military career had involved much fighting against Native Americans and negotiating treaties that encouraged them to relocate westward. In alignment with his longstanding views toward Native Americans, Jackson supported the policy of Indian removal, advocating that tribes be “removed” to areas west of the Mississippi River so that white settlers could more easily take over the lands east of the river. He campaigned on this issue in both 1824 and 1828.

Jackson's policies applied mainly to the Cherokee, Creek, Choctaw, Chickasaw, and Seminole nations of the Southeast. In 1823, the Supreme Court decided that Native Americans could not claim title to the lands they occupied, stating that the U.S. had a “right to discovery” of that land. In response, members of the Creek, Chickasaw, and Cherokee nations established policies to not sell land to the government. The Cherokee declared themselves a sovereign nation in 1827, writing their own constitution. This act of protest proved highly controversial within the federal government. The Supreme Court twice heard cases related to Cherokee sovereignty; in the first case, the court ruled against sovereignty, but in the second (not decided until 1831), it ruled in favor of the Cherokee.

Jackson strongly disapproved of the court's second decision. In 1830, Jackson helped push the Indian Removal Act through Congress. This new law allowed Jackson to establish treaties with tribes east of the Mississippi and to insist in the treaties that the tribes move west of the Mississippi. If they did not relocate, they would become citizens of whatever state they resided in, rather than of their own nations.

The Second Seminole War



Painting depicting the burning of a Seminole village by U.S. troops

- Seminole reservation in Florida Territory
- Slaves escaped to Seminole territory
- Treaty of Payne's Landing
- Jackson sent army to forcibly remove the Seminole
- Most expensive Indian War
- Seminole surrendered in 1842

Florida became a United States territory in 1821, after the First Seminole War. Thousands of settlers subsequently entered Florida, prompting the federal government to designate an Indian reservation in the territory's center. Despite the resettlement of many Native Americans to this reservation, many in the federal government argued that the Seminoles should be relocated to Oklahoma.

During the 1820s and 1830s, a significant number of slaves escaped from their owners and joined the Seminoles. This situation angered slave owners and proslavery members of the government, increasing the pressure to relocate the Seminoles.

In 1832, the federal government sent seven Seminole leaders to inspect the area in Oklahoma where they were being encouraged to resettle. There they were forced to sign the Treaty of Payne's Landing, which they renounced upon their return to Florida. The Seminoles declared that they had no intention of moving west. In response to this declaration, President Jackson commanded the army to remove them by force. The subsequent bloodshed lasted until 1842 and resulted in the most expensive of the Indian Wars. Seminole leader Osceola died a prisoner of the U.S. government in 1838, but his followers continued fighting until nearly exterminated. In 1842, the Seminoles surrendered, and more than 4000 moved to Oklahoma. A small number remained in Florida's Everglades.

Cherokee Removal

- Significant Cherokee assimilation into white culture
- Resistance to Indian Removal Act
- Minority groups agreed to give up their lands
- Treaty of New Echota (1835)



Cherokee leader John Ross

The Cherokee tribe also faced forced removal from their lands in the South into the region west of the Mississippi River. During the early 19th century, the Cherokee had adopted many features of white “civilization.” Many Cherokee had converted to Christianity, and the Cherokee Nation’s constitution resembled corresponding American and European documents. The Cherokee lived side by side with whites, sent their children to school, created a written language, and started a newspaper. Despite this significant assimilation into white culture, the government continued to press for their removal from their home territories, which the Cherokee continued to resist.

While most Cherokee resisted removal, some minority groups of Cherokee agreed to give up their lands. In 1835, one of these minority groups gathered in New Echota, Georgia, to sign the Treaty of New Echota with the U.S. government. By signing this treaty, this Cherokee splinter group agreed that all Cherokee would move west into Indian Territory, in present-day Oklahoma.

The Trail of Tears



- Forced removal to Indian Territory (in present-day Oklahoma)
- Cherokee unprepared for harsh conditions
- Smallpox
- About a quarter died along the way
- African Americans, slave and free

The Cherokee Nation did not approve of the Treaty of New Echota and refused to endorse Cherokee removal, at odds with the splinter group that had signed it. This resistance to the Indian Removal Act prompted the U.S. government to forcibly remove the Cherokee to western lands in 1838. All other major southern tribes had already moved west. Some Cherokee left voluntarily (albeit reluctantly), but federal troops removed thousands of others at bayonet point. They traveled approximately 1000 miles westward (most on foot but some on horseback), into present-day Oklahoma, which the government had divided into reservations for the relocated tribes. Out of about 15,000 Cherokee who began the journey, approximately 4000 died along the way. This route became known as “The Trail Where They Cried,” or “The Trail of Tears.”

The thousand-mile march began in the winter. Most people walked without shoes; few were prepared for the unusually cold weather. Some contracted smallpox, forcing the Cherokee to circumvent towns and villages to avoid infecting local residents, making their journey even longer.

Many African Americans accompanied the Cherokee on their forced migration. The Cherokee owned slaves, whom they took with them. Other African Americans had married Cherokee or assimilated into the Cherokee tribe.

The Trail of Tears: Primary Source

“I have no motive, my friends, to deceive you. I am sincerely desirous to promote your welfare. Listen to me, therefore, while I tell you that you cannot remain where you now are. Circumstances that cannot be controlled, and which are beyond the reach of human laws, render it impossible that you can flourish in the midst of a civilized community. You have but one remedy within your reach. And that is, to remove to the West and join your countrymen, who are already established there. And the sooner you do this the sooner you will commence your career of improvement and prosperity.”

—Andrew Jackson, to the Cherokee National Council

Discussion questions: In 1835, President Jackson sent a letter to the Cherokee National Council explaining the terms of the treaty he hoped they would sign. This is an excerpt from that letter.

Give students time to read Jackson’s statement, and ask them the following:

- What did Jackson want the Cherokee to do? (He wanted them to sign the treaty and relocate west.)
- What do you think Jackson meant when he said, “Circumstances that cannot be controlled, and which are beyond the reach of human laws, render it impossible that you can flourish in the midst of a civilized community”? (He probably meant that that the Cherokee were too different from whites to remain in the lands that whites now occupied.)
- If you were a Cherokee leader reading this letter, what might you have thought of Jackson’s statements? (Answers will vary: students may say that they’d be resigned to have to sign the treaty and move, that they wouldn’t have trusted Jackson’s assessment of the situation, and/or that the letter would have made them more resolved to stay on their land.)

The Election of 1836

- VP Martin Van Buren ran against four Whigs, each from a different region:
 - W.H. Harrison (OH)
 - H.L. White (TN)
 - Daniel Webster (MA)
 - W.P. Mangum (NC)
- Whigs hoped the House would have to decide election
- Van Buren won with 170 electoral votes



Martin Van Buren

Jackson decided to retire after two terms. In 1836, Jackson's vice president, Martin Van Buren of New York, ran for president as the Democratic candidate. He ran against four Whig candidates: William Henry Harrison of Ohio, Hugh Lawson White of Tennessee, Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, and Willie Person Mangum of North Carolina. The Whig Party decided to run so many candidates in the hopes that each could defeat Van Buren in his home region, forcing the House of Representatives to decide which Whig candidate would become president.

Despite strong Whig attacks tying Van Buren to Jackson (whom the Whigs detested), the Democratic Party's organization and campaign efforts proved strong enough to win Van Buren a majority of electoral votes (170) and therefore the presidency. Harrison placed second, with 73 electoral votes.

Van Buren and the Panic of 1837



Cartoon portraying Van Buren's continuation of Jackson's hard-money policies as the reason for the Panic of 1837

- NY senator, Jackson's secretary of state and VP
- Inherited economic problems from Jackson Administration
- Specie Circular
- Economic depression
- Van Buren set up a special treasury for government's money
- Economy recovered around 1843

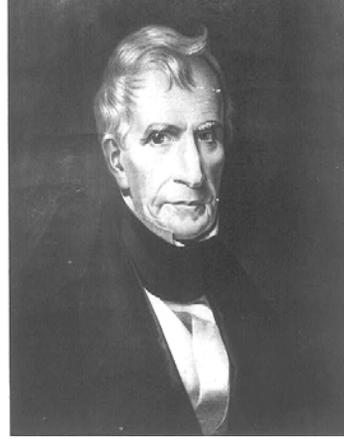
Martin Van Buren had served as senator from New York, fighting to limit the slave trade within the U.S. and to abolish laws requiring imprisonment for people who could not pay their debts. He later served as Jackson's secretary of state and subsequently his vice president.

Van Buren inherited economic problems that had developed during Jackson's administration. After the Second Bank of the United States was shuttered, state banks took over many roles that the national bank had played. Jackson had ordered the federal budget surplus apportioned among the states, a process that involved withdrawing a great deal of money from these banks, which in order to stay afloat had to immediately collect on loans they had made. In addition, the state banks had fostered speculation on western public lands by loaning money to many who could not afford to pay back their loans (partially due to inflation). In 1836, Jackson issued the Specie Circular, an executive order prohibiting the federal government from accepting anything besides gold or silver as payment for public lands. This action ended the speculation, since the state banks didn't have enough gold and silver to pay the government. Finally, economic troubles in other countries (especially Britain) lowered both foreign investment in the U.S. and purchase of American goods. The resulting financial crash occurred a little over two months into Van Buren's presidency.

On May 10, 1837, banks in New York City and Philadelphia closed. Banks around the country closed shortly thereafter, ushering in a major economic depression known as the "Panic of 1837"—the first depression the United States had faced. Van Buren reacted to the crisis by supporting a special treasury to hold and protect the federal government's money. This action contradicted Van Buren's campaign pledge to limit the use of federal power, angering many bankers and stockholders. The economy did not recovery fully until around 1843.

Harrison and the Election of 1840

- Van Buren's increasing unpopularity
- Harrison (Whig) vs. Van Buren (Dem.)
- Whigs blamed Van Buren for the nation's economic problems
- Harrison won, but died a month into his term



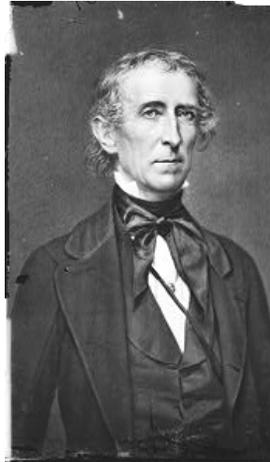
William Henry Harrison

Van Buren became increasingly unpopular as a result of the Panic of 1837 and his responses to it. He lost the support of antislavery leaders, who feared that his actions supporting the Second Seminole War would lead to Florida becoming a slave state. He also lost the support of many proslavery leaders, who criticized his refusal to annex Texas.

In 1840, Van Buren ran for reelection against William Henry Harrison. Originally from Virginia, Harrison had served as governor of Indiana Territory, fought in the War of 1812, and ran as a Whig candidate for president in 1836. Harrison and the Whigs successfully convinced voters that Van Buren was an aristocrat who should be held responsible for the country's economic difficulties. Harrison won 234 electoral votes to Van Buren's 60.

Harrison served as president for only a month. He caught a cold while delivering his inauguration speech on a chilly Washington day in March 1841. His illness progressed to pneumonia, and he died on April 4, 1841.

John Tyler's Presidency



John Tyler

- A Whig, but disagreed with most of the Whig platform
- Vetoed most Whig bills
- Opposed a national bank and tariffs
- Mob at White House
- Whigs unsuccessfully introduced impeachment legislation

Vice President John Tyler became president at Harrison's death in 1841. Although a Whig, Tyler disagreed with most of the Whigs' platform and vetoed almost every major congressional bill they favored. Tyler strongly opposed a national bank and higher protective tariffs, and he vetoed Henry Clay's 1841 legislative program that called for both of these measures. On the night of this veto, an armed mob rushed to the White House and threw rocks through the windows in protest of Tyler's position.

In January 1843, Congressional Whigs introduced legislation to impeach Tyler—the first impeachment legislation to be introduced against a president. A number of Whigs voted with the Democrats against impeachment, and Tyler remained in office.

Discussion Questions

1. What was the Panic of 1837, and what likely caused it?
2. Why did the Whig Party run four candidates against Martin Van Buren in 1836? Was their plan successful?
3. Why did Whigs introduce impeachment legislation against John Tyler?

1. The Panic of 1837 was the first economic depression the U.S. faced. It likely arose from economic policy under the Jackson Administration, which had shuttered the Second Bank of the U.S. in favor of a number of state banks. When Jackson decided to pay the federal budget surplus to the various states, these banks lost much of their holdings and called in loans they had made, just to stay afloat. These same banks had lent money to buy public lands in the western U.S. to speculators, most of whom could not repay the loans (partially due to inflation). In order to curb speculation, Jackson's Specie Circular of 1836 said that the federal government would accept only gold and silver as payment for these lands; however, banks could not fully back up their loans with precious metals. In addition, economic crunches in countries such as Britain brought down foreign investment and purchases of U.S. exports, further hurting the U.S. economy.
2. The four candidates that the Whigs ran in 1836 each came from a different region of the country: Harrison from Ohio, White from Tennessee, Webster from Massachusetts, and Mangum from North Carolina. The Whigs believed that if each candidate won his home state (or region), Van Buren could not garner the necessary majority of the electoral votes, and therefore the House of Representatives would decide the election in favor of one of the Whigs. The plan failed when Van Buren won a majority of electoral votes.
3. The Whigs felt that Tyler had rejected too much of their legislation, although he himself was (at least nominally) a Whig. Tyler opposed a national bank and higher protective tariffs, and vetoed Sen. Henry Clay's package of legislation to enact these programs.

Immigration

- German immigration:
 - Rising land costs, overcrowding, and political instability
 - Settled in Midwest to farm
- Irish immigration:
 - Great Hunger (potato famine)
 - Settled on East Coast for industrial jobs
- Prejudice against Irish



Emigrants Leaving Ireland, a 19th-century painting

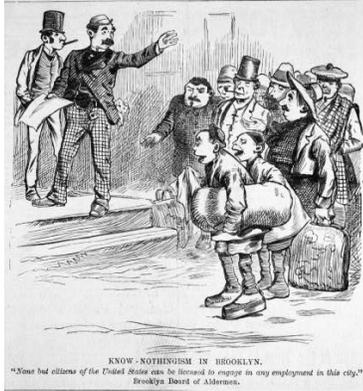
During the mid-19th century, rates of immigration began to rise. Immigration from Germany nearly tripled during the 1840s from its 1830s level. Many left because industrialization had reduced the need for farm labor, land had become more expensive, and cities had become overcrowded. Germany also saw political instability in the mid-19th century. States and territories actively pursued German immigrants, sending representatives to Germany to tout the benefits of moving to the U.S. Many German immigrants settled in the present-day Midwest, developing farms in Ohio, Wisconsin, and other states and frontier territories.

Irish immigration began to increase steadily in 1830s, but a particularly large wave resulted from the Great Hunger between 1845 and 1849. During this time, a potato blight (similar to a mold or fungus) wiped out most of Ireland's potato crop. Around one million people in Ireland died, while another million emigrated to other countries. Longstanding political persecution at the hands of the British further contributed to this emigration.

Most Irish immigrants moved to the rapidly industrializing urban centers of the East Coast (particularly Boston and New York), attracted by jobs in factories and coal mines and on the newly developing eastern railroads. Most of the new arrivals had very little education or skills and had to work the most menial jobs. Many other Irish immigrants (primarily women, but also some men) became maids or servants.

The Irish newcomers of the mid-19th century faced considerable prejudice and discrimination from Americans already in the country. Many Americans disdained the new immigrants' Catholicism and large families stereotyped them as belligerent alcoholics. Working-class Americans resented that they now had to compete with Irish immigrants for factory and other low-level jobs.

Nativism



“Know-Nothingism in Brooklyn,” in which a city official tells immigrants “none but the citizens of the United States can be licensed to engage in any employment in this city.”

- American Republican Party (“Know Nothings”)
- General nativist sentiments:
 - Anti-immigrant, anti-Catholic
 - Advocated immigration limits
 - Only native-born whites should hold office
 - Wanted 21-year wait to naturalize immigrants
- Declined by late 1850s

Even before the major wave of Irish immigration, anti-Irish sentiment led to the creation of political movements based on shutting immigrants out of the political process. Once the Irish began to come in droves, these nativist (as in native-born American, not Native American) reactions became much more pronounced. In 1843, the anti-immigrant American Republican Party formed in New York. This secretive organization asked members to say, “I know nothing,” when asked about its activities; party members therefore became known as “Know Nothings.”

Members of the Know Nothing movement and other Americans with similar sentiments feared that the new Catholic immigrants would band together to live under the direction of the Pope in Rome, rather than the U.S. democratic government. The Know Nothings worked to elect anti-immigrant and anti-Catholic candidates. Know Nothings advocated limits to immigration, that only native-born whites be qualified to hold elected office, and that immigrants wait 21 years before becoming citizens, among other things.

Although Know Nothings managed to place members in state legislatures throughout the Northeast, they never became a force in national politics. The Know Nothing Party declined in the late 1850s, when slavery became the nation’s central issue.

The Second Great Awakening

- Religious revival asserting that people could work toward perfection in themselves and society
- Addressed issues such as:
 - abolition
 - temperance
 - prison reform
- Revival meetings
- Impact on women’s suffrage



An 1839 Methodist camp meeting

Beginning in the late 18th century, a religious movement known as the “Second Great Awakening” spread across the country (the first occurred in the early 18th century). This religious revival, which lasted through the 1840s, set forth the idea that people could work toward perfection in themselves and in society. The renewed social activity that resulted from this movement focused on the abolition of slavery, temperance (the prohibition of alcohol), prison reform, and care for society’s less fortunate.

As part of this movement, Christian denominations actively spread their messages of morality throughout the country, including to places on the western frontier that many Christians in the East viewed as decadent and immoral. Many denominations (including Methodists, Baptists, and Presbyterians) increased their numbers of followers significantly, and this religious fervor gave birth to many new denominations. Some of these Christian groups, particularly in the Appalachian region, held multi-day revival meetings in “camps,” with singing, dancing, and a sense of exhilaration that contrasted with the typically lonely frontier life. These events inspired many people to return to their communities and open their own churches, further spreading the religious enthusiasm of this period.

The Second Great Awakening had a particular impact on women’s rights and the women’s suffrage (voting) movement. Although many Americans of the early to mid-19th century considered women’s inferiority ordained by the Christian God, the Second Great Awakening initiated a widespread conversation about reform in a variety of areas, including women’s rights.

The Temperance Movement



Temperance advocates outside a liquor store

- Attempted to curtail or ban alcohol
- Hoped to ensure the stability of family and civil society
- Women particularly involved
- American Temperance Society
- Related to the Second Great Awakening

During the 1830s and 1840s, many people became active in the temperance movement. Advocates of temperance argued that alcohol consumption had to be curtailed or banned altogether in order to ensure the stability of the family and civil society. Women maintained a particular interest in this subject since they had been the traditional guardians of family virtues. Though men founded and led the temperance organizations, women increasingly played active roles in spreading the message as the century continued. The American Temperance Society, formed in 1826, established numerous chapters (particularly in the North, perhaps because of the association of the temperance and antislavery movements).

The temperance movement had close ties to the Second Great Awakening. Many Protestant churches took up the cause of temperance during the 1830s and 1840s, promoting it as a central component of their crusade toward improving morality in the country; this religious enthusiasm helped spread the temperance message to places it might otherwise not have reached. By the end of the 1830s, activists had put nearly 20 temperance journals in circulation, and the American Temperance Society claimed more than 1.5 million members.

Women's Suffrage

- “Cult of True Womanhood”
- Tied to temperance and abolition movements
- Women gained confidence in ability to effect change



Illustration depicting many of the ideals of the “cult of true womanhood”

Throughout the 19th century, women could not vote in local, state, or national elections. Early in the century, women remained subject to the ideals of the “Cult of True Womanhood,” which held a woman’s duties to husband, children, and home to be her divinely ordained calling. The societal norm held that women had no place in politics, not even in the ability to vote.

This view regarding women’s roles began to change during the mid-19th century, corresponding to the Second Great Awakening and the establishment of women’s activist groups related to temperance and abolition. By meeting to talk about these issues, women gained confidence in their ability to effect societal change.

Women's Suffrage (continued)

THE FIRST CONVENTION
EVER CALLED TO DISCUSS THE
Civil and Political Rights of Women,
SENECA FALLS, N. Y., JULY 19, 20, 1848.
WOMAN'S RIGHTS CONVENTION.

A Convention to discuss the social, civil, and religious condition and rights of woman will be held in the Wesleyan Chapel, at Seneca Falls, N. Y., on Wednesday and Thursday, the 19th and 20th of July current; commencing at 10 o'clock A. M. During the first day the meeting will be exclusively for women, who are earnestly invited to attend. The public generally are invited to be present on the second day, when Lucretia Mott, of Philadelphia, and other ladies and gentlemen, will address the Convention.

Newspaper ad for the
Seneca Falls
Convention

- Seneca Falls Convention (1848)
- *Declaration of Sentiments*:
 - Based on Declaration of Independence
 - Called for complete equality of women and men
 - Demanded the right to vote
- 19th Amendment (1920)

The women's rights movement began in earnest with the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848. This meeting of approximately 300 women and men in Seneca Falls, New York, established a *Declaration of Sentiments* modeled after the Declaration of Independence. The first line of the second paragraph reads, "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men and women are created equal..." The *Declaration of Sentiments* also catalogs a number of grievances against men and male society, including the statement that "[h]e has never permitted her to exercise her inalienable right to the elective franchise." The document directly called for universal women's suffrage in the United States, stating:

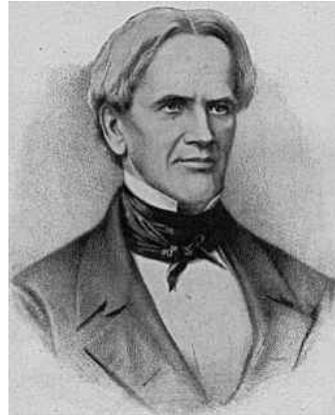
Now, in view of this entire disfranchisement of one-half the people of this country, their social and religious degradation—in view of the unjust laws above mentioned, and because women do feel themselves aggrieved, oppressed, and fraudulently deprived of their most sacred rights, we insist that they have immediate admission to all the rights and privileges which belong to them as citizens of the United States.

This document sparked heated controversy even among people who generally supported women's rights. Many saw its support of women's suffrage as too radical and feared that it would hinder the women's rights movement in other areas (such as the push for women's property rights). Of the 300 people present at the convention, 100 signed the *Declaration of Sentiments* (68 women and 32 men).

The women's suffrage movement pressed on until the ratification of the 19th Amendment to the Constitution in 1920, granting women throughout the country the right to vote.

The Growth of Public Education

- Early school “system” was disjointed, with many private and religious schools
- Horace Mann:
 - Supported education for all children
 - Founded normal schools to professionalize teaching
 - Advocated public financing



Horace Mann

Several of the Founding Fathers (such as Thomas Jefferson) expressed interest in a public system of education separate from churches and other religious influences, and accessible to all children. Until the mid-19th century, however, American children received their education in private schools or with at-home tutors. Religious institutions or charities ran many schools, but without any organized school system or public financing of education. Public schools did exist in the early 19th century, but lacked financial resources, adequate facilities, and trained teachers, and held class only a few weeks a year.

The modern system of publicly financed education originated with mid-19th-century reformers who wanted to make education accessible to all American children, including immigrants and the poor. The best-known of these reformers was Massachusetts lawyer and state senator Horace Mann, who established and became secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education in 1837. In this role, Mann conducted detailed surveys of existing schools and reported widely on his findings. He established the Massachusetts normal school system (teacher-training colleges), helping professionalize the occupation of teaching; up until this point, teachers received little formal training. He lectured widely about the benefits of education for all children and argued that the public should finance the school system, which he believed would benefit all of society. Mann also increased the school year to six months and called for raising funds for school improvements and supplies.

The Growth of Public Education (continued)



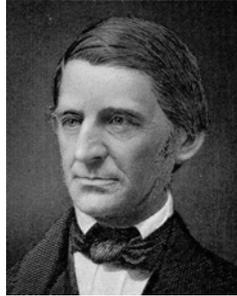
A one-room schoolhouse

- Schooling based on recitation and drilling
- Mainly one-room schoolhouses in rural areas
- Taught moral behavior and manners along with academics
- Corporal punishment

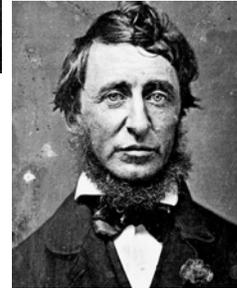
Public school education in the mid-to-late 19th century revolved around recitation and drilling. Students wrote their lessons in chalk on a slate (like a personal blackboard) and often had to take oral quizzes at the end of each day to test their learning. Many rural schools remained as one-room schoolhouses, in which children of all ages would learn in the same room, from the same teacher. Teachers emphasized strong discipline and taught moral behavior and manners as well as reading, writing, and math. Teachers used corporal punishment (although Horace Mann spoke out against these practices), assaulting student “troublemakers” with canes, straps, or switches.

Transcendentalism

- Unitarian roots
- Valued individual freedom and responsibility, not dogma
- Split from Unitarianism
- Influenced literature, philosophy, and culture
- Emerson and Thoreau



Ralph Waldo Emerson



Henry David Thoreau

In the late 1820s, the philosophy of transcendentalism came together as an identifiable movement in the United States. Transcendentalism had strong roots in the Unitarian branch of Christianity, which reached great prominence in Boston during the early 19th century. Unitarians and transcendentalists placed high value on reason and individual freedom and responsibility, rather than religious dogma or strict adherence to authoritarian rules. Transcendentalists split from Unitarians, however, in their belief that one's intuition or spiritual "essence" could yield a kind of knowledge that "transcended" what one's physical senses could provide.

Despite its religious roots, transcendentalism became a more general philosophy that could be found in literature, philosophy, and culture. Famous transcendentalists included Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau. Thoreau is best known for his year-long experiment of living at Walden Pond, from which he wrote his reflections on society and nature.

Utopian Communities



The Oneida Community, a utopian venture in upstate New York

- Formed in reaction to economic upheaval and commercialism, and based on religious and philosophical beliefs
- Aimed to create an ideal society
- Members had equal share in community's wealth
- Importance of arts and culture

In response to economic upheavals such as the Panic of 1837 and a culture of increasing commercialism and naked capitalism, and having a desire to live by religious or philosophical tenets, some people in the mid-19th century found themselves drawn to the idea of living communally with people who shared their values. A number of utopian communities—aimed at forming ideal social, political, and economic systems—emerged during the early-to-mid-19th century. This overall trend is sometimes called the “utopian socialist” movement, although utopian communities varied considerably in their goals and values.

In most utopian communities, members shared equally in the community's wealth and possessions, rather than individually accumulating their own money and belongings. Members generally worked in areas in which the community needed help but that also suited their own individual interests. In many utopian communities, arts and culture became integral to daily life, and people had enough time to enjoy these benefits.

Utopian Communities (continued)

- Brook Farm (MA):
 - Transcendentalist influences
 - Everyone required to work
 - Financially unsuccessful
- The Oneida Community (NY):
 - Perfectionism
 - “Complex marriage”
 - Became a manufacturer of cutlery and silver



George Ripley, founder of Brook Farm

In 1841, Unitarian minister George Ripley and his wife, Sonia, founded Brook Farm in Massachusetts, a utopian community based on transcendentalist principles. Each member performed an equal share of the work in exchange for an equal share of the community's wealth. Every adult had to work ten hours a day in the summer and eight hours a day in the winter, and women received the same pay as men. The community sold produce and handmade products to the public and also earned money from its acclaimed school, which attracted students from outside the community. Brook Farm remained constantly in debt until it disbanded in 1847.

The Oneida Community was founded on the philosophy of Perfectionism, a belief that perfection could occur on Earth, not only in heaven. This Christian socialist community in central New York State denounced private property and declared all adult members to be married to all the other adult members of the opposite sex (a system called “complex marriage”). The Oneida Community made money from its large farm and by producing steel traps, cutlery, and eating utensils. While economically successful, the Oneida Community's unconventional marriage and family arrangements led to internal dissent. The community eventually transformed into a successful manufacturer of cutlery and silver products.

Discussion Questions

1. From what countries did the largest waves of immigration come during this era? What were some specific reasons for this?
2. What was the relationship between the Second Great Awakening and movements for social change? What were some of the social issues involved?
3. What are some changes to the educational system in the U.S. that Horace Mann advocated?

1. In the 1830s and 1840s, large groups emigrated to the U.S. from Germany and Ireland. Germans had experienced a lower demand for farm labor due to industrialization, an increase in land prices, the attendant overcrowding in cities, and political instability. A potato blight in Ireland that caused a massive famine, as well as persecution by the British, drove many Irish to emigrate.
2. The religious revival of the Second Great Awakening encouraged people to work toward perfection in themselves as well as in society. This caused people to examine what they perceived as social problems and look for ways to organize and tackle them. Organizations formed to address issues such as slavery, alcohol consumption, poverty, and, to a lesser extent, women's suffrage.
3. Mann first wanted to make education available to all, not just to the children of the wealthy, claiming that widespread schooling would benefit society as a whole. To this end he called for the public funding of schools. To create a system of professional teachers, he set up normal schools that standardized their training. He also increased the school year to six months and encouraged fundraising for school supplies and school improvements.

New States and Territorial Acquisitions

- New states: Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Texas, Iowa, Wisconsin, California
- Treaties resolving land disputes:
 - Webster–Ashburton Treaty (1842)
 - Oregon Treaty (1846)
 - Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848)



The United States in 1850

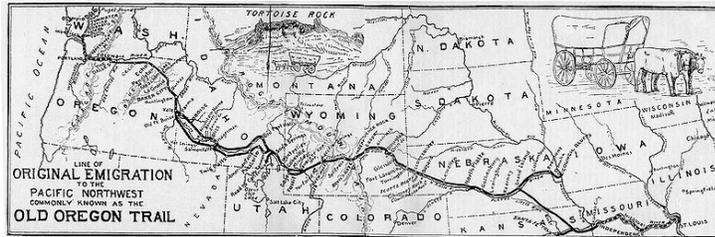
Throughout the period from 1828 to 1850, the United States acquired new territories, and settlers moved westward into these areas. Several territories became states during this time period as well: Arkansas (1836), Michigan (1837), Florida (1845), Texas (1845), Iowa (1846), Wisconsin (1848), and California (1850).

In addition, the U.S. signed treaties with Britain and Mexico to confirm the countries' boundaries. These treaties included:

- The Webster–Ashburton Treaty (1842), which set the eastern boundaries between the United States and Canada, including those in the Great Lakes region
- The Oregon Treaty (1846), which ended the dispute between the U.S. and Britain over Oregon Country
- The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848), in which Mexico gave the land that would become the states of California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico, to the United States. The U.S. then divided this land into Utah Territory, New Mexico Territory, and in 1850, the state of California. A small amount of land south of New Mexico Territory remained in dispute between United States and Mexico.

The Oregon Trail

- Independence, MO, to present-day Oregon
- Became a crowded and dangerous route
- Trading stations
- Led to U.S. control of Oregon Country



Map of the Oregon Trail

Early 19th century explorations generated interest in what is today the Pacific Northwest. The Oregon Trail developed as a route by which settlers could reach this fertile region. This trail headed northwest from Independence, Missouri, into the region of present-day Oregon. Beginning in the early 1840s, thousands of people crowded the Oregon Trail with their covered wagons, taking about six months to arrive in Oregon Country. The people on these “wagon trains” faced the dangers of Native American attacks, disease, inclement weather, food and water shortages, and encounters with wild animals. Despite these real dangers, settlers often exaggerated the risks of confrontation with Native Americans; relations between the groups were often peaceful. Settlers traded with Native Americans for various items and sometimes relied on their Native American neighbors to teach them about the land.

Traders set up stations to cater to these travelers; many of these stations developed into military forts or small towns. Fort Kearny, Nebraska, for example, became the first military fort designed specifically to help and protect people as they moved westward.

The popularity of travel to Oregon Country strengthened U.S. claims to this region over Britain's. The United States ultimately organized Oregon Territory in 1848.

“Manifest Destiny”



Westward the Course of Empire Takes Its Way, a painting incorporating the idea of Manifest Destiny

- Term coined in 1845
- Belief that God had destined the U.S. to reach the Pacific
- Justified westward expansion
- Would require the subjugation of Native Americans and “taming” of the landscape

As Americans increasingly turned their sights westward, the concept of Manifest Destiny became a popular rallying cry. Coined by journalist John O’Sullivan in 1845, the term referred to the belief that God had destined the United States to expand all the way to the Pacific, spreading its democratic value system across the continent. Manifest Destiny became a major justification for expansion into Indian and Mexican territories during the 19th century.

The concept of Manifest Destiny included not only a geographic expansion, but also the spread of American-style democracy and the European-American belief system across the continent. In order for this to happen, European Americans would have to subdue and either exterminate or convert Native American populations to the European American way of life. The course of Manifest Destiny would also require the “taming” of the Western landscape so that settlers could grow crops and continue the lifestyles to which they had become accustomed in the East.

James K. Polk

- Democrat from TN
- Defeated Henry Clay for the presidency in 1844
- Presided over Mexican-American War
- “Polk Doctrine”
- Reduced tariffs, set up independent treasury
- Appeared unconcerned with social problems, supported slave owners



Tennessee Democrat James K. Polk served as president from 1845 to 1849. The United States realized its largest territorial expansion during this period. Polk’s presidency coincided with the era sometimes called the “Fabulous ‘40s,” a time of increasing prosperity for the nation that included the California Gold Rush and the peak of the Oregon Trail migration.

Beginning in 1825, Polk served seven terms in the House of Representatives, including serving as speaker of the House. He then won the governorship of Tennessee but lost his reelection bid in 1843.

Polk decided to run for president in 1844, seeking the Democratic nomination over Martin Van Buren. Van Buren opposed annexing Texas to the U.S., fearing war with Mexico. Polk, however, argued that Texas already belonged to the U.S., appealing to the country’s increasing sense of Manifest Destiny and desire for greater territorial control of the continent. Polk won the Democratic nomination and competed with Whig candidate Henry Clay on a platform of “Fifty-four forty or fight!” (referring to the latitude of the northernmost U.S. claim) making a campaign promise to fight the British for Oregon Territory as well as annex Texas. Although extremely well-known, Clay lost the election by approximately 40,000 votes.

During his presidency, Polk presided over the Mexican-American War, which led to vast territorial acquisitions for the U.S. He extended President James Monroe’s Monroe Doctrine with his own “Polk Doctrine,” declaring that no European nation could make any further claim to North America. With the help of Congress, he also reduced tariffs and established an independent treasury system to manage the federal government’s money separately from private and state banks.

Polk seemed to care little for such social problems as poverty and poor working conditions in factories. He supported the rights of slave owners, making him unpopular in the North.

The Oregon Controversy



A scene from a cartoon criticizing Polk for his handling of the Oregon controversy. Shown sleeping in bed, Polk has his foot on the 54°40' line on a map lying on the floor.

- Treaty of 1818
- Tensions with Britain grew over U.S. settlement of Oregon Country
- Polk argued for compromise at 49th parallel
- Congressional expansionists rallied behind “Fifty-four forty or fight!”
- Oregon Treaty of 1846 set border at 49th parallel

The Treaty of 1818 between the United States and Great Britain had given them joint occupancy of Oregon Country. In the early 1840s, as settlers began arriving in Oregon Country via the Oregon Trail, tensions between the two countries grew, with both arguing over their entitlement to this region and the exact boundaries of each country’s reach. The area in dispute was a northwestern segment of present-day Washington. The British wanted to remain in this area because of its lucrative fur-trading business with Hudson’s Bay Company. The U.S. felt this territory to be part of its “manifest destiny” and believed it had a justified claim to the territory up to the parallel 54°40’ North.

During his presidential campaign, Polk had promised to support the U.S. right to the territory up to 54°40’, but after the election, he argued for a compromise with Britain at the 49th parallel. Expansionists in Congress refused to compromise and continued to use the campaign slogan “Fifty-Four Forty or Fight!,” which implied that the U.S. should be prepared to go to war with Britain over the disputed territory.

As the likelihood of war with Mexico grew, Polk and many Congress members felt disinclined to wage the country’s third war with Britain in 70 years. Polk therefore decided to work toward a compromise with Britain. The Oregon Treaty of 1846 peacefully ended the Oregon dispute. This treaty established the present-day boundaries between the United States and Canada in the West, at the 49th parallel. The part of Oregon Country that remained in the United States became Oregon Territory.

Texas Independence

- Mexico encouraged American settlement in 1820s
- Halted immigration in 1830; instituted new laws
- Revolt against Santa Anna
- Last stand at the Alamo
- Battle of San Jacinto (1836)
- Republic of Texas



Sam Houston at San Jacinto

After Mexico won independence from Spain in 1821, Texas became a part of Mexico. During the 1820s, between 25,000 and 30,000 United States settlers established colonies in Texas with the permission of the Mexican government. In 1830, however, Mexican officials stopped allowing Americans to settle in Texas, increased settlers' property taxes, raised tariffs on goods imported from the U.S., prohibited slavery, and demanded that settlers either raise cattle or grow corn or grain (rather than cotton), which were in high demand. For the most part, settlers ignored these laws, and relations between the settlers and the Mexican government deteriorated.

After General Antonio López de Santa Anna became Mexico's dictator in 1834, American colonists revolted. They succeeded in overtaking San Antonio, but Santa Anna's army marched in to reclaim the town. The American revolutionaries took refuge in the Alamo, an old Spanish mission in central San Antonio. The Mexican attack on the Alamo lasted from February 23rd to March 6, 1836, ending in a Mexican victory and the death of the Americans in the Alamo.

Inspired by a desire to avenge the defeat at the Alamo, and with the rallying cry of "Remember the Alamo," the American Texan army regrouped under the command of Sam Houston. They successfully defeated Santa Anna and his army in the Battle of San Jacinto on April 21, 1836. Following this battle, Texas became an independent republic.

The Mexican-American War

A scene from a cartoon showing President Polk and Senator Daniel Webster (an opponent of Texas annexation and war with Mexico) facing off



- Republic of Texas voted for annexation by U.S. (1836)
- Slavery issue
- Annexation and statehood (1845)
- Rio Grande or Nueces River?
- U.S. also wanted payment from Mexico

In the first national election of the Texas republic, Texans voted to become a part of the U.S. This vote proved controversial, since Texas allowed slavery; the South approved of Texas joining the Union, but the North did not.

Texas remained an independent republic for a decade. In 1845, the U.S. Congress and President Polk agreed to annex Texas to the United States, and Texas residents approved a new state constitution. After considerable debate in Washington, Texas became the 28th state in December 1845.

After Texas gained statehood, the U.S. and Mexico continued to argue over its boundaries. Mexico broke off diplomatic relations with the U.S., which had made clear its intentions to acquire additional Mexican territory. One major dispute involved the border between Texas and Mexico. The U.S. claimed the Rio Grande as Texas's southern boundary, but Mexico declared it farther north, at the Nueces River. The U.S. also demanded that Mexico pay for the deaths of American citizens and property damage that it had allegedly caused since Texan independence.

The Mexican-American War (continued)

- Manifest Destiny
- War began
May 13, 1846
- Treaty of Guadalupe
Hidalgo (1848)
- U.S. gained what
became the Southwest
- Renewed controversy
over slavery



The Battle of Buena Vista, one of the most pivotal of the war

These disagreements, coupled with an increasing sense of Manifest Destiny within the U.S., escalated into war. After diplomatic efforts failed in 1846, Polk ordered Major General Zachary Taylor to advance on the Rio Grande. Mexican troops made a surprise attack on a small group of American troops just north of the Rio Grande, giving Polk an excuse to ask for a declaration of war. Polk argued to Congress that Mexico had invaded American soil, although Mexico claimed that land as well. Congress declared war on May 13, 1846.

The United States won most battles in the Mexican-American War. The war ended with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed on February 2, 1848. Mexico agreed to give the United States the land that would become the states of California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico. In this treaty, the United States gained more than 525,000 square miles of territory. These acquisitions reignited controversy over slavery within the United States, as opposing factions disagreed about the slavery status of the new territory.

The Gold Rush



James Marshall (bottom center)
in front of Sutter's Mill

- Discovery at Sutter's Mill (1848)
- Thousands of men and women headed to California
- "49ers"
- African Americans
- Immigrants including Chinese, Latin Americans, Australians

In 1848, James Marshall, an employee at John Sutter's sawmill in California's Sierra Nevada foothills, found flakes of gold on the sawmill property. This discovery at Sutter's Mill did not remain secret for long and ushered in the California Gold Rush. Thousands of people came from other parts of the U.S. and other countries in search of fortunes. The Gold Rush began in earnest in 1849, leading to the miners' nickname "49ers." While most of the miners were men, women also came to California as entrepreneurs, prostitutes, or with their husbands.

Many African Americans joined the throngs headed to California in search of gold. Some came as slaves with Southern slave owners to forcibly help with the difficult work. Others arrived as free men, venturing there for the same reasons as white migrants. San Francisco and Sacramento became political, economic, and spiritual centers for African Americans, who joined the middle class in significant numbers in these cities.

Chinese, Latin American, Australian, New Zealand, and European immigrants flocked to California in response to the discovery of gold. Chinese and Latin American immigrants in particular faced discrimination. In 1850, the California State Legislature enacted a tax on foreign miners, requiring them to pay \$20 a month for the privilege of mining in the state.

The Gold Rush (continued)

- Few actually became rich
- California statehood (1850)
- Economy grew rapidly
- Spurred transcontinental railroad
- Native Americans pushed off lands
- Environmental impact



San Francisco in the 1800s

While many gold seekers who arrived early (1848 and into 1849) made money in the mines, very few latecomers earned a profit. Many didn't even make it to California, dying en route of disease or accident. Others died in mining camps, which had high accident rates.

California's economy grew rapidly in response to the Gold Rush. San Francisco and Sacramento transformed from sleepy hamlets to important urban centers. California became a state in 1850 and quickly rose to major national and international importance. This prominence led to a push toward improving transportation to the West Coast, including plans for a transcontinental railroad, completed in 1869.

This economic activity pushed Native Americans off their traditional lands and increased their susceptibility to disease, starvation, and attacks. Gold mining also had adverse environmental impacts: mining residue, including gravel and toxic chemicals, polluted streams and lakes and destroyed sensitive habitats.

Discussion Questions

1. How did the concept of Manifest Destiny relate to the process of westward expansion?
2. What did the slogan “Fifty-four forty or fight!” refer to?
3. Why did the U.S. go to war with Mexico?

1. Believers in Manifest Destiny held that America had a literal god-given right to expand to the Pacific Ocean, and that this was absolutely certain to occur. This concept therefore justified settlement further and further west by white Americans, regardless of who already lived on or controlled the territory.
2. The slogan was a rallying cry in the dispute between the U.S. and Britain over control of Oregon Country. While the Treaty of 1818 had given the two nations joint occupancy of Oregon Country, Britain objected to the American settlers coming in droves to settle in the region. Expansionists held that the boundary of the U.S. claims fell on the latitude line of $54^{\circ}40'$, well into what Britain regarded as its own territory. The phrase “or fight!” indicated the expansionist sentiment that the U.S. go to war with Britain over the matter if the latter disagreed. The boundary was later fixed at the 49th parallel by the Oregon Treaty of 1846.
3. Tensions between the United States and Mexico worsened over the southern boundary of Texas (whether it was at the Nueces River or the Rio Grande), and whether Mexico would accede to U.S. demands for reparations for deaths and damage it had allegedly suffered since Mexican independence. In addition, the U.S. wanted more territory in the West. War broke out when a group of Mexican soldiers attacked American troops north of the Rio Grande, even though both countries claimed the area as their own.

Transportation and Communication

- Railroads made canals less important
- Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (B&O)
- Major wave of railroad construction from 1830s through 1860s
- Government support integral to success of canals and railroads
- Henry Clay
- Samuel Morse and the telegraph



Samuel Morse and his telegraph

Until the 1830s, steam-driven boats along canals or rivers made for the most efficient method of transporting goods within the U.S. Beginning in the 1830s, railroads supplanted the canal system, owing to advantages such as increased safety, greater cost-effectiveness for manufacturers, and the ability to operate even in freezing conditions.

From 1830, the Baltimore and Ohio (B&O) Railroad carried both passengers and goods from Baltimore to the Ohio River. As the first common-carrier railroad, it would grant access to anyone who could pay; as the first east-to-west railroad, it facilitated transportation and communication between East Coast urban areas and the western hinterlands. For many years, the B&O used the slogan, “Linking 13 Great States With the Nation.”

The railroad construction boom of the 1830s to the 1860s depended greatly on government support. Politicians such as Henry Clay advocated strong federal support and financing for transportation projects, including canals and railroads. This advocacy made Clay and like-minded politicians popular in Ohio and other western areas in the early-to-mid-19th century.

While the expansion of railroads helped facilitate communication between various parts of the country, Samuel Morse’s invention of the telegraph in 1837 improved it even further. Instead of through standard transportation methods, telegraphy allowed people to transmit written messages (referred to as “telegrams,” “cables,” or “wires”) across electrical wires. In 1843, Congress allocated \$30,000 for the first telegraph line from Baltimore to the Capitol building. By 1850, telegraph lines connected many parts of the East Coast, allowing people to communicate instantly over long distances for the first time. Telegraph communication didn’t expand into the western frontier, however, until after 1850.

The Industrial Revolution and the Rise of Factories



An early textile factory

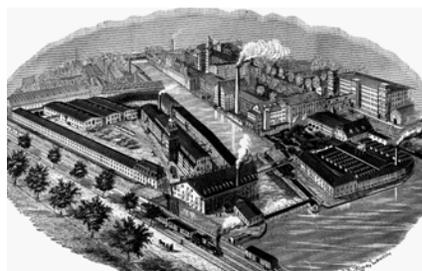
- Increase in rate of technological innovation began in late 18th century
- Industrial growth exploded in 1830s
- Centered in Northeast
- Textile industry relied on the South's cotton industry and slave labor

The late 18th and early 19th centuries witnessed an increasing number of technological innovations that changed economic activity in the United States. Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton gin in the late 18th century allowed the Southern cotton industry to expand exponentially. Thomas Blanchard's 1819 invention of a new type of lathe (a machine tool) allowed for cutting metal into irregular shapes, making producing weapons and other machine parts easier. High-pressure steam engines developed at the turn of the 19th century paved the way for increasingly mechanized factories and more efficient transportation, in the form of steamboats and, eventually, railroads.

Industrial growth began to skyrocket in the 1830s, particularly in the Northeast. Entrepreneurs built factories to manufacture an increasing array of consumer goods. The textile industry, in particular, boomed as a result of this industrial expansion. This industry both created and was fueled by international demand for manufactured cloth and relied on the South's cotton industry and its slave labor to provide the raw material.

Lowell, Massachusetts

- Lowell, Massachusetts
- “Mill girls” worked at textile factory, lived in boarding houses
- Company owned entire town, including church
- Recreation and entertainment provided
- Lowell became 2nd-largest town in MA by 1850



The Lowell mill complex

The growth of the textile industry led to the creation of “factory towns” that revolved around textile factories. The most famous industrial town to develop during this period was Lowell, Massachusetts, sometimes called the “Cradle of the American Industrial Revolution.” Entrepreneur F. C. Lowell had built a textile mill in Waltham, Massachusetts, immediately after the War of 1812. This mill incorporated a system by which young women, known as “mill girls,” worked in the textile factories while living in company-owned boarding houses. This system became known as the “Lowell System.” The company owned everything in the town, including the church. The company intended for Lowell to serve as a model industrial town, providing the young women who worked at the factory and lived in the boarding houses with entertainment, cultural events, and access to books and other recreation.

The Lowell factory, which depended on the river that ran through the town and the canal that had been built for the factory, was the first to produce finished cotton cloth from raw cotton within the same factory. It thrived from the 1820s until 1850s. Lowell grew rapidly and became the second largest city in Massachusetts by 1850. As more immigrants arrived in the country, Lowell attracted immigrant labor to work in its mills.

Economic Tensions Between North and South

- The North:
 - Manufacturing-based economy
 - Benefited from slave labor
 - Supported tariffs
 - Favored strong central government
- The South:
 - Based on cotton
 - Reliant on slavery
 - Against tariffs
 - “States’ rights”

Throughout the 19th century, economic differences between the North and the South became increasingly pronounced. These differences contributed to the tensions that eventually led to the Civil War. The Southern economy became more reliant on cotton as the century progressed. This highly profitable crop demanded intensive manual labor and large amounts of land. To meet these demands, the plantation system developed, with large cotton farms that depended on slave labor. In contrast, the Northern economy increasingly relied on factory labor. The North (particularly the Northeast) became the industrial center of the nation, producing textiles and other finished products for shipment throughout the U.S. and to Europe. While the South permitted slavery and directly relied on slave labor to produce its main crop, the North benefited indirectly from the slave labor that produced the cotton that made Northern factories profitable.

Since the South manufactured very few finished goods of its own, it had to import most of the things its people needed. At this time, the federal government made most of its money by imposing tariffs on manufactured goods. The Northeast demanded high tariffs to raise money for the infrastructure (e.g., roads, canals) that would facilitate getting its products to market. The South opposed tariffs because they increased the cost of the goods it needed to import. Northerners favored a stronger federal government because they needed the government’s revenues and other assistance to build the infrastructure. Southerners did not have this need and feared that a strong central government would interfere with their right to hold slaves. These different attitudes toward the tariff and the federal government’s role increased sectional tensions.

Slavery and Sectionalism

- Southern economy dependent upon slave labor; Northern economy linked as well
- Hostility in the South toward abolition efforts
- “Proslavery movement”
- Sectional tensions in Congress with additional territories and states



A proslavery illustration featuring happy, well-dressed slaves

Slavery expanded considerably in the Southern states during the early and mid-19th century, coinciding with the rising demand for cotton. Most Southerners supported slavery, yet only about one-quarter of Southern whites owned slaves or belonged to slave owning families.

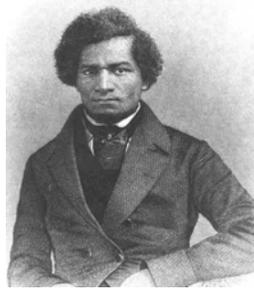
Beginning in the 1830s, the South became increasingly hostile toward abolition efforts, banning abolitionist pamphlets and ousting teachers suspected of participating in the abolition movement. Throughout the early and middle parts of the century, a “proslavery movement” grew within the South, leading most Southern whites to identify with the institution of slavery as an important part of their culture as well as an essential part of the economy. Southern leaders spread the idea that slavery benefited the Southern economy and that slaves received better treatment from their masters than did most factory laborers from their bosses. Senator John Calhoun of South Carolina, for example, declared slavery “a positive good” that would become increasingly recognized as such as long as it was allowed to continue.

As the country acquired more land, and more territories requested admission as states, sectional differences between the North and South became increasingly apparent and led to growing tensions. With each new territory or request for statehood, Northern and Southern Congress members argued about whether to allow slavery in the new territory or state. While Congress reached several compromises on this issue (including the Compromise of 1850), these did not diminish the underlying tensions between the North and the South.

The Abolition Movement



William Lloyd
Garrison



Frederick Douglass

- Slave trade prohibited, beginning 1808
- Antislavery organizations, some with religious roots
- W.L. Garrison: slavery violated country's founding principles
- Frederick Douglass

The movement to abolish slavery in the U.S. had been gaining momentum since the Revolutionary War. In 1807, Congress passed a law prohibiting the slave trade into the United States. This law took effect in 1808, but some slave trading continued for several years afterward. Around this time, Northern states began to abolish slavery.

Several major organizations took the lead in the abolition movement, including the Society of Friends, the Pennsylvania Antislavery Society, and the New York Manumission Society. Many abolitionist groups had strong religious affiliations: the Quakers were particularly active in this effort, as their religious teachings vehemently denounced slavery and advocated for activism against social injustices. In the early 19th century, these groups successfully convinced many slaveholders, particularly in the northern parts of the South, to free their slaves.

In 1833, abolitionist newspaper publisher William Lloyd Garrison established the Anti-Slavery Society with minister Theodore Weld and free African American Robert Purvis. Garrison argued that slavery violated the principles upon which the country had been founded, particularly the statements in the Declaration of Independence that “all men are created equal” and have “inalienable rights.” In 1841, escaped slave Frederick Douglass attended an Anti-Slavery Society meeting in Bristol, Massachusetts, and Garrison asked him to speak. This event launched Douglass’s career as an outspoken slavery opponent.

The Abolition Movement (continued)

- Second Great Awakening increased antislavery sentiment
- Most abolitionists supported other reforms as well
- Underground Railroad



Artist's depiction of the Underground Railroad

Increased abolitionist sentiment accompanied the fervor of the Second Great Awakening, as many people realized that slavery violated their moral and religious beliefs. Most abolitionists also supported temperance, public school reform, prison building, and other reform efforts, although they split on issues of women's rights and suffrage.

The Underground Railroad reached its peak of activity between 1810 and 1850. This network of safehouses and travel routes (not really a railroad) helped slaves escape to the North or to Canada (and sometimes to Mexico and countries overseas). Despite its reputation as being integral to the abolition movement, the Underground Railroad succeeded in helping only around 1000 slaves escape each year.

Zachary Taylor



- Hero of Mexican-American War
- Ran as Whig, with Fillmore as VP
- Sectional tensions rose, particularly regarding territorial slavery
- Congressional debate led to Compromise of 1850
- Taylor died in 1850

Born in Virginia, Zachary Taylor became a hero during the Mexican-American War. He commanded about 5000 U.S. troops to victory over Santa Anna's 16,000–20,000 troops at the Battle of Buena Vista. Before this war, he had fought in several Indian Wars, including the Second Seminole War of 1837.

In 1848, the Whig Party nominated Taylor as its presidential candidate, with Millard Fillmore as his running mate. They ran against Democratic candidates Lewis Cass and William O. Butler, as well as Martin Van Buren, who ran as a member of the antislavery Free Soil Party. Taylor won by 36 electoral votes.

During Taylor's brief presidency, sectional differences over slavery in the territories became increasingly tense. Taylor asked Congress to admit California and New Mexico to the Union as states rather than as territories, thus hoping to avoid the debate over whether two new territories should permit slavery. Southern members of Congress disapproved of this idea without an overhaul of other slavery-related issues, and a serious debate erupted in Congress. This debate led to the Compromise of 1850 (described on an upcoming slide).

Taylor served only 16 months of his term. He died of an illness in July 1850, making Millard Fillmore president.

Zachary Taylor: Primary Source



Discussion questions:

This cartoon from 1848 depicts a hero of the Mexican-American War—either Zachary Taylor or Winfield Scott (who also competed for the Whig nomination for president). The cartoon was created before the 1848 presidential election. Give students a minute to study the cartoon, and ask them the following questions:

- Why is the general sitting on skulls? Whose skulls are they? (These are the skulls of Mexicans killed in the war. He's sitting on them to show his power and conquest over the people who have been killed.)
- What does the caption indicate about the artist's view of the Whigs in this election? (The caption—"An available candidate: the one qualification for a Whig president"—indicates that the artist perceived the Whigs as only caring about how many Mexicans the candidate had killed and how heroic the candidate had been in the war, rather than other issues of importance to the country. The artist clearly did not support the Whig position or candidates.)

The Compromise of 1850

- Introduced by Henry Clay to resolve several sectional disputes
- Texas gave up claim to western land for \$10 million
- New western territories
- End of slave trade in Washington D.C.
- California admitted as a free state
- Fugitive Slave Act



Henry Clay addressing the Senate in 1850

As sectionalism became more bitter, lawmakers sought solutions to the impending crisis. Several major disputes threatened the country's unity: Should slavery be allowed in the vast new territory acquired after the Mexican-American War? Should California be allowed to enter the Union as a free state, thus upsetting the balance between free and slave states? Should Washington D.C. continue to allow slavery? Did Texas own as much land as it claimed to, extending west to Santa Fe?

In 1850, Senator Henry Clay of Kentucky offered a compromise between these competing state and sectional interests. Heavily debated in Congress, the various bills of the compromise became law eight months after Clay proposed them. The compromise's key measures included the following:

- Texas had to give up the western land in question, but would receive \$10 million in return
- New Mexico, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah Territories came into being, but residents would decide their slavery status when the territories applied for statehood
- Washington D.C. would end the slave trade but continue to allow slavery itself
- California would be admitted to the Union as a free state. As a compromise to proponents of slavery, the Fugitive Slave Act would be enacted (see following slide).

The Fugitive Slave Act



An African American captured by slave catchers

- Most controversial provision of Compromise of 1850
- Required all citizens to assist slave catchers
- Slave catchers could capture slaves anywhere in the country
- Denied slaves trial by jury
- Escalated sectional tensions

The Fugitive Slave Act made for the most controversial part of the Compromise of 1850. This law required all American citizens to assist in the capture of escaped slaves, regardless of the slavery status of the state or territory; those who refused could face legal penalties. The Fugitive Slave Act also made it easier for slave owners to file claims against escaped slaves, and called for greater numbers of federal officials to enforce its provisions. The law also denied escaped slaves the right to trial by jury, instead mandating trial by special commissioners who received more money for turning slaves over to claimants than for allowing them freedom.

The Fugitive Slave Act ushered in an era of terror for many Northern African Americans. Professional slave catchers increasingly tracked fugitive slaves throughout the North, capturing them and sending them back into slavery. Many Northern blacks moved to Canada out of fear of being returned to slavery in the South (or forced into slavery even if they had never been slaves).

As a result of the Fugitive Slave Act, abolitionists became more active. Slavery became an even more central issue in the national debate, and tensions between the North and the South rose dramatically. Only a little more than a decade after the Compromise of 1850, the Civil War began.

Discussion Questions

1. What advantages did railroads have over canals?
2. In what sense did the North also rely on slave labor?
3. In the Compromise of 1850, what provision directly compensated the South for California's admission as a free state? How did this affect those opposed to slavery?

1. Relative to canals, railroads were safer, more efficient (faster and therefore more cost-effective), and could operate even in freezing conditions, and could be built much farther inland.
2. Northern manufacturers made textiles from the cotton they bought from Southern sources, which slave labor had produced. Slave labor kept cotton prices down, making textiles that much more profitable to manufacture.
3. The Fugitive Slave Act served to placate Southerners who were upset about California's admission as a free state. Abolitionists and others opposed to slavery strongly resented this law, since it mandated under penalty of law their participation in recovering escaped slaves, even in free states.



Essential Questions

- What challenges did the nation face between 1828 and 1850?
- In what ways did the two-party system and partisan politics both help and hinder the government's ability to address the nation's problems?
- How did governmental leaders and policies affect Native Americans during this time period?
- In what ways did the country evolve and grow between 1828 and 1850?
- How did social movements during this period work against the status quo?

Andrew Jackson: Early Life and Career

- Born in 1767
- Experiences in Revolutionary War instilled hatred of the British
- Career as a lawyer
- TN congressman, senator, and Supreme Court justice
- Cotton farmer and general store owner



Illustration showing Jackson as a child getting wounded by a British soldier

Early Life and Career (continued)



Painting depicting Jackson at the Battle of New Orleans

- War of 1812:
 - Creek War, Battle of Horseshoe Bend
 - Battle of New Orleans
- First Seminole War (1817–1819)
- Governor of Florida Territory (1821)

The Election of 1824 and the “Corrupt Bargain”

- Four Democratic-Republican candidates
- Jackson, JQ Adams, Clay, Crawford
- Jackson won the most electoral votes but not a majority
- Election decided by the House; Clay supported Adams, who won



A cartoon depicting the 1824 election as a foot race between the four candidates

The “Corrupt Bargain” (continued)



John Quincy Adams



Henry Clay

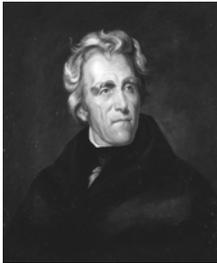
- Jackson likely won the popular vote
- Accused Clay of backing Adams in return for secretary of state position
- Little supporting evidence

The Election of 1828

- Adams vs. Jackson again
 - Adams: National Republican
 - Jackson: Democrat
- Bitterness and accusations during the campaign
- Jackson's strong base of support
- Van Buren campaigned for Jackson
- Jackson won



“Jacksonian Democracy”



- Strict interpretation of Constitution
- Hands-off approach to economy
- “Spoils” (patronage) system

“Jacksonian Democracy” (continued)

- Manifest Destiny
- Indian relocation
- Increased suffrage for white men
- President for the “common man”

“As long as our government is administered for the good of the people, and is regulated by their will; as long as it secures to use the rights of persons and of property, liberty of conscience and of the press, it will be worth defending.”
—Andrew Jackson

Jackson's Inauguration



- Mobs of “regular people” attended inauguration for champion of the “common man”
- Unruly crowd followed him to Executive Mansion
- Chaos in the mansion
- Jackson fled to a hotel

The Spoils System

- Jackson replaced many long-serving officials
- “Rotation in office”
- Claimed government would better serve the people and uphold its ideals
- Critics called this the “spoils system”; charged that it might install unqualified “cronies” of the president



Cartoon depicting Jackson's championing of the spoils system

The Tariff Issue

“...[the tariff of 1828], with the whole system of legislation imposing duties on imports, — not for revenue, but the protection of one branch of industry at the expense of others — is unconstitutional, unequal, and oppressive, and calculated to corrupt the public virtue and destroy the liberty of the country.”

—John C. Calhoun

- Tariff of 1828 (“Tariff of Abominations”)
- Jackson did not reduce tariff
- Calhoun resigned as VP; argued against tariff as SC senator
- Jackson’s compromise: Tariff of 1832
- 1832 tariff pleased only some Southerners

The Nullification Crisis

- Calhoun: only states could judge the constitutionality of federal law
- Nullification as an alternative to secession
- Force Bill
- Compromise Tariff of 1833
- Jackson lost much Southern support
- Impetus for Whig Party



John C. Calhoun

The Second Bank of the United States

- Jackson handily reelected in 1832
- Had campaigned against the Second Bank of the U.S.
- Privately held bank where the federal government deposited its money
- Jackson opposed to the bank for a variety of reasons



Cartoon depicting Jackson fighting the Bank, shown here as a "many-headed monster"

The Second Bank of the United States (continued)



Cartoon showing Jackson in a boxing match against Bank president Nicholas Biddle

- Jackson vetoed renewal of bank's charter
- Executive order ended federal deposits into Second Bank
- Deposits instead went into state banks mainly owned by Jackson supporters
- Second Bank failed

The Whig Party

- Formed over nullification crisis, closing of Second Bank of U.S.
- Led by Clay and Webster
- Positions:
 - Stronger Congress, less powerful executive
 - Modernization of economy
 - National Bank and higher tariffs
- Contrasted sharply with Democrats' agrarian ideals

“King Andrew the First”



Discussion Questions

1. What were some characteristics of Jacksonian Democracy?
2. Why did the Tariff of 1828 upset Southern politicians? Why didn't Jackson repeal the tariff once in office?
3. What events led to the formation of the Whig Party? What were some of its positions?

The Indian Removal Act

- Jackson's long history of fighting Native Americans
- Southeastern Indian nations most affected
- Some protested government treatment
- Supreme Court decision in favor of Cherokee
- Act passed in 1830 with Jackson's support

"The consequence of a speedy removal will be important to the United States, to individual States, and to the Indians themselves...It will place a dense and civilized population in large tracts of a country now occupied by a few savage hunters."

—Andrew Jackson on Indian removal

The Second Seminole War



Painting depicting the burning of a Seminole village by U.S. troops

- Seminole reservation in Florida Territory
- Slaves escaped to Seminole territory
- Treaty of Payne's Landing
- Jackson sent army to forcibly remove the Seminole
- Most expensive Indian War
- Seminole surrendered in 1842

Cherokee Removal

- Significant Cherokee assimilation into white culture
- Resistance to Indian Removal Act
- Minority groups agreed to give up their lands
- Treaty of New Echota (1835)



Cherokee leader John Ross

The Trail of Tears



- Forced removal to Indian Territory (in present-day Oklahoma)
- Cherokee unprepared for harsh conditions
- Smallpox
- About a quarter died along the way
- African Americans, slave and free

The Trail of Tears: Primary Source

“I have no motive, my friends, to deceive you. I am sincerely desirous to promote your welfare. Listen to me, therefore, while I tell you that you cannot remain where you now are. Circumstances that cannot be controlled, and which are beyond the reach of human laws, render it impossible that you can flourish in the midst of a civilized community. You have but one remedy within your reach. And that is, to remove to the West and join your countrymen, who are already established there. And the sooner you do this the sooner you will commence your career of improvement and prosperity.”

—Andrew Jackson, to the Cherokee National Council

The Election of 1836

- VP Martin Van Buren ran against four Whigs, each from a different region:
 - W.H. Harrison (OH)
 - H.L. White (TN)
 - Daniel Webster (MA)
 - W.P. Mangum (NC)
- Whigs hoped the House would have to decide election
- Van Buren won with 170 electoral votes



Martin Van Buren

Van Buren and the Panic of 1837



Cartoon portraying Van Buren's continuation of Jackson's hard-money policies as the reason for the Panic of 1837

- NY senator, Jackson's secretary of state and VP
- Inherited economic problems from Jackson Administration
- Specie Circular
- Economic depression
- Van Buren set up a special treasury for government's money
- Economy recovered around 1843

Harrison and the Election of 1840

- Van Buren's increasing unpopularity
- Harrison (Whig) vs. Van Buren (Dem.)
- Whigs blamed Van Buren for the nation's economic problems
- Harrison won, but died a month into his term



William Henry Harrison

John Tyler's Presidency



John Tyler

- A Whig, but disagreed with most of the Whig platform
- Vetoed most Whig bills
- Opposed a national bank and tariffs
- Mob at White House
- Whigs unsuccessfully introduced impeachment legislation

Discussion Questions

1. What was the Panic of 1837, and what likely caused it?
2. Why did the Whig Party run four candidates against Martin Van Buren in 1836? Was their plan successful?
3. Why did Whigs introduce impeachment legislation against John Tyler?

Immigration

- German immigration:
 - Rising land costs, overcrowding, and political instability
 - Settled in Midwest to farm
- Irish immigration:
 - Great Hunger (potato famine)
 - Settled on East Coast for industrial jobs
- Prejudice against Irish



Emigrants Leaving Ireland, a 19th-century painting

Nativism



"Know-Nothingism in Brooklyn," in which a city official tells immigrants "none but the citizens of the United States can be licensed to engage in any employment in this city."

- American Republican Party ("Know Nothings")
- General nativist sentiments:
 - Anti-immigrant, anti-Catholic
 - Advocated immigration limits
 - Only native-born whites should hold office
 - Wanted 21-year wait to naturalize immigrants
- Declined by late 1850s

The Second Great Awakening

- Religious revival asserting that people could work toward perfection in themselves and society
- Addressed issues such as:
 - abolition
 - temperance
 - prison reform
- Revival meetings
- Impact on women’s suffrage



An 1839 Methodist camp meeting

The Temperance Movement



Temperance advocates outside a liquor store

- Attempted to curtail or ban alcohol
- Hoped to ensure the stability of family and civil society
- Women particularly involved
- American Temperance Society
- Related to the Second Great Awakening

Women’s Suffrage

- “Cult of True Womanhood”
- Tied to temperance and abolition movements
- Women gained confidence in ability to effect change



Illustration depicting many of the ideals of the “cult of true womanhood”

Women's Suffrage (continued)

THE FIRST CONVENTION

1848

Civil and Political Rights of Women.

Seneca Falls, N. Y., July 19, 20, 21, 1848

WOMAN'S RIGHTS CONVENTION.

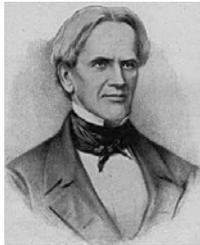
A Convention to discuss the moral, civil, and religious condition and rights of women will be held in the Western Chapel, at Seneca Falls, N. Y., on Wednesday and Thursday, the 19th and 20th of July next, commencing at 10 o'clock A. M. During the first day the meeting will be exclusively for women, who are earnestly invited to attend. The public generally are invited to be present on the second day, when Executive Vets. of Philadelphia, and other ladies and gentlemen, will address the Convention.

Newspaper ad for the Seneca Falls Convention

- Seneca Falls Convention (1848)
- *Declaration of Sentiments:*
 - Based on Declaration of Independence
 - Called for complete equality of women and men
 - Demanded the right to vote
- 19th Amendment (1920)

The Growth of Public Education

- Early school “system” was disjointed, with many private and religious schools
- Horace Mann:
 - Supported education for all children
 - Founded normal schools to professionalize teaching
 - Advocated public financing



Horace Mann

The Growth of Public Education (continued)

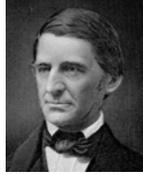


A one-room schoolhouse

- Schooling based on recitation and drilling
- Mainly one-room schoolhouses in rural areas
- Taught moral behavior and manners along with academics
- Corporal punishment

Transcendentalism

- Unitarian roots
- Valued individual freedom and responsibility, not dogma
- Split from Unitarianism
- Influenced literature, philosophy, and culture
- Emerson and Thoreau



Ralph Waldo Emerson



Henry David Thoreau

Utopian Communities



The Oneida Community, a utopian venture in upstate New York

- Formed in reaction to economic upheaval and commercialism, and based on religious and philosophical beliefs
- Aimed to create an ideal society
- Members had equal share in community's wealth
- Importance of arts and culture

Utopian Communities (continued)

- Brook Farm (MA):
 - Transcendentalist influences
 - Everyone required to work
 - Financially unsuccessful
- The Oneida Community (NY):
 - Perfectionism
 - “Complex marriage”
 - Became a manufacturer of cutlery and silver



George Ripley, founder of Brook Farm

Discussion Questions

1. From what countries did the largest waves of immigration come during this era? What were some specific reasons for this?
2. What was the relationship between the Second Great Awakening and movements for social change? What were some of the social issues involved?
3. What are some changes to the educational system in the U.S. that Horace Mann advocated?

New States and Territorial Acquisitions

- New states: Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Texas, Iowa, Wisconsin, California
- Treaties resolving land disputes:
 - Webster–Ashburton Treaty (1842)
 - Oregon Treaty (1846)
 - Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848)



The United States in 1850

The Oregon Trail

- Independence, MO, to present-day Oregon
- Became a crowded and dangerous route
- Trading stations
- Led to U.S. control of Oregon Country



Map of the Oregon Trail

“Manifest Destiny”



Westward the Course of Empire Takes Its Way, a painting incorporating the idea of Manifest Destiny

- Term coined in 1845
- Belief that God had destined the U.S. to reach the Pacific
- Justified westward expansion
- Would require the subjugation of Native Americans and “taming” of the landscape

James K. Polk

- Democrat from TN
- Defeated Henry Clay for the presidency in 1844
- Presided over Mexican-American War
- “Polk Doctrine”
- Reduced tariffs, set up independent treasury
- Appeared unconcerned with social problems, supported slave owners



The Oregon Controversy



A scene from a cartoon criticizing Polk for his handling of the Oregon controversy. Shown sleeping in bed, Polk has his foot on the 54°40' line on a map lying on the floor.

- Treaty of 1818
- Tensions with Britain grew over U.S. settlement of Oregon Country
- Polk argued for compromise at 49th parallel
- Congressional expansionists rallied behind “Fifty-four forty or fight!”
- Oregon Treaty of 1846 set border at 49th parallel

Texas Independence

- Mexico encouraged American settlement in 1820s
- Halted immigration in 1830; instituted new laws
- Revolt against Santa Anna
- Last stand at the Alamo
- Battle of San Jacinto (1836)
- Republic of Texas



Sam Houston at San Jacinto

The Mexican-American War

A scene from a cartoon showing President Polk and Senator Daniel Webster (an opponent of Texas annexation and war with Mexico) facing off



- Republic of Texas voted for annexation by U.S. (1836)
- Slavery issue
- Annexation and statehood (1845)
- Rio Grande or Nueces River?
- U.S. also wanted payment from Mexico

The Mexican-American War (continued)

- Manifest Destiny
- War began May 13, 1846
- Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848)
- U.S. gained what became the Southwest
- Renewed controversy over slavery



The Battle of Buena Vista, one of the most pivotal of the war

The Gold Rush



James Marshall (bottom center)
in front of Sutter's Mill

- Discovery at Sutter's Mill (1848)
- Thousands of men and women headed to California
- "49ers"
- African Americans
- Immigrants including Chinese, Latin Americans, Australians

The Gold Rush (continued)

- Few actually became rich
- California statehood (1850)
- Economy grew rapidly
- Spurred transcontinental railroad
- Native Americans pushed off lands
- Environmental impact



San Francisco in the 1800s

Discussion Questions

1. How did the concept of Manifest Destiny relate to the process of westward expansion?
2. What did the slogan "Fifty-four forty or fight!" refer to?
3. Why did the U.S. go to war with Mexico?

Transportation and Communication

- Railroads made canals less important
- Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (B&O)
- Major wave of railroad construction from 1830s through 1860s
- Government support integral to success of canals and railroads
- Henry Clay
- Samuel Morse and the telegraph



Samuel Morse and his telegraph

The Industrial Revolution and the Rise of Factories



An early textile factory

- Increase in rate of technological innovation began in late 18th century
- Industrial growth exploded in 1830s
- Centered in Northeast
- Textile industry relied on the South's cotton industry and slave labor

Lowell, Massachusetts

- Lowell, Massachusetts
- "Mill girls" worked at textile factory, lived in boarding houses
- Company owned entire town, including church
- Recreation and entertainment provided
- Lowell became 2nd-largest town in MA by 1850



The Lowell mill complex

Economic Tensions Between North and South

- The North:
 - Manufacturing-based economy
 - Benefited from slave labor
 - Supported tariffs
 - Favored strong central government
- The South:
 - Based on cotton
 - Reliant on slavery
 - Against tariffs
 - “States’ rights”

Slavery and Sectionalism

- Southern economy dependent upon slave labor; Northern economy linked as well
- Hostility in the South toward abolition efforts
- “Proslavery movement”
- Sectional tensions in Congress with additional territories and states



A proslavery illustration featuring happy, well-dressed slaves

The Abolition Movement



William Lloyd Garrison



Frederick Douglass

- Slave trade prohibited, beginning 1808
- Antislavery organizations, some with religious roots
- W.L. Garrison: slavery violated country’s founding principles
- Frederick Douglass

The Abolition Movement (continued)

- Second Great Awakening increased antislavery sentiment
- Most abolitionists supported other reforms as well
- Underground Railroad



Artist's depiction of the Underground Railroad

Zachary Taylor



- Hero of Mexican-American War
- Ran as Whig, with Fillmore as VP
- Sectional tensions rose, particularly regarding territorial slavery
- Congressional debate led to Compromise of 1850
- Taylor died in 1850

Zachary Taylor: Primary Source



The Compromise of 1850

- Introduced by Henry Clay to resolve several sectional disputes
- Texas gave up claim to western land for \$10 million
- New western territories
- End of slave trade in Washington D.C.
- California admitted as a free state
- Fugitive Slave Act



Henry Clay addressing the Senate in 1850

The Fugitive Slave Act



An African American captured by slave catchers

- Most controversial provision of Compromise of 1850
- Required all citizens to assist slave catchers
- Slave catchers could capture slaves anywhere in the country
- Denied slaves trial by jury
- Escalated sectional tensions

Discussion Questions

1. What advantages did railroads have over canals?
2. In what sense did the North also rely on slave labor?
3. In the Compromise of 1850, what provision directly compensated the South for California's admission as a free state? How did this affect those opposed to slavery?

America 1828–1850: Backwards Planning Activities

Enduring understandings:

- The United States faced rapid economic growth and westward expansion between 1828 and 1850, an era characterized by an increasing sense of Manifest Destiny and a feeling of entitlement to North American lands
- During this era, the political party system continued to develop and posed significant political challenges to the expanding nation’s governmental operations
- A number of social reform movements, including the temperance and abolition movements, gained strength during this time
- During this era, the U.S. government engaged in conflict with Native Americans and Mexico, and came close to another war with Britain
- The issue of slavery became increasingly contentious, and sectionalism escalated during this period

Essential questions:

- What challenges did the nation face between 1828 and 1850?
- In what ways did the two-party system and partisan politics both help and hinder the government’s ability to address the nation’s problems?
- How did governmental leaders and policies affect Native Americans during this time period?
- In what ways did the country evolve and grow between 1828 and 1850?
- How did social movements during this period work against the status quo?

Learning Experiences and Instruction

Students will need to know...	Students will need to be able to...
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The major figures of the era, including presidents, members of Congress, and agents of social change 2. Policies that characterized the era's administrations, particularly Jacksonian Democracy and its basic elements 3. The major political controversies of the Jackson era 4. The policies and actions that led to Indian removal 5. The era's economic developments and difficulties 6. Important social and philosophical movements 7. The process of westward expansion during this era, including acquisition of new territories 8. Important events related to the Mexican-American War 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Describe Andrew Jackson's major actions and accomplishments as president and explain their opinion of his presidency 2. Identify major political and social events and developments of this period 3. Reflect on their overall impressions of the country during this era 4. Identify causal relationships between various events and developments of this period

Teaching and learning activities that equip students to demonstrate targeted understandings:

- An overview of essential questions and basic understandings
- Class discussion of questions posed in the PowerPoint presentation
- Introduction of common terms and ideas in the essential questions and related projects
- Providing students with primary source materials from which they will complete the unit's related projects
- Students conduct research in groups to be used later in individual and cooperative projects
- Informal observation and coaching of students as they work in groups
- Delivering feedback and evaluations on projects and research reports
- Student creation and presentation of their projects
- A posttest on the presentation, made up of multiple-choice questions and one or more essential questions as essay questions

Project #1: Was Andrew Jackson a Great President?

Overview:

This lesson asks students to think critically about Andrew Jackson's presidency. Students will review what they have learned about Jackson's presidency and will conduct further research to learn more about his actions and accomplishments. They will then determine whether they think Jackson should be eligible for a Presidential Hall of Fame, and discuss whether their perspective might be different if they were living during Jackson's time.

Objectives:

As a result of completing the lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify Andrew Jackson's major actions and accomplishments as president
- Explain whether they think Andrew Jackson was a "great" president
- Consider how perspectives can vary in different historical periods

Time required:

Two class periods (one class period if you assign paragraphs for homework)

Methodology:

Ask students how they would define a "great" president. What qualities would they expect to see in someone who has earned this consideration? What sorts of accomplishments might a "great" president make? List their ideas on the board.

As a class, review the PowerPoint slides regarding Andrew Jackson. Check for understanding by posing these questions to the class:

- What were some of Andrew Jackson's main beliefs and philosophies?
- What were some of his main accomplishments, both before and during his presidency?
- In what ways was Jackson truly a president for the "common folk?" In what ways was he not?
- In what ways might Jackson have been controversial? Who might have disagreed with Jackson's philosophies and policies?

Read the following scenario to the class:

Imagine that a new Presidential Hall of Fame is being established in Washington, D.C. This institution's mission is to highlight the careers and achievements of

the greatest presidents in United States history. Of course, there are no definitive answers as to who these great presidents are, and people have different opinions about who should qualify. At this time, there is no limit to how many presidents can be elected to the Hall of Fame. You have been selected to the committee reviewing whether Andrew Jackson deserves to be a part of this new institution of “great” presidents.

Have students use the PowerPoint and other print and/or Internet resources to further research Jackson’s accomplishments as president. Have them fill out the pro/con chart on the Student Handout with details of what they learn.

Ask students to review their pro/con charts and determine whether they think Jackson should be admitted to the Presidential Hall of Fame.

Have students conclude by writing paragraphs describing their decision as to Jackson’s eligibility for the Hall of Fame and explaining their reasons. They should support their arguments with at least five examples from the research they have done.

Close with a discussion asking students to describe and explain some of the points they have made in their paragraphs. Ask the class to imagine themselves in the shoes of someone living during Jackson’s time. Do they think they might have had a different impression of the president from that perspective, as opposed to their 21st-century point of view? Why or why not?

Evaluation:

Use a rubric to evaluate students’ work. A sample rubric is included at the end of this lesson, or you may use another one of your choice.

Was Andrew Jackson a Great President?

Student Handout

Use the Internet and/or print resources to find out more about Andrew Jackson's accomplishments as president. As you conduct your research, think about whether you'd consider Andrew Jackson a "great" president worthy of being included in a Presidential Hall of Fame. Write the pros and cons of his being included in the Hall of Fame in the appropriate columns of this chart.

Pros	Cons

“Was Andrew Jackson a Great President?” Rubric

Criteria:	Level 1 (0–10 points):	Level 2 (11–20 points):	Level 3 (21–30 points):	Level 4 (31–40 points):	Group score:
Paragraphs: student provides specific examples and details to illustrate their points	Provides no specific examples, or examples provided do not make sense	Provides too few specific examples	Provides five specific examples, but examples lack clarity or detail	Provides five specific examples, with excellent attention to clarity and detail	
Paragraphs: neatness, grammar, and spelling	Paragraph contains numerous grammatical and/or spelling mistakes, or is presented in a very sloppy manner	Paragraph contains some grammatical and/or spelling mistakes, or is somewhat carelessly presented	Paragraph contains a few grammatical and/or spelling mistakes, but is presented neatly	Paragraph contains almost no grammatical and/or spelling mistakes and is very neatly presented	

Project #2: Observations on America in the 1830s and 1840s

Overview:

Students imagine they are Europeans visiting the U.S. for a couple months in the 1830s or 1840s, writing home about current events in the U.S. In the process of researching these letters, they gather information about the important things that occurred during this time period and reflect on their own impressions of the country during this era.

Objectives:

As a result of completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify important political and social events and developments during the 1830s and 1840s
- Hypothesize as to the perspective of someone observing the country during this era, in a particular year and a specific location
- Describe their observations in letters

Time required:

Two class periods

Methodology:

Hold a class discussion reviewing some of the main things that occurred or were ongoing in the U.S. during the 1830s and 1840s. What were some of the major events? What were some challenges the nation faced during this time period?

Ask students to imagine that they are Europeans who have come to the U.S. for three or four months sometime during the 1830s or 1840s. This will give them enough of a range to select from that they can gain an understanding of some of the main issues and challenges the nation faced at the time.

Ask each student to decide on a particular year during the 1830s or 1840s. Also, ask them to decide where in the United States they will visit.

Have students conduct research from the perspective of the time and place they have selected, using the chart in the Student Handout to guide them. Many of the events and developments they will find in their research spanned more than one year, but students should be specific about the president during their chosen year and, when possible, what other specific events occurred that year. They should also try to look at issues from the perspective of the region where they

are staying; for example, if they're visiting the South, they would have somewhat different observations than if they're staying in the North.

Ask students, playing the role of European visitors, to write letters to friends or family in their home countries explaining the following points:

- At least two challenges the U.S. is currently facing, and their opinion about how the country is handling these challenges
- At least two events (e.g., elections, scandals, battles, inventions) that have occurred within the last year or two, and the impact those events have had on Americans
- At least one social movement that is active in the country at this time
- Their opinion of the current president
- Their overall impression of the country

Close the activity with a class discussion about what students have discovered and written about in their letters. Compare and contrast observations from different years and parts of the country. Overall, what did students (in their roles as visiting Europeans) observe about the United States?

Evaluation:

Use a rubric to evaluate students' work. A sample rubric is included at the end of this lesson, or you may use another one of your choice.

Observations on America in the 1830s and 1840s Student Handout

In this activity, you will write a letter from the perspective of a European visitor to America in the 1830s or 1840s. First, choose a year from within those two decades. Next, select a location in the United States that you will pretend to be visiting. Make sure that your location was really a part of the U.S. at that time.

Conduct research to find out about things that happened in and around the year you have selected. Focus not only on national events and developments, but also on things that occurred in the region, state, or town you are pretending to visit.

Use this chart to guide your research, and fill in the spaces with the information you find.

The year and place you are visiting:	
Who is the president, and what party is he a member of?	
What is happening this year in the federal government and national politics? List at least three things.	
What is happening in politics in the location or region you are visiting? Find at least two things, either from this year or from one or two years in the past.	

<p>What is happening regarding society and social change? What ideas, organizations, and movements are popular? List at least three things that have been occurring in or shortly before your chosen year.</p>	
<p>What else is happening this year or has happened recently? Have there been recent elections, scandals, battles, inventions, or other noteworthy events or developments? List at least five things from your research.</p>	

“Observations on America in the 1830s and 1840s” Rubric

Criteria:	Level 1 (0–10 points):	Level 2 (11–20 points):	Level 3 (21–30 points):	Level 4 (31–40 points):	Group score:
Charts: evidence of research	Reflects little evidence of research, with very few examples	Reflects some evidence of research, but chart is lacking in examples and details	Reflects good evidence of research, but chart should have more examples or details	Reflects evidence of thorough research, with excellent examples and a good level of detail	
Letters: thoroughness and clarity	Student has written a very incomplete and/or unclear letter	Student has included only some of the required components	Student has included all required components, but details are hard to follow or lack clarity	Student has included all required components of the letter in a way that makes very clear sense	
Letters: neatness, grammar, and spelling	Contains numerous grammatical and/or spelling mistakes, or is presented in a very sloppy manner	Contains some grammatical and/or spelling mistakes, or is somewhat carelessly presented	Letter contains a few grammatical and/or spelling mistakes, but is presented neatly	Letter contains almost no grammatical and/or spelling mistakes and is very neatly presented	
Total:					

Project #3: Illustrated Timelines of the Mid-19th Century

Overview:

This lesson helps students review and conceptualize the era from 1828 to 1850. They create illustrated timelines that can help them and others remember the important events of this often overlooked historical period. They look for causal relationships between the significant events and developments of this era, and discuss the significance of these events.

Objectives:

As a result of completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify the major events of U.S. history from 1828 to 1850
- Visually conceptualize the progression of events and leaders during this era
- Identify cause-and-effect relationships between important events of this era

Time required: Three class periods

Methodology:

Explain that, as students may already realize, the period from 1828 to 1850 is not the most widely discussed or celebrated era of U.S. history. It can be easy to forget many of the things that happened during this era, including who held the presidency at what time and what political and social developments occurred. Ask students why they think this might be the case. They might say that many of the presidents did little to distinguish themselves, that the time periods immediately preceding and following this era (the birth of the nation and the Civil War) overshadowed it, or simply that this era had fewer exciting or momentous events as other times in the country's past.

Explain to the class that this activity will help them remember important events and trends of the era, and that they will be creating illustrated timelines showing these highlights.

Divide the class into pairs or groups of three. Ask groups to use the Student Handout to organize information they will put in their timelines. Have them refer to the PowerPoint, to research what they might have done for the previous two activities in this series (if applicable) and additional Internet and/or print resources to find appropriate information. The events and developments they include should be ones of major importance to the country as a whole, rather than small local or regional events.

Give each group a large piece of butcher paper. Ask them to sketch their timelines in pencil. The timelines should contain the following components:

- A straight horizontal line with small vertical lines spaced evenly to designate the years 1828 through 1850
- Above the horizontal timeline, the names and (optionally) pictures of each president, with the dates he was president; these should be placed above the appropriate years on the timeline
- Below the timeline, boxes showing at least 15 events or developments that occurred during this era; these boxes should contain text and pictures and should be connected to the timeline with lines showing the appropriate dates or date ranges

Ask students to double-check the dates on their timelines to make sure they are correct.

Once students have followed the steps above to create their timelines, ask them to look for cause-and-effect patterns on the timelines. Did any of the events or developments they have included lead to others? Can they notice any other significant relationships between the things they have placed on their timelines, including the presidents? For each relationship they recognize, ask them to draw arrows between the relevant items.

Have students color their timelines to make them look visually appealing and to clearly distinguish the lines showing cause-and-effect from the other lines.

Display students' timelines in the classroom, and allow them time to browse the room and view other groups' timelines. As they are doing this, ask them to look for further evidence of cause-and-effect patterns that happened during this era, as evidenced by the arrows other students have drawn.

With the timelines still displayed around the room, hold a class discussion, asking students to consider which important events of this era they think had the most impact on later events, and why.

Evaluation:

Use a rubric to evaluate students' work. A sample rubric is included at the end of this lesson, or you may use another one of your choice.

Illustrated Timelines of the Mid-19th Century Student Handout

The name and dates of each president from 1828 to 1850	Important events and developments that occurred during each president's term
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

Illustrated Timelines of the Mid-19th Century Rubric

Criteria:	Poor (0–5):	Fair (6–10):	Good (11–15):	Excellent (16–20):	Group score:
Timeline: completeness	Almost wholly incomplete, lacking most of the required components	Somewhat incomplete and missing several of the required components	Somewhat complete, containing most of the required components	Extremely thorough, containing all of the required components	
Timeline: causal relationships	Lacks consideration of the possible causal relationships between events	Somewhat careless consideration of the possible causal relationships between events	Adequate consideration of the possible causal relationships between events	Extremely thoughtful consideration of the possible causal relationships between events	
Timeline: neatness and overall appearance	Timeline is very sloppy	Timeline is somewhat sloppy	Timeline is somewhat neat and visually appealing	Timeline is extremely neat and visually appealing	
Total:					

America 1828–1850: Multiple-Choice Quiz

1. Which of the following sentences most accurately describes part of Andrew Jackson's military career?
 - a. He learned to hate the British at an early age, but then became more aligned with British policies during the War of 1812
 - b. He fought against both the Creek and the Seminole Indians
 - c. He supported the Seminoles in their efforts to protect their land
 - d. He initially felt sympathetic toward the British, but changed his mind during the War of 1812
2. Which of the following was *not* a philosophy of Jacksonian Democracy?
 - a. The government should not have much power over the national economy
 - b. There should be no national bank
 - c. The Constitution should be strictly interpreted
 - d. Elected officials should remain in office as long as they continue to be reelected
3. Which statement or question would you probably *not* have heard a critic of the spoils system say to a Jackson appointee?
 - a. "You appear to be highly qualified for this position"
 - b. "What favors did you do for the president?"
 - c. "I question your true qualifications for this job"
 - d. "What is your training and education?"
4. Who most consistently opposed the Tariff of 1828?
 - a. Andrew Jackson
 - b. Southerners
 - c. Northerners
 - d. John Quincy Adams
5. What was the Nullification Crisis about?
 - a. South Carolina's fear that Jackson would not block the tariffs
 - b. Jackson's opposition to the Tariff of 1828
 - c. South Carolina's nullification of the 1828 and 1832 tariffs
 - d. The constitutionality of the federal government's imposing tariffs

6. Which of the following statements is true?
- Jackson was willing to wait until the Second Bank of the United States's charter expired before ending the bank
 - Jackson opposed shifting government deposits into state banks
 - The Second Bank of the U.S.'s charter ended in 1832
 - Jackson vetoed the renewal of the Second Bank of the U.S.'s charter
7. Which of the following factors did not directly influence the Second Seminole War?
- Slavery
 - The Cherokee relocation via the Trail of Tears
 - White settlement of Florida
 - Jackson's desire to relocate the Seminoles
8. Which of the following is *not* a true statement about the Trail of Tears?
- Around 15,000 Cherokee were relocated from their homes
 - Many Cherokee became ill with smallpox
 - It began as a result of the Cherokee Nation's approval of the Treaty of New Echota
 - The Cherokee were ill-prepared for the bitter winter
9. What was one likely cause of the Panic of 1837?
- Increased powers of the national bank
 - The government's refusal to accept gold or silver as payment for public lands
 - The increasing value of paper money
 - Widespread land speculation
10. Which industry was at the center of industrial growth in the Northeast?
- The textile industry
 - The cotton industry
 - The gold industry
 - The arms industry
11. Which of the following statements is true?
- German immigrants tended to settle on Southern farms, while Irish immigrants tended to settle in Northeastern cities
 - German immigrants tended to settle in Northeastern cities, while Irish immigrants tended to settle on Midwestern farms
 - German immigrants tended to settle in Southern cities, while Irish immigrants tended to settle on Southern farms
 - German immigrants tended to settle on Midwestern farms, while Irish immigrants tended to settle in Northeastern cities

12. What was the Second Great Awakening?
- A religious revival movement that emphasized hard work without complaint
 - A political movement that emphasized working to end poverty
 - A religious revival movement that emphasized working toward perfection
 - A political movement that emphasized women's suffrage
13. Which statement is true?
- Horace Mann felt that education should be privately funded
 - Before the mid-19th century, the public school system was highly disorganized
 - Before the mid-19th century, most children went to school year-round
 - Teachers in the mid-19th century were not permitted to hit their students
14. What was one characteristic of many utopian communities?
- Members didn't care about earning money for the community
 - They encouraged community members to have diverse religious points of view
 - Members worked for the good of the community
 - They didn't tolerate any form of dancing or musical entertainment
15. Which statement about James K. Polk is the most accurate?
- He was an expansionist but was sometimes willing to compromise with other countries regarding U.S. expansion
 - He was an expansionist and was unwilling to compromise on his ambitions for territorial acquisition
 - He was opposed to expanding the country beyond the Nueces River
 - He was skeptical about Manifest Destiny
16. Which sequence of events is in the correct order?
- Mexico gained independence from Spain; thousands of settlers from the U.S. crossed the international border into Texas; Texas became an independent republic; the U.S. annexed Texas
 - Thousands of settlers from the U.S. crossed the international border into Texas; Texas became an independent republic; the U.S. annexed Texas; Mexico gained independence from Spain
 - The U.S. annexed Texas; Texas became an independent republic; thousands of settlers from the U.S. crossed the international border into Texas; Mexico gained independence from Spain
 - Mexico gained independence from Spain; the U.S. annexed Texas; Texas became an independent republic; thousands of settlers from the U.S. crossed the international border into Texas

17. What was the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo?
- The treaty between the U.S. and Mexico beginning the Mexican-American War
 - The treaty between the U.S. and Mexico ceding Texas to the U.S.
 - The treaty between the U.S. and Mexico ending the Mexican-American War
 - The treaty between the U.S. and Mexico prohibiting slavery in California
18. Why were Southerners largely opposed to tariffs?
- Because the South imported most of its goods
 - Because the South exported many products to the North
 - Because they feared a strong central government
 - Because they feared a tariff would make slavery impossible
19. What was the main group that William Lloyd Garrison argued had “inalienable rights”?
- Women
 - Mexicans
 - African Americans
 - Whigs
20. Which of the following was *not* a part of the Compromise of 1850?
- California would become a free state
 - Colorado Territory could decide whether to allow slavery
 - Texas would no longer claim the land west to Santa Fe
 - Escaped slaves could be captured in the North

America 1828–1850: Multiple-Choice Quiz Answer Key

1. B
2. D
3. A
4. B
5. C
6. D
7. B
8. C
9. D
10. A
11. D
12. C
13. B
14. C
15. A
16. A
17. C
18. A
19. C
20. B