

SFDRCISD US History 8th Grade



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CHAPTER

1

European Exploration

Chapter Outline

- 1.1 EXPLORATION JOURNAL**
 - 1.2 EXPLORATION CHAPTER OUTLINE**
 - 1.3 EXPLORATION VOCABULARY**
 - 1.4 EXPLORATION CHAPTER OUTLINE FOR STUDENTS**
-

Exploration and Colonization

Guided Questions

1. Why did Europeans explore the world's oceans and colonize the Americas?
2. What political, economic, religious and social reasons led to the establishment of the thirteen English colonies?
3. Which historic documents and colonial practices contributed to the growth of representative government?

1.1 Exploration Journal

I can justify in a written statement along with Compare/Contrast why the 3 European country set out to Explore and

1. (Exploration) During the age of Discovery European adventures explored North America. Some historian say these men were motivated by god Gold and Glory. What do historians mean by this?

1.2 Exploration Chapter Outline

European Exploration and Colonization

1. Reasons for European Exploration
 1. Trade
 2. Technology
 3. Powerful rulers
 4. Desire for Profits
 5. religion
2. Colombian Exchange
3. European Colonial Empires
 1. New Spain
 1. Cortes in Mexico
 2. Pizarro in Peru
 2. New France
 1. Canada
 2. Mississippi
 3. New Netherland
 1. Henry Hudson 1609
 2. New Amsterdam-New York
 3. Diversity and tolerance

1.3 Exploration Vocabulary

Exploration Vocabulary

Exploration – when one country or another sends people to explore new lands to see what might be there.

Colonize – when a country sends people to a new land to live permanently.

Charter – written permission from the government to colonize a particular area.

Mercantilism – when a country controls the economy of its colonies, telling them who they can sell to and buy from. Designed to benefit the economy of the mother country.

Colombian Exchange – named after Christopher Columbus, it is the exchange of plants, animals and disease between the New World and the Old World.

Triangular trade – refers to a geographic triangle made up of North America, western Africa and England.

Middle Passage – refers to the route taken by slave traders from western Africa to America

Magna Carta: In 1215, King listed all rights to all free men.

1.4 Exploration Chapter outline for Students

European Exploration Notes

1. Reasons for European Exploration

- Trade:
- Technology:
- Powerful rulers:
- Desire for Profits:
- Religion:

2. Colombian Exchange:

3. European Colonial Empires

1. New Spain:

1. Cortes in Mexico
2. Pizarro in Peru

2. New France

1. Canada
2. Mississippi

3. New Netherland:

1. Henry Hudson 1609-
2. New Amsterdam-New York
3. Diversity and tolerance

Important TEKS in this Chapter

8.2A -

POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL REASONS FOR ESTABLISHING 13 ENGLISH COLONIES

Political reasons for English colonies

Competition between European nations encouraged colonization in North America

Charters were granted to companies to establish colonies

Monarchs in Europe had money to fund colonial endeavors

Economic reasons for English colonies

Increase trade and markets for English exports (mercantilism)

Source of raw materials

Availability of land attracted colonists

Belief that gold and silver was abundant in the Americas

Religious reasons for English colonies

Many groups came seeking religious freedom

Social reasons for English colonies

Opportunity for adventure

Opportunity for personal prestige

Owning land allowed for social mobility

Unit Understanding:

Europeans began exploring and colonizing in North America for a variety of reasons.

- What motivated many Europeans to migrate to North America?

Vocabulary:

Exploration Vocabulary

Exploration – when one country or another sends people to explore new lands to see what might be there.

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Magna Carta: In 1215, King listed all rights to all free men.

CHAPTER 2**Colonization****Chapter Outline**

- 2.1 COLONIZATION OUTLINE**
 - 2.2 COLONIZATION VOCABULARY**
 - 2.3 NEW ENGLAND COLONIES**
 - 2.4 MAYFLOWER COMPACT 1620**
 - 2.5 MIDDLE COLONIES: BEST OF BOTH WORLDS**
 - 2.6 REACHING TO CONNECTICUT**
 - 2.7 SOUTHERN COLONIES**
 - 2.8 COLONIZATION OUTLINE FOR STUDENTS**
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

- Students often believe that there were no enslaved people in the northern colonies.
- Students often believe that all African Americans were enslaved.
- Some students may think all colonists migrated for religious freedom.
- Some students may think all colonists were British citizens

Questions for this Unit:

2.1 Colonization Outline

Life in Colonial America, Thirteen Original Colonies

Thirteen English Colonies- Jamestown 1607

1. 1. Why colonist came
 1. Political
 2. Social
 3. Economic
 4. Religious
2. Growth of represented government
 1. Mayflower Compact
 2. Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, Thomas Hooker

Why colonies established

3. 1. Religious reasons- Massachusetts
 0. Pilgrims
 0. puritans
2. Religious toleration
 0. Pennsylvania: Quakers, William Penn
 0. Maryland: Catholics
 0. Rhode Island: Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson

New England Colonies 10A, 10B, 11A, 11C, 12A, 12D

1. 1. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island
2. Northern area with long winters
3. Small farms, grew crops for their own use
4. Sailors, fishermen, merchants, producers of Rum, shipbuilding
5. puritanism

Middle Atlantic Colonies 10A, 10B, 11A, 11C, 12A, 12D

2. 1. New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania **10B**
2. Between New England and Sothern Colonies
3. Winters not as harsh as New England Colonies, longer summers
4. Lumber and ship building
5. Rich soil ,“Bread Basket”, wheat, oats, barley, rye,(staple crops)
6. Religious freedom, Anglican, Dutch Reformed Protestants, Quakers, Catholics, and Jews
7. Indentured servants

Southern Colonies 10A, 10B, 11A, 11C, 12A, 12D

3. 1. Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia
2. Warm climate, long growing season
3. Flat land with soil suited for cash crops, Rice, Tobacco, Indigo(blue Dye), Cotton

4. Large farms, plantations, slaves **12B**
5. Anglican, Presbyterian

Colonial Government

4.
 1. English political traditions
 1. Magna Carta 1215 15A
 2. British Parliament (nobles and elected representatives)
 3. Glorious Revolution- Bill of Rights 1689 15A
 2. Colonial Self-government **3A**
 1. Virginia House of Burgesses 3B
 2. Mayflower compact 1C, **3B**, 15A
 3. Town meetings
 4. Fundamental Orders of Connecticut 1639, Thomas Hooker 3B, **3C**

Growth of religious freedom in the English Colonies (escape from religious persecution in Europe) 23A, 23C, 25A

5.
 1. Virginia - Anglicans
 2. Massachusetts
 1. Pilgrims and Puritans (state endorsed religion)
 2. Salem witchcraft trials
 3. Rhode Island –Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson religious toleration
 4. Maryland- Catholics 23A
 5. Pennsylvania - Quakers
 6. Great Awakening 25B
 1. Jonathan Edwards and George Whitefield (revivals)
 2. Salvation/damnation, read bible, increase in church attendance
 3. support religious toleration

Economic and social life in the English Colonies

6.
 1. Mercantilism – colonies exist for the benefit of Mother Country (Navigation Laws) 4A
 2. Triangular trade route
 3. Men enjoyed power and authority, women had few rights. 23E
 4. Wealth landowners – merchants – independent farmers – tradesmen- unskilled labor - slaves

Conlon

2.2 Colonization Vocabulary

Colonization Vocabulary

Colonization: Physical characteristics, as well as human characteristic, including political, social, economic, and religious factors, Influence patterns of settlements.

Political: Government

Social: The way people interact with one another.

Economical: Issues relating to how people make money for their families; the production of goods and services.

Agriculture: The Practice of cultivating land or raising stock.

Cash crop: Crops grown to sell.

Subsistence farming: growing crops for personal use only.

Democracy: Ruled by the people

-

-

Free enterprise: Business compete for consumers who are free to decide where to purchase goods. The government has little control.

Indentured servant: Laborer who agreed to work without pay for a certain period of time in exchange for passage to America.

Plantation: Large farms that grew cash crops. The land was farmed by slaves who lived on the land.

Mercantilism: Belief that a colony exists to benefit the mother country financially; maintaining wealth by controlling trade.

Quaker: Religious Group of people who believed all people are equal.

Puritan: settled in North America to follow the pure way of life

Separatist: Person who wanted to separate from Church of England.

Pilgrim: Group on Mayflower Compact, who believed in self- governing.

English Bill of Rights: passed by parliament in 1689 limited the kings powers, by giving certain powers to parliament, and specific rights to the citizens.

Great Awakening: a revival of religious feelings and beliefs in the American colonies that began in 1730's.

2.3 New England Colonies

The FOUNDERS of the New England colonies had an entirely different mission from the Jamestown settlers. Although economic prosperity was still a goal of the New England settlers, their true goal was spiritual. Fed up with the ceremonial Church of England, Pilgrims and Puritans sought to recreate society in the manner they believed God truly intended it to be designed.

Religious strife reached a peak in England in the 1500s. When Henry VIII broke with the Catholic Church of Rome, spiritual life in England was turned on its ear. The new church under the king's leadership was approved by the English Parliament, but not all the people in England were willing to accept the Church of England. At first, the battles were waged between English Catholics and the followers of the new Church — the ANGLICANS. The rule of Queen Elizabeth brought an end to bloodshed, but the battle waged on in the hearts of the English people.

PILGRIMS and Puritans both believed in the teachings of JOHN CALVIN. According to Calvin, neither the teachings of the Catholic nor the Anglican Churches addressed God's will. By the end of Elizabeth's reign, England was a nation of many different faiths.



FIGURE 2.1

John Winthrop was a spiritual and political leader of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. He was elected governor of the colony in 1629.

The STUART FAMILY, who ascended to the throne after the demise of Elizabeth, made matters worse for the followers of John Calvin. King James and his son CHARLES supported the Church of England, but secretly admired the ceremonies of the Catholic Church. To these kings, Calvin was a heretic, a man whose soul was doomed for his religious views.

The Pilgrims, called the SEPARATISTS in England because of their desire to separate from the Anglican Church, were persecuted by agents of the throne. The Puritans, so named for their desire to purify the Church of England, experienced the same degree of harassment. By the second and third decades of the 1600s, each group decided that England was no place to put their controversial beliefs into practice.



FIGURE 2.2

This map, the work of William Hubbard, depicts the expanding New England colonies as they were in 1677.

Where else but in the New World could such a golden opportunity be found? The land was unspoiled. Children could be raised without the corruption of old English religious ideas. The chance to create a perfect society was there for the taking. The Stuart kings saw America a means to get rid of troublemakers. Everything was falling into place.

By 1620, the seeds for a new society, quite different from the one already established at Jamestown, were planted deeply within the souls of a few brave pioneers. Their quest would form the basis of New England society.

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2.4 Mayflower Compact 1620

The Mayflower Compact and Plymouth Colony

Not all the English Separatists set out for the New World.

The first group to leave England actually headed for the Dutch Netherlands in 1608. They became uneasy in their new land as their children started speaking Dutch and abandoning English traditions. Even worse to the Separatists, the tolerance shown to them by the Dutch was shown to many different faiths. They became disgusted with the attention paid to worldly goods, and the presence of many "unholy" faiths.

The great Separatist experiment in the Netherlands came to a quick end, as they began to look elsewhere for a purer place to build their society. Some headed for English islands in the Caribbean. Those who would be forever known to future Americans as the Pilgrims set their sights on the New World in late 1620.

Over a hundred travelers embarked on the voyage of the *Mayflower* in September 1620. Less than one third were Separatists. The rest were immigrants, adventurers, and speculators.

When the weather was good, the passengers could enjoy hot food cooked on deck. When there was high wind or storms, they lived on salted beef, a dried biscuit called "HARD TACK," other dried vegetables, and beer. The nearest thing to resemble a bathroom was a bucket.

Their voyage took about two months, and the passengers enjoyed a happier experience than most trans-Atlantic trips. One death was suffered and one child was born. The child was named OCEANUS after the watery depths beneath them.



FIGURE 2.3

The 102 travellers aboard the *Mayflower* landed upon the shores of Plymouth in 1620. This rock still sits on those shores to commemorate the historic event.

Are We There Yet?

One of the greatest twists of fate in human history occurred on that epochal voyage. The Pilgrims were originally bound for Virginia to live north of Jamestown under the same charter granted to citizens of Jamestown. Fate charted

a different course. Lost at sea, they happened upon a piece of land that would become known as Cape Cod. After surveying the land, they set up camp not too far from PLYMOUTH ROCK. They feared venturing further south because winter was fast approaching.

The Pilgrims had an important question to answer before they set ashore. Since they were not landing within the jurisdiction of the Virginia Company, they had no CHARTER to govern them. Who would rule their society?

In the landmark MAYFLOWER COMPACT OF 1620, the Pilgrims decided that they would rule themselves, based on majority rule of the townsmen. This independent attitude set up a tradition of self-rule that would later lead to TOWN MEETINGS and elected legislatures in New England.

Like the Virginia House of Burgesses established the previous year, Plymouth colony began to lay the foundation for democracy in the American colonies.

Governor Bradford



FIGURE 2.4

The modern conception of a Pilgrim might include a man in a black hat with a buckle, but not all of the original settlers of Plymouth County fit this description.

Successful colonies require successful leadership. The man to step forward in Plymouth colony was WILLIAM BRADFORD. After the first governor elected under the Mayflower Compact perished from the harsh winter, Bradford was elected governor for the next thirty years. In May of 1621, he performed the colony's first marriage

ceremony.

Under Bradford's guidance, Plymouth suffered less hardship than their English compatriots in Virginia. Relations with the local natives remained relatively smooth in Plymouth and the food supply grew with each passing year.

By autumn of 1621, the Pilgrims had much for which to be thankful. After the harvest, Massasoit and about ninety other Indians joined the Pilgrims for the great English tradition of HARVEST FESTIVAL. The participants celebrated for several days, dining on venison, goose, duck, turkey, fish, and of course, cornbread, the result of a bountiful corn harvest. This tradition was repeated at harvest time in the following years.

It was President Lincoln who declared Thanksgiving a national celebration in 1863. The Plymouth Pilgrims simply celebrated survival, as well as the hopes of good fortune in the years that lay ahead.

2.5 Middle Colonies: Best of Both Worlds

Middle Colonies:

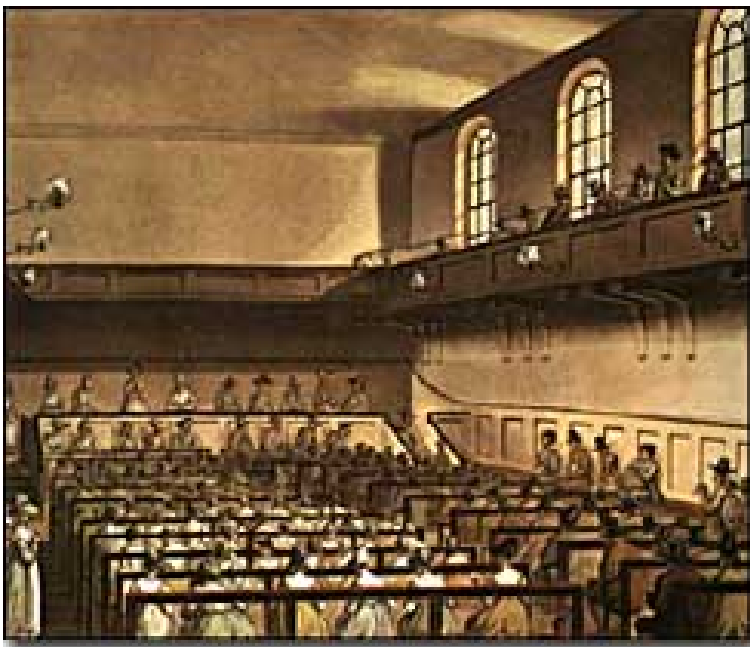


FIGURE 2.5

Central to the Quaker way of life was the Meeting House. Here, Quakers would come together to worship. The above image depicts one of London's Quaker Meeting Houses.

WILLIAM PENN was a dreamer. He also had the king over a barrel. Charles II owed his father a huge debt. To repay the Penns, William was awarded an enormous tract of land in the New World. Immediately he saw possibilities. People of his faith, the Quakers, had suffered serious persecution in England. With some good advertising, he might be able to establish a religious refuge. He might even be able to turn a profit. Slowly, the wheels began to spin. In, 1681, his dream became a reality.

QUAKERS, or the Society of Friends, had suffered greatly in England. As religious dissenters of the Church of England, they were targets much like the Separatists and the Puritans. But Friends were also devout pacifists. They would not fight in any of England's wars, nor would they pay their taxes if they believed the proceeds would assist a military venture. They believed in total equality. Therefore, Quakers would not bow down to nobles. Even the king would not receive the courtesy of a tipped hat. They refused to take oaths, so their allegiance to the Crown was always in question. Of all the Quaker families that came to the New World, over three quarters of the male heads of household had spent time in an English jail.



FIGURE 2.6

William Penn, founder of Pennsylvania ("Penn's Woods") and planner of Philadelphia, established a very liberal government by 17th century standards. Religious freedom and good relations with Native Americans were two keystones of Penn's style.

The Quakers of Penn's colony, like their counterparts across the Delaware River in New Jersey, established an extremely liberal government for the seventeenth century. Religious freedom was granted and there was no tax-supported church. Penn insisted on developing good relations with the Native Americans. Women saw greater freedom in Quaker society than elsewhere, as they were allowed to participate fully in Quaker meetings.

PENNSYLVANIA, or "Penn's Woods," benefited from the vision of its founder. Well advertised throughout Europe, skilled artisans and farmers flocked to the new colony. With Philadelphia as its capital, Pennsylvania soon became the KEYSTONE of the English colonies. New Jersey was owned by Quakers even before Penn's experiment, and the remnants of NEW SWEDEN, now called Delaware, also fell under the Friends' sphere of influence. William Penn's dream had come true.

2.6 Reaching to Connecticut

Despite a few internal problems, Massachusetts Bay Colony was thriving by the mid-1630s. It would only be a matter of time before individuals within the colony would consider expansion.

There were obstacles to consider. Establishing a new colony was never easy. Pequot Indian settlements west of the Connecticut River were an important consideration. Nevertheless, the Puritan experiment pushed forward, creating new colonies in the likeness of Massachusetts Bay.



FIGURE 2.7

THOMAS HOOKER was a devout Puritan minister. He had no quarrels with the religious teachings of the church. He did, however, object to linking VOTING RIGHTS with church membership, which had been the practice in Massachusetts Bay.

In 1636, his family led a group of followers west and built a town known as HARTFORD. This would become the center of Connecticut colony. In religious practices CONNECTICUT mirrored Massachusetts Bay. Politically, it allowed more access to non-church members.

In 1639, the citizens of Connecticut enacted the first written CONSTITUTION in the western hemisphere. The FUNDAMENTAL ORDERS OF CONNECTICUT called for an elected governor and a two-house legislature. It served as a model for other colonial charters and even future state constitutions after independence was achieved.

In 1637, under the leadership of JOHN DAVENPORT, a second colony was formed in the Connecticut River Valley, revolved around the port of NEW HAVEN. Unlike the citizens in Hartford, the citizens were very strict about church membership and the political process. They even abolished juries because there was no mention of them in the Bible. Most citizens accused of a crime simply reported to the magistrate for their punishment, without even furnishing a defense.

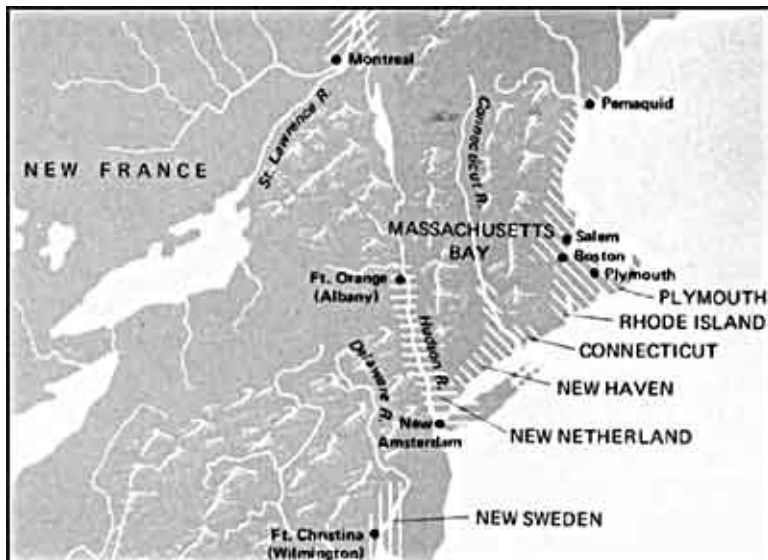


 FIGURE 2.8

This map shows the area known as the Massachusetts Bay Colony during the 17th century. Settlers soon branched out and settled the areas that would be known as Connecticut and Rhode Island.

New Haven was merged into its more democratic neighbor by King Charles II in 1662.

Connecticut provides a great example of the strictness of colonial society. Laws based on scripture, called BLUE LAWS, were applied to Connecticut residents. Examples include the death penalty for crimes that seem minor by modern standards. Blue laws condemned to death any citizen who was convicted of blaspheming the name of God or cursing their natural father or mother. These laws were in effect at least as late as 1672 in colonial Connecticut.

2.7 Southern Colonies

Virginia was the first successful southern colony. While Puritan zeal was fueling New England's mercantile development, and Penn's Quaker experiment was turning the middle colonies into America's bread basket, the South was turning to cash crops. Geography and motive rendered the development of these colonies distinct from those that lay to the North.

Immediately to Virginia's north was MARYLAND. Begun as a Catholic experiment, the colony's economy would soon come to mirror that of Virginia, as tobacco became the most important crop. To the south lay the Carolinas, created after the English Civil War had been concluded. In the Deep South was GEORGIA, the last of the original thirteen colonies. Challenges from Spain and France led the king to desire a buffer zone between the cash crops of the Carolinas and foreign enemies. Georgia, a colony of debtors, would fulfill that need.

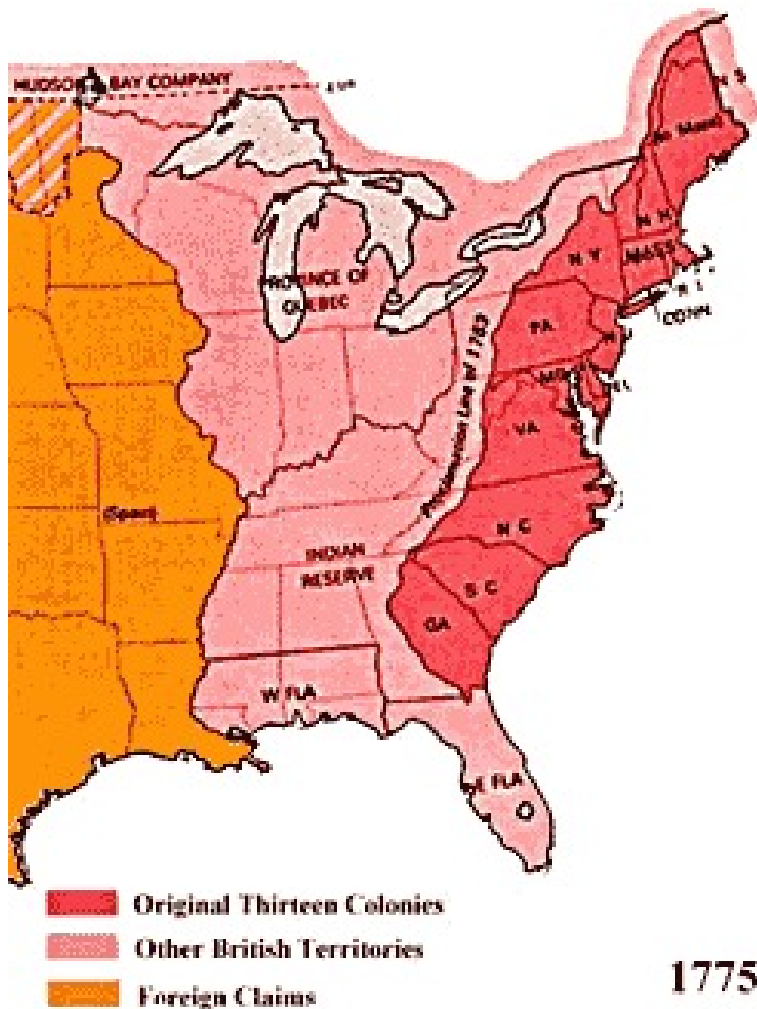


FIGURE 2.9

The Southern colonies included Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia.

English American Southerners would not enjoy the generally good health of their New England counterparts. Outbreaks of malaria and YELLOW FEVER kept life expectancies lower. Since the northern colonies attracted religious dissenters, they tended to migrate in families. Such family connections were less prevalent in the South.

The economy of growing CASH CROPS would require a labor force that would be unknown north of Maryland. Slaves and indentured servants, although present in the North, were much more important to the South. They were the backbone of the Southern economy.

Settlers in the Southern colonies came to America to seek economic prosperity they could not find in Old England. The English countryside provided a grand existence of stately manors and high living. But rural England was full, and by law those great estates could only be passed on to the eldest son. America provided more space to realize a lifestyle the new arrivals could never dream to achieve in their native land.

Jamestown

The announcements plastered throughout the streets of London were quite enticing. They promised passage to the New World, as well as a house, food, clothing, land, even a share of profits earned by the sponsoring company. The Virginia Company of London was desperate to populate its struggling colony in America.

Twelve years earlier, in 1607, three ships carrying about 100 English colonists – most of them men – had sailed into Chesapeake Bay and anchored at the mouth of the James River. There the colonists established their new settlement. Almost eight hundred more settlers arrived over the next three years.

To say that life wasn't easy at the settlement would be a gross understatement. With food supplies quickly diminishing, the settlers turned their hungry eyes toward the chickens, pigs, and cattle. Next they went after the horses. According to Captain John Smith, some finally resorted to cannibalism. One man even killed his wife in order to fill his stomach.

By the spring of 1610, only sixty colonists of the original nine hundred were still alive.

Two years later, the colonists began to experiment with various types of tobacco. The plant grew successfully in the Caribbean. Now they found a variety that was well-suited to Virginia. The plant had the potential to transform Virginia into a profitable venture, if only more laborers could be brought to the colony to clear land and cultivate the crops.

The Virginia Company recruited more men and women, and in 1617, the first shipment of tobacco was sent to England.

The first joint-stock company to launch a lasting venture to the New World was the VIRGINIA COMPANY OF LONDON. The investors had one goal in mind: gold. They hoped to repeat the success of Spaniards who found gold in South America.

In 1607, 144 English men and boys established the JAMESTOWN colony, named after King James I.

The colonists were told that if they did not generate any wealth, financial support for their efforts would end. Many of the men spent their days vainly searching for gold.

As a consequence, the colonists spent little time farming. Food supplies dwindled. MALARIA and the harsh winter besieged the colonists, as well. After the first year, only 38 of the original 144 had survived.



FIGURE 2.10

Jamestown, Virginia, was the site of the first permanent English settlement in the Americas. The settlers chose a location close to the water, hoping to establish a thriving community.

First Virginia Charter Source

James, by the grace of God [King of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith], etc.

Whereas our loving and weldisposed subjects ... and divers others of our loving subjects, have been humble sutors unto us that wee woulde vouchsafe unto them our licence to make habitacion, plantacion and to deduce a colonie of sondrie of our people into that parte of America commonly called Virginia, and other parts and territories in America either appartaining unto us or which are not nowe actuallie possessed by anie Christian prince or people, scituate, lying and being all along the sea coastes between fower and thirtie degrees of northerly latitude from the equinoctiall line and five and fortie degrees of the same latitude and in the maine lande betweene the same fower and thirtie and five and fourtie degrees, and the ilandes thereunto adjacente or within one hundred miles of the coaste thereof;

And to that ende, and for themore speedy accomplismente of there saide intended plantacion and habitacion there, are desirous to devide themselves into two severall colonies and companies, the one consisting of certaine Knightes, gentlemen, marchanntes and other adventurers of our cittie of London, and elsewhere, which are and from time to time shalbe joined unto them which doe desire to begin there plantacions and habitacions in some fitt and conveniente place between fower and thirtie and one and fortie degrees of the said latitude all alongest the coaste of Virginia and coastes of America aforesaid and the other consisting of sondrie Knightes, gentlemen, merchanntes, and other adventurers of our citties of Bristoll and Exeter, and of our towne of Plymouthe, and of other places which doe joine themselves unto that colonie which doe desire to beginn there plantacions and habitacions in some fitt and convenient place betweene eighte and thirtie degrees and five and fortie degrees of the saide latitude all alongest the

saide coaste of Virginia and America as that coaste lieth;

Wee, greatly commending and graciously accepting of their desires to the furtherance of soe noble a worke which may, by the providence of Almighty God, hereafter tende to the glorie of His Divine Majestie in propagating of Christian religion to suche people as yet live in darknesse and miserable ignorance of the true knoweledge and worshippe of God and may in tyme bring the infidels and salvages living in those parts to humane civilitie and to a settled and quiet govermente, doe by these our lettres patents graciously accepte of and agree to their humble and well intended desires;

April 10, 1606

IMAGE NOT AVAILABLE

FIGURE 2.11

"Work or Starve"



FIGURE 2.12

An early advocate of tough love, John Smith is remembered for his strict leadership and for saving the settle
The colony may well have perished had it not been for the leadership of JOHN SMITH. He imposed strict discipline

on the colonists. "Work or starve" was his motto, and each colonist was required to spend four hours per day farming. An accidental gunpowder burn forced Smith to return to England in 1609. After his departure, the colony endured even more hardships. A new boatload of colonists and supplies sank off the coast of Bermuda on its way to help the hungry settlement. The winter of 1609-10, known as the "STARVING TIME," may have been the worst of all.

Disease and hunger ravaged Jamestown. Two desperate colonists were tied to posts and left to starve as punishment for raiding the colonies' stores. One colonist even took to cannibalism, eating his own wife. The fate of the venture was precarious. Yet still more colonists arrived, and their numbers included women.



FIGURE 2.13

Pictured are the three ships that brought the original settlers to Jamestown in 1607: the *Susan Constant*, the *Godspeed*, and the *Discovery*.

Despite the introduction of tobacco cultivation, the colony was a failure as a financial venture. The king declared the Virginia Company bankrupt in 1624.

About 200,000 pounds were lost among the investors. The charter was thereby revoked, and Virginia became a royal colony, the first in America to be ruled by the Crown.

Investments in permanent settlements were risky indeed. The merchants and gentry paid with their pocketbooks. Many colonists paid with their lives. For every six colonists who ventured across the Atlantic, only one survived.

Maryland — The Catholic Experiment



 FIGURE 2.14

James Barry, 1793

In this engraving, Cecil Calvert presents his 1649 Act Concerning Religion to the ancient Spartan lawgiver, Lycurgus, while libertarians throughout history, including Ben Franklin and William Penn, look on.

New England was not the only destination sought by those fleeing religious persecution. In 1632, CECELIUS CALVERT, known as LORD BALTIMORE, was granted possession of all land lying between the POTOMAC RIVER and the CHESAPEAKE BAY. Lord Baltimore saw this as an opportunity to grant religious freedom to the Catholics who remained in Anglican England. Although outright violence was more a part of the 1500s than the 1600s, Catholics were still a persecuted minority in the seventeenth century. For example, Catholics were not even permitted to be legally married by a Catholic priest. Baltimore thought that his New World possession could serve as a refuge. At the same time, he hoped to turn a financial profit from the venture.

Maryland, named after England's Catholic queen HENRIETTA MARIA, was first settled in 1634. Unlike the religious experiments to the North, economic opportunity was the draw for many Maryland colonists. Consequently, most immigrants did not cross the Atlantic in family units but as individuals. The first inhabitants were a mixture of country gentlemen (mostly Catholic) and workers and artisans (mostly Protestant). This mixture would surely doom

the Catholic experiment. Invariably, there are more poor than aristocrats in any given society, and the Catholics soon found themselves in the minority.

The geography of Maryland, like that of her Southern neighbor Virginia, was conducive to growing tobacco. The desire to make profits from tobacco soon led to the need for low-cost labor. As a result, the number of indentured servants greatly expanded and the social structure of Maryland reflected this change. But the influx in immigration was not reflected in larger population growth because, faced with frequent battles with malaria and typhoid, life expectancy in Maryland was about 10 years less than in New England.

Fearful that the Protestant masses might restrict Catholic liberties, the HOUSE OF DELEGATES passed the MARYLAND ACT OF TOLERATION in 1649. This act granted religious freedom to all Christians. Like Roger Williams in Rhode Island and William Penn in Pennsylvania, Maryland thus experimented with laws protecting religious liberty. Unfortunately, Protestants swept the Catholics out of the legislature within a decade, and religious strife ensued. Still, the Act of Toleration is an important part of the colonial legacy of religious freedom that will culminate in the First Amendment in the American Bill of Rights. **Indentured Servants**

The growth of tobacco, rice, and indigo and the plantation economy created a tremendous need for labor in Southern English America. Without the aid of modern machinery, human sweat and blood was necessary for the planting, cultivation, and harvesting of these cash crops. While slaves existed in the English colonies throughout the 1600s, indentured servitude was the method of choice employed by many planters before the 1680s. This system provided incentives for both the master and servant to increase the working population of the Chesapeake colonies.

Virginia and Maryland operated under what was known as the "HEADRIGHT SYSTEM." The leaders of each colony knew that labor was essential for economic survival, so they provided incentives for planters to import workers. For each laborer brought across the Atlantic, the master was rewarded with 50 acres of land. This system was used by wealthy plantation aristocrats to increase their land holdings dramatically. In addition, of course, they received the services of the workers for the duration of the indenture.

This system seemed to benefit the servant as well. Each INDENTURED SERVANT would have their fare across the Atlantic paid in full by their master. A contract was written that stipulated the length of service — typically five years. The servant would be supplied room and board while working in the master's fields. Upon completion of the contract, the servant would receive "freedom dues," a pre-arranged termination bonus. This might include land, money, a gun, clothes or food. On the surface it seemed like a terrific way for the luckless English poor to make their way to prosperity in a new land. Beneath the surface, this was not often the case.

Only about 40 percent of indentured servants lived to complete the terms of their contracts. Female servants were often the subject of harassment from their masters. A woman who became pregnant while a servant often had years tacked on to the end of her service time. Early in the century, some servants were able to gain their own land as free men. But by 1660, much of the best land was claimed by the large land owners. The former servants were pushed westward, where the mountainous land was less arable and the threat from Indians constant. A class of angry, impoverished pioneer farmers began to emerge as the 1600s grew old. After BACON'S REBELLION in 1676, planters began to prefer permanent African slavery to the headright system that had previously enabled them to prosper. **Creating the Carolinas**

While wayward English migrants worked to build the new American colonies, mother England experienced the greatest turmoil in her history in the middle of the 1600s. The Stuart King, Charles I, was beheaded as the result of a civil war in 1649. A dictatorship led by OLIVER CROMWELL ruled England until 1660. This represented the only break in the hereditary line dating from 1066 until the present day. Cromwell was a brutal leader, so the return of the English monarchy was well received by the public.

This disruption caused a temporary distraction from colonizing the New World. When Charles II assumed the throne, it was business as usual. The colonies that were created under his rule were known as RESTORATION COLONIES. It was in this environment that the Carolinas were created.

The southern part of Carolina served first as support for the British West Indies. Soon the slave economy of the sugar islands reached the shores of Carolina. The cultivation of rice in the plantation system quickly became profitable, and planters in the hundreds and slaves in the tens of thousands soon inhabited Carolina. At the heart of the colony was the merchant port of Charles Town, later to be known as CHARLESTON. African slaves became a majority of the population before the middle of the eighteenth century. South Carolina even experimented with Indian slavery, enslaving those captured in the aftermath of battle.

Such was not the case for the northern reaches of the Carolina colony. The earliest inhabitants of this region were displaced former indentured servants from the Chesapeake. Most established small tobacco farms. Slavery existed here, but in far smaller numbers than in the neighboring regions. The inhabitants felt as though the aristocrats from Virginia and the Charles Town area looked down their noses on them. Northern Carolina, like Rhode Island in the North, drew the region's discontented masses.

As the two locales evolved separately and as their differing geographies and inhabitants steered contrasting courses, calls for a formal split emerged. In 1712, NORTH CAROLINA and SOUTH CAROLINA became distinct colonies. Each prospered in its own right after this peaceful divorce took effect. **Debtors in Georgia**

The development of Georgia was unlike all the other British colonies. First of all, it was the last to be created. Georgia was founded in 1733, 126 years after Jamestown was successfully planted. England and Europe as a whole were in the midst of an intellectual revolution known as the ENLIGHTENMENT. Enlightened thinkers championed the causes of liberty and progress. Many believed in the innate goodness of human beings. They asserted that even the worst elements of society might prosper if given the right set of circumstances.

JAMES OGLETHORPE was such a thinker. He and a group of charitable investors asked KING GEORGE for permission to create a utopian experiment for English citizens imprisoned for debt. England's prison population could be decreased, and thousands of individuals could be given a new chance at life. With these lofty goals, Georgia was created.

King George was not terribly concerned with the plight of the English debtor. His advisers pointed out that such a colony in Georgia might provide defense for the South Carolina rice plantations from Spanish Florida. He gave his assent to a charter and Oglethorpe acted.

...And this would turn out very well indeed in that it would encourage very many good families of average means to go to settle there as well as some very good workmen as carpenters, masons, tile makers, blacksmiths, farriers, locksmiths, wheelwrights, coopers, vine growers, shepherds, laborers, and others who would be most useful there. Instead of this, the greatest part of those who have already gone there are nothing but miserable ones both as to their manners and as to their fortunes..."

– James Edward Oglethorpe, *Original Papers*, Feb. 11, 1737

Here, the settlers would have to conform to Oglethorpe's plan, in which there was no elected assembly. Three major laws governed the colony. The first dealt with the distribution of land. The second and third reflected Enlightened ideals. No slavery was permitted in Georgia, and the possession of alcohol was prohibited. Each debtor was to receive 50 acres of land to farm. This land could not be sold. Silkworms were transported from Europe with the hope of developing a silk industry in Georgia's mulberry trees.

Unfortunately, the plan itself was a miserable failure. Georgia residents complained that some citizens received fertile land while others were forced to work uncooperative soil. Since they could not buy or sell their land, they felt trapped. The mulberry tree plan failed, because the trees in Georgia were the wrong type for cultivating silk. The alcohol ban was openly flouted. Cries to permit slavery followed as the Georgians envied the success of their neighbors. Eventually many simply fled the colony for the Carolinas. King George revoked the charter in 1752 and Georgia became a royal colony. One of the world's best organized utopian experiments came to an abrupt end. **Life in the Plantation South**

PLANTATION life created a society with clear class divisions. A lucky few were at the top, with land holdings as

far as the eyes could see. Most Southerners did not experience this degree of wealth. The contrast between rich and poor was greater in the South than in the other English colonies, because of the labor system necessary for its survival. Most Southerners were YEOMAN farmers, indentured servants, or slaves. The plantation system also created changes for women and family structures as well.

The TIDEWATER ARISTOCRATS were the fortunate few who lived in stately plantation manors with hundreds of servants and slaves at their beck and call. Most plantation owners took an active part in the operations of the business. Surely they found time for leisurely activities like hunting, but on a daily basis they worked as well. The distance from one plantation to the next proved to be isolating, with consequences even for the richest class. Unlike New England, who required public schooling by law, the difficulties of travel and the distances between prospective students impeded the growth of such schools in the South. Private tutors were hired by the wealthiest families. The boys studied in the fall and winter to allow time for work in the fields during the planting times. The girls studied in the summer to allow time for weaving during the colder months. Few cities developed in the South. Consequently, there was little room for a merchant middle class. URBAN PROFESSIONALS such as lawyers were rare in the South. Artisans often worked right on the plantation as slaves or servants.

The roles of women were dramatically changed by the plantation society. First of all, since most indentured servants were male, there were far fewer women in the colonial South. In the Chesapeake during the 1600s, men entered the colony at a rate of seven to one. From one perspective, this increased women's power. They were highly sought after by the overwhelming number of eager men. The high death rate in the region resulted in a typical marriage being dissolved by death within seven years. Consequently there was a good deal of remarriage, and a complex web of half-brothers and half-sisters evolved. Women needed to administer the property in the absence of the male. Consequently many developed managerial skills. However, being a minority had its downside. Like in New England, women were completely excluded from the political process. Female slaves and indentured servants were often the victims of aggressive male masters.

African Americans in the British New World

Even before the Mayflower touched ground off Cape Cod, African Americans were living in British North America. Although slavery itself was not foreign to West Africans, the brutal nature of the TRANS-ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE and the nature of COLONIAL SLAVERY was without parallel in African history. Millions of people deemed savages by their new "MASTERS" were uprooted from their ways of life and forced to adopt new ones.

Europeans and even some Africans would participate in the slave trade that brought millions of Africans to the New World. African SLAVE TRADERS would ruthlessly bring their captives from the interior of the continent where they would await the business transaction that would take them thousands of miles from their homeland.

Slaves bound for the North American British colonies overcame tremendous odds to reach their destinations. The dreaded "Middle Passage" often claimed half or more of its human cargo. Most of the survivors lived harsh lives as plantation slaves. Some lived in the towns and learned trades and some lived as domestic slaves, particularly in the North. Often overlooked are free African Americans, who managed to escape or were lucky enough to be granted their freedom.

Yet as the seventeenth century became the eighteenth century, the institution grew. Harsh CODES were adopted across the South, and although slavery was less common in the North, many New England shippers profited from the so-called triangular trade. Slavery was indeed becoming entrenched in British colonial life.

The colonization of the Americas brought together for the first time three distinctive peoples from three distant continents. The Native Americans, Europeans, and Africans that inhabited what would become the United States of America each previously had glorious civilizations and would contribute to a new glorious civilization that would follow. Despite the great numbers of Africans — now African Americans — in bondage, a rich legacy of artistic, religious, and linguistic gifts merge with the realities of a New World to form the foundations of what would become American culture.

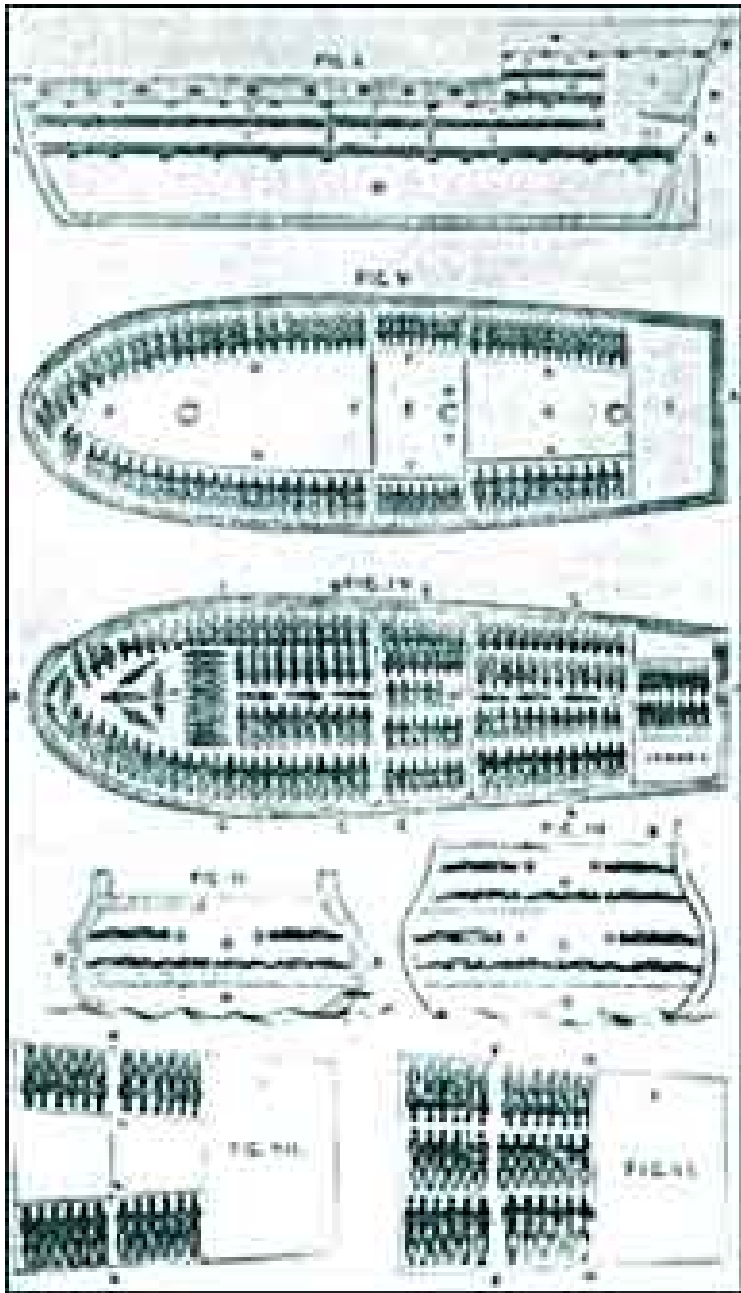


 FIGURE 2.15

Slave ships were packed full of captured Africans to ensure maximum profits for the ones selling the slaves at auction. This diagram of the slave ship *Brookes* dates from 1788 and shows the close quarters of the slave trade.

West African Society at the Point of European Contact

Powerful KINGDOMS, beautiful sculpture, complex trade, tremendous wealth, centers for advanced learning — all are hallmarks of AFRICAN CIVILIZATION on the eve of the age of exploration.

Hardly living up to the "DARK CONTINENT" label given by European adventurers, Africa's cultural heritage runs deep. The empires of GHANA, MALI, and SONGHAY are some of the greatest the world has ever known. TIMBUKTU, arguably the world's oldest university, was the intellectual center of its age.

Although primarily agricultural, West Africans held many occupations. Some were hunters and fishers. Merchants traded with other African communities, as well as with Europeans and Arabs. Some West Africans mined gold, salt, iron, copper or even diamonds. African art was primarily religious, and each community had artisans skilled at producing works that would please the tribal gods.

The center of African life in ancient and modern times is the family. Since Africans consider all individuals who can trace roots to a common ANCESTOR, this family often comprised hundreds of members.

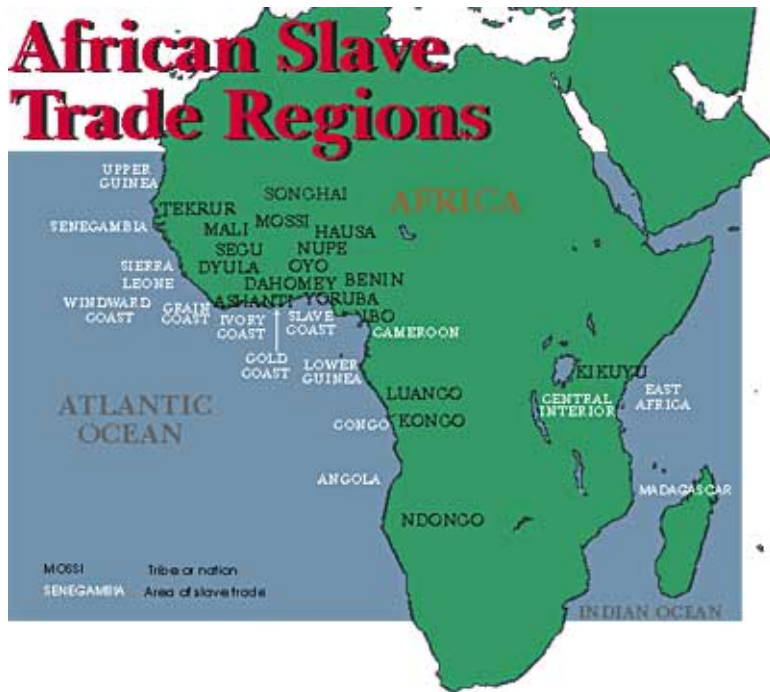


FIGURE 2.16

The slave trade that brought millions of men and women to North America unwillingly, also affected many areas of Africa. This map shows some of the regions involved in the African slave trade.

Like Native American tribes, there is tremendous diversity among the peoples of West Africa. Some traced their heritage through the father's BLOODLINE, some through the mothers. Some were democratic, while others had a strong ruler. Most African tribes had a noble class, and slavery in Africa predates the written record.

The slavery known to Africans prior to European contact did not involve a belief in inferiority of the slaves. Most slaves in West Africa were captured in war. Although legally considered property, most African slaves were treated as family members. Their children could not be bought or sold. Many achieved high honors in their communities, and freedom by manumission was not uncommon. Plantation slavery was virtually unknown on the African continent.

The impending slave trade brings ruin to West Africa. Entire villages disappear. Guns and alcohol spread across the continent. Tribes turn against other tribes as the once-fabled empires fade into history. The DIASPORA OF AFRICAN PEOPLES around the world had begun.

"The Middle Passage"



FIGURE 2.17

Harvard College Library

This illustration depicts what one reporter saw on the upper deck of a slave ship — "about four hundred and fifty native Africans, in a sitting or squatting posture, the most of them having their knees elevated so as to form a resting place for their heads and arms."

Two by two the men and women were forced beneath deck into the bowels of the slave ship.

The "packing" was done as efficiently as possible. The captives lay down on unfinished planking with virtually no room to move or breathe. Elbows and wrists will be scraped to the bone by the motion of the rough seas.

Some will die of disease, some of starvation, and some simply of despair. This was the fate of millions of West Africans across three and a half centuries of the slave trade on the voyage known as the "middle passage."

Two philosophies dominated the loading of a slave ship. "LOOSE PACKING" provided for fewer slaves per ship in the hopes that a greater percentage of the cargo would arrive alive. "TIGHT PACKING" captains believed that more slaves, despite higher casualties, would yield a greater profit at the trading block.

Doctors would inspect the slaves before purchase from the African trader to determine which individuals would most likely survive the voyage. In return, the traders would receive guns, gunpowder, rum or other spirits, textiles or trinkets.

The "MIDDLE PASSAGE," which brought the slaves from West Africa to the West Indies, might take three weeks. Unfavorable weather conditions could make the trip much longer.

The Growth of Slavery

Africans were the immigrants to the British New World that had no choice in their destinations or destinies. The first African Americans that arrived in Jamestown in 1619 on a Dutch trading ship were not slaves, nor were they free. They served time as indentured servants until their obligations were complete. Although these lucky individuals lived out the remainder of their lives as free men, the passing decades would make this a rarity. Despite the complete lack of a slave tradition in mother England, slavery gradually replaced indentured servitude as the chief means for plantation labor in the Old South.

Virginia would become the first British colony to legally establish slavery in 1661. Maryland and the Carolinas were soon to follow. The only Southern colony to resist the onset of slavery was Georgia, created as an Enlightened experiment. Seventeen years after its formation, Georgia too succumbed to the pressures of its own citizens and repealed the ban on African slavery. Laws soon passed in these areas that condemned all children of African slaves to lifetimes in chains.



FIGURE 2.18

Howard Pyle

The first African Americans in the New World arrived at Jamestown on a Dutch ship in 1619.

No northern or middle colony was without its slaves. From Puritan Massachusetts to Quaker Pennsylvania, Africans lived in BONDAGE. Economics and geography did not promote the need for slave importation like the plantation South. Consequently, the slave population remained small compared to their southern neighbors. While laws throughout the region recognized the existence of slavery, it was far less systematized. Slaves were more frequently granted their freedom, and opposition to the institution was more common, especially in Pennsylvania.

As British colonists became convinced that Africans best served their demand for labor, importation increased. By the turn of the eighteenth century AFRICAN SLAVES numbered in the tens of thousands in the British colonies. Before the first shots are fired at Lexington and Concord, they totaled in the hundreds of thousands. The cries for liberty by the colonial leaders that were to follow turned out to be merely white cries.

Slave Life on the Farm and in the Town

What was it like to live in bondage? The experiences of slaves in captivity varied greatly. Indeed, Puritan merchants and Southern planters have as much in common as their slaves. The type of life slaves could expect to live depended first and foremost on whether they lived on farms or in towns.

The first image that comes to mind when considering CHATTEL SLAVERY is plantation life. Of course the CULTIVATION of the planter's crop was the priority. Beyond these duties, slaves might also be expected to clear land, build a fence, or perform other odd jobs as the circumstances might dictate. Larger plantations usually brought harsher working conditions. OVERSEERS might be assigned to monitor the work. As they had little connection to the slave, they tended to treat the slaves more brutally. Sometimes a slave, called a DRIVER, would be enticed into holding this position. Accordingly, drivers were hated in the slave community. Living quarters were small and spartan, and food usually consisted of a few morsels of meat and bread.

Large plantations might also have HOUSEHOLD SLAVES. These domestic servants would prepare the master's meals, tend the house, prepare for guests, and sometimes look after the master's children. Household slaves often were treated better than plantation slaves. They usually ate better and were in some cases considered part of the extended family.



FIGURE 2.19

This painting shows slaves picking cotton on a Mississippi plantation. All slaves and their offspring were put to work — youngsters would begin carrying water at the age of 5 or 6 years.

Slaves that lived on smaller farms often enjoyed closer relations with their masters than plantation slaves. It stands to reason that a farmer working side by side with four slaves might develop closer bonds than a planter who owns

four hundred. This sometimes, but not always, led to kinder treatment.

Some urban merchants and artisans employed slave labor in their shops. This enabled slaves to acquire marketable skills. In fact, white craftsmen often displayed strong resentment, believing the price of their labor would suffer. Generally, slaves that lived in towns had greater freedom than those that lived on the farm. They met more people and became more worldly. Daring individuals sometimes took the opportunity to escape.



FIGURE 2.20

The Transatlantic (Triangular) Trade involved many continents, a lot of money, some cargo and sugar, and millions of African slaves.

Slaves were fed twice daily and some captains made vain attempts to clean the hold at this time. Air holes were cut into the deck to allow the slaves breathing air, but these were closed in stormy conditions. The bodies of the dead were simply thrust overboard. And yes, there were uprisings.

Upon reaching the West Indies, the slaves were fed and cleaned in the hopes of bringing a high price on the block. Those that could not be sold were left for dead. The slaves were then transported to their final destination. It was in this unspeakable manner that between ten and twenty million Africans were introduced to the New World.

Free African Americans in the Colonial Era

When CRISPUS ATTUCKS earned his unfortunate claim to fame as a victim in the Boston Massacre, he was not a slave. He was one of the relatively few African Americans to achieve freedom in colonial America. Although freedom is clearly desirable in comparison to a life in chains, free African Americans were unfortunately rarely treated with the same respect of their white counterparts.

There were several ways African Americans could achieve their freedom. Indentured servants could fulfill the terms of their contracts like those brought to Jamestown in 1619. In the early days, when property ownership was permitted, skilled slaves could earn enough money to purchase their freedom. Crispus Attucks and many others achieved liberty the hard way — through a daring escape. It only stands to reason that when faced with a perpetual sentence of bondage many slaves would take the opportunity to free themselves, despite the great risks involved.

Another way of becoming free was called MANUMISSION — the voluntary freeing of a slave by the master. Masters did occasionally free their own slaves. Perhaps it was a reward for good deeds or hard work. At times it was the work of a guilty conscience as masters sometimes freed their slaves in their wills. Children spawned by slaves and masters were more likely to receive this treatment. These acts of kindness were not completely unseen in colonial America, but they were rare. In the spirit of the Revolution, manumission did increase, but its application was not epidemic.

Free African Americans were likely to live in urban centers. The chance for developing ties to others that were free plus greater economic opportunities made town living sensible. Unfortunately, this "freedom" was rather limited.

Free African Americans were rarely accepted into white society. Some states applied their slave codes to free African Americans as well. Perhaps the most horrifying prospect was KIDNAPPING. Slave catchers would sometimes abduct free African Americans and force them back into slavery. In a society that does not permit black testimony against whites, there was very little that could be done to stop this wretched practice.

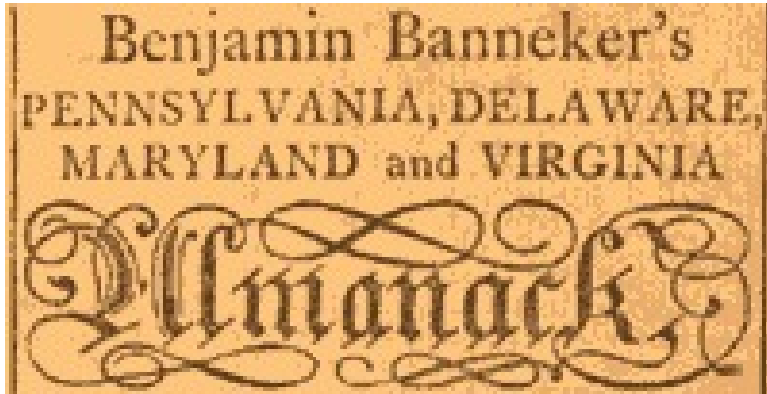


FIGURE 2.21

Library of Congress

Benjamin Banneker, a free black born in Maryland, 1731, was an almanac publisher

"Slave Codes"

Slaves did not accept their fate without protest. Many instances of REBELLION were known to Americans, even in colonial times. These rebellions were not confined to the South. In fact, one of the earliest examples of a slave UPRISING was in 1712 in Manhattan. As African Americans in the colonies grew greater and greater in number, there was a justifiable paranoia on the part of the white settlers that a violent rebellion could occur in one's own neighborhood. It was this fear of rebellion that led each colony to pass a series of laws restricting slaves' behaviors. The laws were known as SLAVE CODES.

Although each colony had differing ideas about the rights of slaves, there were some common threads in slave codes across areas where slavery was common. Legally considered property, slaves were not allowed to own property of their own. They were not allowed to assemble without the presence of a white person. Slaves that lived off the plantation were subject to special curfews.

In the courts, a slave accused of any crime against a white person was doomed. No testimony could be made by a slave against a white person. Therefore, the slave's side of the story could never be told in a court of law. Of course, slaves were conspicuously absent from juries as well.

Slave codes had ruinous effects on African American society. It was illegal to teach a slave to read or write. Religious motives sometimes prevailed, however, as many devout white Christians educated slaves to enable the reading of the Bible. These same Christians did not recognize marriage between slaves in their laws. This made it easier to justify the breakup of families by selling one if its members to another owner.

As time passed and the numbers of African Americans in the New World increased, so did the fears of their white captors. With each new rebellion, the slave codes became ever more strict, further abridging the already limited rights and privileges this oppressed people might hope to enjoy.

2.8 Colonization outline for students

Life in Colonial America, Thirteen Original Colonies

Colonial Government

1. 1. English political traditions
 1. Magna Carta 1215 15A
 2. British Parliament (nobles and elected representatives)
 3. Glorious Revolution- Bill of Rights 1689 15A
2. Colonial Self-government 3A
 1. Virginia House of Burgesses 3B
 2. Mayflower compact 1C, **3B**, 15A
 3. Town meetings
 4. Fundamental Orders of Connecticut 1639, Thomas Hooker 3B, **3C**
2. Growth of religious freedom in the English Colonies (escape from religious persecution in Europe) **23A**, 23C, **25A**
 1. Virginia - Anglicans
 2. Massachusetts
 1. Pilgrims and Puritans (state endorsed religion)
 2. Salem witchcraft trails
 3. Rhode Island –Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson religious toleration
 4. Maryland- Catholics 23A
 5. Pennsylvania - Quakers
 6. Great Awakening 25B
 1. Jonathan Edwards and George Whitefield (revivals)
 2. Salvation/damnation, read bible, increase in church attendance
 3. support religious toleration
3. Economic and social life in the English Colonies
 1. Mercantilism – colonies exist for the benefit of Mother Country (Navigation Laws) 4A
 2. Triangular trade route
 3. Men enjoyed power and authority, women had few rights. 23E
 4. Wealth landowners – merchants – independent farmers – tradesmen- unskilled labor - slaves
1. New England Colonies 10A, 10B, 11A, 11C, 12A, 12D
 1. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island
 2. Northern area with long winters
 3. Small farms, grew crops for their own use
 4. Sailors, fishermen, merchants, producers of Rum, shipbuilding
 5. puritanism
2. Middle Atlantic Colonies 10A, 10B, 11A, 11C, 12A, 12D
 1. New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania **10B**
 2. Between New England and Sothern Colonies
 3. Winters not as harsh as New England Colonies, longer summers
 4. Lumber and ship building

5. Rich soil ,“Bread Basket”, wheat, oats, barley, rye,(staple crops)
 6. Religious freedom, Anglican, Dutch Reformed Protestants, Quakers, Catholics, and Jews
 7. Indentured servants
3. Southern Colonies 10A, 10B, 11A, 11C, 12A, 12D
 1. Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia
 2. Warm climate, long growing season
 3. Flat land with soil suited for cash crops, Rice, Tobacco, Indigo(blue Dye), Cotton
 4. Large farms, plantations, slaves **12B**
 5. Anglican, Presbyterian

Chapter TEKS:

8.1A- **Readiness Standard** - **Identify:** MAJOR ERAS AND EVENTS IN U.S. HISTORY THROUGH 1877

Describe CAUSE AND EFFECTS OF MAJOR ERAS AND EVENTS IN U.S. HISTORY THROUGH 1877

- Colonial America
 - Establishment of the 13 colonies
 - Representative Democracy
 - Mercantilism
 - Religious freedom
 - First Great Awakening

8.1C- **Supporting Standard** **Explain** the significance of the following dates: **1607**, founding of Jamestown; **1620**, arrival of the Pilgrims and signing of the Mayflower Compact;

SIGNIFICANCE OF DATES

- 1607 – founding of Jamestown, first permanent English settlement in North America, significant because it became a profitable venture producing tobacco and using enslaved Africans; from Jamestown colonial settlement spread to later include Williamsburg.
- 1620 – arrival of the Pilgrims and signing of Mayflower Compact, significant because this represented the establishment of self-government in the colonies.

8.2A- **Readiness Standard** Identify reasons for European exploration and colonization of North America.

- Reasons for colonization
 - Nations choose to colonize territory mostly for economic opportunity. Mercantilism encouraged European nations to use colonies as a source of raw materials and markets.
 - Individuals and groups such as the Puritans became colonists in order to escape religious persecution as well as find political freedom and economic opportunities that promised social mobility such as with French fur trappers and indentured workers.

8.2B- Compare: POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL REASONS FOR ESTABLISHING 13 ENGLISH COLONIES

- **Political reasons for English colonies**
 - Competition between European nations encouraged colonization in North America
 - Charters were granted to companies to establish colonies
 - Monarchs in Europe had money to fund colonial endeavors
- **Economic reasons for English colonies**
 - Increase trade and markets for English exports (mercantilism)
 - Source of raw materials
 - Availability of land attracted colonists
 - Belief that gold and silver was abundant in the Americas
- **Religious reasons for English colonies**
 - Many groups came seeking religious freedom
- **Social reasons for English colonies**
 - Opportunity for adventure
 - Opportunity for personal prestige
 - Owning land allowed for social mobility

8.3A Readiness Standard Explain the reasons for the growth of representative government and institutions during the colonial period.

Explain: REASONS FOR GROWTH OF REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT AND INSTITUTIONS DURING COLONIAL PERIOD

- The distance from England created a need for colonists to make their own laws and keep peace and order.
- Colonists were accustomed to English traditions and structures including the rights of Englishmen.
- Most colonies were self-governing, electing members of their community to a general assembly, which made laws.
- Colonists had been allowed to rule themselves with little interference from the king for many years; this is sometimes referred to as “**salutary neglect**” – a neglect that benefited English rule.

8.3B- Supporting Standard -Analyze the importance of the Mayflower Compact, the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, and the Virginia House of Burgesses to the growth of representative government.

- **Mayflower Compact** – an agreement that established the idea of self-government and majority rule. Signed by most of the men on the Mayflower, this compact was an agreement to form a political body and give it the power to enact laws for the good of the colony. It provided a model for later development of representative government. A social contract where all agreed to abide by these rules.
- **The Fundamental Orders of Connecticut** – first written constitution in the colonies. This document stated that people had the right to elect governors, judges, and a legislature. Was written by the people; the fact that it was written down gave it credence.
- **The Virginia House of Burgesses** – first representative assembly in the American colonies. Representatives immediately began to enact laws and to safeguard individual rights. Setting precedent in the colonies for individual rights protected by law (British law did not provide for individual rights.)
- Enlightenment thinkers such as John Locke believed that governments entered into a “**social contract**” with the citizens. The documents created by colonial leaders reflect this idea.

8.3C- Supporting Standard- Describe how religion and virtue contributed to the growth of representative government in the American colonies.

- Religious freedom was a cause for the establishment of the American colonies.
- Religious groups (Pilgrims, Puritans, Quakers, etc.) created communities that were self-governed.
- Penn Colony (Pennsylvania) was an experiment in the possibility of equality and citizens involved in the government.
- Disagreements between colonial religious leaders led to the formation of various colonies. Some colonial leaders argued for the extension of voting rights beyond church members, while others wanted strict standards and laws based on the Old Testament.

8.7B- Supporting Standard: Compare the effects of political, economic, and social factors on slaves and free blacks.

- Enslaved African Americans
 - Political – no political voice; no rights; three-fifths compromise counts them as population
 - Economic – labor of the plantation system; considered property; children considered property and sold with no regard to parents
 - Social – viewed as property; viewed as outside the American identity; loose communities within the plantation system; three most basic refuges: family, religion, and active resistance
- Free African Americans
 - Political – no political voice; limited/restricted rights
 - Economic – low-wage earners
 - Social – lowest social class; limited access to education; socially isolated; three most basic refuges: family, religion, and resistance

8.7C- Readiness Standard: Analyze the impact of slavery on different sections of the United States.

- Impact of slavery in the South
 - Enslaved people viewed as property and labor supply
 - Aided in development of plantation system and agrarian Southern economy

8.10A- Supporting Standard Locate places and regions of importance in the United States during the 17th, 18th, centuries.

Locate :

- Early settlements(Jamestown, Plymouth Rock, Massachusetts Bay- earliest English settlements in the colonies)
- Thirteen colonies (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia)
- New England, Middle Colonies, and Southern Colonies regions
- Cities – New York, Philadelphia, and Boston

8.10B- Readiness Standard. Compare places and regions of the United States in terms of physical and human characteristics.

- New England region

- Physical Characteristics – Atlantic Ocean, subsistence farming, poor soil, cold climate, forest. Boston and Portland have natural harbors
- Human Characteristics
- Economic factors : raw materials, logging, fishing, shipbuilding
- Political factors: town meetings, representative government
- Social factors small coastal towns(Boston only large city),
- Religious factors : Puritans
- Middle region
 - Physical Characteristics – Rich soil; broad, deep rivers; more natural ports; river valleys, mild winters, raw materials, Atlantic Ocean, New York City, Baltimore, and Norfolk have natural harbors
 - Human Characteristics
 - Economic factors : large farms, logging, fishing, shipbuilding
 - Political factors : more tolerance
 - Social factors :small coastal towns(Philadelphia, Baltimore, New York were large cities),
 - Religious factors : Quakers, Catholics
- Southern region
 - Physical Characteristics – Appalachian Mountains, navigable rivers, richer soil, warm climate, raw materials, Charleston has a natural harbor
 - Human Characteristics
 - Economic factors: plantations
 - Political factors: more enslaved people, more class-based society
 - Social factors: small coastal towns (Savannah, Charleston were large cities),
 - Religious factors: Church of England, Catholics (Maryland), more diversity

8.10C- Readiness Standard Analyze the effects of physical and human geographic factors on major historical and contemporary events in the United States.

- Physical geography greatly affected the economic development of regions in the colonies. The rocky soil, short growing seasons, and cooler temperatures of New England encouraged the development of small farms and the growth of fishing and shipping industries. The South, with a longer growing season and a warmer climate, developed larger farms or plantations that grew cash crops such as indigo, cotton, and tobacco. The use of slave labor also supported the growth of plantations in this region. The Mid-Atlantic colonies were home to fertile soil and became a source of food crops.

8.11A- Readiness Standard

Analyze how physical characteristics of the environment influenced population distribution, settlement patterns, and economic activities in the United States during the 17th, 18th, centuries.

- New England and Middle Colony access to waterways (ports and rivers) resulted in high population density and large urban areas.
- Southern Colonies had an abundant amount of fertile soil that resulted in an agricultural economy, a plantation system, and a low population density.

8.11C- Supporting Standard: Describe how different immigrant groups interacted with the environment in the United States during the 17th, and 18th centuries.

- 17th and 18th centuries
 - French fur trappers and traders
 - British farmers
 - Spanish conquistadors and mission-building

- Africans brought for slavery or indentured servitude

8.12A- Supporting Standard Identify economic differences among different regions of the United States.

Colonial America

- New England – shipbuilding and manufacturing region
- Middle Colonies – agriculture and cattle-producing
- Southern Colonies – agricultural; cash crops: cotton, indigo, tobacco

8.12B-Readiness Standard Explain reasons for the development of the plantation system, the transatlantic slave trade, and the spread of slavery.

Plantation system

- Large amount of land available in the southern colonies; rich soil; almost year-round growing season; ideal for plantation crops (tobacco, rice, indigo, cotton) - with enough labor these could be grown as cash crops

Transatlantic Slavery Trade

- Started in the British West Indies to provide a labor force for the sugar plantations
- The triangular trade developed between the colonies, England, and West Indies and enslaved people were exchanged in the colonies for goods (including the cash crops that enslaved people would help cultivate).

Spread of slavery

- Demand for rice, indigo, tobacco, cotton led to slaveholders demanding more enslaved people resulting in an increase in the slavery trade.

8.12D- Readiness Standard Analyze the causes and effects of economic differences among different regions of the United States at selected times in U.S. history.

- New England
 - Cause – long winters, rocky soil, and forests
 - Effects – subsistence farming, shipbuilding, and fishing
- Middle Colonies
 - Cause – shorter winters, fertile soil, good ports, and natural resources
 - Effects – farming, trade, and large immigrant population
- Southern Colonies
 - Cause – warm climate and good soil
 - Effects – plantation system and large slavery system

8.20A- Supporting Standard Explain the role of significant individuals such as Thomas Hooker, Charles de Montesquieu, John Locke, William Blackstone, and William Penn in the development of self-government in colonial America.

- **Thomas Hooke r** – reverend and leader of a group of Boston Puritans that migrated to Hartford, Connecticut; gave a sermon in 1638 that influenced the writing of the *Fundamental Orders of Connecticut* (the first written constitution in America and included individual rights); believed in democratic ideas such as elections conducted by the people, people have the power to limit the power of the government, the government operates with the consent of the governed

- **Charles de Montesquieu** – expanded on Locke’s beliefs, added the judiciary to Locke’s executive and legislature; wrote of the separation of powers; believed that in a republic, education is an absolute necessity
- **John Locke** – European Enlightenment philosopher; believed that personal liberty could coexist with political order; consent is the basis for government and fixes its limits; government is a social contract with limited powers and has obligations to its creators; government can be modified by its creators at any time (heavily influenced Thomas Jefferson and the writing of the Declaration of Independence); discussed legislative and executive branches of a government; wrote about unalienable rights which included life, liberty and protection of property
- **William Blackstone** – an English judge, jurist, and professor who wrote the historical and analytical treatise on common law (Commentaries on the Laws of England); considered as the definitive pre-Revolutionary War source of common law; believed strongly in religious tolerance; supported the idea of self-defense (later became the 2nd Amendment); wrote about “natural rights” which included life and liberty; on a woman’s legal rights: “By marriage, the husband and the wife are one person in the law... the very being and legal existence of the woman is suspended during the marriage.”
- **William Penn** – he founded a colony in present-day Pennsylvania where Quakers could live according to their religious beliefs and make political decision according to those beliefs. Created an elected legislature as a feature of Pennsylvania’s self-government.

8.23A- Readiness Standard: Identify selected racial, ethnic, and religious groups that settled in the United States and explain their reasons for immigration.

- Dutch (New York) – economic reasons
- Swedes (Delaware) – economic reasons
- English – religious and political freedom
- Religious groups – immigrated to flee religious persecution
 - Separatists/Pilgrims (Massachusetts)
 - Puritans (Massachusetts)
 - Quakers (Pennsylvania)
 - Catholics (Maryland)

8.23E-Supporting Standard Identify the political, social, and economic contributions of women to American society.

- **Pocahontas** is credited with helping John Smith and the European settlers in Virginia, yet accounts of her contacts with the settlers at Jamestown vary.
- **Anne Hutchinson** led Bible studies which brought into question Puritan theology and divided the community in Boston. She was brought to trial, convicted, and banished from the colony. She and her supporters resettled in Portsmouth, Rhode Island, and she later moved to New York City.
- **Eliza Lucas Pinckney** is credited with developing indigo as a cash crop first on her family’s plantation in South Carolina and then throughout the South.
- Many colonial women worked with husbands to run businesses and farms. Primarily education provided in homes was the responsibility of women.

8.25A- Supporting Standard: Trace the development of religious freedom in the United States.

- **Plymouth Colony (1620-1691)** – allowed self-governing churches with each congregation independent and electing its own pastor and officers
- **17th century Massachusetts Bay Colony** – originally founded by Roger Williams to escape religious persecution in England. Churches were fairly democratic in that they elected ministers and other officials, but close ties between Puritan churches and the state government led to Williams being banished.

- **Rhoda Island** – Roger Williams left Massachusetts to found Rhode Island in 1636 on the premise that there would be no state church
- **Pennsylvania (1681-1776)** – William Penn’s Frame of Government of Pennsylvania established a colonial government that provided political freedom and guaranteed religious freedom to all settlers in Pennsylvania
- **Maryland** – founded as a safe haven for persecuted Catholics from England. Protestants soon outnumbered Catholics leading to the passage of the 1649 Maryland Toleration Act which allowed freedom of worship for all Trinitarian Christians.
- **Virginia** – 1786 The Virginia Act For Establishing Religious Freedom written by Thomas Jefferson made Virginia the first to separate church and state and guaranteed the right to practice religion free from government intrusion
- **1791 Bill of Rights** guaranteed the right to practice religion from government interference as well as freedom from an established state church.

8.25B-Supporting Standard: Describe religious motivation for immigration and influence on social movements, including the impact of the first Great Awakenings.

- **Puritan** immigration to the Americas during the early seventeenth century was precipitated primarily by Puritan differences with the practices and theology of the Church of England. The Puritans migrated to the colonies as families and advocates for a state-endorsed religion, feeling that having one religion was needed for social stability.
- **The First Great Awakening** of the 1730s and 1740s was characterized by a revivalist movement where preachers such as Jonathan Edwards and George Whitefield addressed large crowds of people. These preachers spoke to groups who were already religious arguing that people could gain salvation by repenting and could study the Bible for themselves. The movement emphasized the equality of believers and advocated for religious freedom and toleration. The movement impacted religious practices in many denominations with participants becoming more emotionally involved in religion as opposed to following ritualized services, resulting in the splitting of many congregations.

CHAPTER **3** American Revolution- Road to Independence

Chapter Outline

- 3.1 AMERICAN REVOLUTION OUTLINE
- 3.2 AMERICAN REVOLUTION VOC
- 3.3 IMPORTANT PEOPLE AMERICAN REVOLUTION
- 3.4 THE BEGINNINGS OF REVOLUTIONARY THINKING
- 3.5 A TRADITION OF REBELLION
- 3.6 NEW FRANCE
- 3.7 THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR
- 3.8 GEORGE WASHINGTON'S BACKGROUND AND EXPERIENCE
- 3.9 THE TREATY OF PARIS (1763) AND ITS IMPACT
- 3.10 THE EVENTS LEADING TO INDEPENDENCE
- 3.11 THE ROYAL PROCLAMATION OF 1763
- 3.12 THE STAMP ACT CONTROVERSY
- 3.13 THE BOSTON PATRIOTS
- 3.14 THE BOSTON MASSACRE
- 3.15 THE TEA ACT AND TEA PARTIES
- 3.16 THE INTOLERABLE ACTS
- 3.17 E PLURIBUS UNUM
- 3.18 E PLURIBUS UNUM
- 3.19 STAMP ACT CONGRESS "NO TAXATION WITHOUT REPRESENTATION!"
- 3.20 SONS OF LIBERTY
- 3.21 FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS
- 3.22 THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION OVERVIEW
- 3.23 COMMITTEES OF CORRESPONDENCE
- 3.24 THOMAS PAINE COMMON SENSE
- 3.25 THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE 1776
- 3.26 AMERICAN AND BRITISH STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES
- 3.27 THE REVOLUTION ON THE HOME FRONT
- 3.28 LOYALISTS, FENCE-SITTERS, AND PATRIOTS
- 3.29 LEXINGTON AND CONCORD
- 3.30 WASHINGTON AT VALLEY FORGE
- 3.31 BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL
- 3.32 THE BATTLE OF SARATOGA 1777

- 3.33 THE FRENCH ALLIANCE
 - 3.34 THE FRENCH ALLIANCE
 - 3.35 YORKTOWN AND THE TREATY OF PARIS
 - 3.36 SOCIETAL IMPACTS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION
 - 3.37 THE IMPACT OF SLAVERY
 - 3.38 A REVOLUTION IN SOCIAL LAW
 - 3.39 POLITICAL EXPERIENCE
 - 3.40 WOMEN'S ROLES IN REVOLUTION
 - 3.41 WHEN DOES THE REVOLUTION END?
 - 3.42 THE LOYALISTS
 - 3.43 REVOLUTIONARY CHANGES AND LIMITATIONS: SLAVERY
 - 3.44 THE WAR EXPERIENCE: SOLDIERS, OFFICERS, AND CIVILIANS
 - 3.45 AMERICAN REVOLUTION JOURNAL
-

America Revolution

Important ideas for this Unit?

The Right of the Colonist to break away from the King, distance played a huge role in this matter.

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

Questions for this Unit:

Tension and conflict between the American colonists and the British government escalated each time the British introduced new policies.

- Why did the British begin to intervene in the economic affairs of the colonies following the French and Indian War?
- How did the economic policies of the British government cause tensions to rise in the American colonies?
- How did many in the colonies respond to the British policies?

Despite differing opinions, the American colonists chose to declare independence resulting in a war for independence.

- What was significant about the colonists issuing a document declaring independence?
- What grievances did the colonists include in the Declaration of Independence?
- What significant battles were fought by the Patriots to gain independence?
- How did the war for independence eventually end?

Many men and women contributed to the efforts to gain independence for the American colonies.

- What contributions to American independence were made by military leaders and statesmen?
- In what ways did women contribute to the American independence movement?
- Why were the Articles of Confederation created?
- What was characteristic about the type of government established by the Articles of Confederation?
- How did artists during this time period contribute to the emergence of a distinctly American culture?

3.1 American Revolution Outline

The American Revolution: The Road to Independence

French and Indian War (War between Britain and France) 1754-1763

1. France lost most of its territory in North America
2. Britain in debt because of the war

2. Causes of the American Revolution 4A

1. Colonial self-government 20A, 29A
2. French and Indian War - Proclamation line of 1763 4A
3. Mercantilism and the Sugar Act 1764 4A
4. Taxation without representation 4A
 1. Stamp Act 1765 4A
 2. Tea Act 1773
 3. Townshend Act 1767
5. Colonial protests
 1. Boston Tea Party 1773 – Civil Disobedience 20C
 2. Intolerable Acts 1774 4A

Road to independence – War 1A, 4C

1. First Continental Congress 1774
2. Lexington and Concord “Shot Heard ’Round the World” April 1775 4C
3. Second Continental Congress May 1775 (George Washington Commander Continental Army)
4. *Common Sense* by Thomas Paine

Declaration of Independence July 4, 1776 1A, 1C, 4C, 15C, 19A, 20A

Author Thomas Jefferson inspired by John Locke 20A

1. Stated to the world reasons for Declaring Independence 15C
2. Stated Government’s purpose, to protect People’s Unalienable Rights- Life, Liberty, Pursuit of Happiness 15C, 19A
3. Stated right of people to overthrow a government 15C
4. Stated grievances against British King George III 15C

Road to victory 4C

1. 1. Battle of White Plains – Battle of Trenton December 1776
2. Battle of Saratoga 1777 4C
3. Winter at Valley Forge 1777-1778 4C
4. Battles at Sea - John Paul Jones “I’ve not yet begun to fight” 22B
5. Battle of Yorktown 1781 4C
6. Treaty of Paris 1783 4C

People to know 4B

1. 1. George Washington 4B
2. Thomas Jefferson 4B
3. Thomas Paine 4B
4. Benjamin Franklin 4B
5. Samuel Adams 4B
6. King George III 4B
7. Abigail Adams 4B
8. John Adams 4B
9. Mercy Otis Warren 4B
10. Wentworth Cheswell 4B
11. Marquis de Lafayette 4B
12. Patrick Henry 4B

3.2 American Revolution Voc

American Revolution Vocabulary

Revolution : War the colonist faced to fight for independence

Ratify: to approve

Tyranny: unjust use of government power

Taxation: to tax

Boycott: refuse to buy goods

Grievance: a formal Complaint

Representation: a person who will represent colonist or people in government

Declaration of Independence : to break away from the king

Patriot: someone fighting for independence

Finance: money

Loyalist: someone loyal to the king

Civil Disobedience: refusal to obey laws commands of government

Continental Army : American Army during Revolution

Ally: a nation that joins another to help

boycott – refusal to buy something as a form of protest **taxation** – process of collecting money from citizens in order to fund government expenses **political revolution** – changing from one governmental structure to another **Patriots** – American colonists who supported independence from Great Britain **Loyalists** – American colonists who did not support independence from Great Britain **civil disobedience** – refusal to obey laws as a form of protest **grievance** – a complaint

Related Vocabulary

TABLE 3.1:

- | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|--------------|
| • independence | • liberty | • Parliament |
| • unalienable rights | • mercantilism | • quartering |

3.3 Important People American Revolution

I

Samuel Adams- played a role in many of the events which contributed to the Revolution including organized opposition to the Stamp Act, protests waged by the Sons of Liberty, and the Boston Massacre.

Benjamin Franklin- was a member of the committee which wrote the Declaration of Independence but spent most of the period of the American Revolution in France. He represented the colonies as the American envoy starting in 1776 and remained until 1785. He negotiated the alliance with France and then the Treaty of Paris which ended the war.

George III- feared that the loss of one group of colonies would lead to the loss of others and the eventual decline of the empire. To prevent this, the Crown maintained an aggressive policy against colonial resistance. George III struggled to enforce royal authority throughout his reign. Thomas Jefferson- became an early and effective leader in the American Revolution. He was a delegate to the Continental Congress in Philadelphia and in 1776 he was a member of the committee which wrote the Declaration of Independence. Chief writer of Declaration of Independence, which was approved by the delegates

Marquis de Lafayette- was a French aristocrat who played a leading role in two revolutions in France and in the American Revolution. He respected the concepts of liberty and freedom and constitutional government. Between 1776 and 1779 he fought in the American Revolution, commanding forces as a major-general in the colonial army. Important because France joined the Colonists against the British.

Thomas Paine- contributed to the spirit of revolution in America and France through his influential writings. In January 1776, he wrote *Common Sense*, a pamphlet which attacked the monarchical system, supported independence, and outlined a new form of government. He became the leading propagandist of the American Revolution, publishing his *Crisis* papers.

George Washington- was a resident of Virginia; he was a surveyor, a planter, a soldier in the French and Indian War, a delegate to the First and Second Continental Congresses, commander-in-chief of the Continental Army during the American Revolution.

Abigail Adams- wife of John Adams, served as his confidant and support while he was at the Constitutional Convention, when John and others were considering a declaration of independence, Abigail reminded him to take care of the women, who would not hold themselves bound by laws in which they had no voice; “Remember the ladies”

Wentworth Cheswell – African American Patriot, like Paul Revere he made an all-night ride back from Boston to warn his community of the impending British invasion, served in the army and fought at the Battle of Saratoga

Mercy Otis Warren – wife of a Massachusetts Patriot, anonymously wrote several propaganda pieces supporting the Patriot cause

James Armistead – slave in Virginia, Marquis de Lafayette recruited him as a spy for the Continental Army. Posing as a double agent, forger and servant at British headquarters, he moved freely between the lines with vital information on British troop movements for Lafayette, contributed to the American victory at Yorktown

Bernardo de Gálvez – Spanish nobleman who became governor of the Spanish province of Louisiana (January 1777),

protected American ships in the port of New Orleans and helped transport war supplies, and took up arms and fought to protect Louisiana

Crispus Attucks – a black man, became the first casualty of the American Revolution when he was shot and killed in what became known as the Boston Massacre

Haym Salomon – a Polish-born Jewish immigrant to America who played an important role in financing the Revolution, arrested by the British as a spy, used by the British as an interpreter with their German troops, helped British prisoners escape and encouraged German soldiers to desert the British army, became a broker to the French consul and paymaster to French troops in America

Patrick Henry – a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, spoke against the Stamp Act, famous quote “Give me liberty or give me death,” during the Revolution he served in the Continental Army

Samuel Adams- played a role in many of the events which contributed to the Revolution including organized opposition to the Stamp Act, protests waged by the Sons of Liberty, and the Boston Massacre.

Benjamin Franklin- was a member of the committee which wrote the Declaration of Independence but spent most of the period of the American Revolution in France. He represented the colonies as the American envoy starting in 1776 and remained until 1785. He negotiated the alliance with France and then the Treaty of Paris which ended the war. •

important

3.4 The Beginnings of Revolutionary Thinking

Revolutions often fail. The French Revolution culminated in the leadership of Napoleon, a ruthless emperor who tried to conquer Europe. The Russian Revolution brought years of civil war and a brutal regime headed by Stalin that made many Russian people even yearn for a return to the days of their monarch. How did the American Revolution yield a constitutional republic with greater freedom on a large scale than the world had ever seen? Successful revolutions never begin overnight. The American Revolution was 169 years in the making. Throughout the colonial experience important stones were being laid into the foundation of American independence.

The distance British colonists enjoyed from their kings made direct rule nearly impossible. The Virginia House of Burgesses was the first representative assembly in the Western Hemisphere. The Pilgrims committed themselves to self rule in the form of the Mayflower Compact before they had ever set foot on the new continent. Town meetings were quickly the norm throughout New England. The Quaker faith made equality a practice in the community and the meetinghouse throughout the Middle Colonies. All these important steps toward independence were already realized by the American colonists before 1700. Events in the early part of the eighteenth century made independence from Britain even more inevitable.



FIGURE 3.1

Copyright 2001 by Pilgrim Hall Museum

Self-government by the people was of paramount importance to the Europeans settling in North America. The Pilgrims drafted their own system of self-rule — the Mayflower Compact — before they landed on the new continent.

The European Enlightenment filled the heads of educated Americans with thoughts of liberty and progress. The Great Awakening ushered in new faiths where equality between ministers and the congregation was the norm. American newspapers achieved a sound victory for a free press with the Zenger verdict. A tradition of ignoring English law was firmly established by New England smugglers, who patently ignored custom regulations. The colonists were no stranger to rebellion, as the masses from New York to South Carolina rose in demands of equality. Diverse peoples from all over Europe flocked to the British colonies with absolutely no loyalty to the British Crown.

The stage had long been set for Americans to assert their independence from their British brothers and sisters. Many events transpired between the years of 1763 and 1776 that served as short-term causes of the Revolution. But the roots had already been firmly planted. In many ways, the American Revolution had been completed before any of the actual fighting began.

3.5 A Tradition of Rebellion

A Tradition of Rebellion



FIGURE 3.2

The United States Flag Page

The Gadsden Flag was an early American flag that originated in South Carolina before the Revolution

The American colonies had known violent rebellion long before the Revolutionary War.

Each of the original thirteen colonies had experienced violent uprisings. Americans had shown themselves more than willing to take up arms to defend a cause held dear. This tradition of rebellion characterized the American spirit throughout its early history.

Bacon's Rebellion

One of the earliest large-scale insurrections was BACON'S REBELLION. In 1676, NATHANIEL BACON led a group of disgruntled citizens from the western part of Virginia eastward in search of justice. They felt their interests were not represented by Virginia's colonial legislature. They felt GOVERNOR BERKELEY had done nothing to protect them from Indian raids. These frontier Virginians felt excluded from the riches of the eastern seaboard.

Over a thousand of Bacon's followers entered Jamestown and burned the capital city. Governor Berkeley fled until reinforcements could organize. The rebels pillaged and plundered the countryside until Berkeley's forces crushed them. Over twenty rebels were hanged, but fear of further rebellion was struck into the hearts of the members of the wealthy Virginia planting class.

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Regulators or Traitors?



FIGURE 3.3

Regulators

Similar uprisings took place all along the colonial backwoods. In South Carolina a rebellion broke out as a result of the Regulator movement. There was anarchy on the South Carolina frontier after the Seven Years' War.

From 1765 to 1767 outlaws roamed the landscape holding local farmers at their mercy. A band of vigilantes known as REGULATORS took the law into their own hands and pushed the outlaws away. The Regulators then turned their wrath on local hunters who raised a force to fight back. Near civil war conditions prevailed until the government finally agreed to institute a circuit court judicial system. A similar movement broke out in North Carolina the following decade.

Land riots took place in many colonies, but in New York they were particularly violent. Tenants of the wealthy land aristocrats demanded relief from the high rents imposed on them. When the courts ruled in favor of the land barons in 1766, the angry farmers took up arms. The governor had to bring in the Redcoats to quell the disturbance.



FIGURE 3.4

Not all rebellion took the form of violence. James Otis spoke against the British as early as 1761, in his speech against the Writs of Assistance council chamber at Boston's Old State House.

In Pennsylvania, a group of Scots-Irish settlers called the PAXTON BOYS marched on Philadelphia in 1764 to protest the Quakers' friendly Native American policy. The Paxtons lived in Pennsylvania's hinterland and wanted both Native American land and protection from raids on their homes. A delegation, led by Benjamin Franklin met with the Paxton gang to hear their grievances. Order was restored — but just barely before the Paxtons would have attacked Philadelphia.

American colonists had proven themselves experienced rebels. Whenever they felt their rights were jeopardized, they seemed willing to take up arms. Economic exploitation, lack of political representation, unfair taxation, were among the causes that led to these clashes.

Reverberations from the rebellions reached England from 1763 to 1776. Parliament and the monarchy heard this Colonial message loud and clear: "DON'T TREAD ON ME."

The emerging American would be ready to fight for justice and if necessary independence.

3.6 New France

About the same time John Smith and the Jamestown settlers were setting up camp in Virginia, France was building permanent settlements of their own. SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN led a group of French colonists through the mouth of the ST. LAWRENCE RIVER to found QUEBEC in 1608. The fur trade led fortune seekers deeper and deeper into North America. French JESUIT MISSIONARIES boldly penetrated the wilderness in the hopes of converting Native Americans to Catholicism. By 1700, France had laid claim to an expanse of territory that ranged from NEWFOUNDLAND in the Northeast, down across the GREAT LAKES through the OHIO VALLEY, southward along the MISSISSIPPI RIVER to the GULF OF MEXICO, and as far west as the ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

There were profound differences between New England and NEW FRANCE. The English colonies, though much smaller in area, dwarfed the French colonization in population. Louis XIV was a devout Catholic and tolerated no other faiths within the French Empire. French HUGUENOTS, the dominant religious minority, therefore found no haven in New France. Land was less of an issue in France than England, so French peasants had less economic incentive to leave. The French Crown was far more interested in its holdings in the Far East and the sugar islands of the Caribbean, so the French monarchs did little to sponsor emigration to North America. Eventually, the sparse French population would be no match for the more numerous British colonists as the wars raged on.

Unlike the English colonies where self-rule had been pursued immediately, the people of New France had no such privileges. There were no elected assemblies. Decisions were made by local MAGISTRATES on behalf of the French king. Trial by jury did not exist, nor did a free press. The French citizenry depended directly on the Crown for guidance. The English colonists depended on themselves. In the end, despite huge claims to North American lands, the French would be overwhelmed by more numerous, self-directed subjects of Britain.

French cultural contributions are still felt in the modern United States. CAJUN and CREOLE food draw from French culinary traditions. We need look no further than the map: DES MOINES, DETROIT, ST. LOUIS, GRAND TETON, and NEW ORLEANS, to see but some of France's enduring influence.



FIGURE 3.5

French explorer Champlain had visited and mapped the New England coast a number of times before the Pilgrims arrived in 1620. This map of New France was drawn in 1612 and includes all of what is now New England.

3.7 The French and Indian War

ound four of the global struggle between England and France began in 1754. Unlike the three previous conflicts, this war began in America. French and British soldiers butted heads with each other over control of the Ohio Valley. At stake were the lucrative fur trade and access to the all-important Mississippi River, the lifeline of the FRONTIER to the west. A squadron of soldiers led by a brash, unknown, twenty-two year old George Washington attacked a French stronghold named FORT DUQUESNE. Soon after the attack, Washington's troops were forced to surrender. Shortly after that, a second British force also met with defeat. When news of this reached London, war was declared, and the conflict known in Europe as the SEVEN YEARS WAR began. Americans would call this bout the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

The first phase of this war was a sheer disaster for Britain. Assaults on French territory ended in bitter defeat. The French and their Indian allies inspired fear on the British frontier by burning and pillaging settlements. The French struck within sixty miles of Philadelphia. Americans were disheartened. They believed that Britain was not making the proper commitment to North America.

The turning point in the war came when WILLIAM PITT took over the wartime operations. He believed North America was critical for England's global domination. Pitt turned recruitment and supplies over to local authorities in America and promised to reimburse them for their efforts. He committed more troops and juggled the command, replacing old war heroes with vigorous young ones.

Militarily, the tide began to turn, as the British captured LOUISBOURG, an important strategic port the British used to close the ST. LAWRENCE SEAWAY. The death blow to the French cause was struck in Quebec in 1759. Commander JAMES WOLFE bravely sent his forces up a rocky embankment to surprise the French. The battle that followed on the PLAINS OF ABRAHAM killed Wolfe and the French commander, as the crucial stronghold was transferred to British hands. It would only be a matter of time before MONTREAL suffered the same fate.

The French chapter of North American history had ended in a bloody finale.

3.8 George Washington's Background and Experience

Few figures loom as large in American history as GEORGE WASHINGTON. His powerful leadership, unflagging determination, and boundless patriotism would be essential to the winning of the Revolutionary War, the creation of the United States Constitution, and the establishment of a new government as the nation's first president. As time has passed, his legend has grown. Honesty — he could not tell a lie, we are told. Strength — he could throw a coin across the Potomac, the legend declares. Humility — he was offered an American crown, but turned it down in the name of democracy. Time may have made great myths out of small truths, but the contributions this one man made to the creation of the American nation cannot be denied.

George Washington was born in Virginia in 1732 to a wealthy plantation owner. Of all the subjects he studied, he loved math the most. This prompted young George to apprentice as a SURVEYOR of Virginia lands in his youth. Washington walked miles and miles through his home state surveying land. In the process he learned about the natural environment and developed a deep passion for his native Virginia.

As a colonel in the British Army, Washington played a great part in starting the French and Indian War. He was ordered to deliver a message to French settlers whom the Virginia governor believed were encroaching on British lands. The French refused to yield, and instead built Fort Duquesne on the site to fortify their position. The governor sent Washington back to dislodge the soldiers, and fighting ensued. This first taste of battle was humbling to the twenty-two-year-old colonel. The French forced Washington to surrender after one third of his men had been killed or wounded. But there would be another time.

When the tide of war turned in the British favor, Washington would return to Fort Duquesne, this time in triumph. The British burnt the fort to the ground and founded FORT PITT — later PITTSBURGH — after the man they believed led the British to success. Washington enjoyed victory at last. The experience of the French and Indian War earned him a reputation as a solid leader in the American colonies. The decision to name him commander of the CONTINENTAL ARMY in 1775 was not difficult. He had already made a name for himself. But far greater glories were yet to come.

3.9 The Treaty of Paris (1763) and Its Impact

The fighting was over. Now the British and the British Americans could enjoy the fruits of victory. The terms of the Treaty of Paris were harsh to losing France. All French territory on the mainland of North America was lost. The British received Quebec and the Ohio Valley. The port of New Orleans and the Louisiana Territory west of the Mississippi were ceded to Spain for their efforts as a British ally.

It should have been a time to revel in the spoils of war. Instead, the very victory that temporarily brought American colonists close to their British cousins would help tear them apart.

There is nothing like fear to make a group of people feel close to a protector. The American colonists had long felt the threat of France peering over their shoulders. They needed the might of the great British military to keep them safe from France. With France gone, this was no longer true. They could be free to chart their own destinies.

The experience of the French and Indian War did not in many ways bring the British and the Americans closer together. British troops looked down their noses at the colonials. Americans were regarded as crude, lacking culture. The pious New Englanders found the British REDCOATS to be profane. New Englanders did not like taking orders. There was considerable resistance to helping the British at all until Pitt promised to reimburse the colonists. Smugglers continued to trade with the French and Spanish enemies throughout the war. There was considerable tension indeed.

The American colonists did feel closer to each other. Some of the intercolonial rivalry was broken down in the face of a common enemy. The first sign of NATIONALISM was seen when settlers from all thirteen colonies lay down their lives together in battle. Likewise, the joy of victory was an American triumph. All could share in the pride of success. In many ways, the French and Indian War was a coming of age for the English colonies. They had over a century of established history. They had a flourishing economy.

The Americans proved they could work together to defeat a common foe. Before long, they would do so again.



FIGURE 3.6

Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh

William Pitt, the elder, was appointed by King George II to be secretary of state, in charge of military affairs and colonial policy

3.10 The Events Leading to Independence

The Events Leading to Independence



FIGURE 3.7

Although King George III was later burned in effigy in the streets of the colonies, his relaxed ruling style inspired little ire among the colonists in the 1760s.

In 1763, few would have predicted that by 1776 a revolution would be unfolding in British America.

The ingredients of discontent seemed lacking — at least on the surface. The colonies were not in a state of economic crisis; on the contrary, they were relatively prosperous. Unlike the Irish, no groups of American citizens were clamoring for freedom from England based on national identity. KING GEORGE III was not particularly despotic — surely not to the degree his predecessors of the previous century had been.

Furthermore, the colonies were not unified. Benjamin Franklin discovered this quite clearly when he devised

the ALBANY PLAN OF UNION in 1754. This plan, under the slogan "Join, or Die," would have brought the colonial rivals together to meet the common threat of the French and Indians. Much to Franklin's chagrin, this plan was soundly defeated.



FIGURE 3.8

Ben Franklin sketched this cartoon to illustrate the urgency of his 1754 Albany Plan of Union. He unsuccessfully tried to bring the colonies together to defend themselves against Indian and French threats.

How, then, in a few short years did everything change? What happened to make the American colonists, most of whom thought of themselves as English subjects, want to break the ties that bound them to their forebears? What forces led the men and women in the 13 different colonies to set aside their differences and *unanimously* declare their independence?

Much happened between the years of 1763 and 1776. The colonists felt unfairly taxed, watched over like children, and ignored in their attempts to address grievances. Religious issues rose to the surface, political ideals crystallized, and, as always, economics were the essence of many debates.

For their part, the British found the colonists unwilling to pay their fair share for the administration of the Empire. After all, citizens residing in England paid more in taxes than was asked of any American during the entire time of crisis.

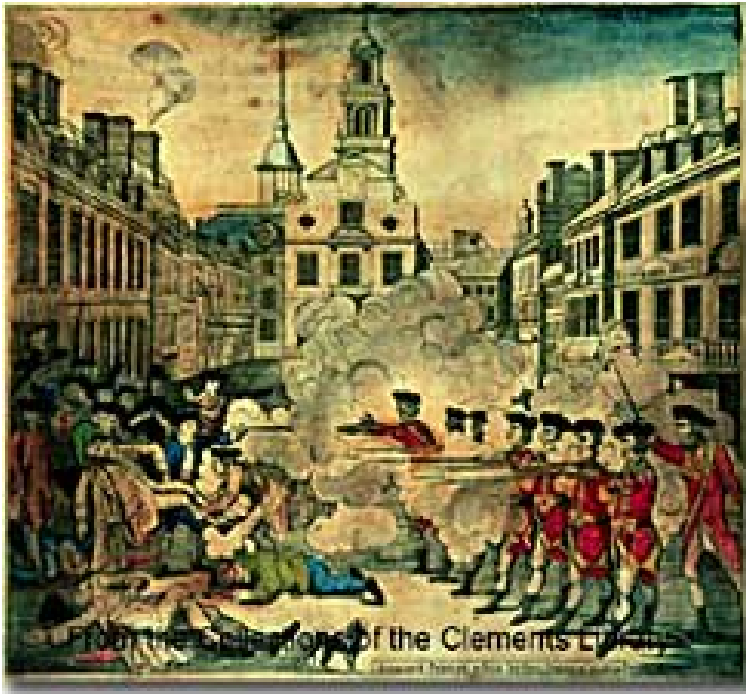


FIGURE 3.9

The 1770 Boston Massacre was only one in a series of events that led American colonists to revolt against Britain.

This was not the first time American colonists found themselves in dispute with Great Britain. But this time the cooler heads did not prevail. Every action by one side brought an equally strong response from the other. The events during these important years created sharp divisions among the English people, among the colonists themselves, and between the English and the Colonists.

Over time, the geographic distance between England and the colonies became more and more noticeable. It took England time to respond to Colonial provocations and to administer the settled areas of America. Further, some now questioned how it could be that a tiny island nation could contain and rule the American continent.

Before long, the point of no return was reached.

3.11 The Royal Proclamation of 1763

The Royal Proclamation of 1763



FIGURE 3.10

After Britain won the Seven Years' War and gained land in North America, it issued the Royal Proclamation of 1763, which prohibited American colonists from settling west of Appalachia.

The TREATY OF PARIS, which marked the end of the French and Indian War, granted Britain a great deal of valuable North American land. But the new land also gave rise to a plethora of problems.

The ceded territory, known as the Ohio Valley, was marked by the APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS in the east and the Mississippi River in the west.

Don't Go West, Young Man

Despite the acquisition of this large swath of land, the British tried to discourage American colonists from settling in it. The British already had difficulty administering the settled areas east of the Appalachians. Americans moving west would stretch British administrative resources thin.

Further, just because the French government had yielded this territory to Britain did not mean the Ohio Valley's French inhabitants would readily give up their claims to land or trade routes. Scattered pockets of French settlers made the British fearful of another prolonged conflict. The war had dragged on long enough, and the British public was weary of footing the bill.



George C. Bingham

Even after Britain issued the Royal Proclamation of 1763, Daniel Boone continued to settle areas west of the Appalachian Mountains. This 1851 painting, *Daniel Boone Leading Settlers through the Cumberland Gap*, depicts the popular image of a confident Boone leading the early pioneers fearlessly into the West.

Moreover, the Native Americans, who had allied themselves with the French during the Seven Years' War, continued to fight after the peace had been reached. Pontiac's Rebellion continued after the imperial powers achieved a ceasefire.

The last thing the British government wanted were hordes of American colonists crossing the Appalachians fueling French and Native American resentment.

The solution seemed simple. The ROYAL PROCLAMATION OF 1763 was issued, which declared the boundaries of settlement for inhabitants of the 13 colonies to be Appalachia.

The Royal Proclamation of October 7, 1763

BY THE KING. A PROCLAMATION

Whereas We have taken into Our Royal Consideration the extensive and valuable acquisitions in America, secured to our Crown by the late definitive Treaty of Peace, concluded at Paris. the 10th day of February last; and being desirous that all Our loving Subjects, as well of our Kingdom as of our Colonies in America, may avail themselves with all convenient Speed, of the great Benefits and Advantages which must accrue therefrom to their Commerce, Manufactures, and Navigation, We have thought fit, with the Advice of our Privy Council, to issue this our Royal Proclamation, hereby to publish and declare to all our loving Subjects, that we have, with the Advice of our Said Privy Council, granted our Letters Patent, under our Great Seal of Great Britain, to erect, within the Countries and Islands ceded and confirmed to Us by the said Treaty, Four distinct and separate Governments, styled and called by the names of Quebec, East Florida, West Florida and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

First — The Government of Quebec bounded on the Labrador Coast by the River St. John, and from thence by a

Line drawn from the Head of that River through the Lake St. John, to the South end of the Lake Nipissim; from whence the said Line, crossing the River St. Lawrence, and the Lake Champlain, in 45. Degrees of North Latitude, passes along the High Lands which divide the Rivers that empty themselves into the said River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Sea; and also along the North Coast of the Baye des Châteurs, and the Coast of the Gulph of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosières, and from thence crossing the Mouth of the River St. Lawrence by the West End of the Island of Anticosti, terminates at the aforesaid River of St. John.

Secondly — The Government of East Florida. bounded to the Westward by the Gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola River; to the Northward by a Line drawn from that part of the said River where the Chatahouchee and Flint Rivers meet, to the source of St. Mary's River, and by the course of the said River to the Atlantic Ocean; and to the Eastward and Southward by the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulph of Florida, including all Islands within Six Leagues of the Sea Coast.

Thirdly — The Government of West Florida. bounded to the Southward by the Gulph of Mexico. including all Islands within Six Leagues of the Coast, from the River Apalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; to the Westward by the said Lake, the Lake Maurepas, and the River Mississippi; to the Northward by a Line drawn due East from that part of the River Mississippi which lies in 31 Degrees North Latitude, to the River Apalachicola or Chatahouchee; and to the Eastward by the said River.

Fourthly — The Government of Grenada, comprehending the Island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the Islands of Dominico, St. Vincent's and Tobago. And to the end that the open and free Fishery of our Subjects may be extended to and carried on upon the Coast of Labrador, and the adjacent Islands.

We have thought fit, with the advice of our said Privy Council to put all that Coast, from the River St. John's to Hudson's Streights, together with the Islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller Islands Iying upon the said Coast, under the care and Inspection of our Governor of Newfoundland.

We have also, with the advice of our Privy Council. thought fit to annex the Islands of St. John's and Cape Breton, or Isle Royale, with the lesser Islands adjacent thereto, to our Government of Nova Scotia.

We have also, with the advice of our Privy Council aforesaid, annexed to our Province of Georgia all the Lands Iying between the Rivers Alatomaha and St. Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the speedy settling of our said new Governments, that our loving Subjects should be informed of our Paternal care, for the security of the Liberties and Properties of those who are and shall become Inhabitants thereof, We have thought fit to publish and declare, by this Our Proclamation, that We have, in the Letters Patent under our Great Seal of Great Britain, by which the said Governments are constituted. given express Power and Direction to our Governors of our Said Colonies respectively, that so soon as the state and circumstances of the said Colonies will admit thereof, they shall, with the Advice and Consent of the Members of our Council, summon and call General Assemblies within the said Governments respectively, in such Manner and Form as is used and directed in those Colonies and Provinces in America which are under our immediate Government: And We have also given Power to the said Governors, with the consent of our Said Councils, and the Representatives of the People so to be summoned as aforesaid, to make, constitute, and ordain Laws. Statutes, and Ordinances for the Public Peace, Welfare, and good Government of our said Colonies, and of the People and Inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the Laws of England, and under such Regulations and Restrictions as are used in other Colonies; and in the mean Time, and until such Assemblies can be called as aforesaid, all Persons Inhabiting in or resorting to our Said Colonies may confide in our Royal Protection for the Enjoyment of the Benefit of the Laws of our Realm of England; for which Purpose We have given Power under our Great Seal to the Governors of our said Colonies respectively to erect and constitute, with the Advice of our said Councils respectively, Courts of Judicature and public Justice within our Said Colonies for hearing and determining all Causes, as well Criminal as Civil, according to Law and Equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the Laws of England, with Liberty to all Persons who may think themselves aggrieved by the Sentences of such Courts, in all Civil Cases, to appeal, under the usual Limitations and Restrictions, to Us in our Privy Council.

We have also thought fit, with the advice of our Privy Council as aforesaid, to give unto the Governors and Councils of our said Three new Colonies, upon the Continent, full Power and Authority to settle and agree with the Inhabitants

of our said new Colonies or with any other Persons who shall resort thereto, for such Lands. Tenements and Hereditaments, as are now or hereafter shall be in our Power to dispose of; and them to grant to any such Person or Persons upon such Terms, and under such moderate Quit-Rents, Services and Acknowledgments, as have been appointed and settled in our other Colonies, and under such other Conditions as shall appear to us to be necessary and expedient for the Advantage of the Grantees, and the Improvement and settlement of our said Colonies.

And Whereas, We are desirous, upon all occasions, to testify our Royal Sense and Approbation of the Conduct and bravery of the Officers and Soldiers of our Armies, and to reward the same, We do hereby command and empower our Governors of our said Three new Colonies, and all other our Governors of our several Provinces on the Continent of North America, to grant without Fee or Reward, to such reduced Officers as have served in North America during the late War, and to such Private Soldiers as have been or shall be disbanded in America, and are actually residing there, and shall personally apply for the same, the following Quantities of Lands, subject, at the Expiration of Ten Years, to the same Quit-Rents as other Lands are subject to in the Province within which they are granted, as also subject to the same Conditions of Cultivation and Improvement; viz.

- To every Person having the Rank of a Field Officer — 5,000 Acres.
- To every Captain — 3,000 Acres.
- To every Subaltern or Staff Officer, — 2,000 Acres.
- To every Non-Commission Officer, — 200 Acres.
- To every Private Man — 50 Acres.

We do likewise authorize and require the Governors and Commanders in Chief of all our said Colonies upon the Continent of North America to grant the like Quantities of Land, and upon the same conditions, to such reduced Officers of our Navy of like Rank as served on board our Ships of War in North America at the times of the Reduction of Louisbourg and Quebec in the late War, and who shall personally apply to our respective Governors for such Grants.

And whereas it is just and reasonable, and essential to our Interest, and the Security of our Colonies, that the several Nations or Tribes of Indians with whom We are connected, and who live under our Protection, should not be molested or disturbed in the Possession of such Parts of Our Dominions and Territories as, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us, are reserved to them. or any of them, as their Hunting Grounds. — We do therefore, with the Advice of our Privy Council, declare it to be our Royal Will and Pleasure. that no Governor or Commander in Chief in any of our Colonies of Quebec, East Florida. or West Florida, do presume, upon any Pretence whatever, to grant Warrants of Survey, or pass any Patents for Lands beyond the Bounds of their respective Governments as described in their Commissions: as also that no Governor or Commander in Chief in any of our other Colonies or Plantations in America do presume for the present, and until our further Pleasure be known, to grant Warrants of Survey, or pass Patents for any Lands beyond the Heads or Sources of any of the Rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the West and North West, or upon any Lands whatever, which, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us as aforesaid, are reserved to the said Indians, or any of them.

And We do further declare it to be Our Royal Will and Pleasure, for the present as aforesaid, to reserve under our Sovereignty, Protection, and Dominion, for the use of the said Indians, all the Lands and Territories not included within the Limits of Our said Three new Governments, or within the Limits of the Territory granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, as also all the Lands and Territories lying to the Westward of the Sources of the Rivers which fall into the Sea from the West and North West as aforesaid.

And We do hereby strictly forbid, on Pain of our Displeasure, all our loving Subjects from making any Purchases or Settlements whatever, or taking Possession of any of the Lands above reserved. without our especial leave and Licence for that Purpose first obtained.

And We do further strictly enjoin and require all Persons whatever who have either wilfully or inadvertently seated themselves upon any Lands within the Countries above described or upon any other Lands which, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us, are still reserved to the said Indians as aforesaid, forthwith to remove themselves from such Settlements.

And whereas great Frauds and Abuses have been committed in purchasing Lands of the Indians, to the great Prejudice of our Interests and to the great Dissatisfaction of the said Indians: In order, therefore, to prevent such Irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our Justice and determined Resolution to remove all reasonable Cause of Discontent, We do, with the Advice of our Privy Council strictly enjoin and require that no private Person do presume to make any purchase from the said Indians of any Lands reserved to the said Indians, within those parts of our Colonies where, We have thought proper to allow Settlement: but that, if at any Time any of the Said Indians should be inclined to dispose of the said Lands, the same shall be Purchased only for Us, in our Name, at some public Meeting or Assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that Purpose by the Governor or Commander in Chief of our Colony respectively within which they shall lie: and in case they shall lie within the limits of any Proprietary Government, they shall be purchased only for the Use and in the name of such Proprietaries, conformable to such Directions and Instructions as We or they shall think proper to give for that Purpose: And we do, by the Advice of our Privy Council, declare and enjoin, that the Trade with the said Indians shall be free and open to all our Subjects whatever, provided that every Person who may incline to Trade with the said Indians do take out a Licence for carrying on such Trade from the Governor or Commander in Chief of any of our Colonies respectively where such Person shall reside, and also give Security to observe such Regulations as We shall at any Time think fit, by ourselves or by our Commissaries to be appointed for this Purpose, to direct and appoint for the Benefit of the said Trade:

And we do hereby authorize, enjoin, and require the Governors and Commanders in Chief of all our Colonies respectively, as well those under Our immediate Government as those under the Government and Direction of Proprietaries, to grant such Licences without Fee or Reward, taking especial Care to insert therein a Condition, that such Licence shall be void, and the Security forfeited in case the Person to whom the same is granted shall refuse or neglect to observe such Regulations as We shall think proper to prescribe as aforesaid.

And we do further expressly conjoin and require all Officers whatever, as well Military as those Employed in the Management and Direction of Indian Affairs, within the Territories reserved as aforesaid for the use of the said Indians, to seize and apprehend all Persons whatever, who standing charged with Treason. Misprisions of Treason, Murders, or other Felonies or Misdemeanors, shall fly from Justice and take Refuge in the said Territory. and to send them under a proper guard to the Colony where the Crime was committed of which they, stand accused, in order to take their Trial for the same.

Given at our Court at St. James's the 7th Day of October 1763, in the Third Year of our Reign.

GOD SAVE THE KING

– Royal Proclamation, October 7, 1763

Proclaim and Inflamm

FIGURE 3.12

Despite the Treaty of Paris, many Native Americans continued to fight against European settlement of land west of Appalachia. Ottawa Chief Pontiac led numerous attacks against British and colonial expansion and settlement and his violent aggression is one reason Britain issued the Proclamation of 1763.

But what seemed simple to the British was not acceptable to their colonial subjects. This remedy did not address some concerns vitally important to the colonies. Colonial blood had been shed to fight the French and Indians, not to cede land to them. What was to be said for American colonists who had already settled in the West?

In addition, the colonies themselves had already begun to set their sights on expanding their western boundaries;

such planning sometimes even causing tension among the colonies. Why restrict their appetites to expand? Surely this must be a plot to keep the American colonists under the imperial thumb and east of the mountains, where they could be watched.

Consequently, this law was observed with the same reverence the colonists reserved for the mercantile laws. Scores of wagons headed westward. How could the British possibly enforce this decree? It was nearly impossible.

The Proclamation of 1763 merely became part of the long list of events in which the intent and actions of one side was misunderstood or disregarded by the other.

3.12 The Stamp Act Controversy

The Stamp Act Controversy



FIGURE 3.13

When Britain repealed the Stamp Act in 1766 — only a year after it had been issued — colonists celebrated in the streets, as this satirical cartoon from 1766 depicts.

Something was dreadfully wrong in the American colonies.

All of sudden after over a century and a half of permitting relative self-rule, Britain was exercising direct influence over colonial life. In addition to restricting westward movement, the parent country was actually enforcing its trade laws.

Puttin' on the Writs

WRITS OF ASSISTANCE, or general search warrants, were granted to British customs inspectors to search colonial ships. The inspectors had long been charged with this directly but, until this time, had not carried it out. Violators did not receive the benefit of a trial by jury; rather, they were at the mercy of the British admiralty courts.

Worst of all, the British now began levying taxes against American colonists. What had gone wrong?



FIGURE 3.14

All pieces of paper fell under the Stamp Act of 1765. Legal documents, newspapers, and playing cards were also levied with the tax. Britain had several stamps to mark these documents as official.

The British point of view is not difficult to grasp. The Seven Years' War had been terribly costly. The TAXES asked of the American colonists were lower than those asked of mainland English citizens. The revenue raised from taxing the colonies was used to pay for their own defense. Moreover, the funds received from American colonists barely covered one-third of the cost of maintaining British troops in the 13 colonies.

The Americans, however, saw things through a different lens. What was the purpose of maintaining British GARRISONS in the colonies now that the French threat was gone? Americans wondered about contributing to the maintenance of troops they felt were there only to watch them.

True, those in England paid more in taxes, but Americans paid much more in sweat. All the land that was cleared, the Indians who were fought, and the relatives who died building a colony that enhanced the British Empire made further taxation seem insulting.

TABLE 3.2:

That the colonists, black and white, born here are freeborn British subjects, and entitled to all the essential civil rights of such is a truth not only manifest from the provincial charters, from the principles of the common law, and acts of Parliament, but from the British constitution, which was re-established at the Revolution with a professed design to secure the liberties of all the subjects to all generations.

– James Otis, *The Rights of the British Colonies Asserted and Proved*, 1764

In addition to emotional appeals, the colonists began to make a political argument, as well. The tradition of receiving permission for levying taxes dated back hundreds of years in British history. But the colonists had no representation in the British Parliament. To tax them without offering representation was to deny their traditional rights as English subjects. This could not stand.

The Stamp Act of 1765 was not the first attempt to tax the American colonies. Parliament had passed the SUGAR ACT and Currency Act the previous year. Because tax was collected at ports though, it was easily circumvented. Indirect taxes such as these were also much less visible to the consumer.

The Currency Act of 1764

The colonies were plagued by a shortage of legal British currency. To offset the problem, the colonies began printing their own Bills of Credit. These notes were not regulated, not backed by hard silver or gold currency, and their use and value varied depending on where they were issued. The result was confusion compounded by fear due to the erratic colonial economy. To assuage anxious British merchant-creditors, Parliament passed the Currency Act on September 1, 1764.

Essentially, the CURRENCY ACT gave Parliament control of the colonial currency system. It abolished the BILLS OF CREDIT altogether and put the colonists at a further economic disadvantage in their trade relations with British merchants.

The Stamp Act

When Parliament passed the STAMP ACT in March 1765, things changed. It was the first direct tax on the American colonies. Every legal document had to be written on specially stamped paper, showing proof of payment. Deeds, wills, marriage licenses — contracts of any sort — were not recognized as legal in a court of law unless they were prepared on this paper. In addition, newspaper, dice, and playing cards also had to bear proof of tax payment. American activists sprang into action.

Resolutions of the Stamp Act Congress, 1765

IN CONGRESS IN NEW YORK OCTOBER, 1765

The members of this Congress, sincerely devoted, with the warmest sentiments of affection and duty to His Majesty's Person and Government, inviolably attached to the present happy establishment of the Protestant succession, and with minds deeply impressed by a sense of the present and impending misfortunes of the British colonies on this continent; having considered as maturely as time will permit the circumstances of the said colonies, esteem it our indispensable duty to make the following declarations of our humble opinion, respecting the most essential rights and liberties of the colonists, and of the grievances under which they labour, by reason of several late Acts of Parliament.

- I. That His Majesty's subjects in these colonies, owe the same allegiance to the Crown of Great-Britain, that is owing from his subjects born within the realm, and all due subordination to that august body the Parliament of Great Britain.
- II. That His Majesty's liege subjects in these colonies, are entitled to all the inherent rights and liberties of his natural born subjects within the kingdom of Great-Britain.

- III. That it is inseparably essential to the freedom of a people, and the undoubted right of Englishmen, that no taxes be imposed on them, but with their own consent, given personally, or by their representatives.
- IV. That the people of these colonies are not, and from their local circumstances cannot be, represented in the House of Commons in Great-Britain.
- V. That the only representatives of the people of these colonies, are persons chosen therein by themselves, and that no taxes ever have been, or can be constitutionally imposed on them, but by their respective legislatures.
- VI. That all supplies to the Crown, being free gifts of the people, it is unreasonable and inconsistent with the principles and spirit of the British Constitution, for the people of Great-Britain to grant to His Majesty the property of the colonists.
- VII. That trial by jury is the inherent and invaluable right of every British subject in these colonies.
- VIII. That the late Act of Parliament, entitled, An Act for granting and applying certain Stamp Duties, and other Duties, in the British colonies and plantations in America, etc., by imposing taxes on the inhabitants of these colonies, and the said Act, and several other Acts, by extending the jurisdiction of the courts of Admiralty beyond its ancient limits, have a manifest tendency to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonists.
- IX. That the duties imposed by several late Acts of Parliament, from the peculiar circumstances of these colonies, will be extremely burthensome and grievous; and from the scarcity of specie, the payment of them absolutely impracticable.
- X. That as the profits of the trade of these colonies ultimately center in Great-Britain, to pay for the manufactures which they are obliged to take from thence, they eventually contribute very largely to all supplies granted there to the Crown.
- XI. That the restrictions imposed by several late Acts of Parliament, on the trade of these colonies, will render them unable to purchase the manufactures of Great-Britain.
- XII. That the increase, prosperity, and happiness of these colonies, depend on the full and free enjoyment of their rights and liberties, and an intercourse with Great-Britain mutually affectionate and advantageous.
- XIII. That it is the right of the British subjects in these colonies, to petition the King, Or either House of Parliament.

Lastly, That it is the indispensable duty of these colonies, to the best of sovereigns, to the mother country, and to themselves, to endeavour by a loyal and dutiful address to his Majesty, and humble applications to both Houses of Parliament, to procure the repeal of the Act for granting and applying certain stamp duties, of all clauses of any other Acts of Parliament, whereby the jurisdiction of the Admiralty is extended as aforesaid, and of the other late Acts for the restriction of American commerce.

– "Resolutions of the Stamp Act Congress," 1765

Taxation in this manner and the QUARTERING ACT (which required the American colonies to provide food and shelter for British troops) were soundly thrashed in colonial assemblies. From Patrick Henry in Virginia to James Otis in Massachusetts, Americans voiced their protest. A Stamp Act Congress was convened in the colonies to decide what to do.

The colonists put their words into action and enacted widespread boycotts of British goods. Radical groups such as the Sons and Daughters of Liberty did not hesitate to harass tax collectors or publish the names of those who did not comply with the boycotts.

Soon, the pressure on Parliament by business-starved British merchants was too great to bear. The Stamp Act was repealed the following year.

The crisis was over, but the uneasy peace did not last long.

3.13 The Boston Patriots

The American Revolution was not simply a series of impersonal events. Men and women made fateful, often difficult decisions that led to the great clash.

Although patriots could be found in any of the 13 colonies, nowhere were they more numerous than in the city of Boston.

Perhaps the prevalence of shipping in Boston made Bostonians especially resent the restrictions on trade. Maybe its legacy of religious quarrels with the Church of England made Bostonians more rebellious. Its long history of town meetings and self-rule may have led New Englanders to be more wary of royal authority.

Perhaps a combination of these and other factors led the city of Boston to be the leading voice against British authority. It was, after all, the *Boston* Massacre and the *Boston* Tea Party.

Furthermore, fierce patriots such as James Otis, Samuel Adams, John Adams, John Hancock, and Paul Revere were all citizens of one great city: Boston.

James Otis

Quick-tempered JAMES OTIS was one of the first vociferous opponents of British taxation policies. As early as 1761, Boston merchants hired him to provide legal defense against British search warrants.

His widely distributed pamphlet, *THE RIGHTS OF THE BRITISH COLONISTS ASSERTED AND PROVED*, was one of the first legal criticisms of Parliament's taxation policies. A large man with a large heart for British liberties, he was perceived by many in London to be the center of treasonous American activity.

But Otis also saw himself as fiercely loyal to the English Constitution. Once he stormed into BOSTON'S ROYAL COFFEE HOUSE to face drawn swords because his loyalty had been called into question. Violence ensued. Otis was so severely beaten that he never really recovered. The wounds he received from British made him somewhat of a martyr around Boston.

Lightning Strikes

Otis was never the same mentally after the severe beating. Friends and admirers commented about his diminished verbal capacities.

Of Otis, John Adams wrote, "In short, I never saw such an object of admiration, reverence, contempt, and compassion, all at once, as this. I fear, I tremble, I mourn, for the man and his country; many others mourn over him, with tears in their eyes." Poor Otis!

In May, 1782, Otis was killed after being struck by a bolt of lightning.

Samuel Adams

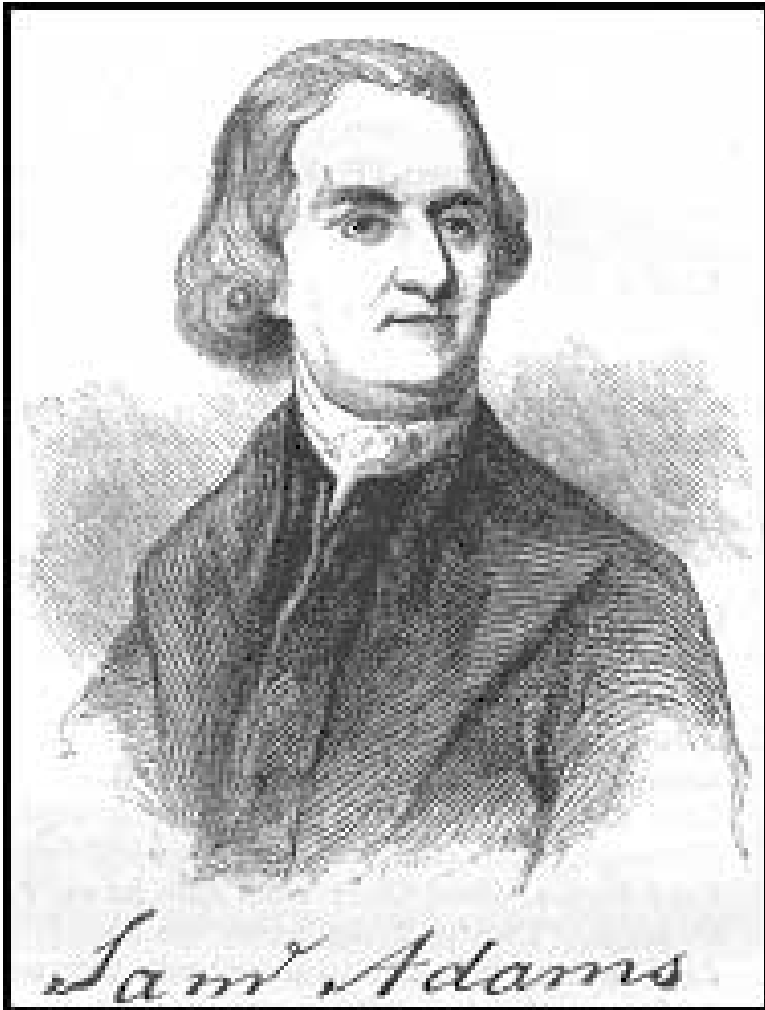


FIGURE 3.15

Left Justified Publick

A writer and propagandist, Samuel Adams championed the American Revolution in Boston and chaired the meeting that led to the Boston Tea Party. Along with his cousin, John Adams, Samuel Adams is one of the best-known Boston patriots.

SAMUEL ADAMS was perhaps the fieriest supporter of American liberty in the 13 colonies. His mind drew a sharp distinction between the evils of the British Empire and simple American life. His skills as a political organizer drove the colonies toward declaring independence. Adams chaired the Boston town meeting that preceded the infamous tea party.

Rather unsuccessful in a series of pursuits prior to the Revolution, Adams found his calling in organizing and rabble-rousing. He served as an active member of the Sons of Liberty and the creator of the first significant committee of correspondence. As the Revolution approached, the cries for Adams' head grew louder and louder in the streets of London.

TABLE 3.3:

The Destruction of the Tea is the pretence for the unprecedented Severity shown to the Town of Boston but the real Cause is the opposition to Tyranny for which the people of that Town have always made themselves remarkable & for which I think this Country is much obligd to them. They are suffering the Vengeance of Administration in the Common Cause of America.

– Samuel Adams, letter to Arthur Lee (January 25, 1774) figure*

John Adams

JOHN ADAMS, Samuel's second cousin, was no less a patriot. His early fame as a defense attorney for the British soldiers in the trial that followed the Boston Massacre cannot be taken in isolation.

He provided the wording of the resistance message sent to George III that was adopted by the First Continental Congress. John and Samuel Adams represented the radical wing of the Second Continental Congress that demanded a taking up of arms against Britain. John Adams was also a member of the committee of five who drafted the Declaration of Independence.

John Hancock

The man with the famous signature — JOHN HANCOCK — was also a Bostonian. Hancock earned the early ire of British officials as a major smuggler. The seizure of one of his ships brought a response from Bostonians that led directly to British occupation in 1768.

Later, Hancock and Samuel Adams were the two agitators whose arrest was ordered by GENERAL GAGE after the battles at Lexington and Concord. As a man of great wealth, he had much to lose by resisting Britain. Nevertheless, he did not bend.

Paul Revere

PAUL REVERE did not come from the same social class as the aforementioned patriots. As a silversmith, he was a man of humbler means, but his attitudes about Britain were anything but humble. His famous midnight ride that warned of the advancing British troops was only one of his revolutionary actions. He was also an illustrator, whose image of the Boston Massacre became iconic.

3.14 The Boston Massacre

The Boston Massacre



FIGURE 3.16

Crispus Attucks is a name synonymous with the Boston Massacre. He was not only the first African American to die for the revolution, he was one of the first patriots to give his life for the cause.

American blood was shed on American soil.

The showdown between the British and the Americans was not simply a war of words. Blood was shed over this clash of ideals. Although large-scale fighting between American minutemen and the British redcoats did not begin until 1775, the 1770 BOSTON MASSACRE gave each side a taste of what was to come.

No colony was thrilled with the Townshend duties, but nowhere was there greater resentment than in Boston. British officials in Boston feared for their lives. When attempts were made to seize two of John Hancock's trading vessels, Boston was ready to riot. LORD HILLSBOROUGH, Parliament's minister on American affairs, finally ordered four regiments to be moved to Boston.

The British Make the Americans Skittish



FIGURE 3.17

U.S. Department of State

This print of Paul Revere's depiction of the Boston Massacre is on display in the Diplomatic Receptions Rooms of the Maine State Department building in Washington, D.C.

Samuel Adams and James Otis did not take this lightly. Less than three weeks prior to the arrival of British troops, Bostonians defiantly, but nervously, assembled in FANEUIL HALL. But when the redcoats marched boldly through the town streets on October 1, the only resistance seen was on the facial expressions of the townspeople. The people of Boston had decided to show restraint.

The other 12 colonies watched the Boston proceedings with great interest. Perhaps their fears about British tyranny were true. Moderates found it difficult to argue that the Crown was not interested in stripping away American civil liberties by having a standing army stationed in Boston. Throughout the occupation, sentiment shifted further and further away from the London government.

The Massacre

On March 5, 1770, the inevitable happened. A mob of about 60 angry townspeople descended upon the guard at the CUSTOMS HOUSE. When reinforcements were called, the crowd became more unruly, hurling rocks and snowballs at the guard and reinforcements.

In the heat of the confusing melee, the British fired without CAPTAIN THOMAS PRESTON's command. Imperial bullets took the lives of five men, including Crispus Attucks, a former slave. Others were injured.

Anonymous Account of the Boston Massacre, 1770

This party in proceeding from Exchange lane into King street, must pass the sentry posted at the westerly corner of the Custom House, which butts on that lane and fronts on that street. This is needful to be mentioned, as near that spot and in that street the bloody tragedy was acted, and the street actors in it were stationed: their station being but a few feet from the front side of the said Custom House. The outrageous behavior and the threats of the said party occasioned the ringing of the meeting-house bell near the head of King street, which bell ringing quick, as for fire, it presently brought out a number of inhabitants, who being soon sensible of the occasion of it, were naturally led to King street, where the said party had made a stop but a little while before, and where their stopping had drawn together a number of boys, round the sentry at the Custom House. whether the boys mistook the sentry for one of the said party, and thence took occasion to differ with him, or whether he first affronted them, which is affirmed in several depositions,-however that may be, there was much foul language between them, and some of them, in consequence of his pushing at them with his bayonet, threw snowballs at him, which occasioned him to knock hastily at the door of the Custom House. From hence two persons thereupon proceeded immediately to the main-guard, which was posted opposite to the State House, at a small distance, near the head of the said street. The officer on guard was Capt. Preston, who with seven or eight soldiers, with fire-arms and charged bayonets, issued from the guardhouse, and in great haste posted himself and his soldiers in front of the Custom House, near the corner aforesaid.

– Anonymous, "An Account of the Boston Massacre," (1770)

Trial and Error



Henry Pelham

Five men were killed in the incident known as the Boston Massacre. Among them was Crispus Attucks, a former slave.

Captain Preston and four of his men were cleared of all charges in the trial that followed. Two others were convicted of manslaughter, but were sentenced to a mere branding of the thumb. The lawyer who represented the British soldiers was none other than patriot John Adams.

At the same time Preston's men drew blood in Boston, the Parliament in London decided once again to concede on the issue of taxation. All the Townshend duties were repealed save one, the tax on tea. It proved to another error in judgment on the part of the British.

FIGURE 3.18

The Massachusetts legislature was reconvened. Despite calls by some to continue the tea boycott until all taxes were repealed, most American colonists resumed importation.

The events in Boston from 1768 through 1770 were not soon forgotten. Legal squabbles were one thing, but bloodshed was another. Despite the verdict of the soldiers' trial, Americans did not forget the lesson they had learned from this experience.

What was the lesson? Americans learned that the British would use force when necessary to keep the Americans obedient.

THE FATAL FIFTH OF MARCH, 1770, CAN NEVER BE FORGOTTEN. The horrors of THAT DREADFUL NIGHT are but too deeply impressed on our hearts. Language is too feeble to paint the emotions of our souls, when our streets were stained with the BLOOD OF OUR BRETHERN; when our ears were wounded by the groans of the dying, and our eyes were tormented with the sight of the mangled bodies of the dead. When our alarmed imagination presented to our view our houses wrapt in flames, our children subjected to the barbarous caprice of the raging soldiery; our beauteous virgins exposed to all the insolence of unbridled passion; our virtuous wives, endeared to us by every tender tie, falling a sacrifice to worse than brutal violence, and perhaps, like the famed Lucretia, distracted with anguish and despair, ending their wretched lives by their own fair hands...

– Dr. Joseph Warren, "Oration commemorating the anniversary of the Boston Massacre," (March 5, 1772)

If it could happen in Boston, where would it happen next?

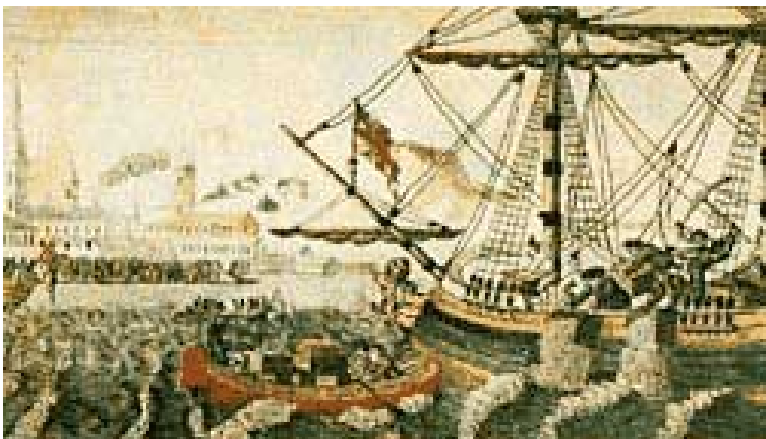
3.15 The Tea Act and Tea Parties

The British were in a spot — all because of tea.

The partial repeal of the Townshend Acts did not bring the same reaction in the American colonies as the repeal of the Stamp Act. Too much had already happened. Not only had the Crown attempted to tax the colonies on several occasions, but two taxes were still being collected — one on sugar and one on tea.

Military occupation and bloodshed, whether intentional or not, cannot be forgotten easily. Although importation had largely been resumed, the problems of customs officers continued. One ill-fated customs ship, the *Gaspee*, was burnt to ashes by angry Rhode Islanders when the unfortunate vessel ran aground. Tensions mounted on both sides. It would take time for wounds to heal. But Parliament would not give that time.

Playing Monopoly



KTCA-TV

FIGURE 3.19

Angry Bostonians rebelled against British taxation and dumped 342 chests of tea into Boston Harbor.

The BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY was on the brink of financial collapse. LORD NORTH hatched a scheme to deal simultaneously with the ailing corporation and the problem of taxing the colonies. He decided to grant the British East India Company a trading monopoly with the American colonies.

A tax on tea would be maintained, but the company would actually be able to sell its tea for a price that was lower than before. A MONOPOLY doesn't allow for competition. As such the British East India Company could lower its prices.

The Tea Act, 1773

WHEREAS by an act, made in the twelfth year of his present Majesty's reign, (intituled, An act for granting a drawback of part of the customs upon the exportation of tea to Ireland, and the British dominions in America; for altering the drawback upon foreign sugars exported from Great Britain to Ireland; for continuing the bounty on the exportation of British-made cordage; for allowing the importation of rice from the British plantations into the ports of Bristol, Liverpoole, Lancaster, and Whitehaven, for immediate exportation to foreign parts; and to empower the chief magistrate of any corporation to administer the oath, and grant the certificate required by law, upon the removal

of certain goods to London, which have been sent into the country for sale;) it is amongst other things, enacted, That for and during the space of five years, to be computed from and after the fifth day of July, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-two, there shall be drawn back and allowed for all teas which shall be sold after the said fifth day of July, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-two, at the publick sale of the united company of merchants of England trading to the East Indies, or which after that time shall be imported, by licence, in pursuance of the said therein and hereinafter mentioned act, made in the eighteenth year of the reign of his late majesty King George the Second, and which shall be exported from this kingdom, as merchandise, to Ireland, or any of the British colonies or plantations in America, three-fifth parts of the several duties of customs which were paid upon the importation of such teas; which drawback or allowance, with respect to such teas as shall be exported to Ireland, shall be made to the exporter, in such manner, and under such rules, regulations, securities, penalties, and forfeitures, as any drawback or allowance was then payable, out of the duty of customs upon the exportation of foreign goods to Ireland; and with respect to such teas as shall be exported to the British colonies and plantations in America, the said drawback or allowance shall be made in such manner, and under such rules, regulations, penalties, and forfeitures, as any drawback or allowance payable out of the duty of customs upon foreign goods exported to foreign parts, was could, or might be made, before the passing of the said act of the twelfth year of his present Majesty's reign, (except in such cases as are otherwise therein provided for:) and whereas it may tend to the benefit and advantage of the trade of the said united company of merchants of England trading to the East Indies, if the allowance of the drawback of the duties of customs upon all teas sold at the publick sales of the said united company, after the tenth day of May, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-three, and which shall be exported from this kingdom, as merchandise, to any of the British colonies or plantations in America, were to extend to the whole of the said duties of customs payable upon the importation of such teas; may it therefore please your Majesty that it may be enacted; and be it enacted by the King's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That there shall be drawn back and allowed for all teas, which, from and after the tenth day of May, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-three, shall be sold at the publick sales of the said united company, or which shall be imported by licence, in pursuance of the said act made in the eighteenth year of the reign of his late majesty King George the Second, and which shall, at any time hereafter, be exported from this kingdom, as merchandise, to any of the British colonies or plantations in America, the whole of the duties of customs payable upon the importation of such teas; which drawback or allowance shall be made to the exporter in such manner, and under such rules, regulations, and securities, and subject to the like penalties and forfeitures, as the former drawback or allowance granted by the said recited act of the twelfth year of his present Majesty's reign, upon tea exported to the said British colonies and plantations in America was, might, or could be made, and was subject to by the said recited act, or any other act of parliament now in force, in as full and ample manner, to all intents and purposes, as if the several clauses relative thereto were again repeated and re-enacted in this present act.

II. And whereas by one other act made in the eighteenth year of the reign of his late majesty King George the Second, (intituled, An act for repealing the present inland duty of four shillings per pound weight upon all tea sold in Great Britain; and for granting to his Majesty certain other inland duties in lieu thereof; and for better securing the duty upon tea, and other duties of excise; and for pursuing offenders out of one county into another,) it is, amongst other things, enacted, That every person who shall, at any publick sale of tea made by the united company of merchants of England trading to the East Indies, be declared to be the best bidder for any lot or lots of tea, shall, within three days after being so declared the best bidder or bidders for the same, deposit with the said united company, or such clerk or officer as the said company shall appoint to receive the same, forty shillings for every tub and for every chest of tea; and in case any such person or persons shall refuse or neglect to make such deposit within the time before limited, he, she, or they, shall forfeit and lose six times the value of such deposit directed to be made as aforesaid, to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, in which no essoin, protection, or wager of law, or more than one imparlance, shall be allowed; one moiety of which forfeiture shall go to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety to such person as shall sue or prosecute for the same; and the sale of all teas, for which such deposit shall be neglected to be made as aforesaid, is thereby declared to be null and void, and such teas shall be again put up by the said united company to publick sale, within fourteen days after the end of the sale of teas at which such teas were sold; and all and every buyer or buyers, who shall have neglected to make such deposit as aforesaid, shall be, and is and are thereby rendered incapable of bidding for or

buying any teas at any future publick sale of the said united company: and whereas it is found to be expedient and necessary to increase the deposit to be made by any bidder or bidders for any lot or lots of bohea teas, at the publick sales of teas to be made by the said united company; be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That every person who shall, after the tenth day of May, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-three, at any publick sale of tea to be made by the said united company of merchants of England trading to the East Indies, be declared to be the best bidder or bidders for any lot or lots of bohea tea, shall, within three days after being so declared the best bidder or bidders for the same, deposit with the said united company, or such clerk or officer as the said united company shall appoint to receive the same, four pounds of lawful money of Great Britain for every tub and for every chest of bohea tea, under the same terms and conditions, and subject to the same forfeitures, penalties, and regulations, as are mentioned and contained in the said recited act of the eighteenth year of the reign of his said late Majesty.

III. And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, or any three or more of them, or for the high treasurer for the time being, upon application made to them by the said united company of merchants of England trading to the East Indies for that purpose, to grant a licence or licences to the said united company, to take out of their warehouses, without the same having been put up to sale, and to export to any of the British plantations in America, or to any parts beyond the seas, such quantity or quantities of tea as the said commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, or any three or more of them, or the high treasurer for the time being, shall think proper and expedient, without incurring any penalty or forfeiture for so doing; any thing in the said in part recited act, or any other law, to the contrary notwithstanding.

IV. And whereas by an act made in the ninth and tenth years of the reign of King William the Third, (intituled, An act for raising a sum not exceeding two millions, upon a fund, for payment of annuities, after the rate of eight pounds per centum per annum; and for settling the trade to the East Indies,) and by several other acts of parliament which are now in force, the said united company of merchants of England trading to the East Indies are obliged to give security, under their common seal, for payment of the duties of customs upon all unrated goods imported by them, so soon as the same shall be sold; and for exposing such goods to sale, openly and fairly, by way of auction, or by inch of candle, within the space of three years from the importation thereof: and whereas it is expedient that some provision should be made to permit the said company, in certain cases, to export tea, on their own account, to the British plantations in America, or to foreign parts, without exposing such tea, to sale here, or being charged with the payment of any duty for the same; be it therefore enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the passing of this act, it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, or any three or more of them, or the high treasurer for the time being, to grant a licence or quantity of licences to the said united company, to take out of their warehouses such quantity or quantities of tea as the said commissioners of the treasury, or any three or more of them, or the high treasurer for the time being, shall think proper, without the same having been exposed to sale in this kingdom; and to export such tea to any of the British colonies or plantations in America, or to foreign parts, discharged from the payment of any customs or duties whatsoever; any thing in the said recited act, or any other act to the contrary notwithstanding.

V. Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That a due entry shall be made at the custom-house, of all such tea so exported by licence, as aforesaid, expressing the quantities thereof, at what time imported, and by what ship; and such tea shall be shipped for exportation by the proper officer for that purpose, and shall, in all other respects, not altered by this act, be liable to the same rules, regulations, restrictions, securities, penalties, and forfeitures, as tea penalties, &c. exported to the like places was liable to before the passing this act: and upon the proper officer's duty, certifying the shipping of such tea to the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs for the port of London, upon the back of the licence, and the exportation thereof, verified by the oath of the husband or agent for the said united company, to be wrote at the bottom of such certificate, and sworn before the said collector and comptroller of the customs, (which oath they are hereby empowered to administer,) it shall and may be lawful for such collector and comptroller to write off and discharge the quantity of tea so exported from the warrant of the respective ship in which such tea was imported.

VI. Provided nevertheless, That no such licence shall be granted, unless it shall first be made to appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, or any three or more of them, or the high treasurer for the time being, that at the time of taking out such teas, for the exportation of which licence or licences shall be

granted, there will be left remaining in the warehouses of the said united company, a quantity of tea not less than ten millions of pounds weight; any thing herein, or in any other act of parliament, contained to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.

– The Tea Act (1773)



FIGURE 3.20

The British East India Company began with a royal charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600 and developed into an economic powerhouse. When the company faced financial ruin during the 1770s, the British government stepped in with the Tea Act to help the struggling company.

The colonists, Lord North hoped, would be happy to receive cheaper tea and willing to pay the tax. This would have the dual result of saving the tea company and securing compliance from Americans on the tax issue. It was a brilliant plan. There was, of course, one major flaw in his thinking.

The colonists saw through this thinly veiled plot to encourage tax payment. Furthermore, they wondered how long the monopoly would keep prices low.

Activists were busy again, advocating boycott. Many went further. British ships carrying the controversial cargo were met with threats of violence in virtually all colonial ports. This was usually sufficient to convince the ships to turn around. In Annapolis, citizens burned a ship and the tea it carried.

Boston, of course, reacted in a similarly extreme fashion.

The Boston Tea Party

Governor THOMAS HUTCHINSON allowed three ships carrying tea to enter Boston Harbor. Before the tax could be collected, Bostonians took action. On a cold December night, radical townspeople stormed the ships and tossed 342 chests of tea into the water. Disguised as Native Americans, the offenders could not be identified.

TABLE 3.4:

I dressed myself in the costume of an Indian, equipped with a small hatchet, which I and my associates denominated the tomahawk, with which, and a club, after having painted my face and hands with coal dust in the shop of a blacksmith, I repaired to Griffin's wharf, where the ships lay that contained the tea...

We then were ordered by our commander to open the hatches and take out all the chests of tea and throw them overboard, and we immediately proceeded to execute his orders, first cutting and splitting the chests with our tomahawks, so as thoroughly to expose them to the effects of the water. In about three hours from the time we went on board, we had thus broken and thrown overboard every tea chest to be found in the ship, while those in the other ships were disposing of the tea in the same way, at the same time. We were surrounded by British armed ships, but no attempt was made to resist us.

– Anonymous, "Account of the Boston Tea Party by a Participant," (1773)

The damage in modern American dollars exceeded three quarters of a million dollars. Not a single British East India Company chest of tea bound for the 13 colonies reached its destination. Not a single American colonist had a cup of that tea.

Only the fish in Boston Harbor had that pleasure.

3.16 The Intolerable Acts

Someone was going to pay.

Parliament was utterly fed up with colonial antics. The British could tolerate strongly worded letters or trade boycotts. They could put up with defiant legislatures and harassed customs officials to an extent.

But they saw the destruction of 342 chests of tea belonging to the British East India Company as wanton destruction of property by Boston thugs who did not even have the courage to admit responsibility.

Someone was going to pay.

Calami-tea

The British called their responsive measures to the Boston Tea Party the **COERCIVE ACTS**. Boston Harbor was closed to trade until the owners of the tea were compensated. Only food and firewood were permitted into the port. Town meetings were banned, and the authority of the royal governor was increased.

To add insult to injury, General Gage, the British commander of North American forces, was appointed governor of Massachusetts. British troops and officials would now be tried outside Massachusetts for crimes of murder. Greater freedom was granted to British officers who wished to house their soldiers in private dwellings.

TABLE 3.5:

figure*



figure*



This Town has received the Copy of an Act of the British Parliament, wherein it appears that we have been tried and condemned, and are to be punished, by the shutting up of the harbor and other marks of revenge, until we shall disgrace ourselves by servilely yielding up, in effect, the just and righteous claims of America....The people receive this cruel edict with abhorrence and indignation. They consider themselves as suffering the stroke ministerial...I hope they will sustain the blow with a becoming fortitude, and that the cursed design of intimidating and subduing the spirits of all America, will, by the joint efforts of all, be frustrated.

– Samuel Adams, letter to James Warren (May 14, 1774) figure*

figure*



figure*





FIGURE 3.21

Colonists sometimes took out their anger over unfair taxes on the tax collector, as depicted in this drawing from 1774.

The Quebec Act

Parliament seemed to have a penchant for bad timing in these years. Right after passing the Coercive Acts, it passed the QUEBEC ACT, a law that recognized the Roman Catholic Church as the established church in Quebec. An appointed council, rather than an elected body, would make the major decisions for the colony. The boundary of Quebec was extended into the Ohio Valley.

In the wake of the passage of the Quebec Act, rage spread through the 13 colonies. With this one act, the British Crown granted land to the French in Quebec that was clearly desired by the American colonists. The extension of tolerance to Catholics was viewed as a hostile act by predominantly Protestant America.

Democracy took another blow with the establishment of direct rule in Quebec. Although the British made no connection between the Coercive Acts and the Quebec Act, they were seen on the American mainland as malicious deed and collectively called the INTOLERABLE ACTS.

INTOLERABLE ACTS

TABLE 3.6:

Boston Port Act

An act to discontinue, in such manner, and for or such time as are therein mentioned, the landing and discharging, lading or shipping, of goods, wares, and merchandise, at the town, and within the harbour, of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in North America.

Massachusetts Government Act

An Act for the better regulating the government of the province of the Massachusetts Bay in New England.

TABLE 3.6: (continued)**Administration of Justice Act**

An act for the impartial administration of justice in the case of persons questioned for any acts done by them in the execution of the law, or for the suppression of riots and tumults, in the province of the Massachusetts Bay, in New England.

Quebec Act

An Act for making effectual Provision for the Government of the Province of Quebec in North America.

Throughout the colonies, the message was clear: what could happen in Massachusetts could happen anywhere. The British had gone too far. Supplies were sent to the beleaguered colony from the other twelve. For the first time since the Stamp Act Crisis, an intercolonial conference was called.

It was under these tense circumstances that the **FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS** convened in Philadelphia on September 5, 1774.

3.17 E Pluribus Unum

The *unanimous* Declaration of Independence was a curious outcome. Remember the failed Albany Plan of Union in 1754. Benjamin Franklin's political cartoon appeal — "Join, or Die" fell on deaf colonial ears. In 1763, it was difficult to get the original thirteen to agree on the time of day. This "coming together" will happen very gradually. We have examined the events and people that propelled the colonies to revolt. A careful examination of the stages of unity is in order.

The DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE was a product of the SECOND CONTINENTAL CONGRESS. Two earlier intercolonial conferences had occurred, each building important keystones of colonial unity. The Stamp Act Congress and the First Continental Congress brought the delegates from differing colonies to agreement on a message to send to the king. Each successive Congress brought greater participation. Each time the representatives met, they were more accustomed to compromise. As times grew more desperate, the people at home became more and more willing to trust their national leaders.

Organizations were also formed to meet intercolonial objectives. The LONG ROOM CLUB, of which James Otis, Samuel Adams, John Hancock, and Paul Revere were members, was one of the earliest known organizations formed in reaction to British measures. The Association actively promoted nonimportation beyond Massachusetts. The SONS AND DAUGHTERS OF LIBERTY proved to be the most effective. THE SONS OF LIBERTY represented the radical wing of patriots through the years of crisis. They would not hesitate to scare a customs official out of town or tar and feather an enemy. Although strongest in Boston, the Sons of Liberty were active in many port cities, reaching as far South as Charleston.

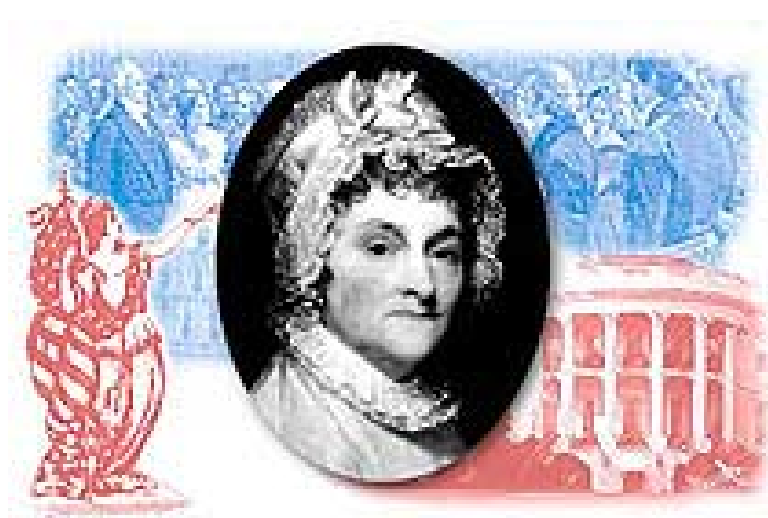


FIGURE 3.22

"I wish you would remember the ladies and be more generous and favourable to them than your ancestors. Do not push such unlimited power in the hands of husbands." -Abigail Adams in a March 1776 letter to her husband

The DAUGHTERS OF LIBERTY performed an equally important function. If nonimportation were to succeed, women must be involved. The Daughters of Liberty ensured that women did not purchase British goods. In addition, if British cloth was not imported, more homespun cloth must be made. The Daughters of Liberty advanced this cause most effectively.

No unity could be reached without communication. Great literature was produced throughout these critical years. Patrick Henry's VIRGINIA RESOLVES and JOHN DICKINSON's famous circular letter are two such examples that were widely read in each of the colonies. Samuel Adams organized the first committee of correspondence to

circulate the important arguments of the day. THOMAS PAINE's *Common Sense* sold 120,000 copies in the first three months of publication. Even the Declaration of Independence served not only to send a message to King George, but to convince many American colonists of the glory of their cause.

3.18 E Pluribus Unum



FIGURE 3.23

Artist John Trumbull's *Declaration of Independence* memorializes individuals who were engaged in the process of declaring independence rather than an actual event. Not all of those pictured were present at the reporting of the Declaration on June 28, nor were they all at its adoption on July 4, 1776.

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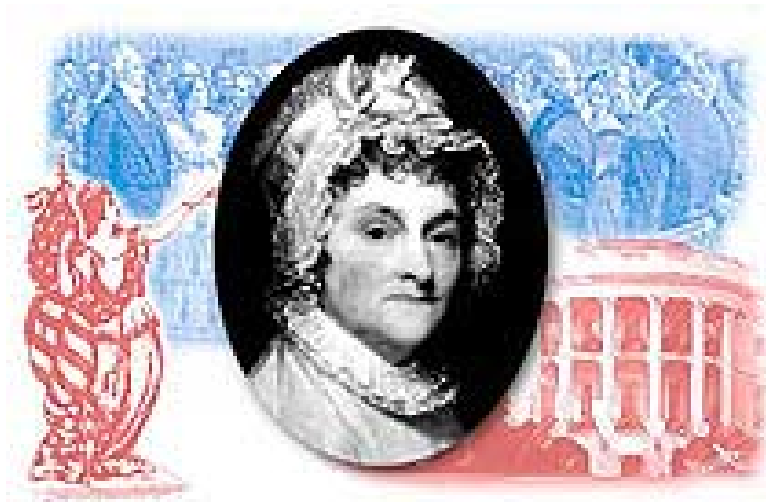


FIGURE 3.24

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3.19 Stamp Act Congress "No taxation without representation!"

Stamp Act Congress

"No taxation without representation!" was the cry. The colonists were not merely griping about the Sugar Act and the Stamp Act. They intended to place actions behind their words. One thing was clear — no colony acting alone could effectively convey a message to the king and Parliament. The appeals to Parliament by the individual legislatures had been ignored. It was James Otis who suggested an intercolonial conference to agree on a united course of action. With that, the STAMP ACT CONGRESS convened in New York in October 1765.

The Congress seemed at first to be an abject failure. In the first place, only nine of the colonies sent delegates. Georgia, North Carolina, New Hampshire, and the all-important Virginia were not present. The Congress became quickly divided between radicals and moderates. The moderates would hold sway at this time. Only an extreme few believed in stronger measures against Britain than articulating the principle of no taxation without representation. This became the spirit of the STAMP ACT RESOLVES. The Congress humbly acknowledged Parliament's right to make laws in the colonies. Only the issue of taxation was disputed.

Colonial and personal differences already began to surface. A representative from New Jersey stormed out during the proceedings. The president of the Congress, WILLIAM RUGGLES of Massachusetts, refused to sign the Stamp Act Resolves. In the end, however, the spirit of the Congress prevailed. Every colonial legislature except one approved the Stamp Act Resolves.

In the end, the widespread boycotts enacted by individual colonists surely did more to secure the repeal of the Stamp Act than did the Congress itself. But the gesture was significant. For the first time, against all odds, respected delegates from differing colonies sat with each other and engaged in spirited debate. They discovered that in many ways they had more in common than they originally had thought. This is a tentative but essential step toward the unity that would be necessary to declare boldly their independence from mother England.

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3.20 Sons of liberty

Sons and Daughters of Liberty



FIGURE 3.25

Royal Massachusetts Governor Thomas Hutchinson

They were the ones who were not afraid. They knew instinctively that talk and politics alone would not bring an end to British tyranny. They were willing to resort to extralegal means if necessary to end this series of injustices. They were American patriots — northern and southern, young and old, male and female. They were the Sons and Daughters of Liberty.

Like other secret clubs at the time, the Sons of Liberty had many rituals. They had secret code words, medals, and symbols. Originally formed in response to the Stamp Act, their activities were far more than ceremonial. It was the Sons of Liberty who ransacked houses of British officials. Threats and intimidation were their weapons against tax collectors, causing many to flee town. Images of unpopular figures might be hanged and burned in effigy on the

town's LIBERTY TREE. Offenders might be covered in warm tar and blanketed in a coat of feathers.

Another important function of the Sons of Liberty was correspondence. These clubs could be found up and down the colonial seaboard. Often they coordinated their activities. Like the public Congresses that would be convened, this private band of societies provided an intercolonial network that would help forge unity. It should come as no surprise that the members of the Sons of Liberty and the delegates to the various Congresses were at times one and the same.

The Daughters of Liberty performed equally important functions. Once nonimportation became the decided course of action, there was a natural textile shortage. Mass spinning bees were organized in various colonial cities to make homespun substitutes. Since women often purchased consumer goods for the home, the Daughters of Liberty became instrumental in upholding the boycott, particularly where tea was concerned. The most zealous Daughters of Liberty refused to accept gentleman callers for themselves or their daughters who were not sympathetic to the patriot cause.

Of course, the winners write the history books. Had the American Revolution failed, the Sons and Daughters of Liberty would no doubt be regarded as a band of thugs, or at the very least, outspoken troublemakers. History will be on their sides, however. These individuals risked their lives and reputations to fight against tyranny. In the end, they are remembered as heroes.

3.21 First Continental Congress

First Continental Congress



FIGURE 3.26

What do you do if you fail as a storekeeper and farmer? Become a lawyer! That's what Patrick Henry did. By the time he became a member of the First Continental Congress, Henry was known as a great orator. Americans were fed up. The "Intolerable" Acts were more than the colonies could stand.

In the summer that followed Parliament's attempt to punish Boston, sentiment for the patriot cause increased dramatically. The printing presses at the Committees of Correspondence were churning out volumes.

There was agreement that this new quandary warranted another intercolonial meeting. It was nearly ten years since the Stamp Act Congress had assembled.

It was time once again for intercolonial action. Thus, on September 1774, the First Continental Congress was convened in Philadelphia.

The Intolerable Acts

- **Quartering Act** (March 24, 1765): This bill required that Colonial Authorities to furnish barracks and supplies to British troops. In 1766, it was expanded to public houses and unoccupied buildings.

- **Boston Port Bill** (June 1, 1774): This bill closed the port of Boston to all colonists until the damages from the Boston Tea Party were paid for.
- **Administration of Justice Act** (May 20, 1774): This bill stated that British Officials could not be tried in provincial courts for capital crimes. They would be extradited back to Britain and tried there.
- **Massachusetts Government Act** (May 20, 1774): This bill annulled the Charter of the Colonies, giving the British Governor complete control of the town meetings.
- **Quebec Act** (May 20, 1774): This bill extended the Canadian borders to cut off the western colonies of Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Virginia.

This time participation was better. Only Georgia withheld a delegation. The representatives from each colony were often selected by almost arbitrary means, as the election of such representatives was illegal.

Still, the natural leaders of the colonies managed to be selected. Sam and John Adams from Massachusetts were present, as was John Dickinson from Pennsylvania. Virginia selected Richard Henry Lee, George Washington, and Patrick Henry. It took seven weeks for the country's future heroes to agree on a course of action.

First and most obvious, complete nonimportation was resumed. The Congress set up an organization called the Association to ensure compliance in the colonies.



FIGURE 3.27

Rushton Young

Carpenters' Hall — the meeting place of the First Continental Congress

A declaration of colonial rights was drafted and sent to London. Much of the debate revolved around defining the colonies' relationship with mother England.

A plan introduced by JOSEPH GALLOWAY of Pennsylvania proposed an imperial union with Britain. Under this program, all acts of Parliament would have to be approved by an American assembly to take effect.

Such an arrangement, if accepted by London, might have postponed revolution. But the delegations voted against it — by one vote.

One decision by the Congress often overlooked in importance is its decision to reconvene in May 1775 if their grievances were not addressed. This is a major step in creating an *ongoing* intercolonial decision making body, unprecedented in colonial history.

When Parliament chose to ignore the Congress, they did indeed reconvene that next May, but by this time boycotts were no longer a major issue. Unfortunately, the Second Continental Congress would be grappling with choices caused by the spilling of blood at Lexington and Concord the previous month.

It was at CARPENTERS' HALL that America came together politically for the first time on a national level and where the seeds of participatory democracy were sown.

3.22 The American Revolution overview

How could the Americans ever hope defeat the mighty British Empire in a military conflict?

Americans faced seemingly impossible obstacles. When the guns fired at Lexington and Concord in 1775, there was not yet even a Continental Army. Those battles were fought by local militias. Few Americans had any military experience, and there was no method of training, supplying, or paying an army.

Moreover, a majority of Americans opposed the war in 1775. Many historians believe only about a third of all Americans supported a war against the British at that time.

Further, the Colonies had a poor track record of working together.

How, then, could a ragtag group of patriots defeat the British?

Early Battles



John Trumbull

The Battle of Bunker Hill was not a military victory for the colonial forces, but it served as an important morale booster. The colonists inflicted heavy casualties on the larger, more powerful British forces.

The early stages of war, in 1775, can be best described as British military victories and American moral triumphs. The British routed the minutemen at Lexington, but the relentless colonists unleashed brutal sniper fire on the British returning to Boston from Concord.

In June 1775, the colonists failed to prevail at Bunker Hill, but inflicted heavy casualties on a vastly superior military force. A year later, in 1776, while the British occupied New York, Washington led his army to two surprise victories at TRENTON and PRINCETON that uplifted the morale of the patriots.

Regardless, by 1777 the British occupied Philadelphia, the seat of the Continental Congress, and sent that body into hiding. The British also controlled New York City and pretty much had their way in the waters along the Eastern Seaboard. In fact, there was no Continental Navy to speak of at this time. Meanwhile, the British began mounting a southward attack from Canada into upstate New York. This threatened to cut New England off from the rest of the Colonies.

FIGURE 3.28

Saratoga and Valley Forge: The Tide Turns

The Battle of Saratoga, in northern New York, served as a critical turning point. The British attempt to capture the Hudson River Valley ended with their surrender to General Horatio Gates in October. Washington, having lost Philadelphia, led his troops to Valley Forge to spend the winter. None of the world's powers had come to the aid of the patriot cause — yet.

In early 1778, the French agreed to recognize American independence and formed a permanent alliance with the new nation. Military help and sizable stores of much-needed gunpowder soon arrived. The tide was beginning to turn.



FIGURE 3.29

The surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown marked the end of the Revolutionary War. This painting by John Trumbull is 12 feet by 18 feet and hangs in the rotunda of the U.S. Capitol Building.

A New Type of War

The British grew increasingly frustrated. The loss at Saratoga was humiliating. Capturing the enemy's capital, Philadelphia, did not bring them much advantage. As long as the American Continental Army and state militias remained in the field, the British had to keep on fighting. And no matter how much damage the British did to American cities or private property, the Americans refused to surrender. This was a new type of war.

Having failed in the north, the British turned their attention to the south. They hoped to inspire Loyalist support among dissatisfied Americans — a hope that was never realized. Fighting continued. The threat of French naval participation kept the British uneasy.

A Stunning Defeat

In October 1781, the war virtually came to an end when General Cornwallis was surrounded and forced to surrender the British position at Yorktown, Virginia. Two years later, the Treaty of Paris made it official: America was independent.

How could the Americans ever hope defeat the mighty British Empire in a military conflict? Perhaps an even better question to ask is, How did the mighty British Empire ever expect to vanquish the Americans?

Major Battles of the American Revolution

TABLE 3.7:

Date	Battle	American Commander(s)	British Commander
April 19, 1775	Lexington-Concord	Capt. John Parker	Lt. Col. Francis Smith
June 17, 1775	Bunker (Breed's) Hill	Gen. Israel Putnam and Col. William Prescott	Gen. William Howe
Dec. 31, 1775	Quebec	Gen. Richard Montgomery	Gen. Guy Carleton
Aug. 27, 1776	Long Island	Gen. George Washington	Gen. William Howe
Oct. 26, 1776	White Plains	Gen. George Washington	Gen. William Howe
Dec. 26, 1776	Trenton	Gen. George Washington	Col. Johann Rall
Sept. 11, 1777	Brandywine	Gen. George Washington	Gen. William Howe
Sept. 19, 1777	Saratoga (Freeman's Farm)	Gen. Horatio Gates	Gen. John Burgoyne
Oct. 4, 1777	Germantown	Gen. George Washington	Gen. William Howe
Oct. 7, 1777	Saratoga	Gen. Horatio Gates	Gen. John Burgoyne
Dec. 5, 1777	White Marsh	Gen. George Washington	Gen. William Howe
June 8, 1778	Monmouth Courthouse	Gen. George Washington	Gen. Henry Clinton
Sept. 16, 1779	Siege of Savannah	Gen. Benjamin Lincoln	Gen. Augustine Prevost
March 29, 1780	Siege of Charlestown	Gen. Benjamin Lincoln	Gen. Henry Clinton
Sept. 28, 1781	Siege of Yorktown	Gen. George Washington and Gen. Rochambeau	Gen. Charles Cornwallis

3.23 Committees of Correspondence

Committees of Correspondence

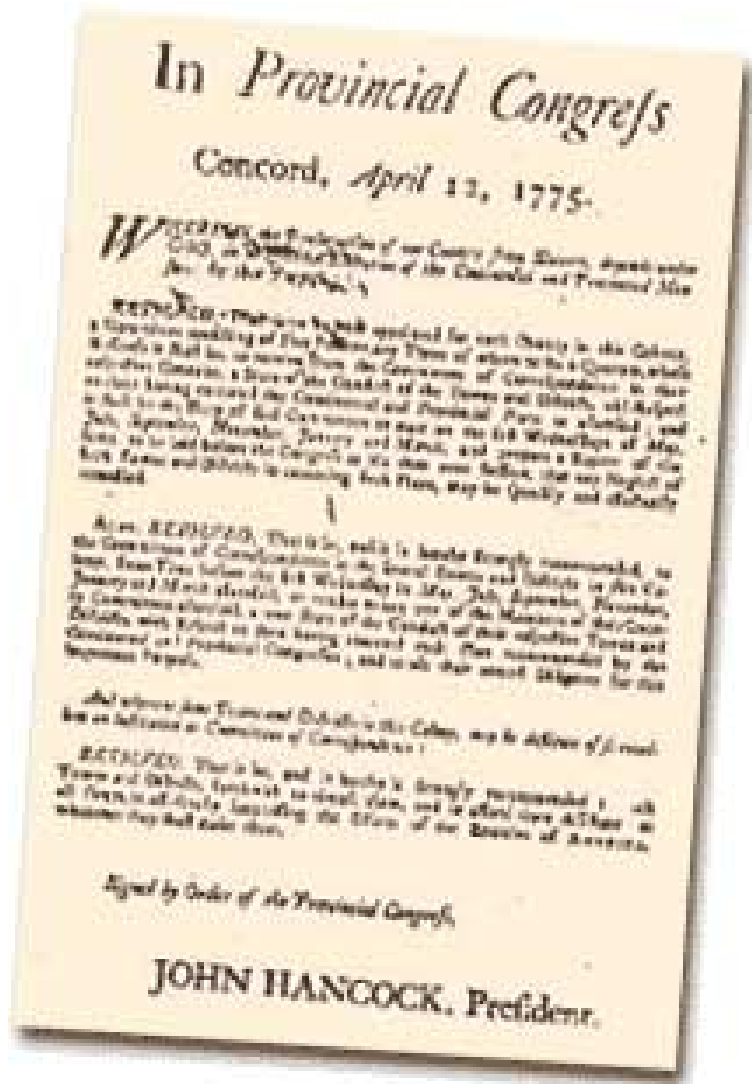


FIGURE 3.30

Copy of Broadside from Boston, Massachusetts, 1775

Volumes and volumes of written work was emerging in the American colonies on the subject of British policies. Apart from major documents and publications, much writing had been produced as letters, pamphlets, and newspaper editorials. The arguments set forth in this way were at times very convincing. American patriots of the 1770s did not have modern means of communication at their disposal. To spread the power of the written word from town to town and colony to colony, COMMITTEES OF CORRESPONDENCE were established.

The first such committee was organized by none other than Samuel Adams. Working with rural patriots, Adams enabled the entire Massachusetts citizenry to have access to patriot text. In fact, Adams knew that the residents of

the seacoast towns were more informed of each crisis than those of the interior. The spread of these committees across urban centers happened quickly. Adams and others urged the establishment of correspondence committees in rural inland towns as well.

The Committees of Correspondence were bold enough to use the British postal service as the means of communication. For the most part, the pen was their weapon of choice, but revolutionary sentiment did at times take other forms. For example the Committee of Correspondence in Boston gave its blessing on the raiding of the Dartmouth and the destruction of its cargo that became known as the BOSTON TEA PARTY. As the revolution drew nearer, the committees became the spine of colonial interaction. The Virginia House of Burgesses followed Adams' lead and established a Committee of Correspondence as a standing committee in 1773. Before the Tea crisis had passed, each colony had a central committee designed to coordinate discussion with the other twelve colonies. In effect, these Committees of Correspondence were the forebears to the First and Second Continental Congresses.

Successful national organization must begin locally. Congresses and national coordinated actions do not materialize out of thin air. Without the work of thousands of local patriots — north and south, urban and rural — there can be no unified result. The Committees of Correspondence became the building blocks on which national unity could begin to build its foundation.

3.24 Thomas Paine Common Sense

Thomas Paine's Common Sense

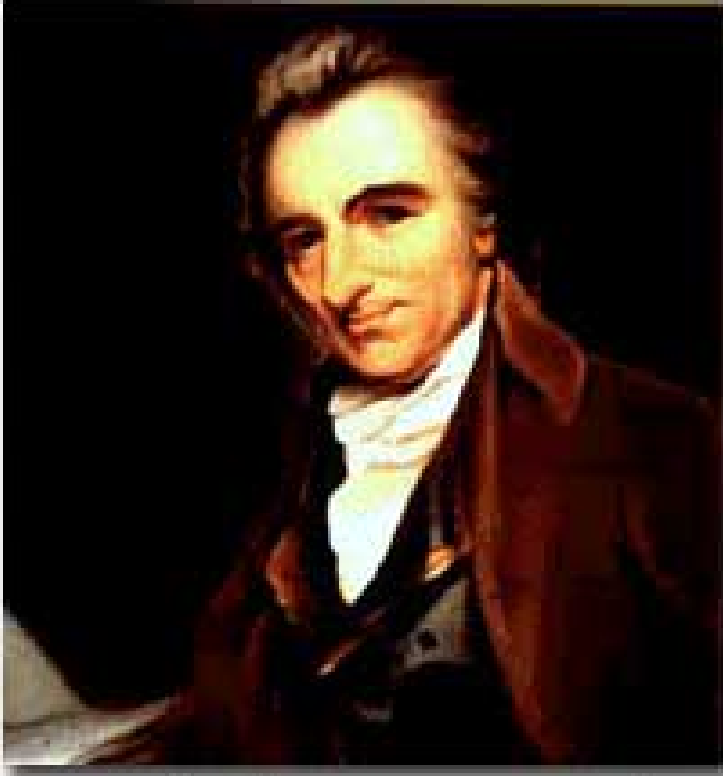


FIGURE 3.31

Thomas Paine

Americans could not break their ties with Britain easily. Despite all the recent hardships, the majority of colonists since birth were reared to believe that England was to be loved and its monarch revered.

Fear was another factor. Any student of history was familiar with the harsh manner the British employed on Irish rebels. A revolution could bring mob rule, and no one, not even the potential mob, wanted that. Furthermore, despite taxes, times were good. Arguments can be made that average American was more prosperous than the average Briton.

Yet there were the terrible injustices the colonists could not forget. Americans were divided against themselves. Arguments for independence were growing. Thomas Paine would provide the extra push.

Common Sense

COMMON SENSE was an instant best-seller. Published in January 1776 in Philadelphia, nearly 120,000 copies were in circulation by April. Paine's brilliant arguments were straightforward. He argued for two main points: (1) independence from England and (2) the creation of a democratic republic.

Paine avoided flowery prose. He wrote in the language of the people, often quoting the Bible in his arguments. Most people in America had a working knowledge of the Bible, so his arguments rang true. Paine was not religious, but he knew his readers were. King George was "the Pharaoh of England" and "the Royal Brute of Great Britain." He touched a nerve in the American countryside.

A Real Paine for the British

Beside attacks on George III, he called for the establishment of a republic. Even patriot leaders like Thomas Jefferson and John Adams condemned Paine as an extremist on the issue of a post-independence government. Still, *Common Sense* grew the patriot cause. It made no difference to the readers that Paine was a new arrival to America. Published anonymously, many readers attributed it to John Adams, who denied involvement.

In the end, his prose was common sense. Why should tiny England rule the vastness of a continent? How can colonists expect to gain foreign support while still professing loyalty to the British king? How much longer can Americans stand for the repeated abuses of the Crown? All these questions led many readers to one answer as the summer of 1776 drew near.

3.25 The Declaration of Independence 1776

The Declaration of Independence



FIGURE 3.32

usflag.org

One of twenty-four surviving copies of the first printing of the Declaration of Independence done by Philadelphia printer John Dunlap in the evening of July 4, 1776.

The moment had finally come. Far too much bad blood existed between the colonial leaders and the crown to consider a return to the past. More and more colonists felt deprived by the British not only of their money and their civil liberties, but their lives as well. Bloodshed had begun over a year ago and there seemed little chance of a ceasefire. The radical wing of the Continental Congress was gaining strength with each passing day. It was time for a formal break with mother England. It was time to declare independence.

On June 7, 1776, RICHARD HENRY LEE introduced a resolution to the Congress that declared the thirteen colonies "free and independent states." Congress did not act on the resolution immediately. A vote was set for early July. In the meantime it seemed appropriate that some sort of explanation was in order for such a bold act. A subcommittee of five, including Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and THOMAS JEFFERSON, was selected to choose the careful

wording. Such a document must be persuasive to a great many parties. Americans would read this and join the patriot cause. Sympathetic Britons would read this and urge royal restraint. Foreign powers would read this and aid the colonial militia. They might, that is, if the text were convincing. The five agreed that Jefferson was the most talented writer. They would advise on his prose.

The declaration is divided into three main parts. The first was a simple statement of intent. Jefferson's words echo down through the decades of American life until the present day. Phrases like "ALL MEN ARE CREATED EQUAL," "unalienable rights," and "life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness" have bounced from the lips of Americans in grammar school and retirement. All are contained in the first section that outlines the basic principles of the enlightened leaders. The next section is a list of grievances; that is, why the colonies deemed independence appropriate. King George was guilty of "repeated injuries" that intended to establish "ABSOLUTE TYRANNY" in North America. He has "plundered our seas, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people." It was difficult for Americans to argue his points. The concluding paragraph officially dissolves ties with Britain. It also shows modern readers the courage taken by each delegate who would sign. They were now officially guilty of treason and would hang in the gallows if taken before a royal court. Thus, they would "pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

Debate in the Congress followed. Jefferson watched painfully as the other delegates tweaked his prose. Jefferson had wanted to include a passage blaming the king for the slave trade, for example, but the southern delegates insisted upon its removal. Finally on July 4, 1776, the colonies approved the document. The vote was twelve to zero, with the New York delegation abstaining. As president of the Congress, John Hancock scrawled his famous signature across the bottom and history was made. If the American effort was successful, they would be hailed as heroes. If it failed, they would be hanged as traitors.

3.26 American and British Strengths and Weaknesses

v

American and British Strengths and Weaknesses

The question remains: What factors led an undisciplined, unprepared, divided American nation to prevail over the world's largest empire?



FIGURE 3.33

Despite the supremacy of the British navy in the 18th century, the Colonial naval forces won many battles. This picture depicts the naval engagement of July 7, 1777, between the American frigates *Hancock*, *Boston*, and *HMS Fox*, and the British frigates *Flora* and *Rainbow*.

British Strengths and American Weaknesses

The British seemed unbeatable. During the previous 100 years, the British had enjoyed triumph after triumph over nations as powerful as France and Spain. At first glance, the odds were clearly against the Americans. A closer look provides insight into how the underdogs emerged victorious.

Britain's military was the best in the world. Their soldiers were well equipped, well disciplined, well paid, and well fed. The British navy dominated the seas. Funds were much more easily raised by the Empire than by the Continental Congress.

Some of those funds were used to hire Hessian mercenaries to fight the Americans.

and the Hessians, who are allowed to be the best of the German troops, are by no means equal to the British in any respect. I believe them steady, but their slowness is of the greatest disadvantage in a country almost covered with woods, and against an Enemy whose chief qualification is agility in running from fence to fence and thence keeping up an irregular, but galling fire on troops who advance with the same pace as at their exercise. Light infantry accustomed to fight from tree to tree, or charge even in woods; and Grenadiers who after the first fire lose no time in loading again, but rush on, trusting entirely to that most decisive of weapons the bayonet, will ever be superior to any troops the Rebels can bring against them. Such are the British, and such the method of fighting which has been attended with constant success

– Lieutenant W. Hale, letter to unknown recipient (March 23, 1778)

The Americans had tremendous difficulty raising enough funds to purchase basic supplies for their troops, including shoes and blankets. The British had a winning tradition. Around one in five Americans openly favored the Crown, with about half of the population hoping to avoid the conflict altogether. Most Indian tribes sided with Britain, who promised protection of tribal lands.

American Strengths and British Weaknesses

FIGURE 3.34

Although American troops may not have had the military force and economic base that their British rivals had, they did believe strongly in their fight for freedom and liberty. The Continental Congress adopted this "Stars and Stripes" as its official flag on June 14, 1777.

On the other hand, the Americans had many intangible advantages.

The British fought a war far from home. Military orders, troops, and supplies sometimes took months to reach their destinations. The British had an extremely difficult objective. They had to persuade the Americans to give up their claims of independence. As long as the war continued, the colonists' claim continued to gain validity. The geographic vastness of the colonies proved a hindrance to the British effort. Despite occupying every major city, the British remained at a disadvantage.

Americans had a grand cause: fighting for their rights, their independence and their liberty. This cause is much more just than waging a war to deny independence. American military and political leaders were inexperienced, but proved surprisingly competent.

The war was expensive and the British population debated its necessity. In Parliament, there were many American sympathizers. Finally, the alliance with the French gave Americans courage and a tangible threat that tipped the scales in America's favor.

3.27 The Revolution on the Home Front

Most Americans did not actively participate in the REVOLUTION. Therefore, no study of the war would be complete without an examination of the home front.

During the war years, those Americans not involved in warfare were doing their best just trying to survive. Farmers continued to grow food, artisans continued to practice their trades, and merchants attempted to maintain their businesses. Despite efforts to maintain business as usual, the entire social landscape was changed.

War disrupts economies and brings tremendous population dislocations. Woe came to families or farmers who found themselves in the way of advancing armies. Despite stringent warnings against such behavior from officers on both sides, farms and homes were often plundered. Soldiers took grain, livestock, or whatever goods they needed.

Severe Consequences

There are recorded instances where officers from both the British and American military ordered the hanging of soldiers who stole from the general populace.

But, there are also instance from both armies where officers ordered their men to confiscate food, livestock, or goods during desperate times. The Americans, in particular, always promised to repay for what they took. The British, at times, also promised RESTITUTION.

Dwellings in cities that the British occupied also were subject to sticky fingers. Benjamin Franklin's Philadelphia house served as the quarters for a British officer during the winter of 1777. The officer helped himself to some souvenirs of his time at Franklin's house.

If citizens were thought to be colluding with the American military, their homes might be burned. At times, the homes of revolutionary firebrands or officers were set afire by a vindictive British army.



 FIGURE 3.35

The African American poet Phyllis Wheatley was America's first published black poet and a patriot to boot.

TABLE 3.8:

The country which we lately traversed, about fifty miles in extent, is called neutral ground, but the miserable inhabitants who remain, are not much favored with the privileges which their neutrality ought to secure to them. They are continually exposed to the ravages and insults of infamous banditti, composed of royal refugees and tories There are within the British lines banditti consisting of lawless villains, who devote themselves to the most cruel pillage and robbery among the defenceless inhabitants between the lines, many of whom they carry off to New York, after plundering their houses and farms. These shameless marauders have received the names of Cow-boys and Skinners. By their atrocious deeds they have become a scourge and terror to the people. Numerous instances have been related of these miscreants subjecting defenceless persons to cruel torture, to compel them to deliver up their money, or to disclose the places where it has been secreted. It is not uncommon for them to hang a man by his neck till apparently dead, then restore him, and repeat the experiment, and leave him for dead.

– James Thatcher, MD, military journal entry describing conditions in Long Island (1780)

Economic Consequences



FIGURE 3.36

Louis S. Glanzman.

Was Nancy Hart simply a legend? Or was she a real-life patriot? When British troops came knocking at her door to demand a meal and shelter, they soon realized they came to the wrong house.

As the British entered major cities such as Boston, Philadelphia, and New York, many people fled to the countryside, looking for food and work. Traditional markets were disrupted. Farmers who one week sold their wares to their usual American customers might the next week be selling to an occupying British army.

The **BRITISH BLOCKADE** caused widespread **UNEMPLOYMENT**. Almost anyone dependent on the foreign market was out of work, from shippers to merchants. Both armies were sometimes followed by men and women willing to work in any way for a hot meal. The Colonial economy was in shambles.

Some farmers and merchants hoped to profit from increased prices due to scarcity. Many sold their wares to the British army. Violence sometimes came in the wake of rising prices, and the Continental Congress enacted regulations to counter inflation throughout the Colonies.

Women



FIGURE 3.37

When the men went off to fight in the war, American women, children, and elderly were frequently faced with the occupation of their houses, churches, and government buildings by British soldiers. This Quaker Meeting house in Long Island was set up as a hospital and a prison by the British.

Women stepped forth to fill holes left by fighting Continental soldiers. Women needed to perform tasks formerly reserved for their husbands (such as farming or running businesses).

These new and independent women of the house also had to stand up for themselves when confronted by both American and British armies. When militias appealed to the public for uniforms and food, HOMESPUN garments and farm crops came from patriotic women. And when British armies and soldiers appeared at homes being occupied by women, they did not always find a friendly face.

Some colonial women served as SPIES for Washington's army, passing valuable information about troop locations and movements. Many men would have returned to bankruptcy after the war had it not been for the efforts of their spouses.

Address to the Ladies

During wartime, women have historically been called upon to show their patriotism by scrimping and saving. In many cases, as in the Revolutionary War, food and resources were very scarce because the Colonies were still largely an agrarian economy and most men who worked in the fields were away fighting.

Young ladies in town, and those that live round, Let a friend at this season advise you: Since money's so scarce, and times growing worse, Strange things may soon hap and surprize you; First then, throw aside your high top knots of pride, Wear none but your own country linnen, Of Oeconomy boast, let your pride be the most To show clothes of your own make and spinning.

What, if homespun they say is not quite so gay As brocades, yet be not in a passion, For when once it is known this is much wore in town, One and all will cry out, 'tis the fashion! And as one, all agree that you'll not married be To such as will wear London Fact'ry: But at first sight refuse, tell em such you do chuse As encourage our own Manufact'ry

No more Ribbons wear, nor in rich dress appear, Love your country much better than fine things, Begin without passion, twill soon be the fashion To grace your smooth locks with a twine string, Throw aside your Bohea, and your green Hyson tea, And all things with a new fashion duty; Procure a good store of the choice Labradore, For there'll soon be enough here to suit ye;

These do without fear and to all you'll appear Fair, charming, true, lovely and cleaver; Tho' the times remain darkish, young men may be sparkish And love you much stronger than ever.

– "Young Ladies in Town," *Boston Newsletter* (1769)

Wars are not merely fought on the battlefield. Even in the 18th century, successful campaigns were the hallmark of a concerted effort. By 1783, the entire American population seemed battle weary, from the foot soldier to the farmer's wife. Their sacrifices helped secure freedoms for the generations that would follow

3.28 Loyalists, Fence-sitters, and Patriots

It is impossible to know the exact number of American colonists who favored or opposed independence.

For years it was widely believed that one third favored the Revolution, one third opposed it, and one third were undecided. This stems from an estimate made by John Adams in his personal writings in 1815.

Historians have since concluded that Adams was referring to American attitudes toward the French Revolution, not ours. The current thought is that about 20 percent of the colonists were LOYALISTS — those whose remained loyal to England and King George. Another small group in terms of percentage were the dedicated PATRIOTS, for whom there was no alternative but independence.

On the Fence

Often overlooked are the fence-sitters who made up the largest group.

With so many Americans undecided, the war became in great measure a battle to win popular support. If the patriots could succeed in selling their ideas of revolution to the public, then popular support might follow and the British would be doomed.

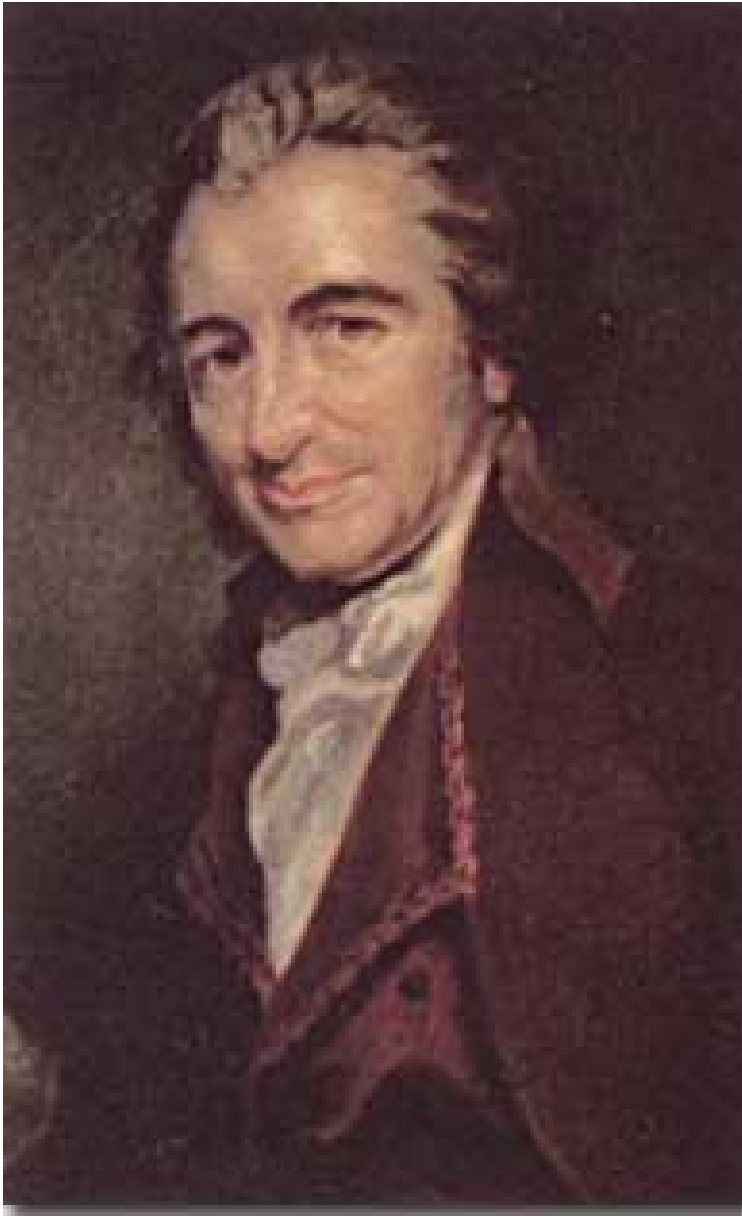


FIGURE 3.38

In "Common Sense," Thomas Paine argued for independence from Britain and the creation of a democratic republic. Its publication in January 1776 immediately added fuel to the patriots' cause.

Even with military victory, it would have been impossible for the Crown to regain the allegiance of the people. Revolution would merely flare up at a later date.

The British understood the need to attract American popular support for the parent country, as well. Some colonists who were not persuaded by the political struggle joined the British for personal gain or military glory. Some joined out of sheer loyalty to the Crown — they still believed themselves loyal British citizens. There were also many American farmers willing to sell their goods to the British for profit.

In the long run, however, the patriots were much more successful attracting support. American patriots won the war of propaganda. Committees of Correspondence persuaded many fence-sitters to join the patriot cause. Writings such as Thomas Paine's "Common Sense" stirred newfound American nationalism.

Excerpt of "Common Sense"

IN the following pages I offer nothing more than simple facts, plain arguments, and common sense: and have no other preliminaries to settle with the reader, than that he will divest himself of prejudice and prepossession, and suffer his reason and his feelings to determine for themselves that he will put on, or rather that he will not put off, the true character of a man, and generously enlarge his views beyond the present day ...

The Sun never shined on a cause of greater worth. 'Tis not the affair of a City, a County, a Province, or a Kingdom; but of a Continent — of at least one-eighth part of the habitable Globe. 'Tis not the concern of a day, a year, or an age; posterity are virtually involved in the contest, and will be more or less affected even to the end of time, by the proceedings now. Now is the seed-time of Continental union, faith and honour. The least fracture now will be like a name engraved with the point of a pin on the tender rind of a young oak; the wound would enlarge with the tree, and posterity read in it full grown characters.

– Thomas Paine, "Common Sense" (1776)

Patriots subjected Loyalists to public humiliation and violence. Many Loyalists found their property vandalized, looted, and burned. The patriots controlled public discourse. Woe to the citizen who publicly proclaimed sympathy to Britain.

Families were sometimes divided over the revolution. Benjamin Franklin's son, William, a Loyalist governor of New Jersey, supported the British effort during the war.

What Happened to the Loyalists?

In the end, many Loyalists simply left America. About 80,000 of them fled to Canada or Britain during or just after the war. Because Loyalists were often wealthy, educated, older, and Anglican, the American social fabric was altered by their departure. American history brands them as traitors. But most were just trying to maintain the lifestyles to which they had become accustomed. After all, history is always written by the winners.

3.29 Lexington and Concord

Lexington and Concord



FIGURE 3.39

Ready to fight at a moment's notice, minutemen began fighting early in the American Revolution. Their efforts at Lexington and Concord inspired many patriots to take up arms against Britain.

Britain's General Gage had a secret plan.

During the wee hours of April 19, 1775, he would send out regiments of British soldiers quartered in Boston. Their destinations were LEXINGTON, where they would capture Colonial leaders Sam Adams and John Hancock, then CONCORD, where they would seize gunpowder.

But spies and friends of the Americans leaked word of Gage's plan.

Two lanterns hanging from Boston's North Church informed the countryside that the British were going to attack by sea. A series of horseback riders — men such as Paul Revere, WILLIAM DAWES and DR. SAMUEL PRESCOTT — galloped off to warn the countryside that the REGULARS (British troops) were coming.

Regulars

It is a myth that Revere and other riders shouted, "The British are coming!" This warning would have confused a good many of the Americans living in the countryside who still considered *themselves* British. The Regulars were known to be British soldiers.

Lexington and the Minutemen

FIGURE 3.40

The first battle of the war, Lexington marked the beginning of the American Revolution. Although Lexington and Concord were considered British military victories, they gave a moral boost to the American colonists.

Word spread from town to town, and militias prepared to confront the British and help their neighbors in Lexington and Concord.

These COLONIAL MILITIAS had originally been organized to defend settlers from civil unrest and attacks by French or Native Americans. Selected members of the militia were called MINUTEMEN because they could be ready to fight in a minute's time.

Sure enough, when the advance guard of nearly 240 British soldiers arrived in Lexington, they found about 70 minutemen formed on the LEXINGTON GREEN awaiting them. Both sides eyed each other warily, not knowing what to expect. Suddenly, a bullet buzzed through the morning air.

It was "the shot heard round the world."

Concord

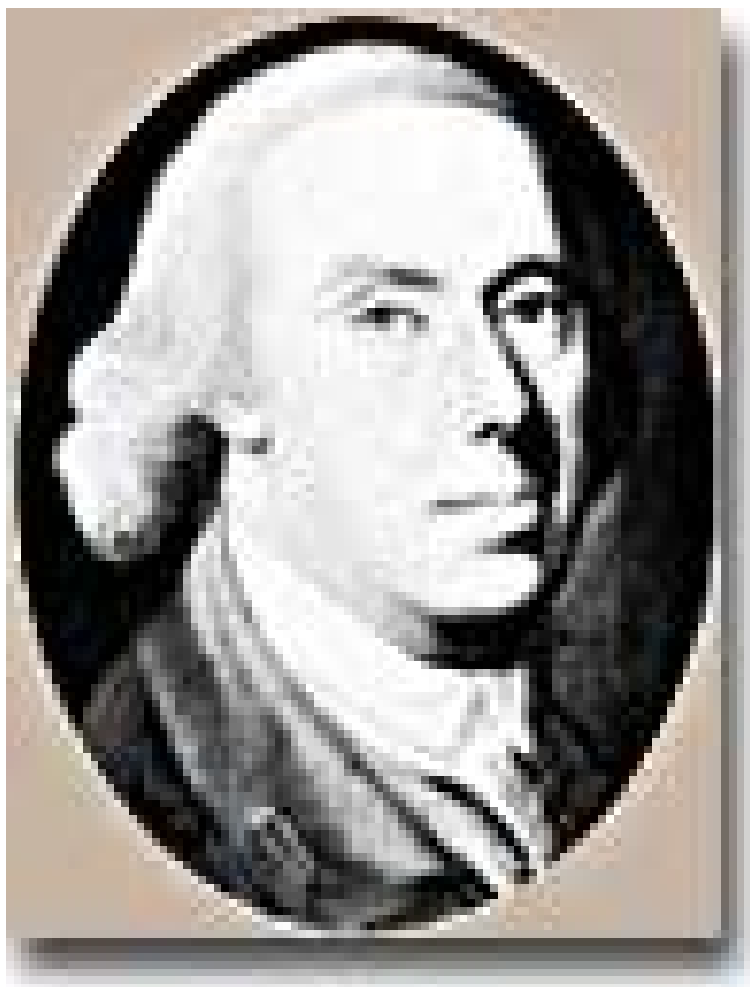


FIGURE 3.41

Thomas Gage was appointed commander in chief of all British forces in North America in 1763.

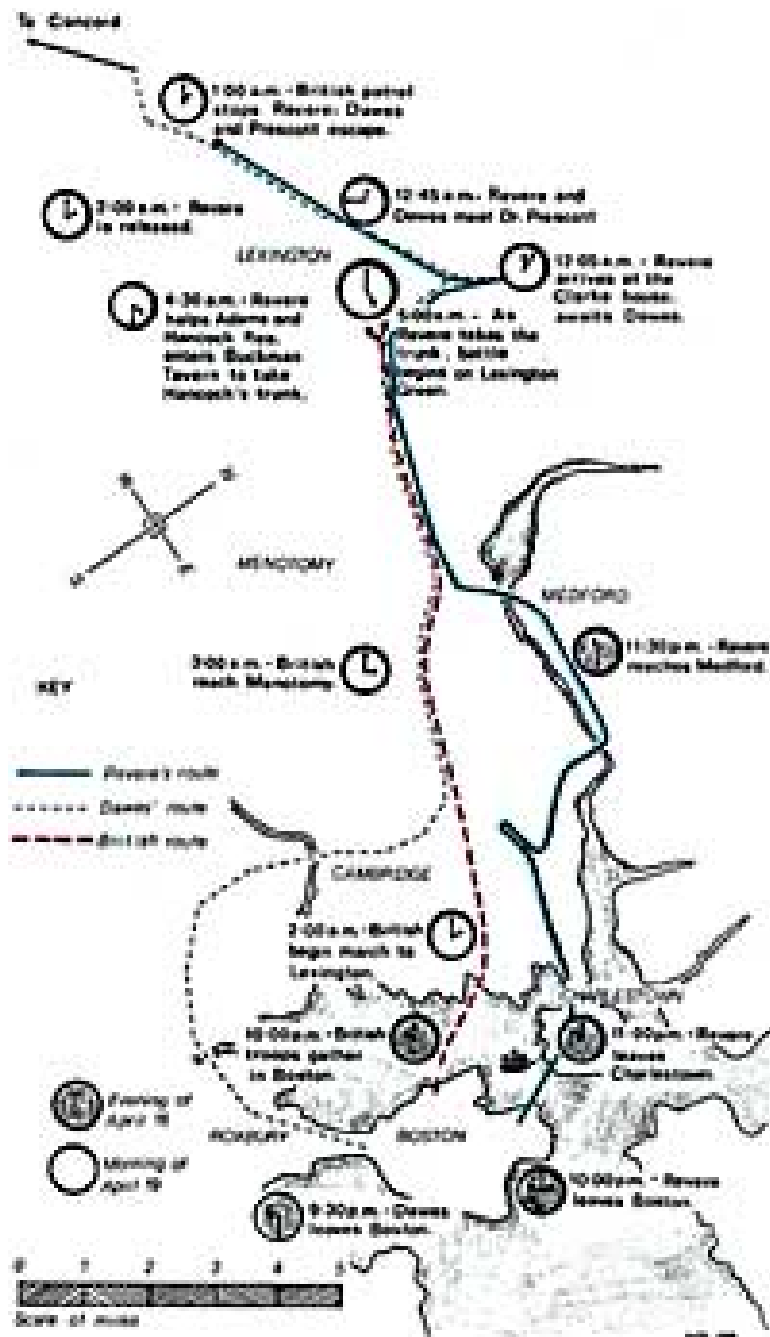


FIGURE 3.42

Paul Revere Memorial Association This map detail Paul Revere's famous midnight ride to warn the colonists of British troops' arrival.

The numerically superior British killed seven Americans on Lexington Green and marched off to Concord with new regiments who had joined them. But American militias arriving at Concord thwarted the British advance.

As the British retreated toward Boston, new waves of Colonial militia intercepted them. Shooting from behind fences and trees, the militias inflicted over 125 casualties, including several officers. The ferocity of the encounter surprised both sides.

The first bloodshed at Lexington and Concord, marked the crossing of a threshold, and the momentum from these events pushed both sides farther apart. Following the battles, neither the British nor the Americans knew what to expect next.

Indignation against the British ran high in the Colonies — for they had shed American blood on American soil. Radicals such as Sam Adams took advantage of the bloodshed to increase tensions through propaganda and rumor-spreading. The Americans surrounded the town of Boston, and the rebel army started gaining many new recruits.

During the battles of Lexington and Concord, 73 British soldiers had been killed and 174 wounded; 26 were missing. LORD PERCY, who led the British back into Boston after the defeat suffered at Concord, wrote back to London, "Whoever looks upon them [THE REBELS] as an irregular mob will be much mistaken." Three British major generals — WILLIAM HOWE, HENRY CLINTON, and "GENTLEMAN JOHNNY" BURGOYNE — were brought to Boston to lend their expertise and experience to the situation.

Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen Join the Cause

Shortly after the battle, an express rider carried the news to New Haven, Connecticut, where a local militia commander and wealthy shopkeeper named Benedict Arnold demanded the keys to a local powder house.

After arming himself and paying money from his own pocket to outfit a group of militia from Massachusetts, Arnold and his men set off for upstate New York. He was searching for artillery that was badly needed for the Colonial effort and reckoned that he could commandeer some cannon by capturing Fort Ticonderoga, a rotting relic from the French and Indian War.

Up in the HAMPSHIRE GRANTS, part of modern-day Vermont, ETHAN ALLEN who led a group called the GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS, also had the idea to capture Fort Ticonderoga. The two reluctantly worked together and surprised the poorly manned British fort before dawn on May 10, 1775.

The fort's commander had been asleep and surrendered in his pajamas!

3.30 Washington at Valley Forge

Washington at Valley Forge



FIGURE 3.43

Cold, hunger, and sickness marked the Continental Army's stay at Valley Forge in Pennsylvania. Today, Valley Forge's wide fields are dotted with revolutionary relics, reminders of the brutal winter endured by Washington's troops.

American spirits reached a low point during the harsh winter of 1777-78.

British troops had marched triumphantly into Philadelphia the previous autumn. Philadelphia was the largest city in the Colonies and the seat of political power. After the British swept into Philadelphia, the Continental Congress had flee to west, first to Lancaster then to York.

Valley Forge

Washington's army had spent the summer of 1777 fighting a string of losing battles. The Americans harassed the British army in skirmishes and minor battles for much of the fighting season. In the fall, the Americans showed pluck at the BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE in September and the BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN in October. Yet the Americans were unable to keep the British out of Philadelphia.

In December, Washington marched his tired, beaten, hungry and sick army to VALLEY FORGE, a location about 20 miles northwest of British-occupied Philadelphia. From Valley Forge, Washington could keep an eye on General Howe's British army ensconced in Philadelphia.

At Valley Forge, there were shortages of everything from food to clothing to medicine. Washington's men were sick from disease, hunger, and exposure. The Continental Army camped in crude LOG CABINS and endured cold conditions while the Redcoats warmed themselves in colonial homes. The patriots went hungry while the British soldiers ate well.

Terms of enlistment were ending for many soldiers in Washington's army. The General wondered if he would even have an army left when the spring thaw finally arrived.

Washington under Siege



FIGURE 3.44

Great events generate great legends. Did an Oneida woman named Polly Cooper, really ease the suffering of Washington and his troops at Valley Forge? Historians may never know for sure, but the legend lives on.

General Washington was upset that local farmers were hoarding much-needed food waiting to earn higher profits in the spring. Some farmers even sneaked grain into Philadelphia to feed the British army, who paid in gold or silver. With each passing night came more desertions. Washington grew privately disgusted at the lack of commitment of his so-called patriot fighters.

Then there was the grumbling of some in Congress and among some of Washington's own officers. Washington's leadership skills were openly questioned. Many said General Horatio Gates was better-suited to leading the army. After all, hadn't he scored a major victory in October at the battle of Saratoga? Within the environment of cold, deprivation, and rebellion, how long could Washington and his army endure?

Help came in the form of a Prussian volunteer, BARON VON STEUBEN. The military leader was aghast at the lack of American discipline. At Washington's urging he trained the Continental Army, Prussian-style. The troops slowly became more professional. Among the soldiers who remained, confidence grew.

Over the course of the winter, the weather improved somewhat. Food trickled in from the surrounding countryside. Many wives of soldiers spent time at Valley Forge over the winter. Washington was able to quash those who questioned his leadership abilities.

The Continental Army encamped at Valley Forge in the fall of 1777 with about 12,000 men in its ranks. Death claimed about a quarter of them before spring arrived. Another thousand didn't reenlist or deserted. But the army that remained was stronger. They were fewer, but more disciplined. They were weary, but firmly resolved.

The next year, 1778, brought greater fortune to the American cause. While Washington froze at Valley Forge, Benjamin Franklin was busy securing the French alliance. Now the war would be different indeed.

Conditions at Valley Forge

Head Quarters, Valley Forge, February 16, 1778

Dear Sir: It is with great reluctance, I trouble you on a subject, which does not fall within your province; but it is a subject that occasions me more distress, than I have felt, since the commencement of the war; and which loudly

demands the most zealous exertions of every person of weight and authority, who is interested in the success of our affairs. I mean the present dreadful situation of the army for want of provisions, and the miserable prospects before us, with respect to futurity. It is more alarming than you will probably conceive, for, to form a just idea, it were necessary to be on the spot. For some days past, there has been little less, than a famine in camp. A part of the army has been a week, without any kind of flesh, and the rest for three or four days. Naked and starving as they are, we cannot enough admire the incomparable patience and fidelity of the soldiery, that they have not been ere this excited by their sufferings, to a general mutiny or dispersion. Strong symptoms, however, discontent have appeared in particular instances; and nothing but the most active efforts every where can long avert so shocking a catastrophe.

Our present sufferings are not all. There is no foundation laid for any adequate relief hereafter. All the magazines provided in the States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland, and all the immediate additional supplies they seem capable of affording, will not be sufficient to support the army more than a month longer, if so long. Very little been done to the Eastward, and as little to the Southward; and whatever we have a right to expect from those quarters, must necessarily be very remote; and is indeed more precarious, than could be wished. When the forementioned supplies are exhausted, what a terrible crisis must ensue, unless all the energy of the Continent is exerted to provide a timely remedy?

Impressed with this idea, I am, on my part, putting every engine to work, that I can possibly think of, to prevent the fatal consequences, we have so great a reason to apprehend. I am calling upon all those, whose stations and influence enable them to contribute their aid upons so important an occasion; and from your well known zeal, I expect every thing within the compass of your power, and that the abilities and resources of the state over which you preside, will admit. I am sensible of the disadvantages it labours under, from having been so long the scene of war, and that it must be exceedingly drained by the great demands to which it has been subject. But, tho' you may not be able to contribute materially to our relief, you can perhaps do something towards it; and any assistance, however trifling in itself, will be of great moment at so critical a juncture, and will conduce to keeping the army together till the Commissary's department can be put upon a better footing, and effectual measures concerted to secure a permanent and competent supply. What methods you can take, you will be the best judge of; but, if you can devise any means to procure a quantity of cattle, or other kind of flesh, for the use of this army, to be at camp in the course of a month, you will render a most essential service to the common cause. I have the honor etc.

– George Washington, letter to George Clinton (Feb. 16, 1778)

3.31 Battle of Bunker Hill

Bunker Hill



FIGURE 3.45

This map shows details of the 1775-76 siege of Boston and outlines Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill on the Charlestown Peninsula.

On the night of June 16, 1775, a detail of American troops acting under orders from ARTEMAS WARD moved out of their camp, carrying picks, shovels, and guns. They entrenched themselves on a rise located on Charlestown Peninsula overlooking Boston. Their destination: BUNKER HILL.

From this hill, the rebels could bombard the town and British ships in Boston Harbor. But Ward's men misunderstood his orders. They went to BREED'S HILL by mistake and entrenched themselves there — closer to the British position.

Cannon for Breakfast

The next morning, the British were stunned to see Americans threatening them. In the 18th century, British military custom demanded that the British attack the Americans, even though the Americans were in a superior position militarily (the Americans had soldiers and cannon pointing down on the British).



FIGURE 3.46

William Howe was the commander in chief of the British army at the Battle of Bunker Hill.

Major General William Howe, leading the British forces, could have easily surrounded the Americans with his ships at sea, but instead chose to march his troops uphill. Howe might have believed that the Americans would retreat in the face of a smashing, head-on attack.

He was wrong.

His Majesty's ships opened fire on the Americans. Early in the afternoon, 28 barges of British soldiers crossed the CHARLES RIVER and stormed the hills. The Americans waited until the British were within 15 paces, and then unleashed a bloody fusillade. Scores of British troops were killed or wounded; the rest retreated down the hill.

Again, the British rushed the hill in a second wave. And again they retreated, suffering a great number of casualties.

By the time the third wave of British charged the hill, the Americans were running low on ammunition. Hand-to-hand fighting ensued. The British eventually took the hill, but at a great cost. Of the 2,300 British soldiers who had gone through the ordeal, 1,054 were either killed or wounded.

Dear and Hon'd Mother ...

Friday the 16 of June we were orderd on parade at six 'o Clock, with one days provision and Blankets ready for a

March somewhere, but we knew not where but we readily and cheerfully obey'd, ...

[W]e march'd down, on to Charleston Hill against Copts hill in Boston, where we entrench'd & made a Fort ... we work'd there undiscovered till about five in the Morning, when we saw our danger, being against Ships of the Line, and all Boston fortified against us, The danger we were in made us think there was treachery and that we were brought there to be all slain, and I must and will say that there was treachery oversight or presumption in the Conduct of our Officers, for about 5 in the morning, we not having more than half our fort done, they began to fire (I suppose as soon as they had orders) pretty briskly for a few minutes, then ceas'd but soon begun again, and fird to the number of twenty minutes, (they killd but one of our Men) then ceas'd to fire till about eleven oClock when they began to fire as brisk as ever, which caus'd many of our young Country people to desert, apprehending the danger in a clearer manner than others who were more diligent in digging, & fortifying ourselves against them.

– Peter Brown, letter to his mother (June 25, 1775) Massachusetts Historical Society

On July, 2, 1775, George Washington rode into Cambridge, Massachusetts, to take command of the new AMERICAN ARMY. He had a formidable task ahead of him. He needed to establish a CHAIN OF COMMAND and determine a course of action for a war — if there would be a war.

Why Washington

Washington was one of the few Americans of the era to have military experience. He had served with distinction in the French and Indian War.

Washington was also a southerner. Politicians from the north (such as John Adams) recognized that, for the Americans to have any shot at defeating the British, all regions of the country would have to be involved. The uprising had to be more than just New England agitation.

In London, the news of Bunker Hill convinced the king that the situation in the Colonies had escalated into an organized uprising and must be treated as a foreign war. Accordingly, he issued a Proclamation of Rebellion.

This Means War



FIGURE 3.47

British general William Howe ordered his troops to cross the Charles River and attack the American troops atop Bunker Hill.

The British had taken the initiative, but they, like Washington, needed to establish a plan of action. How did they plan to win the war? With the help of loyal colonials! "There are many inhabitants in every province well affected to Government, from whom no doubt we shall have assistance," General Howe wrote. But he hedged: the Loyalists could not rally "until His Majesty's armies have a clear superiority by a decisive victory."

The general needed a showdown. But first he needed supplies, reinforcements, and a scheme to suppress the rebels. Almost 11 months after the shots at Bunker Hill were fired, Howe departed Boston and moved north to Nova Scotia to wait and plan.

He did win decisive victories later, but his assumption that the Loyalists would rally behind him was simply wrong.

3.32 The Battle of Saratoga 1777

The Battle of Saratoga

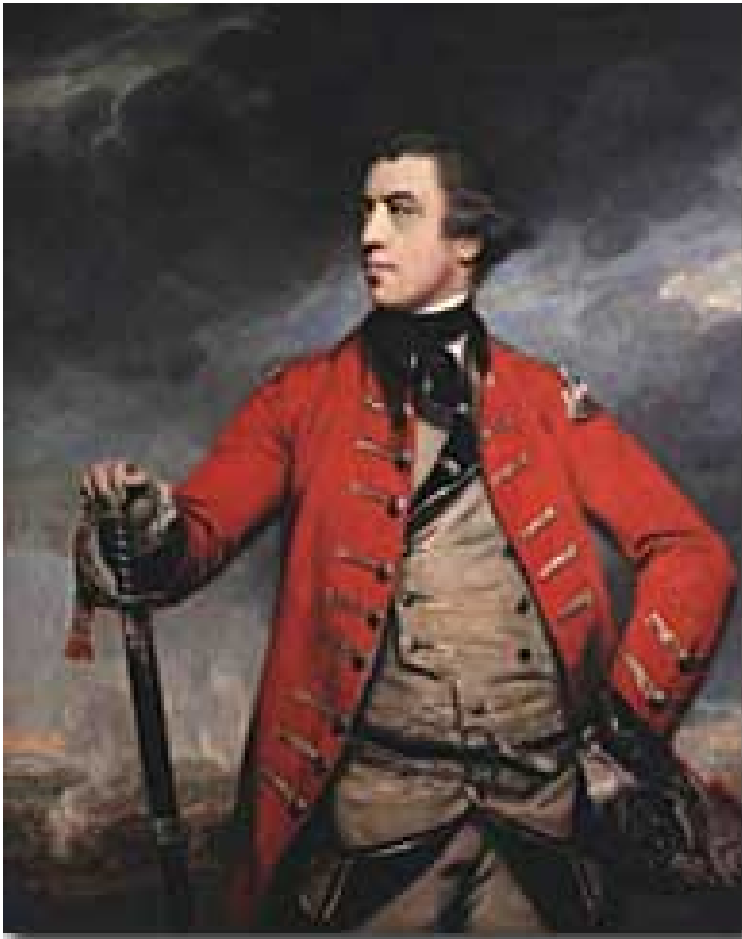


FIGURE 3.48

British general John Burgoyne earned the nickname "Gentleman Johnny" for his love of leisure and his tendency to throw parties between battles. His surrender to American forces at the Battle of Saratoga marked a turning point in the Revolutionary War.

The BATTLE OF SARATOGA was the turning point of the Revolutionary War.

The scope of the victory is made clear by a few key facts: On October 17, 1777, 5,895 British and Hessian troops surrendered their arms. General John Burgoyne had lost 86 percent of his expeditionary force that had triumphantly marched into New York from Canada in the early summer of 1777.

Divide and Conquer

The DIVIDE-AND-CONQUER strategy that Burgoyne presented to British ministers in London was to invade America from Canada by advancing down the Hudson Valley to Albany. There, he would be joined by other British troops under the command of Sir William Howe. Howe would be bringing his troops north from New Jersey and New York City.

Burgoyne believed that this bold stroke would not only isolate New England from the other American colonies, but achieve command of the Hudson River and demoralize Americans and their would-be allies, such as the French.



FIGURE 3.49

Some historians today are unsure if her death came at Native American hands or by other means, but the murder of Jane McCrea united Americans against the British and their Native American allies.

In June 1777, Burgoyne's army of over 7,000 men (half of whom were British troops and the other half Hessian troops from Brunswick and Hesse-Hanau) departed from St. Johns on Lake Champlain, bound for Fort Ticonderoga, at the southern end of the lake.

As the army proceeded southward, Burgoyne drafted and had his men distribute a proclamation that, among other things, included the statement "I have but to give stretch to the Indian forces under my direction, and they amount to thousands," which implied that Britain's enemies would suffer attacks from Native Americans allied to the British.

More than any other act during the campaign, this threat and subsequent widely reported atrocities such as the scalping of JANE MCCREA stiffened the resolve of the Americans to do whatever it took to assure that the threat did not become reality.



FIGURE 3.50

Instead of heading north to help Burgoyne fight the rebels in Saratoga, General Howe sailed south and embarked on a campaign to capture Philadelphia.

Round One to the British

The American forces at Fort Ticonderoga recognized that once the British mounted artillery on high ground near the fort, Ticonderoga would be indefensible. A retreat from the Fort was ordered, and the Americans floated troops, cannon, and supplies across Lake Champlain to Mount Independence.

From there the army set out for HUBBARDTON where the British and German troops caught up with them and gave battle. Round one to the British.

Burgoyne continued his march towards Albany, but miles to the south a disturbing event occurred. Sir William Howe decided to attack the Rebel capital at Philadelphia rather than deploying his army to meet up with Burgoyne and cut off New England from the other Colonies. Meanwhile, as Burgoyne marched south, his supply lines from Canada were becoming longer and less reliable.

I have the honor to inform your Lordship that the enemy [were] dislodged from Ticonderoga and Mount Independent, on the 6th instant, and were driven on the same day, beyond Skenesborough on the right, and the Humerton [Hubbardton] on the left with the loss of 128 pieces of cannon, all their armed vessels and bateaux, the greatest part of their baggage and ammunition, provision and military stores ...

– General John Burgoyne, letter to Lord George Germain (1777)

Bennington: "the compleatest Victory gain'd this War"

FIGURE 3.51

As Burgoyne and his troops marched down from Canada, the British managed to win several successful campaigns as well as infuriate the colonists. By the time the Burgoyne reached Saratoga, Americans had successfully rallied support to beat him.

In early August, word came that a substantial supply depot at BENNINGTON, Vermont, was alleged to be lightly guarded, and Burgoyne dispatched German troops to take the depot and return with the supplies. This time, however, stiff resistance was encountered, and American general JOHN STARK surrounded and captured almost 500 German soldiers. One observer reported Bennington as "the compleatest Victory gain'd this War."

Burgoyne now realized, too late, that the Loyalists (TORIES) who were supposed to have come to his aid by the hundreds had not appeared, and that his Native American allies were also undependable.

American general Schuyler proceed to burn supplies and crops in the line of Burgoyne's advance so that the British were forced to rely on their ever-longer and more and more unreliable supply line to Canada. On the American side, General Horatio Gates arrived in New York to take command of the American forces.

Battle of Freeman's Farm

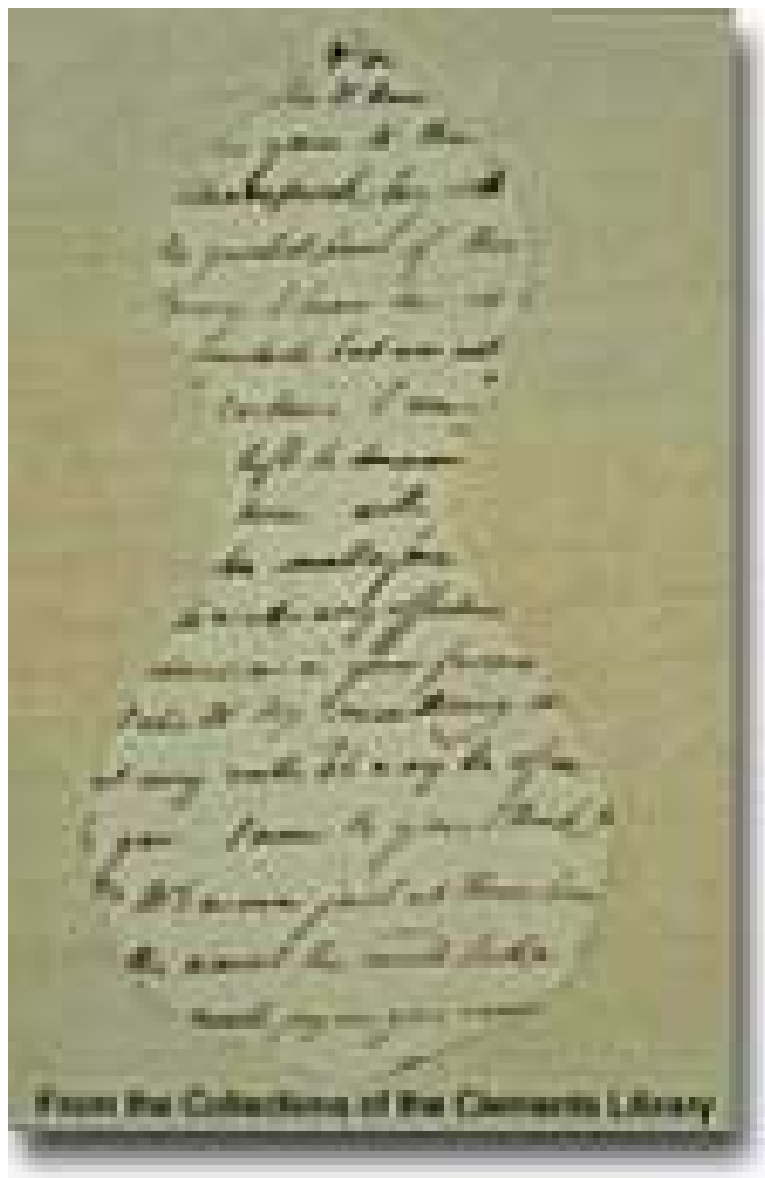


FIGURE 3.52

Mask letters, invisible ink, and secret code are the tricks of the trade for any good spy. Loyalist Henry Clinton used a mask letter to communicate with Burgoyne.

By mid-September, with the fall weather reminding Burgoyne that he could not winter where he was and needed to proceed rapidly toward Albany, the British army crossed the Hudson and headed for Saratoga.

On September 19 the two forces met at FREEMAN'S FARM north of ALBANY. While the British were left as "masters of the field," they sustained heavy human losses. Years later, American HENRY DEARBORN expressed the sentiment that "we had something more at stake than fighting for six Pence pr Day."

Battle of Saratoga

In late September and during the first week of October 1777, Gate's American army was positioned between Burgoyne's army and Albany. On October 7, Burgoyne took the offensive. The troops crashed together south of the

town of Saratoga, and Burgoyne's army was broken. In mop-up operations 86 percent of Burgoyne's command was captured.

The victory gave new life to the American cause at a critical time. Americans had just suffered a major setback the Battle of the Brandywine along with news of the fall of Philadelphia to the British.

One American soldier declared, "It was a glorious sight to see the haughty Brittons march out & surrender their arms to an army which but a little before they despised and called paltroons."

A stupendous American victory in October 1777, the success at Saratoga gave France the confidence in the American cause to enter the war as an American ALLY. Later American successes owed a great deal to French aid in the form of financial and military assistance.

A Word about Spies

SPIES worked for both British and American armies. Secret messages and battle plans were passed in a variety of creative ways, including being sewn into buttons. Patriots and loyalists penned these secret letters either in code, with invisible ink, or as mask letters.

Here is an example of Loyalist Sir Henry Clinton's mask letter. The letter on the left is the mask letter with the secret message decoded; to the right is an excerpt of the full letter.

Sir. W. Howe / is gone to the / Chesapeak bay with / the greatest part of the / army. I hear he is / landed but am not / certain. I am / left to command / here with / too small a force / to make any effectual / diversion in your favour. / I shall try something / at any rate. It may be of use / to you. I own to you I think / Sr W's move just at this time / the worst he could take. / Much joy on your success.

– Henry Clinton, letter to John Burgoyne (August 10, 1777)

TABLE 3.9:

I shall try some thing certainly/ towards the close / of the year, not till then at any rate. It may be of use to inform you that / report says all yields to you. I own to you that I think the business will / quickly be over now. Sr. W's move just at this time has been capital. / Washingtons have been the worst he could take in every respect. / sincerely give you much joy on your success and am with / great Sincerity your [] / HC

– Henry Clinton, letter to John Burgoyne (August 10, 1777)

Benedict Arnold

BENEDICT ARNOLD is best remembered as a traitor; an American patriot who spied for the British during the American Revolution. But there is more to his story than this sad event.

Arnold was a fierce patriot during the Stamp Act crisis and the early years of the American Revolution. During the battles of Lexington and Concord, Arnold worked with Ethan Allen to capture Fort Ticonderoga and was named a colonel.

As a member of George Washington's Continental Army, he led a failed attack on Quebec, but was nonetheless named brigadier general in 1776.

His next big moment came at the Battle of Saratoga. Here, Benedict Arnold was instrumental in stopping the advance of the British and in obtaining the surrender of British General John Burgoyne.

During the Battle of Freeman's Farm, Arnold's leg was severely wounded when pinned beneath his horse. (Both Arnold and his leg survived, there is a monument to his leg at Saratoga National Historic Park.)

Over the next two years, Benedict Arnold remained a patriot, but was upset and embittered at what he felt was a lack of his recognition and contribution to the war. In 1778, following British evacuation of Philadelphia, George

Washington appointed Arnold military commander of the city.

This is where the story gets interesting.

In Philadelphia, Benedict Arnold was introduced to and fell in love with MARGARET (PEGGY) SHIPPEN, a young, well-to-do loyalist who was half his age. Ms. Shippen had previously been friendly with JOHN ANDRÉ, a British spy who had been in Philadelphia during the occupation as the adjutant to the British commander in chief, Sir Henry Clinton. It is believed that Peggy introduced Arnold to André.

Meanwhile, Benedict Arnold's reputation while in Philadelphia was beginning to tarnish. He was accused of using public wagons for private profit and of being friendly to Loyalists. Faced with a COURT-MARTIAL for corruption, he resigned his post on March 19, 1779.

Following his resignation, Arnold began a correspondence with John André, now chief of British intelligence services. But Arnold had also maintained his close relationship with George Washington and still had access to important information. Over the next few months Benedict Arnold continued his talks with André and agreed to hand over key information to the British. Specifically, Arnold offered to hand over the most strategic fortress in America: WEST POINT.

Arnold and André finally met in person, and Arnold handed over information to the British spy. But, unfortunately for both men, André was caught and Arnold's letter was found. Arnold's friend, George Washington, was heartbroken over the news, but was forced to deal with the treacherous act. While Benedict Arnold escaped to British-occupied New York, where he was protected from punishment.

John André was executed for spying.

Benedict Arnold was named brigadier general by the British government and sent on raids to Virginia. Following Cornwallis's surrender at Yorktown in 1781, Arnold and his family sailed to Britain with his family. He died in London in 1801.

3.33 The French Alliance

The French Alliance

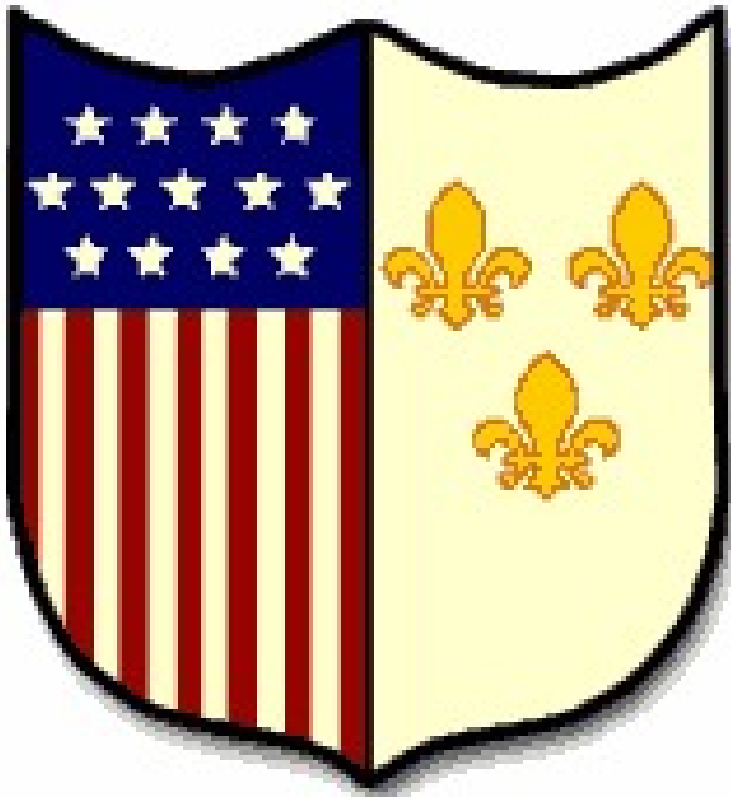


FIGURE 3.53

This coat of arms captures the spirit of the Franco-American alliance. Half of the shield is painted with the pattern of the American flag, while the fleur-de-lis (the symbol of the French king) is depicted on the other half of the shield.

Nowhere was the victory at Saratoga more noted than in France, which had been tentative in its efforts to assist the Americans. France's interest in the American fight for independence stemmed from France's humiliating defeat during the Seven Years War at the hands of its ancient enemy, England.

As French historian Henri Doniol has put it, "Almost immediately after the peace of 1763, it (the French Government) sought in the tendency of the English colonies to revolt against their mother country the occasion by which we would avenge ourselves upon England and tear up the treaty of Paris".

Secret Emissaries

As early as 1774, VERGENNES, the French foreign minister, had sent secret emissaries to explore the American colonists' commitment to independence. In the spring of 1776, Congress dispatched SILAS DEANE to France as a secret commercial agent to see if he could make arrangements for the purchase of military supplies on terms of credit. Deane also made inquiries into possible French political and even military assistance.

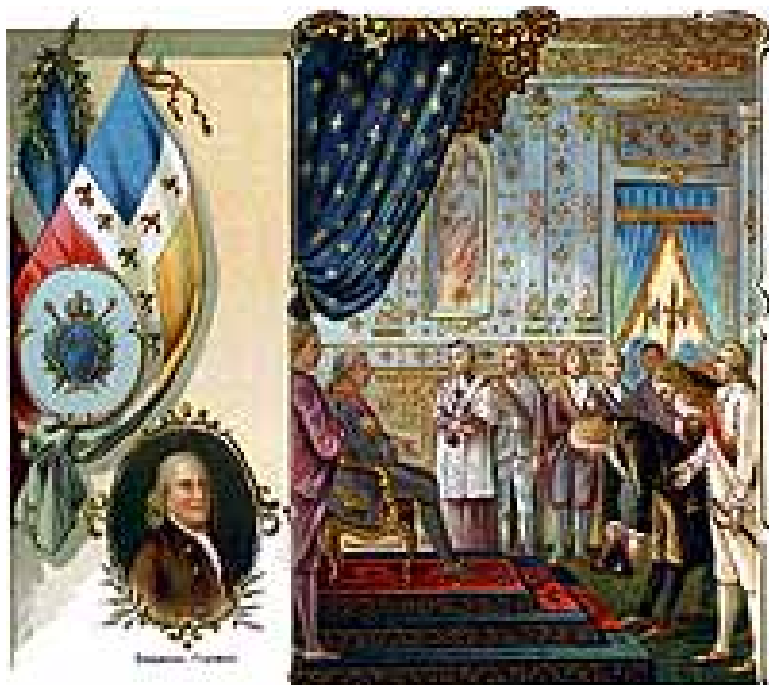


FIGURE 3.54

Thanks to Benjamin Franklin's excellent diplomatic skills, a treaty was quickly signed between France and the United States in 1777, as seen in this picture.

The official attitude of the French government toward the American Revolution in 1776 and 1777 was essentially a recognition of belligerency. This was the case at the fall 1776 arrival of the Continental Congress's official diplomatic mission to Europe led by Benjamin Franklin.

Watchful waiting by French diplomacy came to an end when the news of the surrender of Burgoyne's army at Saratoga reached Paris on December 4, 1777. The American victory caused a reversal of British policy toward the Americans. Lord North's government immediately prepared to send to the America a mission with an offer of peace on the basis of home rule within the Empire — something that the Colonies would have been only too glad to accept in 1775.

Don't Give Peace a Chance



FIGURE 3.55

The French and American armies weren't always on the best of terms. During the siege of Newport, Rhode Island, the French under the Comte d'Estaing were forced to seek shelter in Boston during a severe storm. The Americans were none too happy that the French abandoned their position.

This diplomatic move became known to Vergennes, and he became alarmed that a peace between the parent country and the American rebels might be a real possibility. Two FRANCO-AMERICAN TREATIES were rapidly concluded. The first was a treaty of amity and commerce, which bestowed most-favored nation trading privileges and also contained cooperative maritime provisions.

The second was a treaty of "CONDITIONAL AND DEFENSIVE ALLIANCE." It provided, among other things, that in case war should break out between France and Great Britain as a result of the first treaty, France and America should fight the war together, and neither would make a peace or truce with the enemy without the formal consent of the other. Nor would they "lay down their arms until the Independence of the united states shall have been formally or tacitly assured by the Treaty or Treaties that shall terminate the War."

Excerpts from the Treaty of Alliance

Article 1

If War should break out between France and Great Britain, during the continuance of the present War between the United States and England, his Majesty and the said united States, shall make it a common cause, and aid each other mutually with their good Offices, their Counsels, and their forces, according to the exigence of Conjunctions as becomes good & faithful Allies.

Article 2

The essential and direct End of the present defensive alliance is to maintain effectually the liberty, Sovereignty, and independence absolute and unlimited of the said united States, as well in Matters of Gouvernement as of commerce.

Article 6

The Most Christian King renounces for ever the possession of the Islands of Bermudas as well as of any part of the continent of North America which before the treaty of Paris in 1763. or in virtue of that Treaty, were acknowledged to belong to the Crown of Great Britain, or to the united States heretofore called British Colonies, or which are at this Time or have lately been under the Power of The King and Crown of Great Britain.

Article 7

If his Most Christian Majesty shall think proper to attack any of the Islands situated in the Gulph of Mexico, or near that Gulph, which are at present under the Power of Great Britain, all the said Isles, in case of success, shall appertain to the Crown of France.

Article 12

In order to fix more precisely the sense and application of the preceding article, the Contracting Parties declare, that in case of rupture between France and England, the reciprocal Guarantee declared in the said article shall have its full force and effect the moment such War shall break out and if such rupture shall not take place, the mutual obligations of the said guarantee shall not commence, until the moment of the cessation of the present War between the united states and England shall have ascertained the Possessions.

– Treaty of Alliance (1778)

The American war continued, as France desired. France and Britain drifted into hostilities without a declaration of war when their fleets off USHANT off the northwest coast of France on June 17, 1778. A French expeditionary force arrived in the United States in 1780. As was demonstrated at the Battle of Yorktown, the FRENCH ALLIANCE was decisive for the cause of American independence.

3.34 The French Alliance



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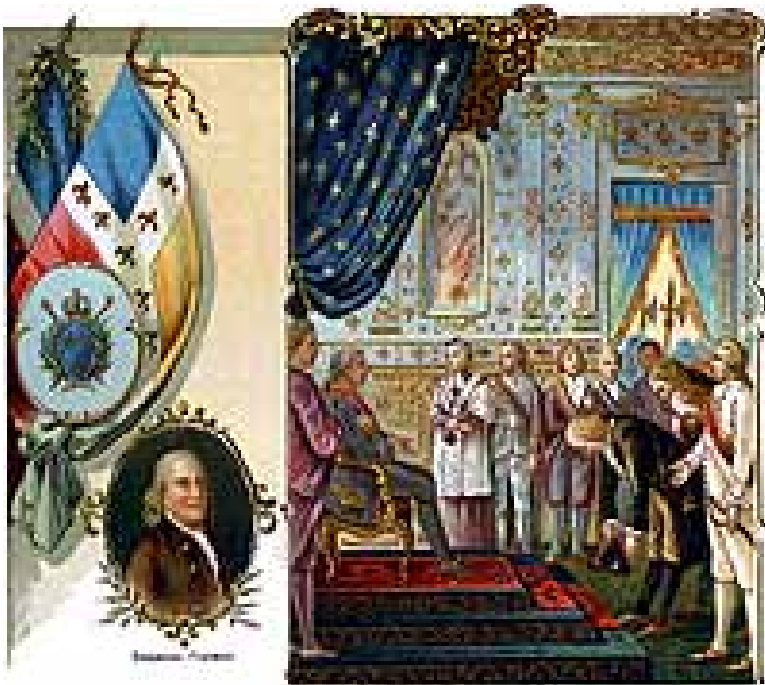


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3.35 Yorktown and the Treaty of Paris

Yorktown and the Treaty of Paris

The outlook for General Washington and the Americans never looked better.

Although the American military was still enduring losses in 1780, the French were making a difference. The French navy was disrupting the British blockade. French commanders such as LAFAYETTE and ROCHAMBEAU earned the respect and admiration of the American troops.

Although, the British occupied much of the south, they had still been unable to mobilize the local Loyalists. Grumbling in England grew louder over the war's expense and duration. The morale of Washington's men was improving. The war was by no means over, but the general could now see a bright side.

The Siege of Yorktown



FIGURE 3.59

The French navy and the Continental Army conceived a daring plan to entrap Cornwallis in Yorktown. The plan worked: Cornwallis surrendered Yorktown, and three weeks later the war was over.

The year 1781 found a large squadron of British troops led by LORD CORNWALLIS at YORKTOWN, Virginia. Cornwallis hoped to keep his men in the Chesapeake town until fresh supplies and reinforcements could arrive from Britain. The French and the Americans conspired to capture the British before that could happen.

A French naval unit led by ADMIRAL DE GRASSE headed north from the West Indies. Washington's army was stationed near New York City at the time. Along with a French unit from Rhode Island, Washington's troops marched over 300 miles south toward Yorktown. Along the way, he staged fake military maneuvers to keep the British off guard.

When Washington reached Virginia, Americans led by Lafayette joined in the siege. The French navy kept the British out of CHESAPEAKE BAY until Cornwallis was forced to surrender his entire unit of nearly 8,000 troops on October 19, 1781. The capture of the troops severely hampered the British war effort

Peace and the Treaty of Paris



FIGURE 3.60

John Trumbull painted *Surrender of Cornwallis* in 1786-87. Although Trumbull did sketch the actual scene of surrender, his painting was not meant to be a literal recording of the event. Instead, he placed Cornwallis between the French and American forces to show their united effort against England.

Despite the American victory, the British military continued to fight. But the Battle of Yorktown turned the British public against the war. The following March, a pro-American Parliament was elected and peace negotiations began in earnest.

Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and JOHN JAY met with the British in the hopes of securing a peace treaty. The Americans played off European rivalries to reach a most favorable agreement.

In the 1783 TREATY OF PARIS the British agreed to recognize American independence as far west as the Mississippi River. Americans agreed to honor debts owed to British merchants from before the war and to stop persecuting British Loyalists.

David had triumphed over Goliath. Independence was achieved at last!

Articles from the Treaty of Paris

Article 1: His Britannic Majesty acknowledges the said United States, viz., New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, to be free sovereign and independent states, that he treats with them as

such, and for himself, his heirs, and successors, relinquishes all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same and every part thereof.

Article 2: And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz.; from the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, viz., that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of St. Croix River to the highlands; along the said highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquy; thence along the middle of said river into Lake Ontario; through the middle of said lake until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of said lake until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron; thence along the middle of said water communication into Lake Huron, thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior northward of the Isles Royal and Phelipeaux to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of said Long Lake and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the said Lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most northwesternmost point thereof, and from thence on a due west course to the river Mississippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of the said river Mississippi until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of north latitude, South, by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of the line last mentioned in the latitude of thirty-one degrees of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachicola or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River, thence straight to the head of Saint Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of Saint Mary's River to the Atlantic Ocean; east, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river Saint Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source, and from its source directly north to the aforesaid highlands which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those which fall into the river Saint Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part and East Florida on the other shall, respectively, touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting such islands as now are or heretofore have been within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia.

Article 3: It is agreed that the people of the United States shall continue to enjoy unmolested the right to take fish of every kind on the Grand Bank and on all the other banks of Newfoundland, also in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence and at all other places in the sea, where the inhabitants of both countries used at any time heretofore to fish. And also that the inhabitants of the United States shall have liberty to take fish of every kind on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen shall use, (but not to dry or cure the same on that island) and also on the coasts, bays and creeks of all other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America; and that the American fishermen shall have liberty to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbors, and creeks of Nova Scotia, Magdalen Islands, and Labrador, so long as the same shall remain unsettled, but so soon as the same or either of them shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish at such settlement without a previous agreement for that purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of the ground.

Article 4: It is agreed that creditors on either side shall meet with no lawful impediment to the recovery of the full value in sterling money of all bona fide debts heretofore contracted.

Article 5: It is agreed that Congress shall earnestly recommend it to the legislatures of the respective states to provide for the restitution of all estates, rights, and properties, which have been confiscated belonging to real British subjects; and also of the estates, rights, and properties of persons resident in districts in the possession on his Majesty's arms and who have not borne arms against the said United States. And that persons of any other description shall have free liberty to go to any part or parts of any of the thirteen United States and therein to remain twelve months unmolested in their endeavors to obtain the restitution of such of their estates, rights, and properties as may have been confiscated; and that Congress shall also earnestly recommend to the several states a reconsideration and revision of all acts or laws regarding the premises, so as to render the said laws or acts perfectly consistent not only with justice and equity but with that spirit of conciliation which on the return of the blessings of peace should universally prevail. And that

Congress shall also earnestly recommend to the several states that the estates, rights, and properties, of such last mentioned persons shall be restored to them, they refunding to any persons who may be now in possession the bona fide price (where any has been given) which such persons may have paid on purchasing any of the said lands, rights, or properties since the confiscation. And it is agreed that all persons who have any interest in confiscated lands, either by debts, marriage settlements, or otherwise, shall meet with no lawful impediment in the prosecution of their just rights.

Article 6: That there shall be no future confiscations made nor any prosecutions commenced against any person or persons for, or by reason of, the part which he or they may have taken in the present war, and that no person shall on that account suffer any future loss or damage, either in his person, liberty, or property; and that those who may be in confinement on such charges at the time of the ratification of the treaty in America shall be immediately set at liberty, and the prosecutions so commenced be discontinued.

Article 7: There shall be a firm and perpetual peace between his Britannic Majesty and the said states, and between the subjects of the one and the citizens of the other, wherefore all hostilities both by sea and land shall from henceforth cease. All prisoners on both sides shall be set at liberty, and his Britannic Majesty shall with all convenient speed, and without causing any destruction, or carrying away any Negroes or other property of the American inhabitants, withdraw all his armies, garrisons, and fleets from the said United States, and from every post, place, and harbor within the same; leaving in all fortifications, the American artillery that may be therein; and shall also order and cause all archives, records, deeds, and papers belonging to any of the said states, or their citizens, which in the course of the war may have fallen into the hands of his officers, to be forthwith restored and delivered to the proper states and persons to whom they belong.

Article 8: The navigation of the river Mississippi, from its source to the ocean, shall forever remain free and open to the subjects of Great Britain and the citizens of the United States.

Article 9: In case it should so happen that any place or territory belonging to Great Britain or to the United States should have been conquered by the arms of either from the other before the arrival of the said Provisional Articles in America, it is agreed that the same shall be restored without difficulty and without requiring any compensation.

Article 10: The solemn ratifications of the present treaty expedited in good and due form shall be exchanged between the contracting parties in the space of six months or sooner, if possible, to be computed from the day of the signatures of the present treaty. In witness whereof we the undersigned, their ministers plenipotentiary, have in their name and in virtue of our full powers, signed with our hands the present definitive treaty and caused the seals of our arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at Paris, this third day of September in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-three.

D. HARTLEY (SEAL) JOHN ADAMS (SEAL) B. FRANKLIN (SEAL) JOHN JAY (SEAL)

– The Treaty of Paris (1783)

3.36 Societal Impacts of the American Revolution

Societal Impacts of the American Revolution



Library of Congress

Freedom of religion was an important issue for the colonists as the Anglican Church was seen as yet another vehicle of oppression by England. In this cartoon, a new Bishop arriving from England is driven away. The angry mob shouts: "No Lords Spiritual or Temporal in New England!"

Liberty, republicanism, and independence are powerful causes. The patriots tenaciously asserted American rights

FIGURE 3.61

and brought the Revolution. The Revolution brought myriad consequences to the American social fabric. There was no REIGN OF TERROR as in the French Revolution. There was no replacement of the ruling class by workers' groups as in revolutionary Russia. How then could the American Revolution be described as radical? Nearly every aspect of American life was somehow touched by the REVOLUTIONARY SPIRIT. From slavery to women's rights, from religious life to voting, American attitudes would be forever changed.

Some changes would be felt immediately. Slavery would not be abolished for another hundred years, but the Revolution saw the dawn of an organized abolitionist movement. English traditions such as land inheritance laws were swept away almost immediately. The Anglican Church in America could no longer survive. After all, the official head of the Church of England was the British monarch. States experimented with republican ideas when drafting their own constitutions during the war. All these major changes would be felt by Americans before the dawn of the nineteenth century.

The American Revolution produced a new outlook among its people that would have ramifications long into the future. Groups excluded from immediate equality such as slaves and women would draw their later inspirations from revolutionary sentiments. Americans began to feel that their fight for liberty was a global fight. Future democracies would model their governments on ours. There are few events that would shake the world order like the success of the American patriotic cause.

3.37 The Impact of Slavery

The Impact of Slavery



FIGURE 3.62

More than 140 slaves lived and worked at Andrew Jackson's Hermitage plantation in Tennessee in the 1840's. Life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness simply did not seem consistent with the practice of chattel slavery. How could a group of people feel so passionate about these unalienable rights, yet maintain the brutal practice of human

bondage? Somehow slavery would manage to survive the revolutionary era, but great changes were brought to this PECULIAR INSTITUTION nevertheless.

The world's first ANTISLAVERY SOCIETY was founded in 1775 by Quakers in Philadelphia, the year the Revolution began. By 1788, at least thirteen of these clubs were known to exist in the American colonies. Some Northern states banned slavery outright, and some provided for the gradual end of slavery. At any rate, the climate of the Revolution made the institution unacceptable in the minds of many Northerners, who did not rely on forced labor as part of the economic system. Northerners did not, however, go as far as to grant equal rights to freed blacks. Nonetheless, this ignited the philosophical debate that would be waged throughout the next century.

Many slaves achieved their freedom during the Revolution without formal EMANCIPATION. The British army, eager to debase the colonial economy, freed many slaves as they moved through the American South. Many slaves in the North were granted their freedom if they agreed to fight for the American cause. Although a clear majority of African Americans remained in bondage, the growth of free black communities in America was greatly fostered by the War for American Independence. Revolutionary sentiments led to the banning of the importation of slaves in 1807.

Slavery did not end overnight in America. Before any meaningful reform could happen, people needed to recognize that the economic benefit was vastly overshadowed by the overwhelming repugnance, immorality, and inhumanity of slavery.

3.38 A Revolution in Social Law

A Revolution in Social Law



FIGURE 3.63

Library of Congress

New Yorkers topple a statue of King George III after hearing a reading of the Declaration of Independence on July 9, 1776.

During the colonial era, Americans were bound by British law. Now, they were no longer governed by the Crown or by colonial charter. INDEPENDENT, Americans could seek to eliminate or maintain laws as they saw fit. The possibilities were endless. REPUBLICAN revolutionary sentiment brought significant change during the immediate postwar years.

Huge changes were made regarding land holding. English law required land to be passed down in its entirety from father to eldest son. This practice was known as PRIMOGENITURE. This kept land concentrated in the hands of few individuals, hardly consistent with revolutionary thinking. Within fifteen years of the Revolution, not a single state had a primogeniture law on the books. The cries of the landless, those who formerly paid QUITRENTS and fees to the Crown, could now be heard. Huge estates of the Loyalists were divided into smaller units. These land seizures were harshest in New England, but existed to some extent throughout the American colonies. The sale of the Penn family estate yielded over a million dollars to the new government. In addition, the Treaty of Paris granted the United States land out to the Mississippi River, which created a great opportunity for land hungry citizens to go west. Despite the fact that much of this land was gobbled up by rich land speculators, the removal of the Loyalists served to be a great social leveler.

The fight for separation of church and state was on. In Virginia, it hardly seemed appropriate to support the Anglican Church of England with tax dollars. The Anglican Church itself broke from its English hierarchy and renamed itself the EPISCOPALIAN CHURCH. Soon they were appointing their own American clergy. Thomas Jefferson helped win the battle for religious freedom in Virginia. The Congregational Puritan churches in New England held on longer; however, by 1833, all states abandoned the practice of a state-supported church. The Revolution had sparked great changes indeed.

3.39 Political Experience

Political Experience



FIGURE 3.64

The Bill of Rights

Every society needs a set of rules by which to operate. After the colonies declared independence from Great Britain, they had to write their own constitutions. Impassioned with the republican spirit of the Revolution, political leaders pointed their ideals toward crafting "enlightened" documents. The result was thirteen republican laboratories, each experimenting with new ways of realizing the goals of the Revolution. In addition, representatives from all the colonies worked together to craft the ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION, which itself provided the nascent nation with invaluable experience.

The state constitutions had much in common with each other. Fearful of a strong monarch, the states were reluctant to grant sweeping powers to a new government. Most GOVERNORS were kept purposefully weak to deter an individual from aspiring to regal status or power. The legislative and judicial branches were elected regularly, so voters could hold them regularly accountable for their actions. Most states granted their people a BILL OF RIGHTS to protect treasured liberties from the threat of future despotism. Property requirements were still maintained, but in many cases they were lowered. Although the wealthy maintained a disproportionately large percentage of legislative seats, their influence was diminished. This is reflected in the post-Revolutionary transfer of state capitals from wealthy seaboard towns to the interior. At least seven states moved their centers of government. The most notable

changes occurred in Pennsylvania, which moved its capital from Philadelphia to Harrisburg, and in New York, which transferred its governing seat from New York City to Albany.

Massachusetts developed an idea that would soon be implemented by the entire nation. They made any changes to their constitution possible only by constitutional convention. This inspired the nation's leaders to ratify changes in the Articles of Confederation the same way. Truly political ideals of equality were set into place in the states before the war even came to a close.

3.40 Women's Roles In Revolution

"Republican Motherhood"



FIGURE 3.65

Gate at Mt. Holyoke College, Massachusetts, founded by Mary Lyon. Lyon, Zilpah Grant, Judith Sargent Murray, and others educated in the years following the Revolution, opened the gates to further education for women.

Women's role in society was altered by the American Revolution. Women who ran households in the absence of men became more assertive. ABIGAIL ADAMS, wife of John, became an early advocate of women's rights when she prompted her husband to "REMEMBER THE LADIES" when drawing up a new government.

Pre-Revolutionary ministers, particularly in Puritan Massachusetts, preached the moral superiority of men. Enlightened thinkers rejected this and knew that a republic could only succeed if its citizens were virtuous and educated. Who were the primary caretakers of American children? American women. If the republic were to succeed, women

must be schooled in virtue so they could teach their children. The first American female academies were founded in the 1790s. This idea of an educated woman became known as "REPUBLICAN MOTHERHOOD."

As in the case of the abolition of slavery, changes for women would not come overnight. But the American Revolution ignited these changes. Education and respect would lead to the emergence of a powerful, outspoken middle class of women. By the mid nineteenth century, the SENECA FALLS DECLARATION on the rights of women slightly alters Thomas Jefferson's words by saying: "We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men and *women* are created equal..."

3.41 When Does the Revolution End?

When Does the Revolution End?



FIGURE 3.66

This scene, from the frieze in the rotunda of the U.S. capitol building, depicts British Major Pitcairn on a horse, backed by British soldiers at the Battle of Lexington. This engagement is considered the beginning of the Revolutionary War, with "the shot heard round the world."

The United States was created as a result of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION, when thirteen colonies on the east coast of North America fought to end their membership in the British Empire. This was a bold, dangerous, and even foolish thing to do at the time, since Great Britain was the strongest country in the world. While American success in the Revolution seems obvious today, it wasn't at the time.

The war for American independence began with military conflict in 1775 and lasted at least until 1783 when the peace treaty with the British was signed. In fact, Native Americans in the west (who were allied with the British, but not included in the 1783 negotiations) continued to fight and didn't sign a treaty with the United States until 1795. The Revolution was a long, hard, and difficult struggle.

One Nation, Many Revolutions



FIGURE 3.67

The Declaration of Independence, authored by Thomas Jefferson and adopted by the Second Continental Congress on July 4, 1776, begins with arguably one of the most important statements in U.S. history.

Even among Patriots there was a wide range of opinion about how the Revolution should shape the new nation. For example, soldiers often resented civilians for not sharing the deep personal sacrifice of fighting the war. Even among the men who fought, major differences often separated officers from ordinary soldiers. Finally, no consideration of the Revolution would be complete without considering the experience of people who were not Patriots. Loyalists were Americans who remained loyal to the British Empire. Almost all Native American groups opposed American Independence. Slaves would be made legally free if they fled Patriot masters to join the British Army, which they did in large numbers. This section reviews diverse Revolutionary experiences that helped shape the nation in different ways.

A constant question for our exploration, as well as for people at the time, is what does the Revolution mean and when did it end? Have the ideals of the Revolution been achieved even today? One of our challenges is to consider the meaning of the Revolution from multiple perspectives.

3.42 The Loyalists

The Loyalists



FIGURE 3.68

Thomas Hutchinson, a Supreme Court justice in Massachusetts, was the most hated man in America before Benedict Arnold, and was hung in effigy many times for being a loyalist.

The year is 1774. Whether you are a merchant in Massachusetts, a German-born farmer living in Pennsylvania, a

tavern-owning woman of Maryland, or a slave-owner in the South, you share some things in common. For instance, you probably don't like paying taxes on such goods as tea that wind up going to support the royal coffers in London. At the same time you like the notion of being part of the British Empire, the most powerful in the world.

Chances are you speak English and have many British relatives or ancestors. Or, even if you're a German farmer with no ties to Britain, you are still grateful for the opportunity to farm peacefully in this British-ruled land. Yet, you hear murmurings — radical notions about separating from Britain are making the rounds. Those hotheads in Boston recently threw a load of tea in the harbor and the British retaliated with something called the INTOLERABLE ACTS. A confrontation is looming.

Who will you support? The radical Americans or the British? Fact is, it's not an easy decision. Not only will your way of life be drastically affected, but whomever you choose to side with will make you instant enemies.



FIGURE 3.69

Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia at the start of the Revolutionary War, offered freedom to enslaved Africans and Indians for joining the British Army.

Any full assessment of the American Revolution must try to understand the place of LOYALISTS, those Americans

who remained faithful to the British Empire during the war.

Although Loyalists were steadfast in their commitment to remain within the British Empire, it was a very hard decision to make and to stick to during the Revolution. Even before the war started, a group of Philadelphia QUAKERS were arrested and imprisoned in Virginia because of their *perceived* support of the British. The Patriots were not a tolerant group, and Loyalists suffered regular harassment, had their property seized, or were subject to personal attacks.

The process of "TAR AND FEATHERING," for example, was brutally violent. Stripped of clothes, covered with hot tar, and splattered with feathers, the victim was then forced to parade about in public. Unless the British Army was close at hand to protect Loyalists, they often suffered bad treatment from Patriots and often had to flee their own homes. About one-in-six Americans was an active Loyalist during the Revolution, and that number undoubtedly would have been higher if the Patriots hadn't been so successful in threatening and punishing people who made their Loyalist sympathies known in public.

One famous Loyalist is THOMAS HUTCHINSON, a leading Boston merchant from an old American family, who served as governor of Massachusetts. Viewed as pro-British by some citizens of Boston, Hutchinson's house was burned in 1765 by an angry crowd protesting the Crown's policies. In 1774, Hutchinson left America for London where he died in 1780 and always felt exiled from his American homeland. One of his letters suggested his sad end, for he, "had rather die in a little country farm-house in New England than in the best nobleman's seat in old England." Like his ancestor, ANNE HUTCHINSON who suffered religious persecution from Puritan authorities in the early 17th-century, the Hutchinson family suffered severe punishment for holding beliefs that other Americans rejected.



FIGURE 3.70

American patriots used tar and feathering to intimidate British tax collectors.

Perhaps the most interesting group of Loyalists were enslaved African-Americans who chose to join the British. The British promised to LIBERATE slaves who fled from their Patriot masters. This powerful incentive, and the opportunities opened by the chaos of war, led some 50,000 slaves (about 10 percent of the total slave population in the 1770s) to flee their Patriot masters. When the war ended, the British evacuated 20,000 formerly enslaved African Americans and resettled them as free people.

Along with this group of black Loyalists, about 80,000 other Loyalists chose to leave the independent United States after the Patriot victory in order to remain members of the British Empire. Wealthy men like Thomas Hutchinson who had the resources went to London. But most ordinary Loyalists went to Canada where they would come to play a large role in the development of Canadian society and government. In this way, the American Revolution played a central role shaping the future of two North American countries.

3.43 Revolutionary Changes and Limitations: Slavery

Revolutionary Changes and Limitations: Slavery



FIGURE 3.71

Born into slavery in 1760, Richard Allen purchased his own freedom for \$2000 at the age of 20. He became a devoted Methodist preacher and founded the Mother Bethel African Methodist Episcopal Church in 1794.

The AMERICAN REVOLUTION, as an anti-tax movement, centered on Americans' right to control their own property. In the 18th century "property" included other human beings.

In many ways, the Revolution reinforced American commitment to slavery. On the other hand, the Revolution also hinged on radical new ideas about "liberty" and "equality," which challenged slavery's long tradition of extreme human inequality. The changes to slavery in the REVOLUTIONARY ERA revealed both the potential for radical change and its failure more clearly than any other issue.

SLAVERY was a central institution in American society during the late-18th century, and was accepted as normal and applauded as a positive thing by many white Americans. However, this broad acceptance of slavery (which was never agreed to by black Americans) began to be challenged in the Revolutionary Era. The challenge came from several sources, partly from Revolutionary ideals, partly from a new evangelical religious commitment that stressed the equality of all Christians, and partly from a decline in the profitability of TOBACCO in the most significant slave region of Virginia and adjoining states.

The decline of slavery in the period was most noticeable in the states north of Delaware, all of which passed laws outlawing slavery quite soon after the end of the war. However, these gradual emancipation laws were very slow to take effect — many of them only freed the children of current slaves, and even then, only when the children turned 25 years old. Although laws prohibited slavery in the North, the "PECULIAR INSTITUTION" persisted well into the 19th century.



FIGURE 3.72

James Forten was a noted Philadelphia businessman and abolitionist.

Even in the South, there was a significant movement toward freeing some slaves. In states where tobacco production no longer demanded large numbers of slaves, the free black population grew rapidly. By 1810 one third of the

African American population in Maryland was free, and in Delaware free blacks outnumbered enslaved African Americans by three to one. Even in the powerful slave state of Virginia, the free black population grew more rapidly than ever before in the 1780s and 1790s. This major new free black population created a range of public institutions for themselves that usually used the word "African" to announce their distinctive pride and insistence on equality.



FIGURE 3.73

Richard Allen founded the African Methodist Episcopal Church.

The most famous of these new institutions was RICHARD ALLEN's AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH founded in Philadelphia.

Although the rise of the free black population is one of the most notable achievements of the Revolutionary Era, it is crucial to note that the overall impact of the Revolution on slavery also had negative consequences. In rice-growing regions of South Carolina and Georgia, the Patriot victory confirmed the power of the master class. Doubts about slavery and legal modifications that occurred in the North and Upper South, never took serious hold among whites in the Lower South. Even in Virginia, the move toward freeing some slaves was made more difficult by new legal restrictions in 1792. In the North, where slavery was on its way out, racism still persisted, as in a Massachusetts law of 1786 that prohibited whites from legally marrying African Americans, Indians, or people of mixed race. The Revolution clearly had a mixed impact on slavery and contradictory meanings for African Americans.

3.44 The War Experience: Soldiers, Officers, and Civilians

The War Experience: Soldiers, Officers, and Civilians



FIGURE 3.74

Before they could fight for independence, harsh winters during the Revolutionary War forced the Continental Army to fight for their very survival.

Americans remember the famous battles of the American Revolution such as BUNKER HILL, SARATOGA, and Yorktown, in part, because they were Patriot victories. But this apparent string of successes is misleading.

The Patriots lost more battles than they won and, like any war, the Revolution was filled with hard times, loss of life, and suffering. In fact, the Revolution had one of the highest casualty rates of any U.S. war; only the Civil War was bloodier.



FIGURE 3.75

A battle flag carried by Revolutionary War soldiers. The banner reads "Resistance to Tyrants is Obedience to God."

In the early days of 1776, most Americans were naïve when assessing just how difficult the war would be. Great initial enthusiasm led many men to join local militias where they often served under officers of their own choosing. Yet, these volunteer forces were not strong enough to defeat the BRITISH ARMY, which was the most highly trained and best equipped in the world. Furthermore, because most men preferred serving in the militia, the Continental Congress had trouble getting volunteers for General George Washington's CONTINENTAL ARMY. This was in part because, the Continental Army demanded longer terms and harsher discipline.

Washington correctly insisted on having a regular army as essential to any chance for victory. After a number of bad militia losses in battle, the Congress gradually developed a stricter military policy. It required each state to provide a larger quota of men, who would serve for longer terms, but who would be compensated by a signing bonus and the promise of free land after the war. This policy aimed to fill the ranks of the Continental Army, but was never fully successful. While the Congress authorized an army of 75,000, at its peak Washington's main force never had more than 18,000 men. The terms of service were such that only men with relatively few other options chose to join the Continental Army.

Part of the difficulty in raising a large and permanent fighting force was that many Americans feared the army as a threat to the liberty of the new republic. The ideals of the Revolution suggested that the MILITIA, made up of local Patriotic volunteers, should be enough to win in a good cause against a corrupt enemy. Beyond this idealistic opposition to the army, there were also more pragmatic difficulties. If a wartime army camped near private homes, they often seized food and personal property. Exacerbating the situation was Congress inability to pay, feed, and equip the army.



FIGURE 3.76

When British General John Burgoyne surrendered to the Patriots at Saratoga on October 7, 1777 (illustrated above), colonists believed it would be proof enough to the French that American independence could be won. Benjamin Franklin immediately spread word to Louis XVI in hopes the king would offer support for the cause.

As a result, soldiers often resented civilians whom they saw as not sharing equally in the sacrifices of the Revolution. Several MUTINIES occurred toward the end of the war, with ordinary soldiers protesting their lack of pay and poor conditions. Not only were soldiers angry, but officers also felt that the country did not treat them well. Patriotic civilians and the Congress expected officers, who were mostly elite gentlemen, to be honorably self-sacrificing in their wartime service. When officers were denied a lifetime pension at the end of the war, some of them threatened to conspire against the Congress. General Washington, however, acted swiftly to halt this threat before it was put into action.

The Continental Army defeated the British, with the crucial help of French financial and military support, but the war ended with very mixed feelings about the usefulness of the army. Not only were civilians and those serving in the military mutually suspicious, but also even within the army soldiers and officers could harbor deep grudges against one another. The war against the British ended with the PATRIOT military victory at YORKTOWN in 1781. However, the meaning and consequences of the Revolution had not yet been decided.

3.45 American Revolution Journal

Teks for this Chapter

8.1A Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including colonization, revolution, drafting of the Declaration of Independence.

Readiness Standard

- American Independence
 - Proclamation of 1763
 - Acts (Sugar, Townshend, Intolerable)
 - Boston Tea Party
 - Taxation without Representation
 - Unalienable rights
 - First Continental Congress 1774
 - Battles of Lexington and Concord, Saratoga, Yorktown, Valley Forge
 - Publication of Thomas Paine’s Common Sense
 - Second Continental Congress 1776
 - Declaration of Independence
 - Articles of Confederation
 - Treaty of Paris 1783

8.1B Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

Supporting Standard

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

Chapter Outline

- 4.1 CONSTITUTION VOCBULARY
 - 4.2 CONSTITUTION OUTLINE
 - 4.3 IMPORTANT PEOPLE CONSTITUTION
 - 4.4 COMPARING IMPORTANT DOCUMENTS
 - 4.5 MAKING RULES
 - 4.6 STATE CONSTITUTIONS
 - 4.7 EVALUATING THE CONGRESS
 - 4.8 EVALUATING THE CONGRESS
 - 4.9 CREATING ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION
 - 4.10 ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION
 - 4.11 THE ECONOMIC CRISIS OF THE 1780S
 - 4.12 SHAYS' REBELLION
 - 4.13 SHAYS' REBELLION
 - 4.14 DRAFTING THE CONSTITUTION
 - 4.15 PHILADELPHIA CONVENTION: CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION
 - 4.16 A CAST OF NATIONAL SUPERSTARS
 - 4.17 VIRGINIA PLAN: LARGE STATE PLAN
 - 4.18 NEW JERSEY PLAN: SMALL STATE PLAN
 - 4.19 CONSTITUTION THROUGH COMPROMISE
 - 4.20 THE GREAT COMPROMISE
 - 4.21 BILL OF RIGHTS OUTLINE
 - 4.22 FEDERALIST VS ANTI-FEDERALIST 1787
 - 4.23 THE ANTI-FEDERALISTS' VICTORY IN DEFEAT
 - 4.24 AFTER THE FACT: VIRGINIA, NEW YORK, AND "THE FEDERALIST PAPERS"
 - 4.25 CONSTITUTION JOURNAL
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Political institutions establish structures to organize power and govern people.

- Who most influences the structure of political institutions?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:**Questions for this Unit:**

The weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation led the Constitutional Framers to write a new U.S. Constitution based on a series of compromises.

- Why did the Constitutional Framers come to believe it was necessary to create a new constitution?
- What issues of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 were resolved by compromises?
- What compromises were eventually reached at the convention?

Debate over ratification of the U.S. Constitution arose between Federalists and Anti-federalists.

- What arguments divided the Federalists and Anti-federalists?
- Who were the prominent Federalists and Anti-federalists?
- Do opposing political parties serve as a “check” on government power?

The U.S. Constitution limits government power.

- In what ways does the U.S. Constitution reflect principles of constitutional democracy including limited government, republicanism, checks and balances, federalism, separation of powers, popular sovereignty, and individual rights?
- How were the grievances of the American colonists addressed in the U.S. Constitution?

The U.S. Constitution protects the rights of Americans.

- How is the U.S. Constitution amended?
- What rights are guaranteed in the U.S. Constitution?

4.1 Constitution Vocabulary

Constitution Vocabulary

1. **Preamble:** is a brief [introductory statement](#) of the [Constitution's](#) fundamental purposes and guiding principles
2. **Federalism:** a system in which power is divided between the national and state governments
3. **Ratify-** to approve
4. **Republicanism:** system of government in which the people have the right to vote for their representatives
5. **Separation of power:** the division of power among the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government
6. **Checks and balances:** A system that allows each branch of government to limit the powers of the other branches in order to prevent abuse of power
7. **Popular Sovereignty :** power lies with the people; "We the People
8. **Limited government:** Limits the power of government
9. **Federalist:** supporters of the stronger central govt. who advocated the ratification of the new constitution
10. **Amendment:** is a formal or official change made to a [law](#) , [contract](#) , [constitution](#) , or other [legal document](#)
11. **Anti-Federalists:** those who opposed ratification of the Constitution; wanted to add a Bill of Rights to protect all citizens
12. **Bill of Rights:** The first ten amendments of the U.S. Constitution, containing a list of individual rights and liberties, such as freedom of speech, religion, and the press.
13. **3. Strict Constructionist:** One who follows the constitution strictly by what it is stated.
14. **Loose Constructionist:** interpretation Belief that the Constitution is flexible
15. **Federalist Papers:**a series of 85 articles and essays written by [Alexander Hamilton](#) , [James Madison](#) , and [JohnJay](#) promoting the [ratification](#) of the [United States Constitution](#) .
16. **6. Legislative branch:** makes laws
17. **Executive branch:** the branch of government that carries out/enforces laws
18. **Judicial Branch:** Judges and courts
19. **9. Judicial Review:** the right of the supreme court to determine if a law violates the Constitution
20. **0. Shays' Rebellion:** was an [armed uprising](#) that took place in [Massachusetts](#) , it helped lead to the creation of the Constitution, because the Articles were weak.
21. **1. Delegates:** a person sent or authorized to represent others
22. **b>22. Virginia Plan: Large State plan based on population**
23. **New Jersey Plan: Small State plan Based on equal Number of Representatives**

Constitution Vocabulary

1. **Preamble:** is a brief [introductory statement](#) of the [Constitution's](#) fundamental purposes and guiding principles
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19. 9. **Judicial Review:** the right of the supreme court to determine if a law violates the Constitution
20. 0. **Shays' Rebellion:** was an [armed uprising](#) that took place in [Massachusetts](#) , it helped lead to the creation of the Constitution, because the Articles were weak.
21. 1. **Delegates:** a person sent or authorized to represent others
22. b>22. **Virginia Plan: Large State plan based on population**
23. **New Jersey Plan: Small State plan Based on equal Number of Representatives**

4.2 Constitution Outline

Establishing a New Government, 1777 to 1788

1. What is Government?
 1. Executive
 2. Legislative
 3. Judicial

1. Articles of Confederation 1776, 1777 4C, 15B
 1. Weaknesses 15B
 1. No executive
 2. No national court system
 3. No taxing power
 4. One state, one vote **15B**
 5. (Shays Rebellion)
 2. Accomplishments 15B
 1. Treaty of Paris 1783
 2. Land Ordinance of 1785
 3. Northwest Ordinance 6A
 0. Provided for admitting new states
 0. Religious freedom
 0. Trial by jury
 0. Free public education

1. US Constitution 1A, 1C
 1. Constitutional Convention 4D
 1. Great compromise **4D**
 2. Three-Fifths Compromise 4D
 3. Commerce compromise
 2. Preamble - form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for common defense, promote general welfare, secure blessings and liberty.
 3. Principles – Limited Government 15D
 1. Federalism 15D, **17A**
 2. Republican Government 15D
 3. Checks and Balances **15C**. 15D
 4. Separation of Powers 15D
 5. Popular sovereignty 15D
 6. Individual Rights **15D**
 7. Provisions for Change 15D, **16A**
 4. Ratification Debate 4E, 15A, 17A

1. Federalists
 0. Federalist Papers **15A**
 0. Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, John Jay 17A
2. Antifederalists 15A. 4E
 0. Feared strong Government **4E**
 0. Bill of Rights **4E**
 0. Patrick Henry, George Mason **17A**

4.3 Important People Constitution

Alexander Hamilton •ENERGETIC, POOR, AND CHARMING Hamilton was Washington’s secretary and influential leader to write the federalist papers and lead the federalist party. •Was killed in a duel vs. Aaron Burr GEORGE WASHINGTON

22 years old during French and Indian war (1753)

Commander and chief of the continental army (1775)

Valley forge 1777-1778

Became 1st president

Whiskey rebellion

Washington’s farewell address (1796)

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN •Owner of print shop/newspaper called Pennsylvania gazette poor Richards almanac

“a penny saved is a penny earned” and Albany plan of union •Gained Frances support to help the 13 colonies in the fight for independence •Founding father •Had 16 brothers and sisters •inventor

JAMES MADISON

•Father of the u.s. constitution •High school in san Antonio named after him/ supreme court justice •Took notes of the constitutional convention in Philadelphia if he never took these notes we would never know what went on in the convention 1787. •One of 3 authors of the federalist papers (argued that the constitution had protections to prevent the rise of tyranny- the unjust use of government power. A ruler who uses power in this way is called a tyrant)

JOHN JAY

•one of 3 authors of the federalist papers which argued that the constitution had protections to prevent the rise of tyranny (due to the colonist fears that a strong government would threaten their freedom) •High school in san Antonio named after him/ supreme court justice

PATRICK HENRY

•Protested the Stamp act that taxed colonists on newspapers, pamphlets and other documents that had been printed on paper with an official stamp •Urged the colonist to unite as Americans •“Give me liberty or give me death” – Virginia house of burgesses

THOMAS JEFFERSON

•Main author of the declaration of independence •Founding father •3RD PRESIDENT OF THE U.S.A. •In 1803, he PURCHASED THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE FOR 15 MILLION DOLLARS (WHICH DOUBLED THE SIZE OF AMERICA)

GEORGE MASON •A delegate from Virginia •Father of the bill of rights (which is included in the constitution)

SAMUEL ADAMS

•A journalist and politician in Boston •Organized protests against the sugar act •FOUNDER OF THE SONS OF LIBERTY, which was a group that protested against the new taxes imposed by the British government

Important

4.4 Comparing Important Documents

4.5 Making Rules

Making Rules



FIGURE 4.1

The Stamp Act ended up being a major catalyst toward the American colonies organizing an active resistance to British rule. The Continental Congress was the first political manifestation of the proto-nation.

The American Revolution began the process of creating a new nation in a number of different ways; by protesting British rule through legal and extra-legal actions; by waging a war to end America's status as a colonized territory; and by designing new forms of government for what Patriots hoped would become independent states.

The process of making new rules was crucial to the Revolutionary struggle. Many scholars think it was the most distinctive and most important aspect of the Revolution. Making new rules and new organizations of government began very early in the resistance movement. In fact, the development of new political organizations preceded the war and played a central role in making the Revolution happen when and how it did. New groups calling themselves SONS OF LIBERTY and the STAMP ACT CONGRESS met in 1765; COMMITTEES OF CORRESPONDENCE to share information about the resistance movement were formed in 1772, and the Continental Congress first met in 1774.



FIGURE 4.2

The struggle and solidarity of the Continental Army is illustrated in this H. Charles McBarron, Jr. painting, *The Battle of Guilford Court House*, March 15, 1781.

The FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS that met in Philadelphia was a bold, new, all-colony assembly that drew leaders from all of the 13 colonies except Georgia. As its name suggests, its purpose was to act on a continental scale. Perhaps its most important early action was to call for an economic attack against Britain through a unified boycott of British goods. To enforce this colony-wide program the Congress called for the formation of local political bodies in every town that were called COMMITTEES OF SAFETY AND INSPECTION. The British government was outraged by these new American rules and declared the Continental Congress an illegal organization. The period of negotiation between Britain and America seemed to have come to an end.



FIGURE 4.3

As the Continental Congress had not specified what flag their naval vessels should fly, captains were left to their own devices. A rattlesnake with 13 rattles was a popular choice.

When the Continental Congress met for the second time in 1775, the situation had gotten much worse because fighting had erupted the previous month in CONCORD and LEXINGTON. Although the war had begun and the Congress had organized the Continental Army, the colonies had not declared their independence and many leaders in Congress still hoped to reconcile with Britain. The crucial turn toward creating new rules for new governments separate from the British Empire would not come for another year, but would happen before the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776.

On May 10, 1776, the Continental Congress directed the colonies to suppress royal authority and to create institutions based on popular rule. As a result, the crucial Revolutionary act of creating new governments received its earliest attention at the state level where the former colonies began to make new rules for themselves.

v

4.6 State Constitutions

State Constitutions



FIGURE 4.4

James Wilson signed the Declaration of Independence and was the Advocate General for France in America from 1779 to 1783.

The states now faced serious and complicated questions about how to make their rules. What did it mean to replace royal authority with institutions based on popular rule? How was "POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY" (the idea that the people were the highest authority) to be institutionalized in the new state governments? For that matter, who were "the people"?

Every state chose to answer these questions in different ways based on distinctive local experiences, but in most cases colonial traditions were continued, but modified, so that the GOVERNOR (the executive) lost significant power, while the ASSEMBLIES (the legislative branch, which represented the people most directly) became much more important. We'll focus on the new rules created in three states to suggest the range of answers to the question about how to organize republican governments based upon popular rule.



FIGURE 4.5

John Adams remarked that the Pennsylvania constitution of 1776 was "so democratical that it must produce confusion and every evil work." He would be elected to the Presidency in 1796.

Pennsylvania created the most radical state constitution of the period. Following the idea of popular rule to its logical conclusion, Pennsylvania created a state government with several distinctive features. First, the PENNSYLVANIA CONSTITUTION OF 1776 abolished PROPERTY REQUIREMENTS for voting as well as for holding office. If you were an adult man who paid taxes, then you were allowed to vote or even to run for office. This was a dramatic expansion of who was considered a political person, but other aspects of the new state government were even more radical. Pennsylvania also became a "UNICAMERAL" government where the legislature only had one body. Furthermore, the office of the governor was entirely eliminated. Radicals in Pennsylvania observed that the governor was really just like a small-scale king and that an upper legislative body (like the House of Lords in Parliament) was supposed to represent wealthy men and aristocrats. Rather than continue those forms of government, the Pennsylvania constitution decided that "the people" could rule most effectively through a single body with complete legislative power.

Many conservative Patriots met Pennsylvania's new design with horror. When John Adams described the Pennsylvania constitution, he only had bad things to say. To him it was "so democratical that it must produce confusion and every evil work." Clearly, popular rule did not mean sweeping democratic changes to all Patriots.

SOUTH CAROLINA'S STATE CONSTITUTION of 1778 created new rules at the opposite end of the political spectrum from Pennsylvania. In South Carolina, white men had to possess a significant amount of property to vote,

and they had to own even more property to be allowed to run for political office. In fact, these property requirements were so high that 90 percent of all white adults were prevented from running for political office!



FIGURE 4.6

John Rutledge served as both South Carolina's president and governor. The state's original constitution, drafted in 1776, called for the election of a state president. But changes made to the document in 1778 saw the state's chief executive become known as "governor."

This dramatic limitation of who could be an elected political leader reflected a central tradition of 18th-century Anglo-American political thought. Only individuals who were financially independent were believed to have the self-control to make responsible and reasonable judgments about public matters. As a result poor white men, all women, children, and African Americans (whether free or slave) were considered too dependent on others to exercise reliable political judgment. While most of these traditional exclusions from political participation have been ended in America today, age limitations remain, largely unchallenged.

The creation of the MASSACHUSETTS STATE CONSTITUTION of 1780 offered yet another way to answer some of the questions about the role of "the people" in creating a republican government. When the state legislature presented the voters with a proposed constitution in 1778, it was rejected because the people thought that this was too important an issue for the government to present to the people. If the government could make its own rules, then it could change them whenever it wanted and easily take away peoples' liberties. Following through on this logic, Massachusetts held a special convention in 1780 where specially elected representatives met to decide on the best

framework for the new state government.

This idea of a special convention of the people to decide important constitutional issues was part of a new way of thinking about popular rule that would play a central role in the ratification of the national Constitution in 1787-1788.

4.7 Evaluating the Congress

Evaluating the Congress



FIGURE 4.7

The town of Marietta, Ohio, was one of the first settlements in the Northwest Territory.

The central failure of the Congress was related to its limited FISCAL POWER. Because it could not impose taxes on the states, the national government's authority and effectiveness was severely limited. Given this major encumbrance, the accomplishments of the Congress were quite impressive. First of all, it raised the Continental Army, kept it in the field, and managed to finance the war effort.

Diplomatic efforts helped the war effort too. Military and financial support from France secured by Congress helped the Americans immeasurably. The diplomatic success of the treaty of alliance with France in 1778 was unquestionably a major turning point in the war. Similarly, the success of Congress' diplomatic envoys to the peace treaty ending the war also secured major — and largely unexpected — concessions from the British in 1783. The treaty won Americans' fishing rights in rich Atlantic waters that the British navy could have controlled. Most importantly, Britain granted all its western lands south of the Great Lakes to the new United States.



FIGURE 4.8

After the colonies and France signed treaties of alliance and commerce in 1786, King Louis XVI helped fund the revolutionary war effort.

While granted the western lands from the British, actual ownership of this land and how to best settle it was enormously controversial. Although states had ceded their own claim to western land to the national government as part of their ratification of the Articles of Confederation, this threatened to reemerge as a postwar problem. Many Americans had ignored legal restrictions on western settlement and simply struck out for new land that they claimed as their own by right of occupation. How could a national Congress with limited financial resources and no coercive power deal with this complex problem?

The Congressional solution was a remarkable act of statesmanship that tackled several problems and did so in a fair manner. The Congress succeeded in asserting its ownership of the western lands and used the profits from their sale to pay the enormous expenses associated with settlement (construction of roads, military protection, etc.). Second, the Congress established a process for future states in this new area to join the Confederation on terms fully equal to the original thirteen members. The new states would be SOVEREIGN and not suffer secondary colonial status.



FIGURE 4.9

When artist Benjamin West began this work of the delegates to the Treaty of Paris, he started by painting the members of the American delegation (shown). West planned to complete it by including the British delegates, but the British men refused to pose and the painting was never finished.

The actual process by which Congress took control of the area of western lands north of the Ohio River indicated some of its most impressive actions. Three laws regarding the settlement of this NORTHWEST TERRITORY established an ADMISSION POLICY to the United States based on population, organized the settlement of the territory on an orderly rectangular grid pattern that helped make LEGAL TITLE more secure, and prohibited the expansion of slavery to this large region which would eventually include the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

The resolution of a potentially crisis-filled western land policy was perhaps the most outstanding accomplishment of the first national government. A political process for adding new states as equals was created. A partial solution to the national revenue crisis was found. Together these policies fashioned a mechanism for the United States to be a dynamic and expanding society. Most remarkably of all, Congressional western policy put into practice some of the highest Revolutionary ideals that often went unheeded. By forbidding slavery in the Northwest as an inappropriate institution for the future of the United States, the Congress' achievements should be considered quite honorable. At the same time, however, there were people whose rights were infringed upon by this same western policy. The control of land settlement by the central government favored wealthy large-scale land developers over small-scale family farmers of ordinary means. Furthermore, Native Americans' claim to a western region still largely unsettled by whites was largely ignored.

Like the contradictory elements of the Revolution, the record of first national government includes achievements and failures, and these two qualities often could be found intertwined within the very same issue.

4.8 Evaluating the Congress



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4.9 Creating Articles of Confederation

4.10 Articles of Confederation



FIGURE 4.13

The paper money issued by the Continental Congress was known as "Continental." Not backed by silver or gold, the currency did not retain its value, and the saying "not worth a Continental" took root.

While the state constitutions were being created, the Continental Congress continued to meet as a general political body. Despite being the central government, it was a loose confederation and most significant power was held by the individual states. By 1777 members of Congress realized that they should have some clearly written rules for how they were organized. As a result the ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION were drafted and passed by the Congress in November.

This first national "constitution" for the United States was not particularly innovative, and mostly put into written form how the Congress had operated since 1775.

Even though the Articles were rather modest in their proposals, they would not be ratified by all the states until 1781. Even this was accomplished largely because the dangers of war demanded greater cooperation.

The purpose of the central government was clearly stated in the Articles. The Congress had control over diplomacy, printing money, resolving controversies between different states, and, most importantly, coordinating the war effort. The most important action of the Continental Congress was probably the creation and maintenance of the Continental Army. Even in this area, however, the central government's power was quite limited. While Congress could call on

states to contribute specific resources and numbers of men for the army, it was not allowed to force states to obey the central government's request for aid.



FIGURE 4.14

Revolutions need strong leaders and willing citizens to succeed, but they also need money. By curbing inflation and stabilizing the early economy, Robert Morris helped ensure the success of the American Revolution.

The organization of CONGRESS itself demonstrates the primacy of state power. Each state had one vote. Nine out of thirteen states had to support a law for it to be enacted. Furthermore, any changes to the Articles themselves would require unanimous agreement. In the ONE-STATE, ONE-VOTE RULE, state sovereignty was given a primary place even within the national government. Furthermore, the whole national government consisted entirely of the unicameral (one body) Congress with no executive and no judicial organizations.

The national Congress' limited power was especially clear when it came to money issues. Not surprisingly, given that the Revolution's causes had centered on opposition to unfair taxes, the central government had no power to raise its own revenues through taxation. All it could do was request that the states give it the money necessary to run the government and wage the war. By 1780, with the outcome of the war still very much undecided, the central government had run out of money and was BANKRUPT! As a result the paper money it issued was basically worthless.

ROBERT MORRIS, who became the Congress' superintendent of finance in 1781, forged a solution to this dire dilemma. Morris expanded existing government power and secured special privileges for the BANK OF NORTH AMERICA in an attempt to stabilize the value of the paper money issued by the Congress. His actions went beyond the limited powers granted to the national government by the Articles of Confederation, but he succeeded in limiting runaway INFLATION and resurrecting the fiscal stability of the national government.

Articles of Confederation



FIGURE 4.15

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4.11 The Economic Crisis of the 1780s

The Economic Crisis of the 1780s

The economic problems faced by the Congress deeply touched the lives of most Americans in the 1780s. The war had disrupted much of the American economy. On the high seas the BRITISH NAVY had great superiority and destroyed most American ships, crippling the flow of trade. On land, where both armies regularly stole from local farms in order to find food, farmers suffered tremendously.

When the fighting came to an end in 1781, the economy was in a shambles. Exports to Britain were restricted. Further, British law prohibited trade with Britain's remaining SUGAR COLONIES in the Caribbean. Thus, two major sources of colonial-era commerce were eliminated. A flood of cheap British manufactured imports that sold cheaper than comparable American-made goods made the post-war economic slump worse. Finally, the high level of debt taken on by the states to fund the war effort added to the ECONOMIC CRISIS by helping to fuel rapid inflation.



FIGURE 4.17

There were 32 cannons on the lower gundeck of Her Majesty's Ship *Victory*, each attended by a 6-man crew. The War of American Independence (as the British call it) was the ship's first wartime assignment.

This economic crisis was a grave threat to individuals, as well as to the stability and future of the young republic. Independence had been declared and the war had made that a reality, but now the new republican governments, at both the state and national level, had to make difficult decisions about how to respond to serious economic problems. Most state legislatures passed laws to help ordinary farmers deal with their high level of debt. Repayment terms were extended and imprisonment for debt was somewhat relaxed.

However, the range of favorable debtor laws passed by the state legislatures in the 1780s outraged those who expected to be paid by debtors, as well as political conservatives. Political controversy about what represented the proper economic policy mounted and approached the boiling point. As James Madison of Virginia noted, the political struggles were primarily between "the class with, and [the] class without, property." Just as the republican governments had come into being and rethought the meaning of popular government, economic crisis threatened their future.

4.12 Shays' Rebellion

Shays' Rebellion

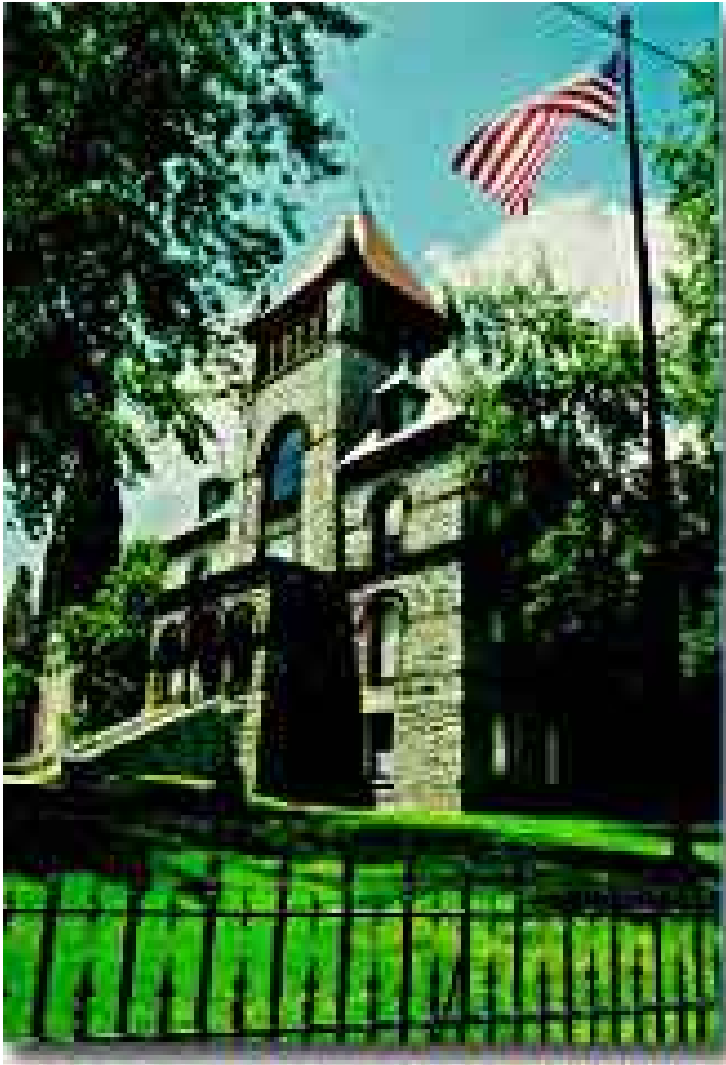


FIGURE 4.18

The modern day Northampton courthouse, built in 1884 on the same site as the courthouse where Shays' Rebellion occurred.

The crisis of the 1780s was most intense in the rural and relatively newly settled areas of central and western Massachusetts. Many farmers in this area suffered from high debt as they tried to start new farms. Unlike many other state legislatures in the 1780s, the Massachusetts government didn't respond to the economic crisis by passing PRO-DEBTOR LAWS (like forgiving debt and printing more PAPER MONEY). As a result local sheriffs seized many farms and some farmers who couldn't pay their debts were put in prison.

These conditions led to the first major armed rebellion in the post-Revolutionary United States. Once again,

Americans resisted high taxes and unresponsive government that was far away. But this time it was Massachusetts's settlers who were angry with a republican government in Boston, rather than with the British government across the Atlantic.

The farmers in western Massachusetts organized their resistance in ways similar to the American Revolutionary struggle. They called special meetings of the people to protest conditions and agree on a coordinated protest. This led the rebels to close courts by force in the fall of 1786 and to liberate imprisoned debtors from jail. Soon events flared into a full-scale revolt when the resisters came under the leadership of DANIEL SHAYS, a former captain in the Continental Army. This was the most extreme example of what could happen in the tough times brought on by the economic crisis. Some thought of the SHAYSITES (named after their military leader) as heroes in the direct tradition of the American Revolution, while many others saw them as dangerous rebels whose actions might topple the young experiment in republican government.



FIGURE 4.19

Patriots or traitors? Farmers from western Massachusetts followed petitions for economic relief with insurgency in the fall of 1786. A group of protestors, led by Revolutionary War veteran Daniel Shays, began a 6 month rebellion by taking over the Court of Common Pleas in Northampton; the goal was to prevent the trial and imprisonment of debt-ridden citizens.

JAMES BOWDOIN, the governor of Massachusetts, was clearly in the latter group. He organized a military force funded by eastern merchants, to confront the rebels. This armed force crushed the movement in the winter of 1786-1787 as the Shaysites quickly fell apart when faced with a strong army organized by the state. While the rebellion disintegrated quickly, the underlying social forces that propelled such dramatic action remained. The debtors' discontent was widespread and similar actions occurred on a smaller scale in Maine (then still part of Massachusetts), Connecticut, New York, and Pennsylvania among others places.

While Governor Bowdoin had acted decisively in crushing the rebellion, the voters turned against him in the next election. This high level of discontent, popular resistance, and the election of pro-debtor governments in many states threatened the political notions of many political and social elites. SHAYS' REBELLION demonstrated the high degree of internal conflict lurking beneath the surface of post-Revolutionary life. National leaders felt compelled to act to put an end to such popular actions that took place beyond the bounds of law.

4.13 Shays' Rebellion

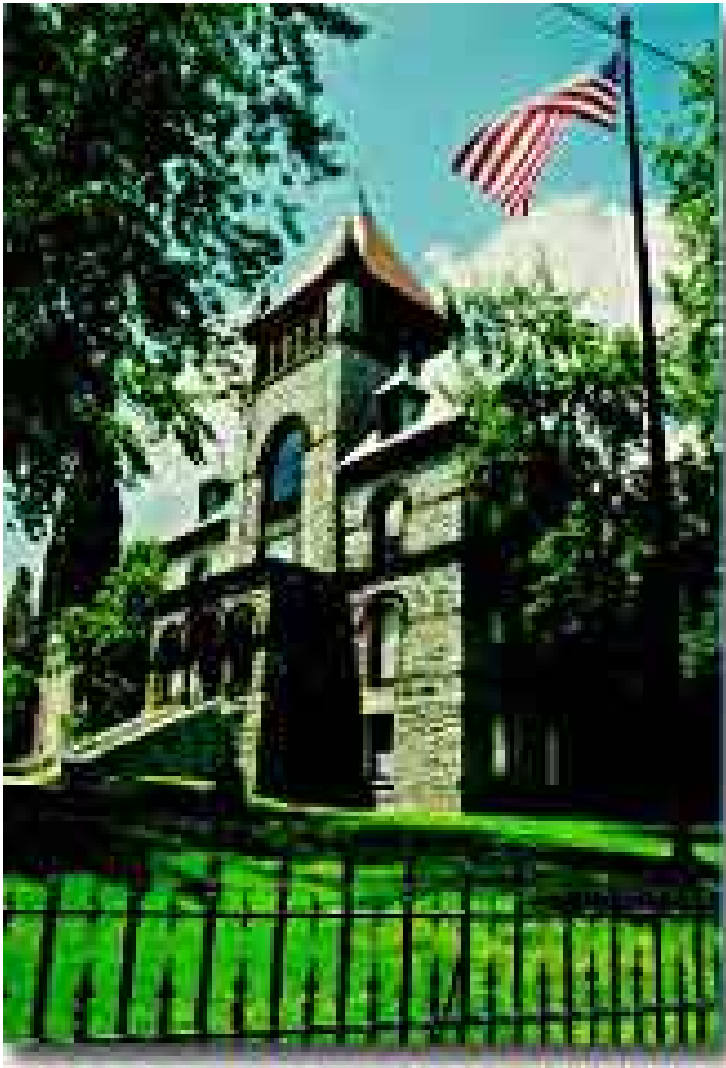


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4.14 Drafting the Constitution

Drafting the Constitution



FIGURE 4.22

Since 1787, people from around the world have come to tour Independence Hall, where the Constitution of the United States was signed.

The 1780s has often been termed the "CRITICAL PERIOD" for the new nation. The dangers posed by economic crisis and the disillusionment that came with the collapse of Revolutionary expectations for dramatically improved conditions combined to make the decade a period of discontent, reconsideration, and, in the end, a dramatic new proposal for redirecting the nation. Just as the Revolution had been born of diverse and sometimes conflicting perspectives, even among the Patriots, so too, ideas about the future of the United States in the 1780s were often cast in dramatic opposition to one another.

The new plan for the nation was called the **FEDERAL CONSTITUTION**. It had been drafted by a group of national leaders in Philadelphia in 1787, who then presented it to the general public for consideration. The Constitution amounted to a whole new set of rules for organizing national government and indicates the intensity of political thought in the era as well as how much had changed since 1776. The proposed national framework called for a strong central government that would have authority over the states. At the same time, the proposed Constitution also centrally involved the people in deciding whether or not to accept the new plan through a process called **RATIFICATION**.

4.15 Philadelphia Convention: Constitutional Convention

A Cast of National Superstars



FIGURE 4.23

Benjamin Franklin was the premier scientist, author, businessman and all-around scholar of his time.

At the same time that Shays' Rebellion attempted to force the government to take a new course of action in response to hard times, another group of Americans gathered to consider a very different vision for the future of the republic. The group was especially concerned about economic policy and the way that competing state policies often worked at cross-purposes. Responding to such concerns, the Virginia legislature called for a convention to meet in Annapolis, Maryland, in 1786 to discuss commercial matters. Only twelve delegates came from five states, but they agreed to

meet again the next year in Philadelphia.

When Shays' Rebellion erupted in the interim, this group had even stronger reasons to meet to discuss plans for responding to the range of problems in the "critical period" of the 1780s. Following on the possibility of widespread popular unrest as evidenced by Shays' Rebellion, the Congress, in January 1787, directed the meeting to consider revisions to the Articles of Confederation.



FIGURE 4.24

The Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia brought together all the great leaders of the United States (unless they came from Rhode Island).

The PHILADELPHIA CONVENTION drew fifty-five delegates from twelve states (Rhode Island refused to send anyone to a meeting about strengthening the power of the central government). Most of the delegates had gained national-level experience during the Revolution by serving as leaders in the military, the Congress, or as diplomats. The impressive group included many prominent Revolutionary leaders like Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, and ROBERT MORRIS. Some of the older leaders of the Revolution, however, were not present. Thomas Jefferson and John Adams were abroad serving as diplomats to France and England, respectively.

Meanwhile, key local leaders like SAM ADAMS of Boston had lost his bid to be a delegate, while the Virginian patriot PATRICK HENRY was elected, but refused to go because he opposed the purpose of the Convention. In their place were a number of younger leaders, who had been less prominent in the Revolution itself. Most notable among them were the Virginian James Madison and the West Indian-born New Yorker, Alexander Hamilton.

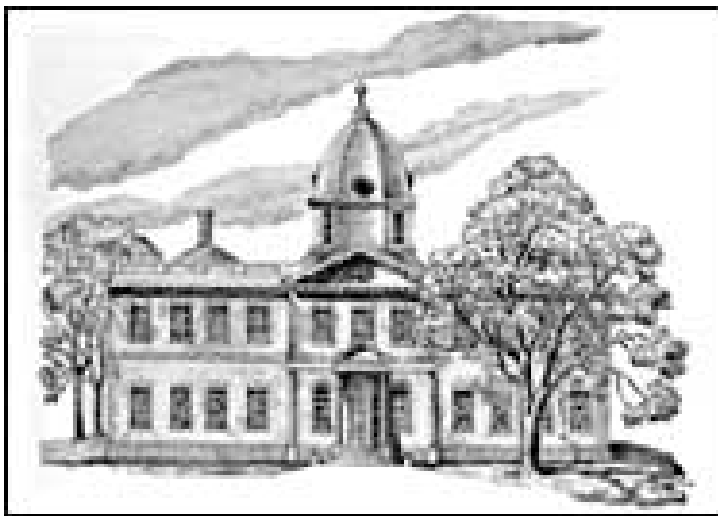


FIGURE 4.25

Charles Willson Peale drew these sketches of the Maryland State House, site of the Annapolis Convention of 1786.

These national "superstars" did not, however, include people from western parts of the country, nor did it include any artisans or tenant farmers. Indeed, there was only a single person of modest wealth whom we could consider

a yeoman farmer. These were superstars and that meant that they did not reflect anything close to the full range of American society. Partly because the delegates had already served as national representatives, they shared a general commitment to a strong central government. Many were strong nationalists who thought the Articles of Confederation gave too much power to the states and were especially concerned about state governments' vulnerability to powerful local interests. Instead, the delegates to the Philadelphia Convention aimed to create an energetic NATIONAL GOVERNMENT that could deal effectively with the major problems of the period from external matters of diplomacy and trade to internal issues of sound money and repayment of public debt.

4.16 A Cast of National Superstars



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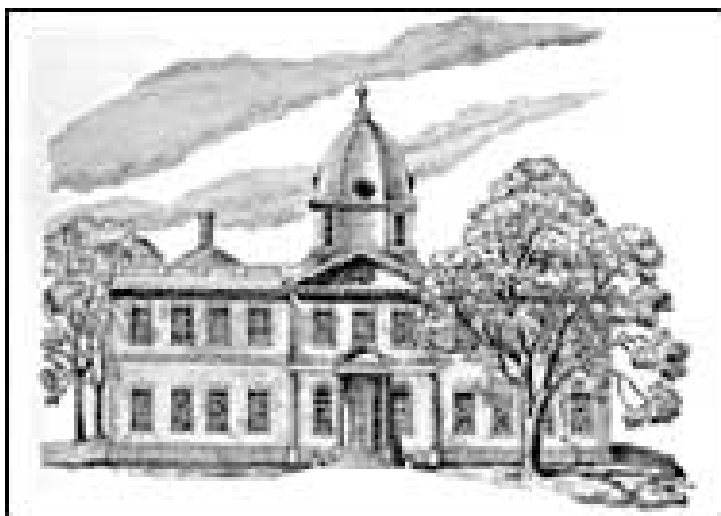


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4.17 Virginia Plan: Large State Plan

The Tough Issues

In spite of the common vision and status that linked most of the delegates to the Philadelphia Convention, no obvious route existed for how to revise the Articles of Confederation to build a stronger central government.

The meeting began by deciding several important procedural issues that were not controversial and that significantly shaped how the Convention operated. First, George Washington was elected as the presiding officer. They also decided to continue the voting precedent followed by the Congress where each state got one vote.



FIGURE 4.29

James Madison is known as the "Father of the Constitution."

They also agreed to hold their meeting in secret.

There would be no public access to the Convention's discussions and the delegates agreed not to discuss matters with the PRESS. The delegates felt that secrecy would allow them to explore issues with greater honesty than would be possible if everything that they said became public knowledge.

In fact, the public knew almost nothing about the actual proceedings of the Convention until James Madison's notes about it were published after his death in the 1840s.

The delegates also made a final crucial and sweeping early decision about how to run the Convention. They agreed to go beyond the instructions of the Congress by not merely considering revisions to the Articles of Confederation, but to try and construct a whole new national framework.



FIGURE 4.30

The assembly room inside Independence Hall is where the Constitution was signed in 1787.

The stage was now set for James Madison, the best prepared and most influential of the delegates at the Philadelphia Convention. His proposal, now known as the VIRGINIA PLAN, called for a strong central government with three distinctive elements.

First, it clearly placed NATIONAL SUPREMACY above state sovereignty.

Second, this strengthened central government would have a close relationship with the people, who could directly vote for some national leaders.

Third, Madison proposed that the CENTRAL GOVERNMENT be made up of three distinct branches: a BICAMERAL LEGISLATURE, an EXECUTIVE, and a JUDICIARY. The lower house of the legislature would be elected directly by the people and then the lower house would elect the upper house. Together they would choose the executive and judiciary.

By having the foundational body of the proposed national government elected by the people at large, rather than through their state legislatures, the national government would remain a republic with a direct link to ordinary people even as it expanded its power.



FIGURE 4.31

After deliberating for months, the delegates to the Constitutional Convention approved their new Constitution in September 1787.

Madison's VIRGINIA PLAN was bold and creative. Further, it established a strong central government, which most delegates supported. Nevertheless, it was rejected at the Convention by opposition from delegates representing states with small populations.

These small states would have their national influence dramatically curbed in the proposed move from one-state one-vote (as under the Articles) to general voting for the lower legislative house where overall population would be decisive.

The Virginia Plan was unacceptable to all the small states, who countered with another proposal, dubbed the NEW JERSEY PLAN, that would continue more along the lines of how Congress already operated under the Articles. This plan called for a unicameral legislature with the one vote per state formula still in place.

Although the division between large and small states (really between high and low population states) might seem simplistic, it was the major hurdle that delegates to the Convention needed to overcome to design a stronger national government, which they all agreed was needed.

After long debates and a close final vote, the Virginia Plan was accepted as a basis for further discussion. This agreement to continue to debate also amounted to a major turning point. The delegates had decided that they should craft a new constitutional structure to replace the Articles.

This was so stunning a change and such a large expansion of their original instructions from the Congress that two New York delegates left in disgust.

Could the states ever form a more perfect union?

4.18 New Jersey Plan: Small State Plan

Constitution Through Compromise



FIGURE 4.32

Roger Sherman was the only man to sign all 4 of the important Revolutionary documents: The Association of 1774, the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution.

"REPRESENTATION" remained the core issue for the Philadelphia Convention. What was the best way for authority to be delegated from the people and the states to a strengthened central government?

After still more deeply divided argument, a proposal put forward by delegates from Connecticut (a small population state), struck a compromise that narrowly got approved. They suggested that representatives in each house of the proposed bicameral legislature be selected through different means. The UPPER HOUSE (or SENATE) would reflect the importance of state sovereignty by including two people from each state regardless of size. Meanwhile, the LOWER HOUSE (the HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES) would have different numbers of representatives from each state determined by population. Representation would be adjusted every ten years through a federal census that counted every person in the country.

By coming up with a mixed solution that balanced state sovereignty and popular sovereignty tied to actual population, the Constitution was forged through what is known as the CONNECTICUT COMPROMISE. In many respects this compromise reflected a victory for small states, but compared with their dominance in the Congress under the Articles of Confederation it is clear that negotiation produced something that both small and large states wanted.

Other major issues still needed to be resolved, however, and, once again, compromise was required on all sides. One of the major issues concerned elections themselves. Who would be allowed to vote? The different state constitutions had created different rules about how much property was required for white men to vote. The delegates needed to figure out a solution that could satisfy people with many different ideas about who could have the franchise (that is, who could be a voter).



FIGURE 4.33

George Washington presided over the signing of the U.S. Constitution. Take note of the famous "Rising Sun" chair and Syng ink stand.

For the popular lower house, any white man who paid taxes could vote. Thus, even those without property, could vote for who would represent them in the House of Representatives. This expanded the franchise in some states. To balance this opening, the two Senators in the upper house of the national government would be elected by the STATE LEGISLATURES. Finally, the PRESIDENT (that is, the executive branch) would be elected at the state level through an ELECTORAL COLLEGE whose numbers reflected representation in the legislature.

To modern eyes, the most stunning and disturbing constitutional compromise by the delegates was over the issue of slavery. Some delegates considered slavery an evil institution and GEORGE MASON of Virginia even suggested that the trans-Atlantic slave trade be made illegal by the new national rules. Delegates from South Carolina and Georgia where slavery was expanding rapidly in the late-18th century angrily opposed this limitation. If any limitations to slavery were proposed in the national framework, then they would leave the convention and oppose its proposed new plan for a stronger central government. Their fierce opposition allowed no room for compromise and as a result the

issue of slavery was treated as a narrowly political, rather than a moral, question.

The delegates agreed that a strengthened union of the states was more important than the Revolutionary ideal of equality. This was a pragmatic, as well as a tragic, constitutional compromise, since it may have been possible (as suggested by George Mason's comments) for the slave state of Virginia to accept some limitations on slavery at this point.



FIGURE 4.34

The slave trade was always a controversial issue in the history of the United States.

The proposed constitution actually strengthened the power of slave states in several important respects. Through the "FUGITIVE CLAUSE," for example, governments of free states were required to help recapture runaway slaves who had escaped their masters' states. Equally disturbing was the "THREE-FIFTHS FORMULA" established for determining representation in the lower house of the legislature. Slave states wanted to have additional political power based on the number of human beings that they held as slaves. Delegates from free states wouldn't allow such a blatant manipulation of political principles, but the inhumane compromise that resulted meant counting enslaved persons as three-fifths of a free person for the sake of calculating the number of people a state could elect to the House of Representatives.

After hot summer months of difficult debate in Philadelphia from May to September 1787, the delegates had fashioned new rules for a stronger central government that extended national power well beyond the scope of the Articles of Confederation. The Constitution created a national legislature that could pass the supreme law of the land, could raise taxes, and with greater control over commerce. The proposed rules also would restrict state actions, especially in regard to passing PRO-DEBTOR LAWS. At the end of the long process of creating the new plan, thirty-eight of the remaining forty-one delegates showed their support by signing the proposed Constitution. This small group of national superstars had created a major new framework through hard work and compromise.

Now another challenge lay ahead. Could they convince the people in the states that this new plan was worth accepting?

4.19 Constitution Through Compromise



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Vir

4.20 The Great Compromise

4.21 Bill of Rights Outline

Rights and Responsibilities of American Citizens

1. Bill of Rights (10 Amendments) 15C, 19A, 19B
 1. Freedom of Religion, speech, press, assembly, petition 21B, 25C
 2. Citizen militia, right to bear arms
 3. Quartering of soldiers
 4. Unreasonable search and seizure **19B**
 5. Eminent domain, double jeopardy, self-incrimination
 6. Fair and impartial trial **19B**
 7. Guarantee to a trial by jury
 8. Cruel and unusual punishment, excessive bail, excessive fines
 9. Rights of citizens
 10. Powers not delegated to US are reserved to the States

Civil War Amendments (13, 14, 15)

1. Freedom of the slaves
2. Equal protection, Due process, birthright citizenship
3. Voting rights of African Americans

1. Citizenship

- . Natural born citizen 14th amendment
- Naturalization 19E
 1. 18 years old
 2. Live in US 5 years
 3. Be of good character
 4. Must be literate
 5. Understand US History and government
 6. Swear allegiance to constitution
- Responsibilities 19C, 19D, 19F
 1. Voting
 2. Keeping informed on public issues
 3. Serving in public office, jury duty **19D**

4.22 Federalist Vs Anti-federalist 1787

Federalists



FIGURE 4.38

Along with John Jay and Alexander Hamilton, James Madison penned *The Federalist Papers*.

The supporters of the proposed Constitution called themselves "FEDERALISTS." Their adopted name implied a commitment to a loose, decentralized system of government. In many respects "FEDERALISM" — which implies a strong central government — was the opposite of the proposed plan that they supported. A more accurate name for the supporters of the Constitution would have been "NATIONALISTS."

The "nationalist" label, however, would have been a political liability in the 1780s. Traditional political belief of the Revolutionary Era held that strong centralized authority would inevitably lead to an abuse of power. The Federalists were also aware that the problems of the country in the 1780s stemmed from the weaknesses of the central government created by the Articles of Confederation.

For Federalists, the Constitution was required in order to safeguard the liberty and independence that the American Revolution had created. While the Federalists definitely had developed a new political philosophy, they saw their most important role as defending the social gains of the Revolution. As James Madison, one of the great Federalist leaders later explained, the Constitution was designed to be a "republican remedy for the diseases most incident to

republican government."



FIGURE 4.39

Leading Federalist, Alexander Hamilton, was commemorated with his portrait on the 3¢ stamp.

The Federalists had more than an innovative political plan and a well-chosen name to aid their cause. Many of the most talented leaders of the era who had the most experience in national-level work were Federalists. For example the only two national-level celebrities of the period, Benjamin Franklin and George Washington, favored the Constitution. In addition to these impressive superstars, the Federalists were well organized, well funded, and made especially careful use of the printed word. Most newspapers supported the Federalists' political plan and published articles and pamphlets to explain why the people should approve the Constitution.

In spite of this range of major advantages, the Federalists still had a hard fight in front of them. Their new solutions were a significant alteration of political beliefs in this period. Most significantly, the Federalists believed that the greatest threat to the future of the United States did not lie in the abuse of central power, but instead could be found in what they saw as the excesses of democracy as evidenced in popular disturbances like Shays' Rebellion and the pro-debtor policies of many states.

How could the Federalists convince the undecided portion of the American people that for the nation to thrive, democracy needed to be constrained in favor of a stronger central government?

Antifederalists



FIGURE 4.40

Patrick Henry delivers his famous "If this be treason, make the most of it!" speech to the Virginia House of Burgesses. The ANTIFEDERALISTS were a diverse coalition of people who opposed ratification of the Constitution. Although less well organized than the Federalists, they also had an impressive group of leaders who were especially prominent in state politics.

Ranging from political elites like JAMES WINTHROP in Massachusetts to MELANCTON SMITH of New York and Patrick Henry and George Mason of Virginia, these Antifederalist were joined by a large number of ordinary Americans particularly yeomen farmers who predominated in rural America. The one overriding social characteristic of the Antifederalists as a group was their strength in newer settled western regions of the country.



FIGURE 4.41

On August 31, 1787, George Mason declared he would "rather chop off my right hand than put it to the Constitution as it now stands."

In spite of the diversity that characterized the Antifederalist opposition, they did share a core view of American politics. They believed that the greatest threat to the future of the United States lay in the government's potential to become corrupt and seize more and more power until its tyrannical rule completely dominated the people. Having just succeeded in rejecting what they saw as the TYRANNY of British power, such threats were seen as a very real part of political life.

To Antifederalists the proposed Constitution threatened to lead the United States down an all-too-familiar road of politicalCORRUPTION. All three branches of the new central government threatened Antifederalists' traditional belief in the importance of restraining government power.

The President's vast new powers, especially a veto that could overturn decisions of the people's representatives in the legislature, were especially disturbing. The court system of the national government appeared likely to encroach on local courts. Meanwhile, the proposed lower house of the legislature would have so few members that only elites were likely to be elected. Furthermore, they would represent people from such a large area that they couldn't really know their own constituents. The fifty-five members of the proposed national House of Representatives was quite a bit smaller than most state legislatures in the period. Since the new legislature was to have increased fiscal authority, especially the right to raise taxes, the Antifederalists feared that before long Congress would pass oppressive taxes that they would enforce by creating a standing national army.

FIGURE 4.42



The preamble of the United States Constitution: Most of the world's democracies have based their constitutions on this document.

This range of objections boiled down to a central opposition to the sweeping new powers of the proposed central government. George Mason, a delegate to the Philadelphia Convention who refused to support the Constitution, explained, the plan was "totally subversive of every principle which has hitherto governed us. This power is calculated to annihilate totally the state governments." The rise of national power at the expense of state power was a common feature of Antifederalist opposition.

The most powerful objection raised by the Antifederalists, however, hinged on the lack of protection for INDIVIDUAL LIBERTIES in the Constitution. Most of the state constitutions of the era had built on the Virginia model that included an explicit protection of individual rights that could not be intruded upon by the state. This was seen as a central safeguard of people's rights and was considered a major Revolutionary improvement over the unwritten protections of the British constitution.

Why, then, had the delegates to the Philadelphia Convention not included a bill of rights in their proposed Constitution? Most Antifederalists thought that such protections were not granted because the Federalists represented a sinister movement to roll back the gains made for ordinary people during the Revolution.

The Antifederalists and Federalists agreed on one thing: the future of the nation was at stake in the contest over the Constitution.

4.23 The Anti-federalists' Victory in Defeat

The Anti-federalists' Victory in Defeat

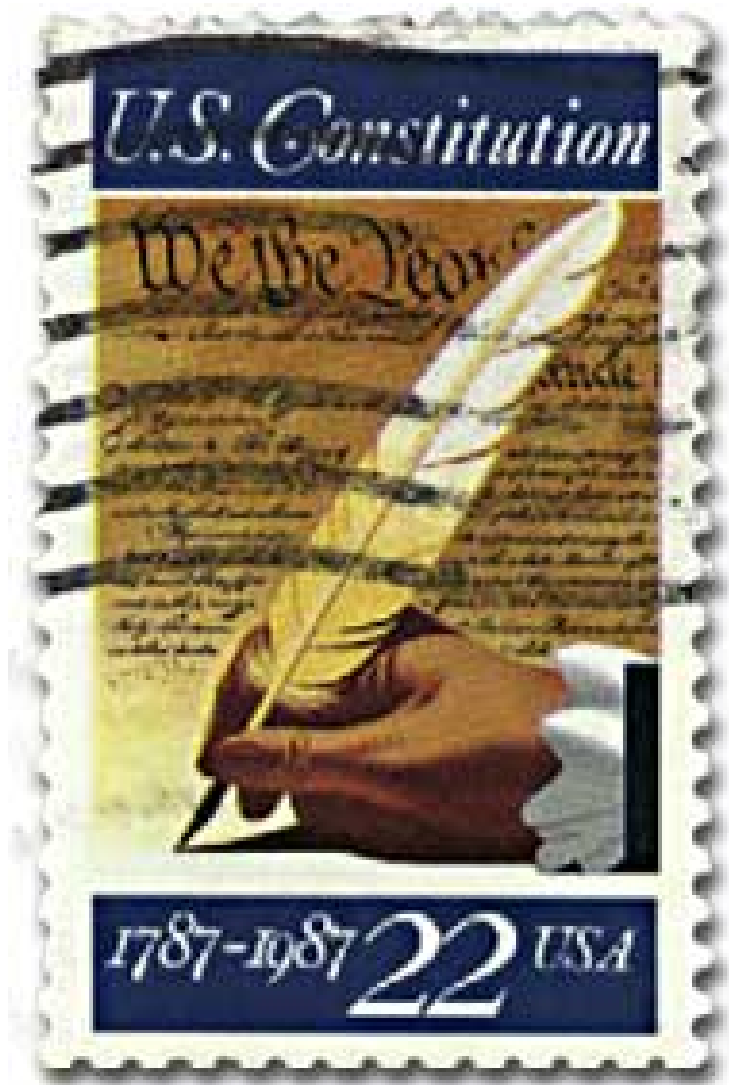


FIGURE 4.43

1987 marked the 200th anniversary of the U.S. Constitution.

With the narrow approval of the Constitution in Virginia and New York, in June and July 1788, respectively, the Federalists seemed to have won an all-out victory. The relatively small states of North Carolina and Rhode Island would hold out longer, but with 11 states ratifying and all the populous ones among them, the Federalists had successfully waged a remarkable political campaign of enormous significance and sweeping change.

The ratification process included ugly political manipulation as well as brilliant developments in political thought. For the first time, the people of a nation freely considered and approved their form of government. It was also the first time that people in the United States acted on a truly national issue. Although still deciding the issue state-

by-state, everyone was aware that ratification was part of a larger process where the whole nation decided upon the same issue. In this way, the ratification process itself helped to create a national political community built upon and infusing loyalty to distinct states. The development of an American national identity was spurred on and closely linked to the Constitution.



FIGURE 4.44

This map shows how the U.S. in 1789 was divided into 4 federal court districts. Take note that Rhode Island and North Carolina had not ratified the Constitution and weren't part of the districting.

The Federalists' efforts and goals were built upon expanding this national commitment and awareness. But the Antifederalists even in defeat contributed enormously to the type of national government created through ratification. Their key objection challenged the purpose of a central government that didn't include specific provisions protecting individual rights and liberties. Since the new national government was even more powerful and even more distant from the people, why didn't it offer the kinds of individual protections in law that most state constitutions had come to include by 1776?

To the Antifederalists, the SEPARATION OF POWERS was far too mild a curb against the threat of government tyranny. As a result states beginning with Massachusetts ratified the Constitution, but called for further protections to be taken up by the new Congress as soon as it met. This loomed on the unresolved political agenda of the national Congress and the adoption of the BILL OF RIGHTS (the first ten AMENDMENTS to the Constitution) is a legacy of the victory-in-defeat of Antifederalists. Their continued participation in the political process even when they seemed to have lost on the more general issue had immense importance.

The Constitution was created out of a tough-minded political process that demanded hard work, disagreement, compromise, and conflict. Out of that struggle the modern American nation took shape and would continue to be modified.

4.24 After the Fact: Virginia, New York, and "The Federalist Papers"

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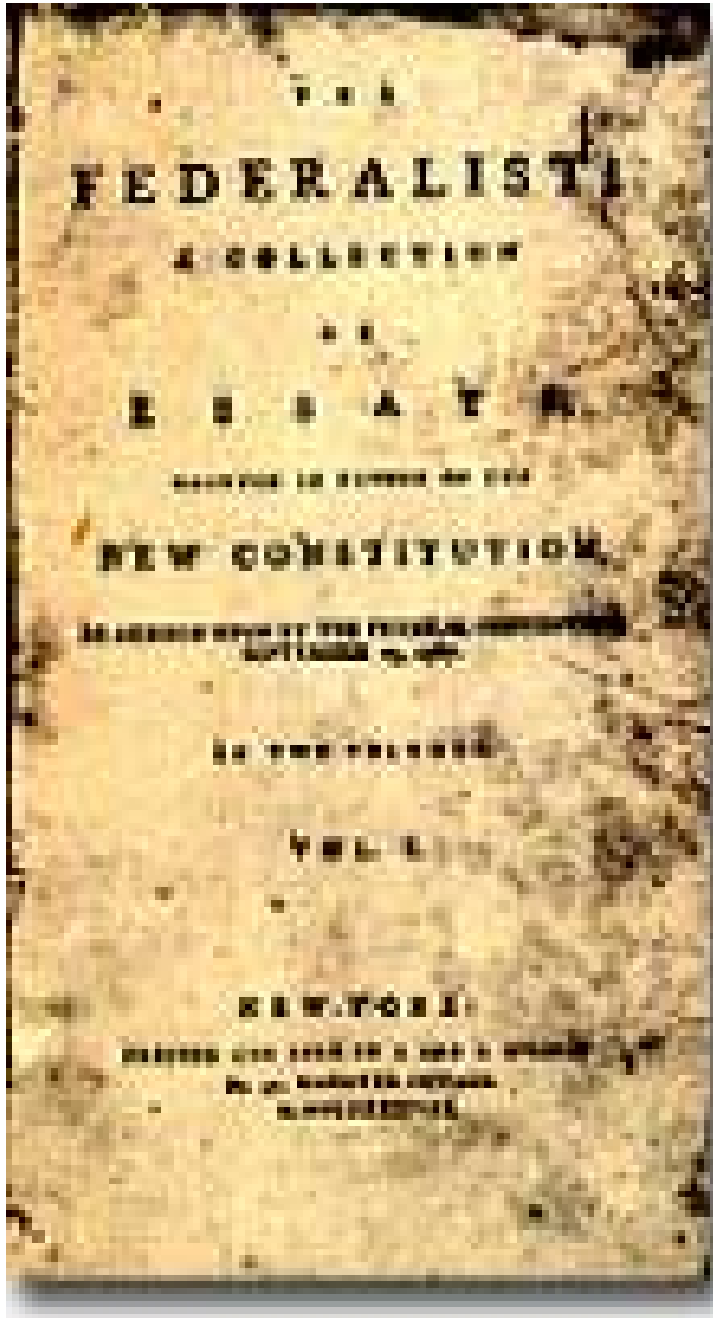


FIGURE 4.45

The Federalist Papers were a series of essays by John Jay, Alexander Hamilton and James Madison written for

the *Federalist* newspaper.

The convention in Virginia began its debate before nine states had approved the Constitution, but the contest was so close and bitterly fought that it lasted past the point when the technical number needed to ratify had been reached. Nevertheless, Virginia's decision was crucial to the nation. Who can imagine the early history of the United States if Virginia had not joined the union? What if leaders like George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and James Madison had not been allowed to hold national political office? In the end Virginia approved the Constitution, with recommended amendments, in an especially close vote (89-79). Only one major state remained, the Constitution was close to getting the broad support that it needed to be effective.

Perhaps no state was as deeply divided as New York, where the nationalist-urban artisan alliance could strongly carry New York City and the surrounding region, while more rural upstate areas were strongly Antifederalist. The opponents of the Constitution had a strong majority when the convention began and set a tough challenge for ALEXANDER HAMILTON, the leading New York Federalist. Hamilton managed a brilliant campaign that narrowly won the issue (30-27) by combining threat and accommodation. On the one hand, he warned that commercial down state areas might separate from upstate New York if it didn't ratify. On the other hand, he accepted the conciliatory path suggested by Massachusetts; amendments would be acceptable after ratification.

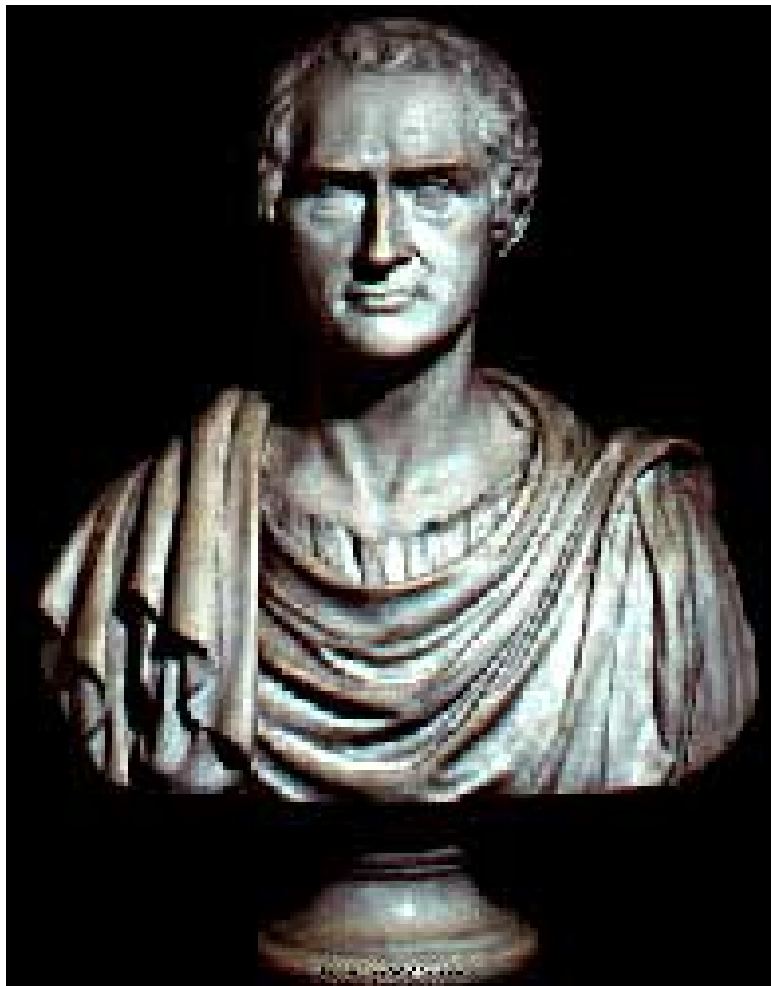


FIGURE 4.46

America's first native sculptor, John Frazee, was unhappy with the amount of foreign artists doing work for the new Capitol. He was more than happy to do this very classical looking bust of John Jay.

The debate in New York produced perhaps the most famous exploration of American political philosophy, now called THE FEDERALIST PAPERS. Originally, they were a series of 85 anonymous letters to newspapers, which were co-written by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and JOHN JAY. Together they tried to assure the public of

the two key points of the Federalist agenda. First, they explained that a strong government was needed for a variety of reasons, but especially if the United States was to be able to act effectively in foreign affairs. Second, it tried to convince readers that because of the "separation" of powers in the central government, there was little chance of the national government evolving into a tyrannical power. Instead of growing ever stronger, the separate branches would provide a "CHECK AND BALANCE" against each other so that none could rise to complete dominance.

The influence of these newspaper letters in the New York debate is not entirely known, but their status as a classic of American political thought is beyond doubt. Although Hamilton wrote the majority of the letters, James Madison authored the ones that are most celebrated today, especially FEDERALIST, NUMBER 10.



FIGURE 4.47

John Jay contributed to the *Federalist Papers* and was in charge of foreign affairs for the fledgling nation.

Here Madison argued that a larger republic would not lead to greater abuse of power (as had traditionally been thought), but actually could work to make a large national republic a defense against tyranny. Madison explained that the large scope of the national republic would prevent local interests from rising to dominance and therefore the larger scale itself limited the potential for abuse of power. By including a diversity of interests (he identified agriculture, manufacturing, merchants, and creditors, as the key ones), the different groups in a larger republic would cancel each other out and prevent a corrupt interest from controlling all the others.

Madison was one of the first political theorists to offer a profoundly modern vision of self-interest as an aspect of human nature that could be employed to make government better, rather than more corrupt. In this he represents a key figure in the transition from a traditional republican vision of America, to a modern LIBERAL one where self-interest has a necessary role to play in public life.

4.25 Constitution Journal

stitution

TEKS for Chapter

8.1A Readiness Standard Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including creation and ratification of the Constitution,

- Writing the Constitution
 - Shays’ Rebellion
 - Philadelphia Convention 1787
 - Great Compromise
 - Three-fifths Compromise
 - Anti [U+2011] Federalist vs. Federalist
 - Federalist Papers
 - Bill of Rights

8.1B **Supporting Standard** Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

8.1C **Supporting Standard** Explain the significance of the following dates: 1787, writing of the U.S. Constitution

1787 – writing of the U.S. Constitution (1788 – Ratification of Constitution)-significant because it established the United States of America as a constitutional democratic-republic; the U.S. Constitution continues to be an adaptable document to this day

8.4D **Supporting Standard** Analyze the issues of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, including the Great Compromise and the Three-Fifths Compromise.

- Strengthening the Federal Government
 - Articles of Confederation had not worked
 - Created an executive, legislative, and judicial branches
- Representation

- Virginia Plan – large state plan that proposed representation based on population size
- New Jersey Plan – small state plan that proposed equal representation among all states
- Great Compromise – Constitution resulted in a two-house legislature with House of Representatives based on population and the Senate maintaining equal representation from all states, took from the two previous plans
- Slavery
 - How enslaved people should be counted regarding population and taxation?
 - Three-Fifths Compromise – three-fifths of the enslaved people population would be counted when setting direct taxes on the states and three-fifths ratio would also be used to determine representation in the legislature
 - Agreed not to limit the slavery trade for at least the next twenty years

8.4E Readiness Standard Analyze the arguments for and against ratification.

- Arguments
 - Federalists – argued for a stronger national government because under the Articles of Confederation, the weak national government set the United States up for failure- Notable Federalists, James Madison, John Jay, Alexander Hamilton
 - Anti-federalists – argued that states’ rights should remain powerful over key issues; remained of the opinion that Americans fought the Revolution to get away from strong central government; had great desire for individual liberties- Notable Anti-Federalists, Patrick Henry, George Mason, Thomas Jefferson
 - Argument was resolved with the addition of the Bill of Rights to the U.S. Constitution, individually listing rights

8.15A Readiness Standard Identify the influence of ideas from historic documents, including the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights, the Mayflower Compact, the Federalist Papers, and selected Anti-Federalist writings, on the U.S. system of government.

- Magna Carta (1215) – limited the power of the King resulting in the idea of constitutional limits to the power of the central government
- English Bill of Rights – listed individual rights and became a model for the Bill of Rights in the U.S. Constitution
- Federalist Papers – supported ratification of the U.S. Constitution with a focus on the need for a strong central government with restricted powers. The Constitution sets up a strong central government with separated powers and a system of checks and balances.
- Anti-Federalist writings – included a series of writings from several authors opposed to the idea of a strong federal government with some wanting the states to have more rights, and some wanting individual liberties protected

8.15B Supporting Standard Summarize the strengths and weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation.

- Articles created a “firm league of friendship” where “each state retains its sovereignty, freedom and independence.”
- Strengths of Articles of Confederation
 - States’ rights (result of strong fear of a tyrannical leader)
 - Confederation of states with equal voice in Congress
 - Congress had power to make war and peace, sign treaties; raise an army and navy; print money, and set up a postal system

- Weaknesses of Articles of Confederation
 - No national taxes (no ability to gain national revenue to pay for army, navy, or other national interests; had to ask the states for money which they often ignored)
 - No federal court system (no ability to settle disputes between states)
 - Lack of strong federal government (reduced ability to settle disputes over state boundaries)
 - No power to regulate commerce (quarrels about taxes on goods that crossed state borders)
 - No federal leader (no “Executive” to lead the country)
 - Limited military = no protection
 - More populous states wanted more representation
- Shays’ Rebellion showed that the government could not keep order and a stronger form of national government was needed

8.15C Readiness Standard Identify colonial grievances listed in the Declaration of Independence and explain how those grievances were addressed in the U.S. Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

TABLE 4.1:

Grievance in Declaration of Independence	Addressed in U.S. Constitution
Taxation without representation	All states have representation in Congress, which sets taxes
King has absolute power	Congress has the power to override Presidential veto
Colonists not allowed to speak out against the King	1st amendment – Freedom of speech
Quartering Act forced colonists to house troops	3rd amendment – No quartering of troops
Allowed homes to be search without warrants	4th amendment – No unwarranted search and seizure
No trial by jury of peers	6th amendment—Speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury 7th Amendment – Right of trial by jury in civil cases

8.15D Readiness Standard Analyze how the U.S. Constitution reflects the principles of limited government, republicanism, checks and balances, federalism, separation of powers, popular sovereignty, and individual rights.

- Limited government – the Constitution and laws define the limits of those in power so they cannot take advantage of their elected, appointed, or inherited positions. Everyone, including all authority figures, must obey the laws (rule of law). Government is restricted in what it may do.
- Republicanism – a philosophy of limited government with elected representatives serving at the will of the people; government is based on the consent of the governed.
- Checks and balances – system that does not allow any one branch of the government to have too much power (e.g., the president can veto legislation passed by Congress, but Congress can override the veto; the Senate confirms major appointments made by the President; the courts may declare acts passed by Congress as unconstitutional)
- Federalism – the distribution of power between a federal government and the states within a union. In the Constitution, certain powers are delegated to only states, others only to the federal government, and others are shared powers. Best reflected by the Tenth Amendment.
- Separation of powers – the branches included the legislative branch known as "Congress" made up of a "House of Representatives" and a "Senate," the executive branch known as the "President," and the judicial branch known as the "Supreme Court." The powers of the legislative branch are outlined in Article I of the U.S. Constitution. The President would lead the executive branch, which carries out the laws and ensured their just application. These powers are outlined in Article II of the U.S. Constitution. The judicial branch, consisting

of all courts of the United States including the highest court, the Supreme Court, interpret and apply the laws, ensuring that they are just. Its powers are outlined in Article III.

- Popular sovereignty – the concept that political power rests with the people who can create, alter, and abolish government. People express themselves through voting and free participation in government.
- Individual rights – some opposed the Constitution in 1787 because it was believed the Constitution did not offer adequate protection of individual rights. The Bill of Rights, ratified in 1791, was created to correct this. The individual rights protected in the Bill of Rights include economic rights related to property, political rights related to freedom of speech and press, and personal rights related to bearing arms and maintaining private residences. In addition, due process of law, established by the Fifth Amendment, ensures the protection of individual rights of life, liberty, and property by obligating the state to follow fair legal proceedings which ensure fair compensation for property seizure, protection against excessive bail as well as cruel and unusual punishment, and provide a speedy trial

8.16A Readiness Standard Summarize the purposes for and process of amending the U.S. Constitution.

- Purposes – the Constitution can be changed or amended when it is deemed necessary by the people to adjust to changing times and to maintain a “living” document
- Process – proposal by Congress (by two-thirds vote of both houses) or proposal from a convention called by two-thirds of the states. The proposal is then sent to the state legislatures to be ratified, must have three-fourths votes to pass or passage by three-fourths votes in special state conventions

8.17A Readiness Standard Analyze the arguments of the Federalists and Anti-Federalists, including those of Alexander Hamilton, Patrick Henry, James Madison, and George Mason.

- **Anti-Federalists**– argued that states’ rights should remain powerful over key issues; felt that the Revolution was fought to get away from strong central government; believed that the Constitution should protect individual rights
 - Patrick Henry – was so opposed to the idea of a stronger national government that he refused to attend the Philadelphia Convention because he “smelled a rat” ;influential leader from the Colonists’ protest against England with his speech “Give me Liberty or Give me Death”
 - George Mason – leader of the Anti-Federalists believed in the need to restrict governmental power and support protection of individual rights in order to prevent potential government abuse; served as a delegate from Virginia at the Constitutional Convention
- **Federalists**– argued for a stronger national government because under the Articles of Confederation, the weak national government set the United States up for failure
 - Alexander Hamilton – wanted to go beyond the stated powers of the Constitution; used the “necessary and proper” clause to justify forming a National Bank that was necessary and proper for the United States economy to develop; served as a delegate from New York at the Constitutional Convention
 - James Madison – known as the “Father of the Constitution”; helped to write the Federalist Papers with John Jay and Alexander Hamilton; authored the first 10 Amendments known as the Bill of Rights to compromise with the Anti-Federalists

8.19B Readiness Standard Summarize rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights.

- 1st Amendment – freedom of religion, speech, press, assembly, petition
- 2nd Amendment – bear arms
- 3rd Amendment – no quartering troops during times of peace
- 4th Amendment – protection from unreasonable searches and seizures

- 5th Amendment – right to due process, not to be tried for the same crime twice (double jeopardy), and not to testify against yourself
- 6th Amendment – right to speedy public trial, right to a trial by jury, right to an attorney
- 7th Amendment – right to trial by jury in civil trials
- 8th Amendment – right not to have excessive bail and/or punishment
- 9th Amendment – rights of the people
- 10th Amendment – rights to the states

8.21B Supporting Standard Describe the importance of free speech and press in a constitutional republic.

Freedom of speech and press allow for the protection of individual rights. Freedom to express information, ideas, and opinions that are free of government restrictions based on content

8.21C Supporting Standard Summarize a historical event in which compromise resulted in a peaceful resolution.

- Virginia Plan – large state plan that proposed representation based on population size
- New Jersey Plan – small state plan that proposed equal representation among all states
- Great Compromise – Constitution resulted in a two-house legislature with House of Representatives based on population and the Senate maintaining equal representation from all states

8.25A Supporting Standard Trace the development of religious freedom in the United States.

- Plymouth Colony (1620-1691) – allowed self-governing churches with each congregation independent and electing its own pastor and officers
- 17th century Massachusetts Bay Colony – originally founded by Roger Williams to escape religious persecution in England. Churches were fairly democratic in that they elected ministers and other officials, but close ties between Puritan churches and the state government led to Williams being banished.
- Rhode Island – Roger Williams left Massachusetts to found Rhode Island in 1636 on the premise that there would be no state church
- Pennsylvania (1681-1776) – William Penn’s Frame of Government of Pennsylvania established a colonial government that provided political freedom and guaranteed religious freedom to all settlers in Pennsylvania
- Maryland – founded as a safe haven for persecuted Catholics from England. Protestants soon outnumbered Catholics leading to the passage of the 1649 Maryland Toleration Act which allowed freedom of worship for all Trinitarian Christians.
- Virginia – 1786 The Virginia Act For Establishing Religious Freedom written by Thomas Jefferson made Virginia the first to separate church and state and guaranteed the right to practice religion free from government intrusion
- 1791 Bill of Rights guaranteed the right to practice religion from government interference as well as freedom from an established state church.

8.25C Readiness Standard Analyze the impact of the First Amendment guarantees of religious freedom on the American way of life.

- Americans have the right to worship however they choose, which allows for the peacefully worship of a variety of religious groups within a community.
- The government does not have the right to interfere with religious beliefs or establish a state church.
- Sets up for official separation of church and state

Summarize rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights.

CHAPTER

5

Early Republic 1789-1828

Chapter Outline

- 5.1 EARLY REPUBLIC OUTLINE
 - 5.2 GEORGE WASHINGTON: FOUNDING FATHER
 - 5.3 GEORGE WASHINGTON
 - 5.4 THE FIRST ADMINISTRATION
 - 5.5 UNSETTLED DOMESTIC ISSUES
 - 5.6 WHISKEY REBELLION
 - 5.7 U.S. MILITARY DEFEAT; INDIAN VICTORY IN THE WEST
 - 5.8 HAMILTON'S FINANCIAL PLAN
 - 5.9 GROWING OPPOSITION: JEFFERSON'S PLAN
 - 5.10 GROWING OPPOSITION
 - 5.11 NATIVE AMERICAN RESILIENCE AND VIOLENCE IN THE WEST
 - 5.12 WASHINGTON DECLARED AMERICAN NEUTRALITY
 - 5.13 WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS
 - 5.14 ELECTION OF 1796
 - 5.15 THE LIFE AND TIMES OF JOHN ADAMS
 - 5.16 JOHN QUINCY ADAMS
 - 5.17 THE ELECTION OF 1800
 - 5.18 THOMAS JEFFERSON
 - 5.19 JEFFERSONIAN AMERICA: A SECOND REVOLUTION?
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

Questions for this Unit:

Leaders of the early United States acted to stabilize the new country by establishing the structure of government authority while organizing and securing territorial expansion.

- What actions were taken by the leaders of the early republic to establish a system of justice?
- What actions were taken by the leaders of the early republic to provide for the common defense and maintain national security?
- How did the addition of the Louisiana Purchase affect the early republic?
- In what ways did the Supreme Court decisions of *Marbury v. Madison*, *McCulloch v. Maryland and Gibbons v. Ogden* impact federal authority?

While a free enterprise system characterized the new republic it was necessary for the government to establish economic policies.

- Why did federal leaders take a role in regulating the economy and raising revenue?

- What arguments were made for and against the use of protective tariffs and the establishment of a national bank?
- How did issues about the interpretation of the U.S. Constitution lead to the creation of new political parties?

British invasion resulting in economic changes and the development of U.S. foreign policy.

- What led to the outbreak of the War of 1812?
- What major events are associated with the War of 1812?
- How did the War of 1812 affect economic patterns in the United States?
- How did U.S. foreign policy change from the presidency of Washington to the presidency of Monroe?

5.1 Early Republic Outline

Early Republic 1789-1828 launching a nation and expanding

Presidency of George Washington 1789-1797 1A, 5A, 22A

1. 1. New Central Government –Cabinet (precedent)
 2. Alexander Hamilton’s economic policy
 1. Repay the Debt 5A
 2. National Bank 5B
 3. Whiskey tax 5B
 4. Protective tariff 5B, 7A
 3. Political parties 5C, 21A
 1. Federalist – Alexander Hamilton and John Jay 5C
 0. Loose constructionist
 0. strong central government
 2. Democratic-Republicans-Thomas Jefferson and James Madison 5C
 0. strict constructionist
 0. favored states’ rights
 4. Whiskey Rebellion
 5. Washington’s foreign policy 5E
 1. Proclamation of Neutrality 1793
 2. Citizen Genet
 6. Washington’s farewell address 5E
 1. Relations between North and South
 2. Warned against the rise of Political Parties
1. The Nation in 1800 –cotton gin – steamboat- interchangeable parts -urbanization 13B 27A
1. Presidency of Thomas Jefferson 1801-1809
 1. Election of Thomas Jefferson over John Adams “Revolution of 1800”
 2. Louisiana Purchase 1803 1C, 6E
 3. Marbury v. Madison 1803
 4. Embargo Act of 1807
 1. War of 1812
 1. Causes 5D
 1. Impressment of sailors
 2. U.S. ambitions in Canada
 3. British stirring Indian Attacks

2. Impact of the war of 1812 5D
 1. U.S. Preserves its independence
 2. End of Federalist Party
 3. Increased manufacturing Northeast 12C, **13A**
 4. Nationalistic feelings “Era of Good Feeling” **1A**

1. “Era of Good Feelings”
 1. Purchase of Florida 1819
 2. Henry Clay’s “American System”
 3. Missouri compromise 1820
 4. Monroe Doctrine , James Monroe 1823 **5E**, 22B
 5. Erie Canal build 1825 **27B**, 27E

1. Key Supreme Court Decisions
 1. Marbury v. Madison 1803 John Marshall 18A, **18B**, **22A**
 2. McCulloch v. Maryland 1819 18B
 3. Gibbons v. Ogden 1824 18B

5.2 George Washington: Founding Father

George Washington



FIGURE 5.1

In this portrait, *Washington at Window*, circa 1948 (artist unknown), a thoughtful George Washington pauses from his writing for a moment.

A brilliant group of political leaders emerged during the Revolutionary Era and the early years of the new nation. Collectively, they are called the **FOUNDING FATHERS** and their names are familiar — Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, and James Madison.

Late 18th-century America still had a relatively small population, yet this group of major figures looms larger and appears more talented than any similar group at any other time in the country's history. It seems clear that the momentous events of the period and their obvious significance, encouraged many, perhaps most, of these individuals to step beyond the bounds of ordinary life to achieve greatness.



FIGURE 5.2

This is a mid-19th century painting of George Washington at Valley Forge.

Perhaps the most eminent of this group, and almost certainly the single most important for the success of the Revolution and the stability of the new nation, was **GEORGE WASHINGTON**. As an able delegate from Virginia, he participated in the First and Second Continental Congresses.

However, his role in the fight toward independence became crucial during the war itself when he served for its duration as the commander of the Continental Army. After a brief retirement from public service, he once again became a political leader at the Constitutional Convention in 1787, where he was elected the presiding officer. Once Washington somewhat reluctantly agreed to be a presidential candidate, his election in 1789 received almost universal support. Everyone knew that he was the obvious choice to be the first president of the United States.

What made Washington such a towering figure even among this group of outstanding leaders? How did his personality and personal experiences help shape not only his own public career, but also the country's course in these critical founding years? Examining him in biographical detail can help us to understand many central elements of the creation of the nation. Washington's path to greatness also suggests significant ways that American life and politics have changed dramatically since the nation's founding in the late 18th century.

Growing up in Colonial Virginia



FIGURE 5.3

Charles Willson Peale portrays George Washington as Colonel of the Virginia Provincials in this oil painting from 1772.

Believe it or not, George Washington was once a kid. He rode horses. He thought about running away from home and going off to sea.

Not only does our assessment of Washington begin before he was famous, but it also starts before the distortions of mythmakers whose accounts of Washington led them to make up stories to explain his greatness. Relatively little information about his early childhood survives, but it's clear that the story of the CHERRY TREE and that young WASHINGTON NEVER TELLING A LIE is itself a fabrication.

He was born in 1732 into a Virginia family of modest wealth. Although not among the richest or most politically powerful families of the day, the Washington household property included 20 slaves by 1743. Had the family fortune continued to expand, Washington might have found himself beginning to enter the top rank of Virginia society. However, inheritance was not to be his route to greatness. George's father died when he was only 11 and he ended up moving in with LAWRENCE WASHINGTON, his older half-brother.



FIGURE 5.4

This early lithograph depicts young George Washington honing his skills as a surveyor.

Lawrence became an important role model for young George. He was particularly impressed by his half-brother's service in an American regiment of the British Army in a campaign against the Spanish in Colombia, South America.

Another important influence on George was a local boy named GEORGE WILLIAM FAIRFAX who hailed from a prominent family. Washington's skill at horseback riding won the favor of the visiting Lord Fairfax. When a surveying party went west to measure the Fairfax's vast new royal grant of land, 16-year-old George went along for the adventure. More than just fun times, the experience began Washington's life-long interest in western lands and equipped him with surveying and backwoods skills that would serve him well in the future.



FIGURE 5.5

Sulgrave Manor in Northamptonshire, England is the ancestral home of the Washington family.

As often happened in the colonial period, early death struck the Washington family once more when Lawrence died in 1752. By the age of 20 George had suffered the death of both his real and surrogate fathers. Along with this second major loss came the end of George's hopes to get an education in England — part of the required training for elite men in colonial Virginia.

George inherited Lawrence's 2600-acre estate and 18 slaves who made the MOUNT VERNON plantation profitable. In a colonial world where connections to powerful people and family tradition played an important role in securing public office, George managed to win the title of major in the Virginia militia that had previously been held by

Lawrence. Although lacking significant military experience, George Washington was about to ride into a public career that would carry him to national fame. But first he would have to ride to the frontier and make a name for himself battling French and Indian foes.

The Force of Personality and Military Command



FIGURE 5.6

The Marriage of Washington to Martha Custis, by Junius Brutus Stears, (1849). Martha's 2 children from her first marriage to Daniel Parke Custis are standing with other guests in the background.

George Washington was a serious man.

He carried himself with a grave dignity often described as aloofness. Quite the opposite of being an informal joker, Washington held people at a distance. A central part of his personality included strong self-control that avoided excessive camaraderie. Surely, his long military service played a significant role molding this character. First as a militia officer on the Virginia frontier preceding and during the French and Indian War (1754-58) and then again as the commander of the Continental Army (1775-83), Washington believed that familiarity could weaken the respect an officer needed for effective command.



FIGURE 5.7

The Battle of Fort Necessity was the first major military action in George Washington's career. The site has been designated a National Battlefield.

During his first military term, Washington had been sent west by the Governor of Virginia to try to keep the French out of newly claimed Virginia land. Such an expedition required great skill not only with the French and difficult frontier conditions, but also an awareness of the importance of Native Americans in shaping the balance of power in the contested region. The youthful Washington, basically in his first command, clearly lacked the necessary experience. His rash killing of members of a French diplomatic mission and then his defeat at the BATTLE OF FORT NECESSITY in July 1754 made for a disastrous start to the French and Indian War.

Matters were made worse by the sharp divisions that separated Virginia militia traditions from those of the regular British Army. Where Washington naively thought he had performed rather well and hoped to receive a commission to become a full-fledged British officer, the British saw him as an incompetent provincial officer who lacked the aristocratic birth, the wealth, and the skill required of a proper British officer.



FIGURE 5.8

"Discipline is the soul of an army. It makes small numbers formidable; procures success to the weak, and esteem to all." -George Washington, 1759, in a letter to the captains of the Virginia Regiments during the French and Indian War. This image is a copy of an engraving by H.B. Hall after Alonzo Chappel, showing Washington and Lafayette

at Valley Forge during the winter of 1777-78.

Washington's experience in the French and Indian War later included some bright moments and he became Virginia's most celebrated hero of the war thanks in large part to several remarkable escapes from heavy gunfire. Washington's leading knowledge of frontier conditions and enormous personal energy had made him a charismatic figure. But overall his leadership in this first long war was badly flawed.

When Washington returned to active military leadership at the start of the REVOLUTIONARY WAR in 1775, he again faced enormous challenges. But he also had matured in the decade and a half between conflicts and had developed a much more sophisticated understanding of the political dimension of military leadership. Washington had married the wealthy widow MARTHA CUSTIS in 1759 and with her money had expanded Mt. Vernon and turned it into an impressive plantation. Furthermore, he had served several terms in the Virginia legislature and had become a much more experienced leader. Although Washington's record as a military strategist is sometimes questioned, he did score a handful of absolutely critical victories in the Revolutionary War.

Washington's key strategic insight was to realize that independence depended more on keeping an army in the field than on winning major battles. In spite of a persistent lack of adequate funding from the Congress and in the face of growing conflict from his own officers and enlisted men, Washington held the army together through a skilled combination of discipline and personal example. The army's survival at VALLEY FORGE in the harsh winter of 1777-1778 is the classic example.

Washington's greatest contribution to the Revolutionary War, however, was his consistent acknowledgment of the preeminence of civilian leadership. When other military leaders might have been tempted to seize political power and rule as a more efficient strong man, Washington's respect for the preeminence of CIVIL AUTHORITY over MARTIAL AUTHORITY kept the republican experiment alive.

5.3 George Washington

The First Administration



FIGURE 5.9

Nathaniel Currier and James Merritt Ives rendered this portrait titled *The Inauguration of Washington* in 1875.

Washington happily resigned his military command at the end of the Revolutionary War in 1783. He saw himself living out his days as a farmer at Mt. Vernon. But he would be called on to lead the country again — this time not in war, but peace.

During the critical period of the 1780s Washington privately feared that the weak central government dictated by the Articles of Confederation threatened the long-term health of the nation. He supported the call for a Constitutional Convention and after some hesitation attended as a delegate where he was elected the presiding officer.

He took a relatively limited role, however, in the debate that created the proposed Constitution. Nor did he publicly favor ratification. It seems that his sense of personal reserve prevented him from actively campaigning. As he was likely to become the first president, he avoided the appearance of self-serving motivation by not aggressively supporting the Constitution in public.

The significance of the **FIRST PRESIDENTIAL ADMINISTRATION** under the Constitution is hard to overstate. The Constitution provided a bare structural outline for the federal government, but how it would actually come together was unclear. The precedent established by the first president would be enormous. Washington generally proceeded with great caution. For the most part he continued precedents that had been established under the Articles of Confederation. For instance, he carried over the three departments of the government that had existed before the Constitution.

But the nationalist Washington favored a stronger central government and made sure that executive authority was independent from total legislative control. For instance, Washington appointed his own head to each department of government whom the legislature could only accept or reject. Furthermore, Washington identified the three leaders (Thomas Jefferson as secretary of state, Alexander Hamilton of the treasury, and Henry Knox of war) as his personal "cabinet" of advisers, thus underscoring the executive's domain. Particularly in his first term as president from 1789-1792, Washington's enormous personal popularity and stature enhanced the legitimacy of the modest new national

government.

Unfortunately for Washington, events in his second term somewhat clouded his extraordinary success. For one, his own cabinet split apart as Thomas Jefferson increasingly dissented from the economic policies proposed by Alexander Hamilton, most of which Washington supported.

Even more disturbing to Washington was the emergence of a new form of political activity where the public divided into opposing parties. Although now a fundamental feature of modern democracy, Washington and many others perceived organized opposition to the government as treasonous!

These clouds at the end of Washington's public career, like the difficulties of his first military command in the 1750s, remind us that even this most stellar of the Founding Fathers hardly glided through public life without controversy. As impressive and even as indispensable as Washington had been to the creation of the new nation, he remained a leader with qualities that could not appeal to all of the people all of the time. Most interestingly perhaps, is that some of the personal qualities that made him extraordinarily effective are also ones that might make him extremely unpopular today.

Washington consciously cultivated a distance from the public and a personal reserve that made him aloof. He was a curious combination of late-18th century qualities — a regal republican whose disdain for democratic excess helped give life, power, and respectability to what would soon become the world's first modern democracy.

5.4 The First Administration

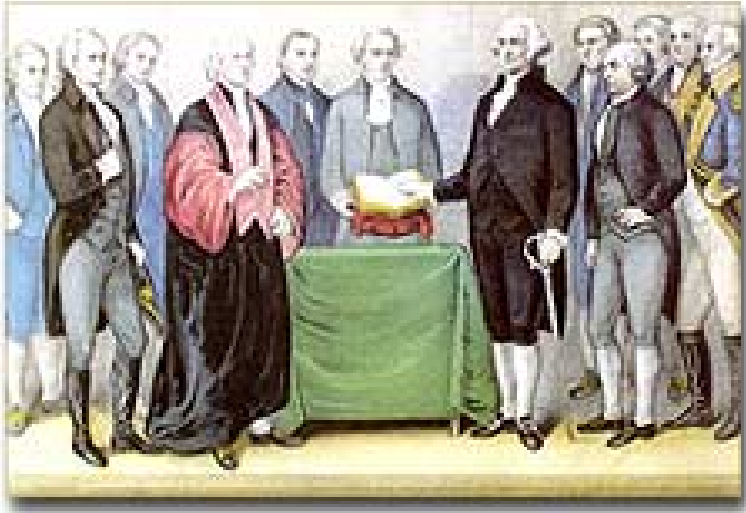


FIGURE 5.10

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He took a relatively limited role, however, in the debate that created the proposed Constitution. Nor did he publicly favor ratification. It seems that his sense of personal reserve prevented him from actively campaigning. As he was likely to become the first president, he avoided the appearance of self-serving motivation by not aggressively supporting the Constitution in public.

The significance of the **FIRST PRESIDENTIAL ADMINISTRATION** under the Constitution is hard to overstate. The Constitution provided a bare structural outline for the federal government, but how it would actually come together was unclear. The precedent established by the first president would be enormous. Washington generally proceeded with great caution. For the most part he continued precedents that had been established under the Articles of Confederation. For instance, he carried over the three departments of the government that had existed before the Constitution.

But the nationalist Washington favored a stronger central government and made sure that executive authority was independent from total legislative control. For instance, Washington appointed his own head to each department of government whom the legislature could only accept or reject. Furthermore, Washington identified the three leaders (Thomas Jefferson as secretary of state, Alexander Hamilton of the treasury, and Henry Knox of war) as his personal "cabinet" of advisers, thus underscoring the executive's domain. Particularly in his first term as president from 1789-1792, Washington's enormous personal popularity and stature enhanced the legitimacy of the modest new national government.

Unfortunately for Washington, events in his second term somewhat clouded his extraordinary success. For one, his own cabinet split apart as Thomas Jefferson increasingly dissented from the economic policies proposed by

Alexander Hamilton, most of which Washington supported.

Even more disturbing to Washington was the emergence of a new form of political activity where the public divided into opposing parties. Although now a fundamental feature of modern democracy, Washington and many others perceived organized opposition to the government as treasonous!

These clouds at the end of Washington's public career, like the difficulties of his first military command in the 1750s, remind us that even this most stellar of the Founding Fathers hardly glided through public life without controversy. As impressive and even as indispensable as Washington had been to the creation of the new nation, he remained a leader with qualities that could not appeal to all of the people all of the time. Most interestingly perhaps, is that some of the personal qualities that made him extraordinarily effective are also ones that might make him extremely unpopular today.

Washington consciously cultivated a distance from the public and a personal reserve that made him aloof. He was a curious combination of late-18th century qualities — a regal republican whose disdain for democratic excess helped give life, power, and respectability to what would soon become the world's first modern democracy.

5.5 Unsettled Domestic Issues

Unsettled Domestic Issues



FIGURE 5.11

A memorable 1776 portrait by Benjamin West, of British Colonel Guy Johnson (foreground) and Mohawk Chief, Karonghyontye, who was also known as David Hill. Notice the Indian elements in the Colonel's uniform.

Washington's towering stature and legacy might misleadingly suggest that the early years of the new nation were times of great confidence and self-congratulation. In fact, just the opposite was nearly the case. Americans knew that the historical record of the long-term success of republican governments was exceedingly poor. Previous examples and classical political theory suggested that republics almost all suffered the fate of collapsing into anarchy and then

being taken over by a power-seizing tyrant.

The Philadelphia patriot BENJAMIN RUSH keenly understood the risks facing the new nation. As a result he sharply rejected the idea that the military defeat of the British meant the end of the American Revolution. "On the contrary," he wrote in 1787, "nothing but the first act of the great drama is closed. It remains yet to establish and perfect our new forms of government."



FIGURE 5.12

Besides being a known American patriot, Benjamin Rush was also a premiere thinker in the area of neurology.

The unsettled domestic issues that threatened to overturn the new republic were varied and complex. Any one of the major crisis points of the early 1790s might overturn the fragile new government. Where was the greatest threat: the challenging legal and political issues raised during the ratification of the Constitution, the disastrous economy of the 1780s, popular protests against federal policies in the west, or the varied military threats from Native Americans, the British in Canada, and war in Europe? If any one of them could have toppled the government, imagine how their combination must have made Americans fear for the future of the country.

Most of these deeply unsettling threats would be addressed by the first federal government and usually in an aggressive manner that scored decisive victory. Interestingly, however, the solutions achieved by the first wielders of

federal power also helped to create the conditions that would force them from office and lead to a dramatic change in American politics by 1800. To understand how much changed between the presidential elections of George Washington (1789) and Thomas Jefferson (1800), the kinds of challenges that had to be faced in the first decade of government under the new federal Constitution must be examined.

5.6 Whiskey Rebellion

U.S. Military Defeat; Indian Victory in the West



FIGURE 5.13

Realizing the Whiskey Rebellion needed to be subdued, George Washington dispatched troops to western Pennsylvania. He is pictured reviewing the men at Harrisburg.

More taxes on whiskey? "No way!" said the rebellious farmers of western Pennsylvania.

New taxes placed on whiskey to increase federal revenue cut deeply into ordinary people's livelihood. In the newly settled backcountry, poverty was widespread. For farmers to survive economically, they needed to convert bulky corn and grain into more easily transported whiskey. The new taxes debilitated this crucial economic resource for many frontier settlers from New York to Georgia.

In addition to the specific issue of the whiskey tax, many backcountry settlers resented distant rule from the more populous east coast. For example, anyone in western Pennsylvania facing charges in a federal court had to travel all the way to Philadelphia to get a trial. Furthermore, renewed Indian wars in the early 1790s made westerners resentful of what they saw as easterners' indifference to the risks of life on the frontier. The overlapping resentments soon got hotter than a distillery still.



FIGURE 5.14

Fisher Ames argued eloquently for the government to protect private property and maintain public order.

The violent climax occurred in the area around Pittsburgh in the summer of 1794. Following a pattern established in the American Revolution, local farmers had begun holding special meetings to discuss their opposition to the tax as early as 1792. A mass meeting in Pittsburgh declared that the people would prevent the tax from being collected and one tax collector was even tarred and feathered in protest.

President Washington soon declared such meetings unlawful, but among ordinary settlers in western Pennsylvania he was often seen as just another large-scale landowner from the east who didn't understand local conditions. Many men would not back down in the face of what they considered an oppressive and unjust tax. Matters came to a head when an angry crowd who refused to pay the tax harassed a federal marshal, tax collector, and a handful of federal soldiers. The troops surrendered and the marshal's house was torched. Other minor protests soon swept western Pennsylvania and there were rumors of holding a convention to discuss secession from the United States.

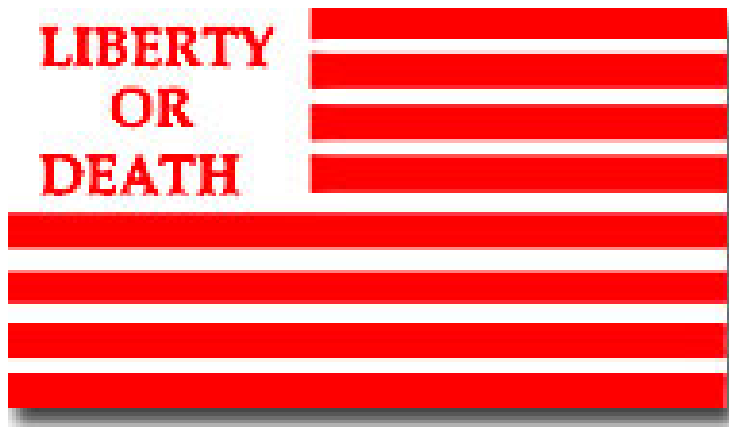


FIGURE 5.15

Whiskey distillers in what was known as "the American West" realized that new policies such as the whiskey tax favored businessmen who mass-produced the alcohol. They decided to band together under this flag.

The federal government reacted dramatically to the violence and the possibility of it spreading to other backcountry areas. Alexander Hamilton had long supported military mobilization to suppress the tax resistance in the west and supported Washington in raising a 13,000-troop force (larger than the Continental Army had ever been). When they arrived in the Pittsburgh area the resistance dissolved and the federal force had to search hard to arrest twenty men that they accused of involvement in the WHISKEY REBELLION.

The rebellion of the summer of 1794 ultimately took on more important symbolic significance than anything else. The federal government had shown itself willing to mobilize militarily to assert its authority. Furthermore, the government made plain that the west must conform to national laws that took precedence over local customs.

But many perceived the sweeping actions of the federal government as going too far. Even an ardent Federalist like FISHER AMES observed that, "Elective rulers can scarcely ever employ the physical force of a democracy without turning the moral force or the power of public opinion against the government." Like the Shays' Rebellion eight years earlier, the Whiskey Rebellion tested the boundaries of political dissent. In both instances, the government acted swiftly — and militarily — to assert its authority.

5.7 U.S. Military Defeat; Indian Victory in the West



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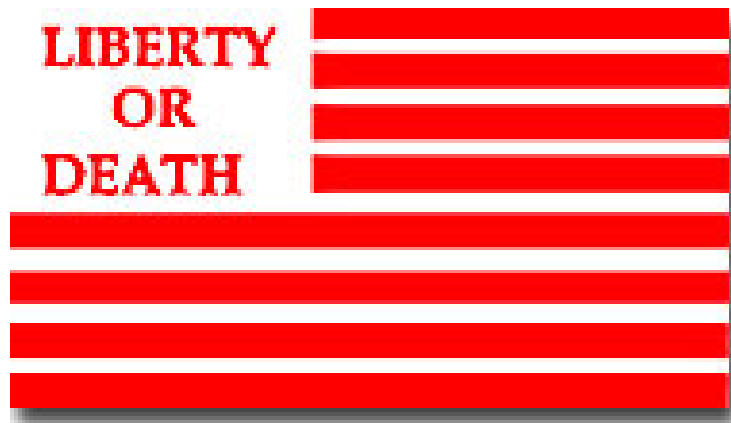


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5.8 Hamilton's Financial Plan

Hamilton's Financial Plan



FIGURE 5.19

Alexander Hamilton is one of the few American figures featured on U.S. Currency who was never president. He was killed in 1804 in a duel with Aaron Burr.

Presidents Washington (\$1), Lincoln (\$5), Jackson (\$20), and Grant (\$50) all appear on currency. But what about this guy Alexander Hamilton on the ten-spot? How did he get there? A sawbuck says you'll know the answer after reading this piece.

A major problem facing the first federal government was how to deal with the financial chaos created by the American Revolution. States had huge war debts. There was runaway inflation. Almost all areas of the economy looked dismal throughout the 1780s. Economic hard times were a major factor creating the sense of crisis that produced the stronger central government under the new Constitution.

George Washington chose the talented ALEXANDER HAMILTON, who had served with him throughout the Rev-

olutionary War, to take on the challenge of directing federal economic policy as the treasury secretary. Hamilton is a fascinating character whose ambition fueled tremendous success as a self-made man. Born in the West Indies to a single mother who was a shopkeeper, he learned his first economic principles from her and went on to apprentice for a large mercantile firm. From these modest origins, Hamilton would become the foremost advocate for a modern capitalist economy in the early national United States.

Hamilton's influential connections were not just with Washington, but included a network of leading New York merchants and financiers. His 1780 marriage to ELIZABETH SCHUYLER, from a wealthy Hudson River valley land holding family, deepened his ties to rich and powerful leaders in New York. His innovative financial policies helped overcome the fiscal problems of the CONFEDERACY, and also benefited an economic elite with which he had close ties.



FIGURE 5.20

Alexander Hamilton conceived of the First Bank of the United States as a way to standardize American currency and cope with national Revolutionary War debt. The Bank still stands today on Independence National Park in Philadelphia.

The first issue that Hamilton tackled as Washington's SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY concerned the problem of PUBLIC CREDIT. Governments at all levels had taken on so much debt during the Revolution. The commitment to pay them back was not taken very seriously. By the late 1780s, the value of such public securities had plunged to a small fraction of their face value. In other words, state IOU's — the money borrowed to finance the Revolution — were viewed as nearly worthless.

Hamilton issued a bold proposal. The federal government should pay off all CONFEDERATION (state) debts at full value. Such action would dramatically enhance the legitimacy of the new central government. To raise money to pay off the debts, Hamilton would issue new SECURITIES (bonds). Investors who had purchased these public securities could make enormous profits when the time came for the United States to pay off these new debts.



FIGURE 5.21

The spinning jenny was one of several major technological innovations that made British textiles such an economic force.

Hamilton's vision for reshaping the American economy included a federal charter for a national financial institution. He proposed a **BANK OF THE UNITED STATES**. Modeled along the lines of the Bank of England, a central bank would help make the new nation's economy dynamic through a more stable paper **CURRENCY**.

The central bank faced significant opposition. Many feared it would fall under the influence of wealthy, urban northeasterners and speculators from overseas. In the end, with the support of George Washington, the bank was chartered with its first headquarters in Philadelphia.

The third major area of Hamilton's economic plan aimed to make American manufacturers self-sufficient. The American economy had traditionally rested upon large-scale **AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS** to pay for the import of British **MANUFACTURED GOODS**. Hamilton rightly thought that this dependence on expensive foreign goods kept the American economy at a limited level, especially when compared to the rapid growth of early industrialization in Great Britain.

Rather than accept this condition, Hamilton wanted the United States to adopt a **MERCANTILIST** economic policy. This would protect American manufacturers through direct government **SUBSIDIES** (handouts to business) and **TARIFFS** (taxes on imported goods). This **PROTECTIONIST** policy would help fledgling American producers to compete with inexpensive European imports.

Hamilton possessed a remarkably acute economic vision. His aggressive support for manufacturing, banks, and strong public credit all became central aspects of the modern capitalist economy that would develop in the United States in the century after his death. Nevertheless, his policies were deeply controversial in their day.

Many Americans neither like Hamilton's elitist attitude nor his commitment to a British model of economic development. His pro-British foreign policy was potentially explosive in the wake of the Revolution. Hamilton favored an even stronger central government than the Constitution had created and often linked democratic impulses with potential anarchy. Finally, because the beneficiaries of his innovative economic policies were concentrated in the northeast, they threatened to stimulate divisive geographic differences in the new nation.

Regardless, Hamilton's economic philosophies became touchstones of the modern American capitalist economy.

Bet you \$10 you now see why he's on the \$10 bill.

5.9 Growing Opposition: Jefferson's Plan

Growing Opposition



FIGURE 5.22

Thomas Jefferson supported the plan to build the young nation's capital along the Potomac River; Alexander Hamilton disagreed with the selected site. Hamilton finally agreed to the idea when Jefferson pledged support for some of Hamilton's financial reforms.

The 1790s brought extraordinary divisions to the forefront of American life and politics. Strong differences about how best to maintain the benefits of the Revolution lay at the center of these conflicts. Hamilton's economic policies were among the earliest sources of tension. They sparked strong reactions not only from elected officials and ordinary farmers, but even split Washington's cabinet.

Thomas Jefferson, who was the secretary of state at the time, thought Hamilton's plans for full payment of the public debt stood to benefit a "corrupt squadron of paper dealers." To Jefferson, SPECULATION in PAPER CERTIFICATES threatened the virtue of the new American Republic. Even Madison, who had worked closely with Hamilton in co-authoring *The Federalist Papers*, thought the public debt repayment plan gave too big a windfall to wealthy financiers.

As a counter-measure Madison proposed that Congress should set aside some money for the original owners of the debts who tended to be ordinary Americans and not new investors and speculators.

On a pragmatic level Madison's idea would have been difficult to implement. Nearly half the members of Congress invested in public securities. They stood to benefit financially from Hamilton's plan. Its passage was doubly assured.



FIGURE 5.23

Many of Alexander Hamilton's economic policies were unpopular with people outside the northeast.

Hamilton's successful bid to CHARTER a national Bank of the United States also brought strong opposition from Jefferson. Their disagreement about the bank stemmed from sharply opposed interpretations of the Constitution. For Jefferson, such action was clearly beyond the powers granted to the federal government. In his "STRICT INTERPRETATION" of the Constitution, Jefferson pointed out that the tenth amendment required that all federal authority be expressly stated in the law. Nowhere did the Constitution allow for the federal government to create a bank.

Hamilton responded with a "LOOSE INTERPRETATION" that allowed such federal action under a clause permitting Congress to make "all Laws which shall be NECESSARY AND PROPER."

Neither side was absolutely right. The Constitution needed INTERPRETATION. In this difference, however, we can see sharply contrasting visions for the future of the republic.



FIGURE 5.24

Thomas Jefferson opposed Alexander Hamilton's fiscal policies.

Opposition to Hamilton's financial policies spread beyond the cabinet. The legislature divided about whether or not to support the Bank of the United States. This split in Congress loomed as a potential threat to the union because northern representatives overwhelmingly voted favorably, while southerners were strongly opposed. The difference stemmed from significant economic differences between the sections. Large cities, merchants, and leading financiers were much more numerous in the north and stood to benefit from Hamilton's plans.

Keen observers began to fear that sharp sectional differences might soon threaten the union. Indeed, the Bank ultimately found support in Congress through a compromise that included a commitment to build the new FEDERAL CAPITAL on the banks of the Potomac River. In part this stemmed from the fact that southern states such as Virginia had already paid off their war debt and stood to gain nothing from a central bank. While most of the commercial beneficiaries of Hamilton's policies were concentrated in the urban northeast, the political capital of WASHINGTON, D.C. would stand in the more agricultural south. By dividing the centers of economic and political power many hoped to avoid a dangerous concentration of power in any one place or region.

The increasing discord of the early 1790s pointed toward an uncertain future. The Virginian Jefferson and the New Yorker Hamilton serve as useful figureheads for the opposing sides. While Hamilton was an adamant elitist whose policies favored merchants and financiers, Jefferson, though wealthy, favored policies aimed toward ordinary farmers.

Their differences also extended to the branch of government that each favored. Hamilton thought a strong executive and a judiciary protected from DIRECT POPULAR INFLUENCE were essential to the health of the REPUBLIC. By contrast, Jefferson put much greater faith in democracy and felt that the truest expression of republican principles would come through the legislature, which was elected directly by the people. Their differences would become even sharper as the decade wore on.

5.10 Growing Opposition



FIGURE 5.25

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5.11 Native American Resilience and Violence in the West

Native American Resilience and Violence in the West



FIGURE 5.28

Blue Jacket, a Shawnee warrior, helped lead the Native American forces against Major General Arthur St. Clair in 1791. The clash left nearly 700 of St. Clair's people dead, compared with the approximately 40 Indians who lost their lives.

The early 1790s witnessed major crises on a number of different fronts from the perspective of the federal government. It faced domestic unrest from the backcountry. On the international front there was trouble with France and England. And Native Americans in the west regrouped to pose a significant threat to U.S. plans for expansion.

FRONTIER conditions were always sensitive and complicated cultural borderlands, but never more so than in the wake of the American Revolution. Almost all native groups had allied with the British and served as Loyalists during the war, but when British negotiators agreed upon the terms of the 1783 peace treaty, they offered no protection to their former Indian allies.

Most in the new American republic saw no reason to treat NATIVE AMERICANS well after the war. White settlers claimed ownership of all Indian lands west of the Appalachians by right of military conquest as well as by the terms of the 1783 PEACE TREATY. But Native Americans quite rightly rejected these claims. Indians had not suffered any permanent military defeat during the Revolution, nor did a single Native American representative attend or sign the peace treaty.



FIGURE 5.29

This painting shows the signing of the Treaty of Greenville in 1795, a year following the defeat of several Ohio Indian tribes at the Battle of Fallen Timbers. Chief Little Turtle presents a wampum belt to General Anthony Wayne.

Given these fundamental differences of opinion, the Confederation government, as well as various state governments, negotiated with Indian groups to try and secure access for white settlement in the west. Numerous treaties from the mid and late 1780s created favorable terms for new SETTLEMENT, but they were usually achieved through liquor, bribes, or physical threats.

Although the Iroquois and Cherokee still reeled from the consequences of their strong alliance with the British in the Revolutionary War, other more westerly groups spurred a collective native opposition to the increasing threat from the American republic. For example, Chief ALEXANDER MCGILLIVRAY, a mixed blood Creek in the southeast, called for expelling all whites from tribal lands and looked to the Spanish in Florida as a powerful ally against the Americans. Native groups north of the Ohio River had an even stronger ally from British Canada.



FIGURE 5.30

Although King George III's Proclamation of 1763 set the boundaries between the English colonies and Indian territory, the new United States looked to expand well beyond these lines.

By 1790 many of these native nations formed a broad Western Confederacy to defend themselves from aggressive American settlement. Raids by LITTLE TURTLE of the MIAMI and BLUE JACKET of the SHAWNEE scored major victories that included defeating U.S. military forces in 1790 and 1791.

Facing a real threat from western Indians, the federal government again chose to act through martial mobilization rather than negotiation. The U.S. army in the west was dramatically expanded. GENERAL "MAD ANTHONY" WAYNE led it to a major victory in the BATTLE OF FALLEN TIMBERS near present-day Toledo, Ohio, in August 1794. That battle shaped the conditions under which the TREATY OF GREENVILLE was negotiated in 1795. The WESTERN CONFEDERACY remained intact and the U.S. acknowledged Native American land ownership and renounced its claim to land through the right of conquest. However, the treaty also required native groups to relinquish control of large amounts of territory and bound them not to make alliances with other powers, namely the British. As far as western native groups were concerned, the Revolutionary War had only really come to an end with the treaty of 1795.

5.12 Washington declared American neutrality

Negotiating with the Superpowers



FIGURE 5.31

The USS *Constitution*, launched on October 21, 1797, is the oldest commissioned warship still afloat.

The United States was a small new country. Regardless, it found itself in the midst of the dramatic escalation of political and military conflicts brought on by the French Revolution.

President Washington declared American neutrality in the war, breaking the terms of a 1778 treaty with France that had promised mutual assistance between the two countries. While France had aided the U.S. during the American Revolution, America would not do the same for France.

Washington's decision stemmed from his philosophical commitment to non-involvement in foreign affairs, but was also based upon pragmatic considerations. Ninety percent of all U.S. imports came from Britain and customs duties

on these imports produced ninety percent of federal revenues.

The conflict in Europe created an immense opportunity for Americans. Farmers, merchants, and ship owners all stood to profit from the long European war and even American manufacturers were shielded from massive cheap imports from the Old World. The war stimulated a broad recovery of the American economy.



FIGURE 5.32

The assistance of American privateers was essential throughout the American Revolution and later during the French Revolution.

In the face of American neutrality that would continue a strong economic relationship with Great Britain, the French government sent EDMOND GENET to the U.S. as a diplomatic envoy. Controversially, Genet was instructed to enlist American aid for the French Revolution even though Washington had established a clear policy of neutrality.

In the face of this, Genet called for American privateers to harass British ships and also opened up the French sugar islands in the Caribbean for free trade with U.S. ships. Supporters of the French Revolution, as well as those who stood to benefit from the new lucrative trade opportunities, rallied to support Genet's mission. On the other hand, Federalists saw him as a renegade who broke American laws. The French superpower clearly showed to qualms about trying to force the hand of the new American republic.

Britain responded to the offer of French free trade by seizing American ships that they suspected of carrying French goods. While Americans saw this as a deep violation of their national sovereignty and right to trade as a neutral nation, the British dismissed American claims to free trade as merely war time profiteering with the enemy.



FIGURE 5.33

The Northwest Territory encapsulated land that would later become Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan and parts of the Dakotas, Minnesota and Montana.

At the same time, the British still occupied forts in the American northwest that were supposed to have been abandoned by the terms of the peace treaty of 1783. Not only did the British army still not surrender these strategic strongholds, but they also supplied Native Americans with goods and encouraged them to attack the U.S. from the west.

While France ignored American neutrality, the British engaged in covert and explicit acts of war. Washington responded to the aggressive British actions by sending John Jay, the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, on a diplomatic mission to England. He negotiated an extremely broad agreement that dealt with issues from repaying pre-Revolutionary debts, to the British forts in the west, and the rights of free trade across the Atlantic. JAY'S TREATY proved to be enormously controversial and historical judgments about its strengths and weaknesses remain sharply divided.

Clearly, America lacked the strength to force powerful Britain to capitulate on key issues. As a result the agreement largely strengthened American ties to Great Britain and was bitterly denounced by the growing political opposition to Washington and his administration. Jay became the victim of harsh public protests that included burning him in EFFIGY. The controversial treaty passed the senate with the minimum number of votes even with Washington's total commitment to its success.

The American republic was caught between the two great superpowers of the day.

5.13 Washington's Farewell Address

Farewell Address



FIGURE 5.34

The commercial center of Philadelphia in 1796 was located along the western shore of the Delaware River.

Washington departed the presidency and the nation's then capital city of Philadelphia in September 1796 with a characteristic sense of how to take dramatic advantage of the moment.

As always, Washington was extremely sensitive to the importance of public appearance and he used his departure to publicize a major final statement of his political philosophy. WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS has long been recognized as a towering statement of American political purpose and until the 1970s was read annually in the U.S. Congress as part of the national recognition of the first President's birthday. Although the celebration of that day and the Farewell Address no longer receives such strenuous attention, Washington's final public performance deserves close attention.

The Farewell Address definitely embodies the core beliefs that Washington hoped would continue to guide the nation. Several hands produced the document itself. The opening paragraphs remain largely unchanged from the version drafted by James Madison in 1792, while most of the rest was penned by Alexander Hamilton, whom Washington directed to remove the bitterness from an intermediate draft that the president himself had written. Although the drawn out language of the Address follows Hamilton's style, there is little doubt that the core ideas were not only endorsed by Washington but were beliefs that he and Hamilton had developed together as the new nation's leading nationalists.

The Address opened by offering Washington's rationale for deciding to leave office and expressed mild regret at not having been able to step down after his first term. Unlike the end of his previous term, now Washington explained, "choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it." Washington was tired of the demands of public life, which had become particularly severe in his second term, and looked forward to returning to Mt. Vernon.

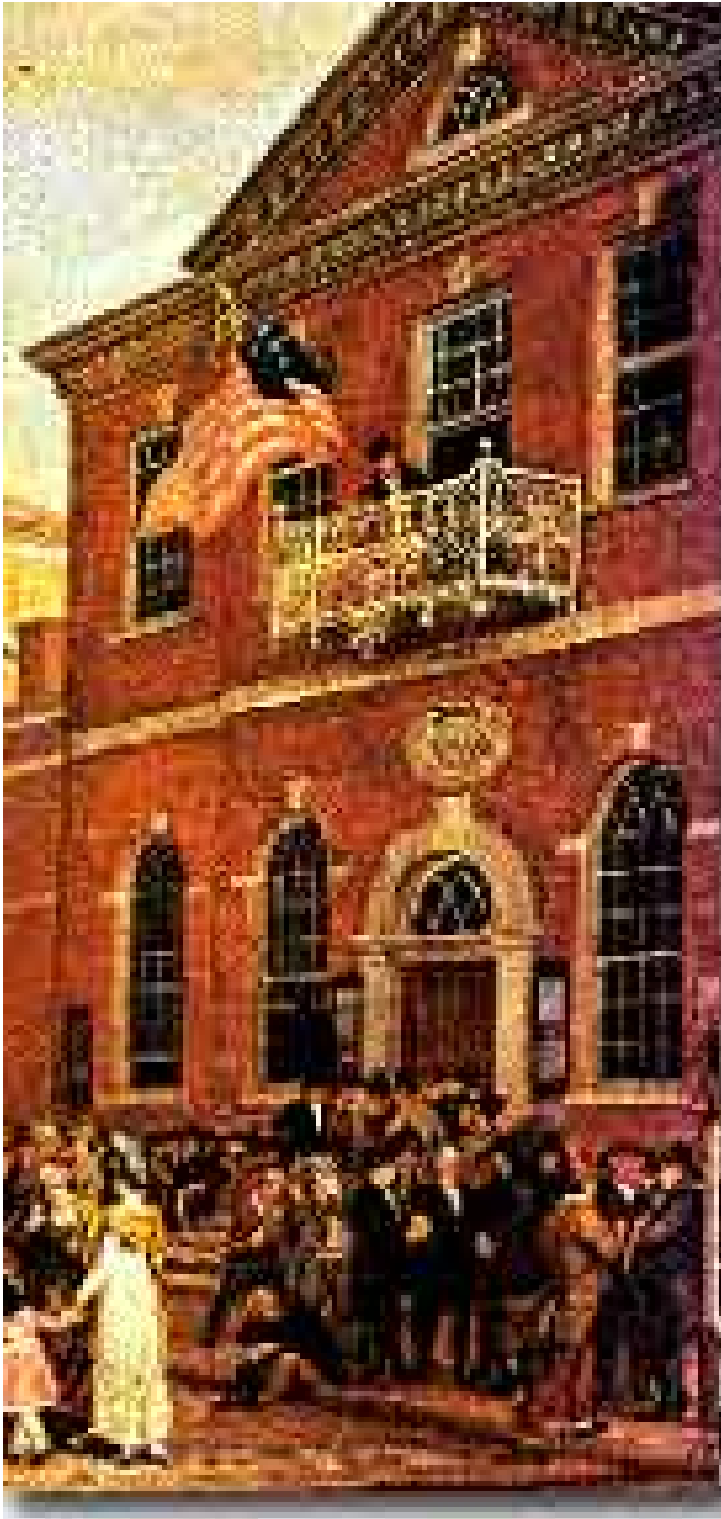


FIGURE 5.35

George Washington delivered his Farewell Address from Congress Hall in Philadelphia.

Although he might have closed the Address at this point, Washington continued at some length to express what he hoped could serve as guiding principles for the young country. Most of all Washington stressed that the "NATIONAL UNION" formed the bedrock of "collective and individual happiness" for U.S. citizens. As he explained, "The name

of AMERICAN, which belongs to you, in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of PATRIOTISM, more than any appellation derived from local distinctions."

Washington feared that local factors might be the source of petty differences that would destroy the nation. His defense of national unity lay not just in abstract ideals, but also in the pragmatic reality that union brought clear advantages to every region. Union promised "greater strength, greater resource, [and] proportionately greater security from danger" than any state or region could enjoy alone. He emphasized, "your UNION ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty."

The remainder of the Address, delivered at CONGRESS HALL in Philadelphia, examined what Washington saw as the two major threats to the nation, one domestic and the other foreign, which in the mid-1790s increasingly seemed likely to combine. First, Washington warned of "the baneful effects of the SPIRIT OF PARTY." To Washington POLITICAL PARTIES were a deep threat to the health of the nation for they allowed "a small but artful and enterprising minority" to "put in the place of the delegated will of the Nation, the will of a party."



FIGURE 5.36

George Washington's handwritten copy of his famous Farewell Address. Alexander Hamilton helped Washington edit his first draft.

Yet, it was the dangerous influence of foreign powers, judging from the amount of the Address that Washington devoted to it, where he predicted the greatest threat to the young United States. As European powers embarked on a long war, each hoping to draw the U.S. to its side, Washington admonished the country "to steer clear of permanent Alliances." Foreign nations, he explained, could not be trusted to do anything more than pursue their own interests when entering international treaties. Rather than expect "real favors from Nation to Nation," Washington called for extending foreign "commercial relations" that could be mutually beneficial, while maintaining "as little political

connection as possible." Washington's commitment to NEUTRALITY was, in effect, an anti-French position since it overrode a 1778 treaty promising mutual support between France and the United States.

Washington's philosophy in his Farewell Address clearly expressed the experienced leader's sense that duty and interest must be combined in all human concerns whether on an individual level or in the collective action of the nation. This pragmatic sensibility shaped his character as well as his public decision-making. Washington understood that idealistic commitment to duty was not enough to sustain most men on a virtuous course. Instead, duty needed to be matched with a realistic assessment of self-interest in determining the best course for public action.

5.14 ELECTION OF 1796

Two Parties Emerge



FIGURE 5.37

The State House in Boston was designed by Charles Bullfinch, who also designed the Capitol in Washington D.C.

The ELECTION OF 1796 was the first election in American history where political CANDIDATES at the local, state, and national level began to run for OFFICE as members of organized political parties that held strongly opposed political principles.

This was a stunning new phenomenon that shocked most of the older leaders of the Revolutionary Era. Even Madison, who was one of the earliest to see the value of political parties, believed that they would only serve as temporary coalitions for specific controversial elections. The older leaders failed to understand the dynamic new conditions that had been created by the importance of popular sovereignty — democracy — to the American Revolution. The people now understood themselves as a fundamental force in legitimating government authority. In the modern American political system, voters mainly express themselves through allegiances within a competitive party system. 1796 was the first election where this defining element of modern political life began to appear.

The two parties adopted names that reflected their most cherished values. The Federalists of 1796 attached themselves to the successful campaign in favor of the Constitution and were solid supporters of the federal administration. Although Washington denounced parties as a horrid threat to the republic, his vice president John Adams became the de facto presidential candidate of the Federalists. The party had its strongest support among those who favored Hamilton's policies. Merchants, creditors and urban artisans who built the growing commercial economy of the northeast provided its most dedicated supporters and strongest regional support.



FIGURE 5.38

This mural, located at the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C., represents Thomas Jefferson's views on the necessity of education.

The opposition party adopted the name DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICANS, which suggested that they were more fully committed to extending the Revolution to ordinary people. The supporters of the Democratic-Republicans (often referred to as the Republicans) were drawn from many segments of American society and included farmers throughout the country with high popularity among German and Scots-Irish ethnic groups. Although it effectively reached ordinary citizens, its key leaders were wealthy southern tobacco elites like Jefferson and Madison. While the Democratic-Republicans were more diverse, the Federalists were wealthier and carried more prestige, especially by association with the retired Washington.

The 1796 election was waged with uncommon intensity. Federalists thought of themselves as the "friends of order" and good government. They viewed their opponents as dangerous radicals who would bring the anarchy of the French Revolution to America.

The Democratic-Republicans despised Federalist policies. According to one Republican-minded New York newspaper, the Federalists were "aristocrats, endeavoring to lay the foundations of monarchical government, and Republicans [were] the real supporters of independence, friends to equal rights, and warm advocates of free elective government."

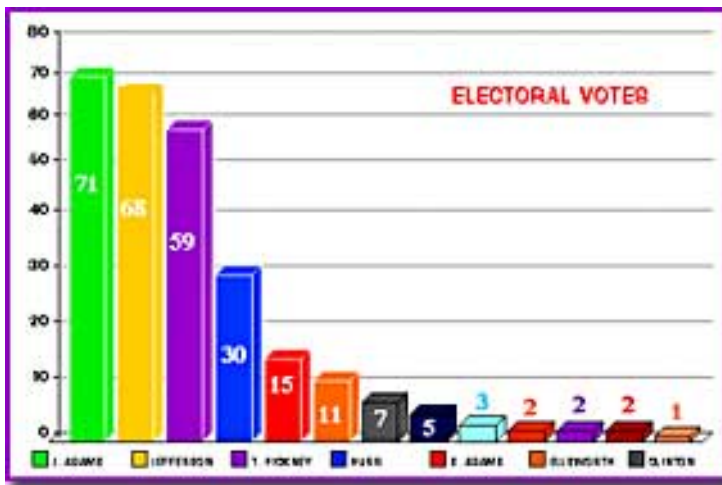


FIGURE 5.39

This chart depicts the electoral vote distribution for the election of 1796. John Adams (green) edged out Thomas Jefferson (yellow) for the Presidency, with Thomas Pinckney (purple) and Aaron Burr (blue) leading the runners-up. Jefferson's second-place earned him the Vice Presidency.

Clearly there was little room for compromise in this hostile environment.

The outcome of the presidential election indicated the close balance between the two sides. New England strongly favored Adams, while Jefferson overwhelmingly carried the southern states. The key to the election lay in the mid-

Atlantic colonies where party organizations were the most fully developed. Adams ended up narrowly winning in the electoral college 71 to 68. A sure sign of the great novelty of political parties was that the Constitution had established that the runner-up in the presidential election would become the vice president.

John Adams took office after a harsh campaign and narrow victory. His political opponent Jefferson served as second in command.

5.15 The Life and Times of John Adams

The Life and Times of John Adams



FIGURE 5.40

A mob of perhaps 30,000 people advanced toward the Tuileries Palace to capture King Louis XVI on August 10, 1792.

John Adams stands as an almost tragic figure.

Rather than continue to use the exigencies of war to build his own popularity and to justify the need for strong federal authority, Adams opened negotiations with France when the opportunity arose to work toward peace. Reconciling with France during the critical campaign of 1800 enraged many Federalists, including Adams' own secretary of state who repeatedly refused to send PEACE COMMISSIONERS to France.

Hamilton, ever the shrewd political operator, denounced Adams' actions, for a quasi-war clearly could stimulate patriotic fervor. This might help Federalists win the upcoming election. In the end, Adams only convinced the Federalist Congress to move toward peace by threatening to resign and thus allow Jefferson to become president! Vilified by his political opponents and abandoned by conservatives in his own party, Adams would be the only one-term president in the early national period until his son suffered the same fate in the election of 1828.

John Adams was a complex figure. A vain man who took offense easily, he also acted honorably in refusing to exploit war with France for personal and partisan gain. Such deeply principled actions marked his public career from its earliest days. Since 1765 Adams had been at the forefront of what would become the Revolutionary movement. Although not a striking speaker, his commitment and thorough preparation made him a key figure in the Continental Congress where he served on more committees than any other individual.



FIGURE 5.41

John Adams grew up in Braintree, Massachusetts, on the farmland his great-grandfather had cleared 100 years earlier.

Unquestionably an ardent patriot, Adams felt so strongly about the rights of the accused to a fair trial that he represented the British troops who had fired in the Boston Massacre of 1774. Adams argued their case so well that they escaped criminal penalty. During the Revolution, as well as while president, John Adams allowed his principles to determine his course of action even when they might be deeply unpopular.

Adams' life was marked by many deep contradictions. His conservatism led him to the top of the Federalist Party that by 1800 had become a minority group of elite commercial interests. However, he himself was a man of modest origins who had achieved great success through personal effort. The first in his family to attend college, as well as the first to enter a profession (as a lawyer), Adams became caricatured as an elitist. Meanwhile, the slave-owning gentleman Jefferson successfully campaigned as a defender of the common man.

The new nation that Adams had done as much as any to bring into being was fast becoming a place whose values he did not share. Adams rightly felt misunderstood and persecuted. Writing to another aging patriot leader in 1812, he explained, "I have constantly lived in an enemies Country."

Toward the end of his long life, Adams renewed an earlier friendship with Jefferson that had understandably dissipated in the 1790s and with the election of 1800. In their waning years these two towering figures began a rich correspondence that remains a monument of American intellectual expression. Adams' conservatism exerted itself in a core belief that **INEQUALITY** would always be an aspect of human society and that government needed to reflect that reality.

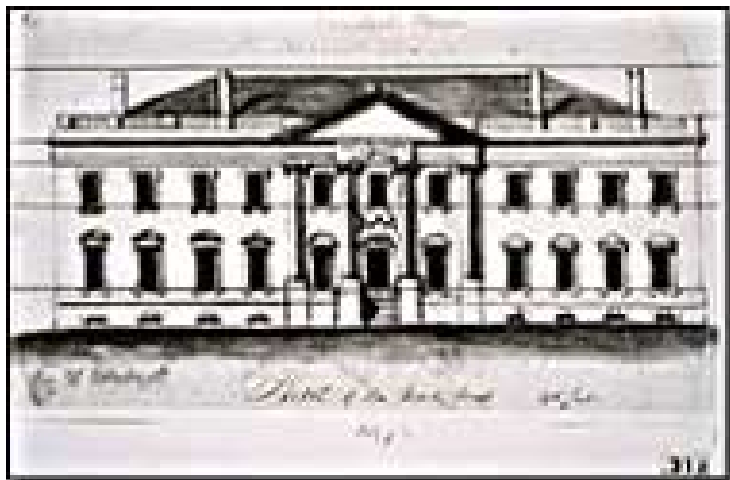


FIGURE 5.42

A sketch of the just-completed White House in 1800.

Furthermore, Adams emphasized the limits of human nature. Unlike the more optimistic Jefferson, Adams stressed that human reason could not overcome all the world's problems. Less celebrated in both his own day and ours, Adams' quiet place among the Founding Fathers is related to the acuity and depth of his political analysis that survives in his extraordinarily voluminous writings. Adams persistently challenged and questioned the soft spots of a more romantic and mythical American self-understanding.

In Benjamin Franklin's estimation, Adams "means well for his country, is always an honest man, often a wise one, but sometimes, and in some things, absolutely out of his senses."

5.16 John Quincy Adams

Politics in Transition: Public Conflict in the 1790s



FIGURE 5.43

John Adams, the second President of the United States, was charged with the task of following in George Washington's formidable footsteps.

The French Revolution. The emergence of the two-party system. Threats of war with France and England. The first transfer of Presidential political power. George Washington called "debauched" and worse. The clampdown of personal freedoms. Welcome to the political 1790s in America.

The extraordinary conflict that divided American life in the 1790s centered on divergent understandings of the meaning of the American Revolution and how its legacy should be nurtured in the new nation. Arguments about that fundamental question probably would have been controversial under any circumstances, but were dramatically heightened by the explosive example of the French Revolution. The United States was still a fragile experiment in republican government. Its domestic events and attitudes would greatly be shaped by events in Europe.



FIGURE 5.44

Painted in 1865 by Constantino Brumidi, *The Apotheosis of Washington* graces the inner-dome of the U.S. Capitol. Brumidi used classical and Renaissance imagery to commemorate the life and contributions of George Washington.

The deep conflict of the 1790s stimulated a profound new development in American politics. During the Revolution patriots had expected, and even demanded, that all virtuous people support them in a cause they saw as the only real force for the public good. Even into the 1790s, most Americans believed that there could be only one legitimate position to take on political issues. This helps to explain the rabid opinions of the period that were set before the public by a remarkable growth in newspapers during the decade. These newspapers did not pretend to be objective in how they reported events. Instead, newspapers sold issues because of their intense commitment to a particular partisan view of the contentious events of the day.



FIGURE 5.45

Despite all the good George Washington accomplished, he was still met with great criticism throughout his presidency.

Consider these diametrically opposed opinions about President Washington. A Federalist newspaper trumpeted, "Many a private person might make a great President; but will there ever be a President who will make so great a man as Washington?" Meanwhile, a Democratic-Republican paper condemned that same hero. "If ever a nation was debauched by a man, the American nation has been debauched by Washington. . . . Let the history of the federal government instruct mankind, that the mask of patriotism may be worn to conceal the foulest designs against the liberties of the people." As this newspaper suggests, most people believed that their political enemies would destroy the nation if allowed to hold power.

It was JOHN ADAMS' misfortune to be elected president in these deeply divided times. A genuine patriot and man of deep principle, domestic and international controversies placed nearly impossible challenges before the second president. If even Washington suffered harsh public attack from opposition newspapers, imagine what they were prepared to say about the less imposing John Adams.

By 1798 Adams and the FEDERALIST CONGRESS passed a series of laws that severely limited American civil liberties. Acting upon their judgment that political critics were treasonous opponents of good government, Adams followed the lead of Congressional leaders and heightened domestic repression. Adams supported policies that have subsequently been widely viewed as unconstitutional. Nevertheless, he was a moderating influence in his own party and refused to use the threat of war as a tool to exploit patriotic fervor to his own advantage. The gulf that separates our political attitudes from those of Adams and his Federalist colleagues in the late 1790s reveals the fundamental transformation of American political thought during that decade.

The Adams Presidency



FIGURE 5.46

John Marshall, delegate to France during the XYZ Affair in 1797, became Chief Justice of the Supreme Court in 1801.

Would the meddling Alexander Hamilton undermine his own Federalist party and the administration of newly elected John Adams?

The Adams administration faced several severe tests. It was a mixed administration. Adams was a Federalist. Jefferson, the vice-president, was a Democratic-Republican. Federalists were increasingly divided between CONSERVATIVES such as Hamilton and MODERATES such as Adams who still saw himself as above party politics. Hamilton opposed Adams as the Federalist candidate. This helped create the circumstances whereby Jefferson slipped past the Federalist candidate, THOMAS PINCKNEY, to become vice president. Although Hamilton resigned from the cabinet in 1795, he remained influential and his advice was sought and followed by many Federalists — even some who remained in Adams' cabinet.

Beyond these considerable problems in his own party, Adams also faced a major international crisis. The French were outraged by what they viewed as an ANGLO-AMERICAN ALLIANCE in Jay's Treaty. France suspended diplomatic relations with the U.S. at the end of 1796 and seized more than 300 American ships over the next two years.

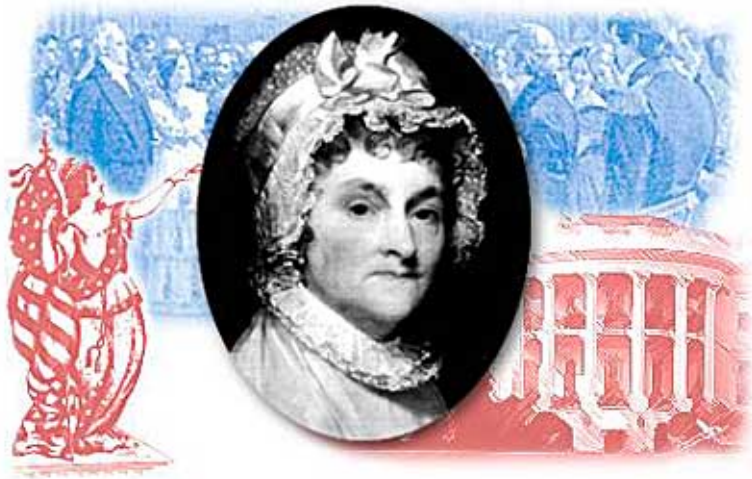


FIGURE 5.47

Abigail Adams was one of John Adams' most trusted counsels. During the years prior to American independence, the two kept up a consistent letter-writing where Abigail spoke of equality for all women as well as men.

Adams responded by sending a diplomatic mission to France. When it arrived in Paris, three agents of the French foreign minister explained that to enter into negotiations America would have to loan the French government money and pay a BRIBE to the agents themselves. This became known in the United States as the "XYZ AFFAIR." The French rebuff was seen as a blow to American honor and became a major rallying issue for Federalists, who were generally anti-French.



FIGURE 5.48

In this 1798 caricature of fledgling America's relations with France, French directors try to trick America (represented by the woman) into giving them all her money. European sympathizers, bemoaning France's plundering of their own riches, look on.

American popular support for France weakened dramatically as the Federalists effectively used the slogan "MILLIONS FOR DEFENSE, BUT NOT ONE CENT FOR TRIBUTE" to strengthen their political position. Federalists who controlled the Congress as well as the presidency raised new taxes, dramatically enlarged the army and navy, and generally increased the power of the central government in preparation for a war against France that seemed inevitable.

The Adams administration entered a "quasi-war" with France from 1798 to 1800. Although no official declaration of war had been made, the United States clearly acted as an unofficial ally of Great Britain. Only 15 years since the end of the Revolutionary War, a dramatic transition in American international alliances had occurred.

While royal France had supported colonial America in its revolutionary fight against the British, republican America now joined with Britain, its former Revolutionary enemy, to challenge the French. In spite of this dramatic change, Adams' ANTI-FRENCH POLICIES were extremely popular and significantly enhanced his public standing.

5.17 The Election of 1800

The Election of 1800



FIGURE 5.49

A captured moment in the amazing case of *The United States v. Aaron Burr*.

The ELECTION OF 1800 between John Adams and Thomas Jefferson was an emotional and hard-fought campaign. Each side believed that victory by the other would ruin the nation.

Federalists attacked Jefferson as an un-Christian deist whose sympathy for the French Revolution would bring similar bloodshed and chaos to the United States. On the other side, the Democratic-Republicans denounced the strong centralization of federal power under Adams's presidency. Republicans' specifically objected to the expansion of

the U.S. army and navy, the attack on individual rights in the Alien and Sedition Acts, and new taxes and deficit spending used to support broadened federal action.

Overall, the Federalists wanted strong federal authority to restrain the excesses of popular majorities, while the Democratic-Republicans wanted to reduce national authority so that the people could rule more directly through state governments.

The election's outcome brought a dramatic victory for Democratic-Republicans who swept both houses of Congress, including a decisive 65 to 39 majority in the House of Representatives. The presidential decision in the electoral college was somewhat closer, but the most intriguing aspect of the presidential vote stemmed from an outdated Constitutional provision whereby the Republican candidates for president and vice president actually ended up tied with one another.

Votes for President and Vice President were not listed on separate ballots. Although



FIGURE 5.50

During the election of 1800, Federalists cast Thomas Jefferson as an infidel because of his strict advocacy for the separation of Church and State.

Adams ran as Jefferson's main opponent, running mates Jefferson and AARON BURR received the same number of electoral votes. The election was decided in the House of Representatives where each state wielded a single vote.

Interestingly, the old Federalist Congress would make the decision, since the newly elected Republicans had not yet taken office. Most Federalists preferred Burr, and, once again, Alexander Hamilton shaped an unpredictable outcome. After numerous blocked ballots, Hamilton helped to secure the presidency for Jefferson, the man he felt was the lesser of two evils. Ten state delegations voted for Jefferson, 4 supported Burr, and 2 made no choice.

One might be tempted to see the opposing sides in 1800 as a repeat of the Federalist and Anti-Federalist divisions during the ratification debates of 1788-1789. The core groups supporting each side paralleled the earlier division. Merchants and manufacturers were still leading Federalists, while states' rights advocates filled the Republican ranks

just as they had the earlier Anti-Federalists.



FIGURE 5.51

Support for Thomas Jefferson throughout the entire Western frontier assured his victory over John Adams in the presidential election 1800.

But a great deal had changed in the intervening decade. The Democratic-Republicans had significantly broadened the old Anti-Federalist coalition. Most importantly, urban workers and artisans who had supported the Constitution during ratification and who had mostly supported Adams in 1796 now joined the Jeffersonians. Also, key leaders like James Madison had changed his political stance by 1800. Previously the main figure shaping the Constitution, Madison now emerged as the ablest party organizer among the Republicans. At base the Democratic-Republicans believed that government needed to be broadly accountable to the people. Their coalition and ideals would dominate American politics well into the nineteenth century.

As the first peaceful transition of political power between opposing parties in U.S. history, however, the election of 1800 had far-reaching significance. Jefferson appreciated the momentous change and his inaugural address called for reconciliation by declaring that, "We are all Republicans, we are all Federalists."

5.18 Thomas Jefferson

Jeffersonian America: A Second Revolution?

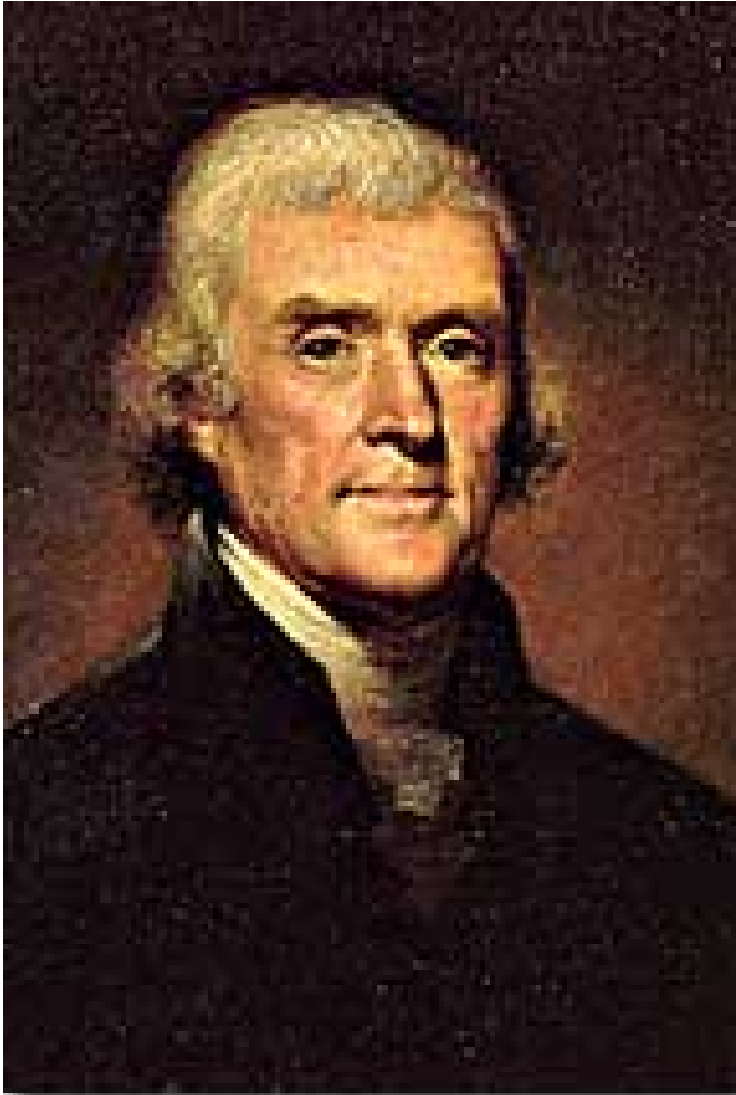


FIGURE 5.52

Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence as well as a slaveholder, was a man of many contradictions.

The harsh public antagonism of the 1790s largely came to an end with the victory of the Democratic- Republicans in the 1800 election. "THE REVOLUTION OF 1800," as Jefferson described his party's successful election many years later, was "as real a revolution in the principles of our government as that of 1776 was in its form."

To Jefferson and his supporters, the defeat of the Federalists ended their attempt to lead America on a more conservative and less democratic course. Since the Federalists never again played a national political role after

the defeat in 1800, it seems that most American voters of the era shared Jefferson's view.



FIGURE 5.53

James Madison continued the line of Virginian presidents by succeeding Thomas Jefferson.

Jefferson's election inaugurated a "VIRGINIA DYNASTY" that held the presidency from 1801 to 1825. After Jefferson's two terms as president, he was followed by two other two-term Democratic-Republicans from Virginia, James Madison and James Monroe. Regular Democratic-Republican majorities in Congress supported their long rule. Political leaders and parties played a pivotal role shaping the new nation because they could serve as outlets for large numbers of people to express their opinions about issues of public significance. For Jefferson, the election of 1800 stands as a second revolution that protected and extended the gains achieved in the Revolution of 1776.

Jefferson and his values serve as a useful organizing tool to think about the changes that America experienced in the first decade of the nineteenth century. JEFFERSONIAN DEMOCRACY refers to an American ideal as well as to a remarkably successful political movement. At the heart of both meanings of the term lies the household farm worked by ordinary families. Jeffersonian America marked a victory for common farmers as both the ideal embodiment of the American citizen and as a practical reality of who voted. As a result Jeffersonian America required that new western farmlands be cultivated as an absolute necessity for the future of the republic.

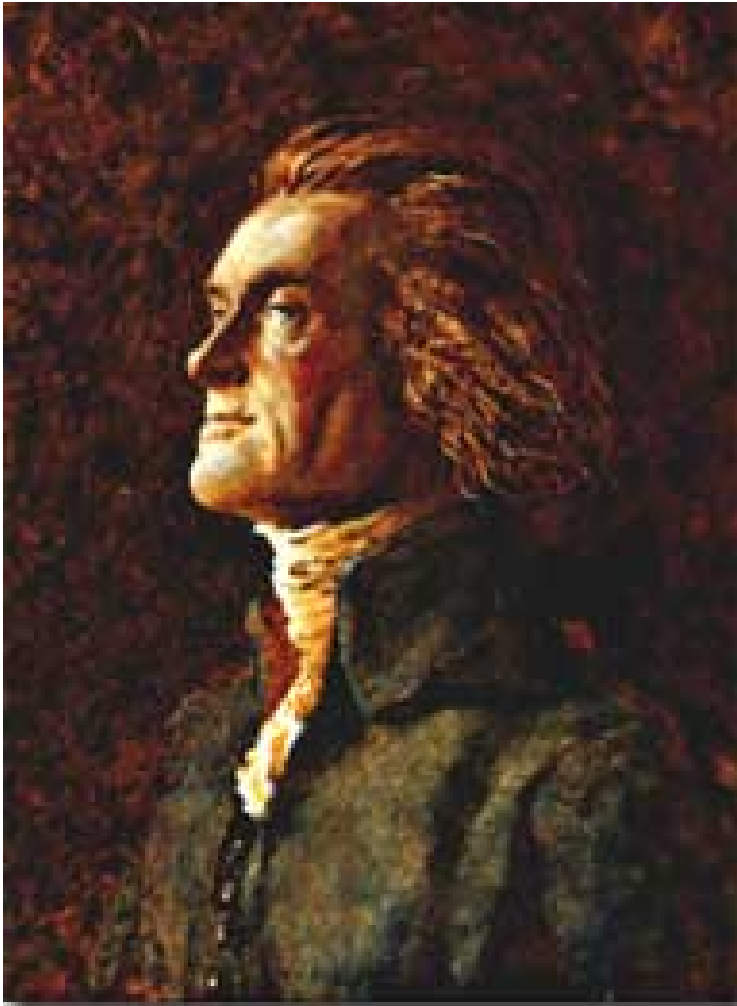


FIGURE 5.54

"Time indeed changes manners and notions, and so far we must expect institutions to bend to them. But time produces also corruption of principles, and against this it is the duty of good citizens to be ever on the watch, and if the gangrene is to prevail at last, let the day be kept off as long as possible." -Thomas Jefferson, 1821

Although Jeffersonian Democracy remains a greatly celebrated American ideal, it is important to recall that in its own day, as well as today, it drew intense criticism. Federalists never again controlled national politics like they had in the 1790s, but they remained an important force in American life and offered deep criticism of many Jeffersonian developments. The federal government itself embraced this ongoing disagreement. The CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE SUPREME COURT throughout the JEFFERSONIAN ERA, JOHN MARSHALL, was an ardent Federalist. Even while his political opponents controlled elected national office, Marshall consistently supported the supremacy of national power over the states. He led the court in establishing legal precedents to support this view.

The most serious flaw in the "SECOND REVOLUTION" of Jeffersonian America, however, came from its embrace of slavery. The party's national leaders were slave-owning elites who had no intention of including African-Americans in their broadened commitment to democracy. Jefferson probed the fundamental contradiction between slavery and democracy more eloquently than any American of the day. This led him to conclusions that were far less than revolutionary. Jefferson repeatedly acknowledged that slavery was wrong, but he never saw a way to eliminate the institution.

To Jefferson, slavery meant holding "a wolf by the ears." It was a danger that could never be released. Most disturbingly of all, Jefferson could not imagine America as a place where free blacks and whites could live to-

gether. To him, a biracial society of equality would "produce convulsions which will probably never end but in the extermination of one or the other race."

JEFFERSONIAN AMERICA is a term that helps us enter the contested and deeply contradictory nature of the United States at the start of the 19th century. Grappling fully with its meaning requires the use of sophisticated analytical skills that assess both its strengths and its weaknesses. To merely celebrate or condemn, seeing one side, but not the other, is to judge without attempting to understand.

Seeing how the best and the worst of Jeffersonian America were deeply intermixed, and continue to inform American life in our transformed circumstances of the 21st century, is among the most important purposes of historical inquiry.

5.19 Jeffersonian America: A Second Revolution?



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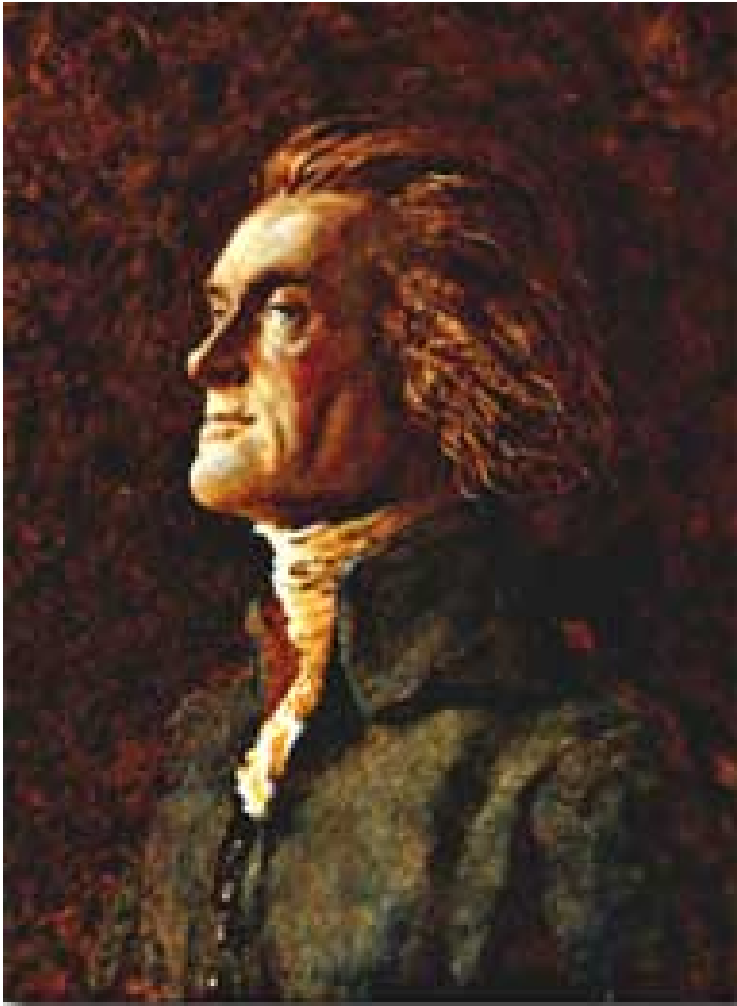


FIGURE 5.57

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TEKS in Chapter:

CHAPTER 6**Age of Jackson****Chapter Outline**

- 6.1 AGE OF JACKSON OUTLINE**
 - 6.2 AGE OF JACKSON VOCABULARY LIST**
 - 6.3 OLD HICKORY: ANDREW JACKSON**
 - 6.4 THE AGE OF JACKSON**
 - 6.5 THE EXPANSION OF THE VOTE**
 - 6.6 THE EXPANSION OF THE VOTE: A WHITE MAN’S DEMOCRACY**
 - 6.7 ANDREW JACKSON AND THE BANK**
 - 6.8 INDIAN REMOVAL ACT**
 - 6.9 THE TRAIL OF TEARS — THE INDIAN REMOVALS**
 - 6.10 AGE OF JACKSON JOURNAL**
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Democracy exists when all citizens participate in government.

- How are the wants of the majority and the minority balanced in a democracy?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:**Questions for this Unit:**

The election of Andrew Jackson led to an expansion of democracy.

- What groups of people formed the base of support for Andrew Jackson’s election?
- What policies were changed to expand suffrage to more Americans?
- What was significant about the creation of the “spoils system”?

Pressure from American settlers led to the removal and resettlement of the Cherokee Indians.

- Why did many Americans want access to Indian lands?
- What steps were taken by Andrew Jackson to resettle the American Indian tribes east of the Mississippi?
- How did Cherokee leaders respond to passage of the Indian Removal Act of 1830?

President Andrew Jackson used the power of the presidency to dissolve the National Bank and to respond to the Nullification Crisis.

- What issues led President Jackson to not renew the charter of the National Bank?
- What issue led to the Nullification Crisis and how was the crisis resolved?

6.1 Age of Jackson Outline

The Age of Jackson 1829 - 1837

1. The Presidency of Andrew Jackson 1A, 5F

1. Democrats and Whigs 21A
2. Age of the “Common Man”
3. Jacksonian Democracy
 1. Increased voting rights (eliminated property requirement) 5F
 2. Nominating convention
 3. Spoils System
4. Jackson and Native American Indians
 1. Indian Removal Act 1830 (Removes tribes East of Mississippi) 5G
 2. Worcester v. Georgia 5G
 3. “Trail of Tears” 5G
5. Nullification Crisis
 1. Tariff of Abominations 1828 7A
 2. Calhoun’s Nullification Theory 7D, **17B**
 3. Webster-Hayne Debate on Nullification (states v. people make up US) 7D, **17B**
 4. South Carolina and the Ordinance of Nullification **17B**
 0. Force Bill
 0. Henry Clay 7D
6. Jackson declares war on National Bank

1. Industrial Revolution brings Change 28A, 28B

1. New inventions
 1. Spinning Jenny
 2. Steam engine
2. Rural to Urban 27B

6.2 Age of Jackson Vocabulary list

Age of Jackson

Jacksonian Democracy - the idea that the common people should control the government

Common Man: commoner

Kitchen Cabinet: Jackson's advisors

Nullification- action of a state impending or attempting to prevent the operation enforcement of the law of United States

Nullification Crisis: Created By South Carolina, order declared by the power of the state that the federal Tariffs of 1828 and 1832 were Unconstitutional, null and void.

Protective tariffs- Tax on Imports (duty to raise price)

Suffrage - right to vote

Spoil system - rewarding political supporters with government jobs

Secede -to leave or withdraw from an organization or country

Tariff - a tax on imported goods from another country

Corrupt bargain: political agreement determined by congressional actions that many viewed as corrupt.

Resettlement: settling of a person in a new place

Trail of tears - the forced removal of Cherokee Indians from Georgia to Indian Territory in 1838 and 1839

6.3 Old Hickory: Andrew Jackson

The Age of Jackson



FIGURE 6.1

American painter George Catlin documented the disappearing tribes of the upper Missouri River. This double portrait of an Assiniboin named Wi-jun-jon (who was also known as Pigeon's Egg Head and The Light) was made in 1832.

At Andrew Jackson's 1828 inauguration, hundreds of bearded, buckskin-clad frontiersmen trashed the White House while celebrating the election of one of their own to the Presidency. Though born in South Carolina, Jackson, like many others, had moved to the frontier. Indeed, America was a country on the move west.

On July 4, 1826, less than two years before "KING ANDREW" ascended to the "throne," the Yankee JOHN ADAMS and the aristocratic Virginian THOMAS JEFFERSON both passed away. America's Revolutionary generation was gone. With them went the last vestiges of the FEDERALIST and Republican parties. This helped to bring about a new balance of political power, and with it two new political parties. The 1828 election was portrayed by Jackson's

Democrats as proof of the "common people's right" to pick a President. No longer were Virginia Presidents and northern money-men calling the shots. Class systems were breaking down. To that end, some states had recently abolished property requirements for voting. These poorer folk supported General Jackson.



FIGURE 6.2

Andrew Jackson was the first president to be sworn into office on the East Portico of the Capitol. This painting shows the oath of office being administered by Chief Justice John Marshall.

Jackson's strong personality and controversial ways incited the development of an opposition party, the WHIGS. Their name echoes British history. In Great Britain, the Whigs were the party opposed to a strong monarch. By calling themselves Whigs, Jackson's enemies labeled him a king. And they held firm in their opposition to "King Andrew" and his hated policies.

Sectional rivalries bubbled to the surface as the ERA OF GOOD FEELINGS slipped into history. The South began feeling more and more resentful of the influential manufacturers of the North. The South's resentment came to an ugly head in the nullification battle of the early 1830s in which South Carolina considered leaving the Union because it disagreed with a federal law. The Second Bank of the United States was seen by westerners and southerners as a tool to make northerners and easterners rich at the expense of the rest of the country. Through force of personality, Jackson got his way in the nullification battle and triumphed again when he vetoed the charter of the national bank. These regional rifts would only get worse over time.



FIGURE 6.3

Genocidal racist or man of the people? Andrew Jackson's legacy inspires strong feelings, but his actions often reflect the times in which he lived.

Finally, the westward movement was not only reserved for pioneers. Native Americans were moving west as well — and not because they wanted to. Andrew Jackson had initiated an Indian removal policy that forced all natives to relocate west of the Mississippi River. Indian lands were open to settlers and land speculators. Thus began another sad chapter in the federal government's dealings with Native Americans.

The Jacksonian Era was nothing short of another American Revolution. By 1850, the "common man" demanded his place in politics, the office of the president was invigorated, and the frontier exerted its ever more powerful impact on the American scene. Hated by many, but loved by many more, Andrew Jackson embodied this new American character.

The Rise of the Common Man

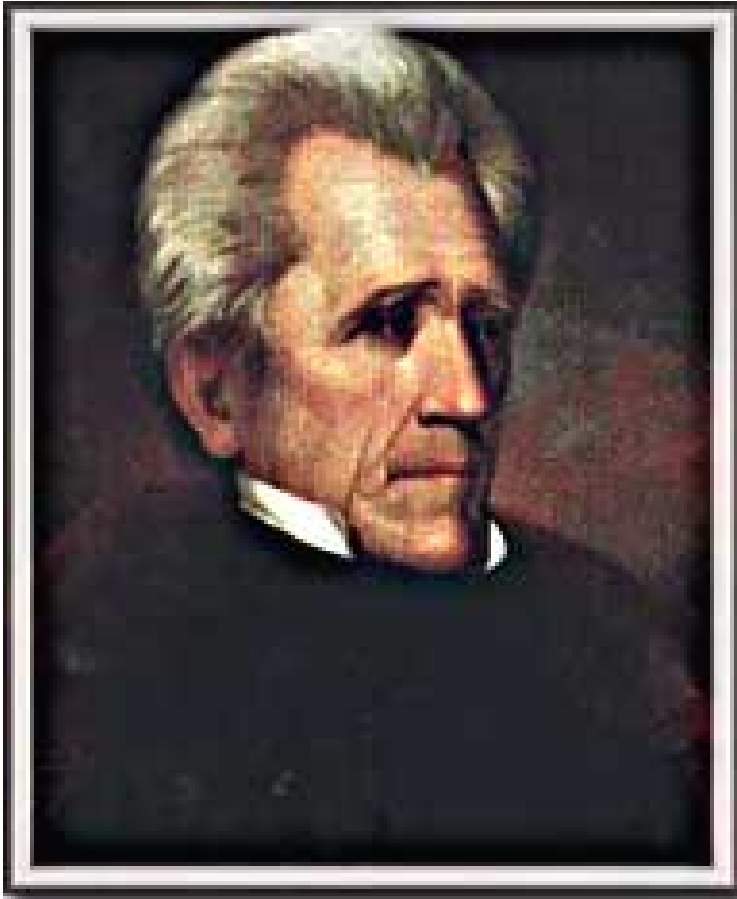


FIGURE 6.4

Andrew Jackson considered himself a spokesperson for the common man.

Growth, expansion and social change rapidly followed the end of the WAR OF 1812. Many an enterprising American pushed westward. In the new western states, there was a greater level of equality among the masses than in the former English colonies. Land was readily available. Frontier life required hard work. There was little tolerance for aristocrats afraid to get their hands dirty.

The west led the path by having no property requirements for voting, which the eastern states soon adopted, as well. The COMMON MAN always held a special place in America, but with Jackson, he rose to the top of the American political power system.

In the campaign of 1828, Jackson, known as "OLD HICKORY," triumphed over the aristocratic, reclusive and unpopular incumbent PRESIDENT JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

The First Six Presidents

George Washington John Adams Thomas Jefferson James Madison James Monroe John Quincy Adams

The first six Presidents were from the same mold: wealthy, educated, and from the east. Jackson was a self-made man who declared education an unnecessary requirement for political leadership. Indeed, Jackson launched the era when politicians would desperately try to show how poor they had been.



FIGURE 6.5

A mob of well-wishers showed up at the White House for Jackson's 1828 inauguration.

The ELECTION OF 1828 was a rematch of the ELECTION OF 1824 between John Quincy Adams and Jackson. In the earlier election, Jackson received more votes, but with no candidate having a majority, the House of Representatives chose Adams. Four years later the voices of the people were finally heard.

Jackson's inauguration in 1828 seemed to many the embodiment of "MOB RULE" by uneducated ruffians. Jackson rode to the White House followed by a swarm of well-wishers who were invited in. Muddy hob-nailed boots trod over new carpets, glassware and crockery were smashed, and chaos generally reigned. After a time, Jackson ordered the punch bowls moved outside to the White House lawn, and the crowd followed. Naturally, Jackson's critics were quick to point to the party as the beginning of the "reign of King Mob."

As a military hero, a frontiersman, and a POPULIST, Jackson enchanted the common people and alarmed the political, social and economic elite. A Man of the People would now govern the nation — America did not disintegrate into anarchy.

6.4 The Age of Jackson



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6.5 The Expansion of the Vote

The Expansion of the Vote: A White Man's Democracy



FIGURE 6.9

Frances Wright visited the U.S. from Europe. She wrote of the new American Republic: "Women are assuming their place as thinking beings, not in despite of the men, but chiefly in consequence of their enlarged views and exertions as fathers and legislators."

The rise of political parties as the fundamental organizing unit of the Second (Two) Party System represented a sharp break from the values that had shaped Republican and Federalist political competition. Leaders in the earlier system remained deeply suspicious that parties could corrupt and destroy the young republic. At the heart of the new legitimacy of parties, and their forthright celebration of democracy, was the dramatic expansion of VOTING RIGHTS for white men.

Immediately after the Revolution most states retained some PROPERTY REQUIREMENTS that prevented poor

people from voting. Following republican logic, citizens were believed to need an economic stake in society in order to be trusted to vote wisely. If a voter lacked economic independence, then it seemed that those who controlled his livelihood could easily manipulate his vote.

Ironically, just as industrial wage labor began to create dependent laborers on a large new scale, the older republican commitment to propertied voters fell out of favor. As property requirements for voting were abolished, economic status disappeared as a foundation for citizenship. By 1840 more than 90 percent of adult white men possessed the right to vote.

Not only that, voters could now cast their opinion for more offices. Previously, governors and presidential electors had usually been selected by state legislatures as part of a republican strategy that limited the threat of direct democratic control over the highest political offices. The growing democratic temper of the first decades of the 19th century changed this and increasingly all offices were chosen by direct vote. The United States was the world leader in allowing popular participation in elections. This triumph of American politics built upon, but also expanded, the egalitarian ideals of the American Revolution.

This democratic triumph, however, also had sharp limitations that today seem quite shocking. At the same time that state legislatures opened SUFFRAGE (that is, the right to vote) to all white men, they simultaneously closed the door firmly on white women and free African Americans. This movement was especially disappointing since it represented a retreat from a broader sense of political rights that had been included in some early state constitutions.

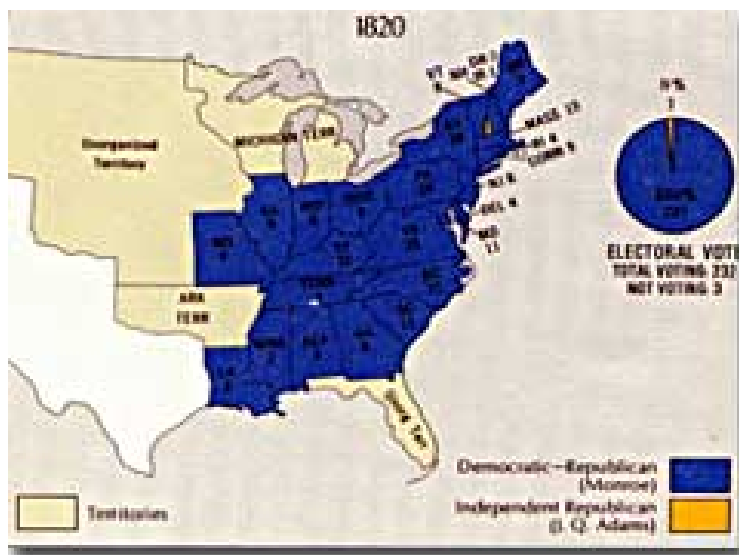


FIGURE 6.10

James Monroe nearly shut out his Presidential opponent, John Quincy Adams in the election of 1820. Monroe beat Adams 231 to 1 with 3 abstentions (electoral college votes).

For example, New Jersey revised its state constitution to abolish property requirements in 1807, but at the same time prevented all women from voting (even wealthy ones who had been allowed to vote there since 1776) as well as all free blacks. New York acted similarly in 1821 when its legislature extended the franchise to almost all white men, but simultaneously created high property requirements for free blacks. As a result, only 68 of the 13,000 free African Americans in New York City could vote in 1825. When Pennsylvania likewise denied free blacks the right to vote in the late 1830s, a state legislator explained that "The people of this state are for continuing this commonwealth, what it has always been, a political community of white persons." While he was correct about the prevailing racist sentiment among white voters, free blacks with property had not been excluded from the franchise by the earlier Revolutionary state constitution.

Tragically, the democratization of American politics to include nearly universal white manhood suffrage also intensified DISCRIMINATION by race and gender. The idea of total democracy remained too radical for full implemen-

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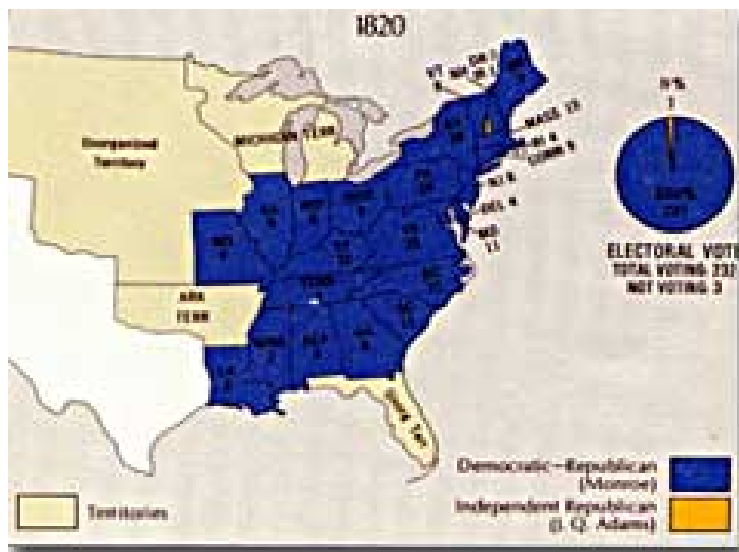


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6.7 Andrew Jackson and the Bank

he War Against the Bank



FIGURE 6.13

Jackson's actions with regards to the Second Bank of the United States resulted in his censure by Congress for abuse of power. This cartoon depicts Henry Clay sewing Jackson's mouth shut.

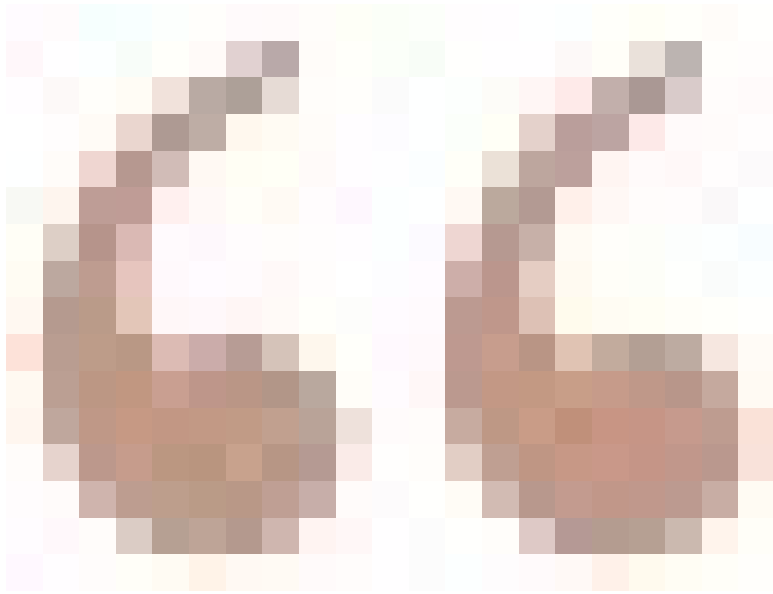


FIGURE 6.14

You are a den of vipers and thieves. I intend to rout you out, and by the eternal God, I will rout you out.

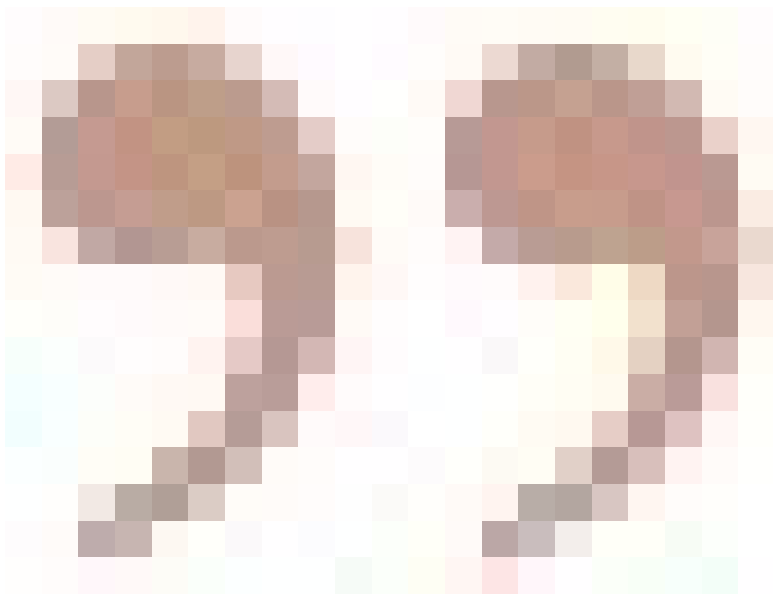


FIGURE 6.15

Andrew Jackson, to a delegation of bankers discussing the recharter of the Second Bank of the United States, 1832

The **SECOND BANK OF THE UNITED STATES** was chartered in 1816 for a term of 20 years. The time limitation reflected the concerns of many in Congress about the concentration of financial power in a private corporation. The Bank of the United States was a depository for federal funds and paid national debts, but it was answerable only to its directors and stockholders and not to the electorate.

The supporters of a central bank were those involved in industrial and commercial ventures. They wanted a strong currency and central control of the economy. The opponents, principally agrarians, were distrustful of the federal government. The critical question — with whom would President Jackson side?



FIGURE 6.16

These buildings, known as Bankers Row, are across from the Second Bank of the United States. This financial center is sometimes called "America's first Wall Street."

At the time Jackson became President in 1828, the Bank of the United States was ably run by NICHOLAS BIDDLE, a Philadelphian. But Biddle was more an astute businessman than politician. His underestimation of the power of a strong and popular President caused his downfall and the demise of the financial institution he commanded.

Jackson had been financially damaged by speculation and a tightening of bank credit early in his business career. He retained a distrust of financial institutions throughout his life. At first, however, Jackson's position on the Bank was not outwardly antagonistic. He was concerned about the Bank's constitutionality and the general soundness of paper money in place of gold and silver ("HARD MONEY"). Jackson was also sympathetic to "SOFT-MONEY" supporters from the west who wanted access to easy CREDIT.

In January 1832, Biddle's supporters in Congress, principally Daniel Webster and Henry Clay, introduced Bank recharter legislation. Even though the charter was not due to expire for four more years, they felt that the current Congress would recharter the Bank. They felt that Jackson would not risk losing votes in Pennsylvania and other commercial states by vetoing it. Jackson reacted by saying to his vice-president, Martin Van Buren, "The Bank is trying to kill me, Sir, but I shall kill it!"

Jackson's opposition to the Bank became almost an obsession. Accompanied by strong attacks against the Bank in the press, Jackson vetoed the BANK RECHARTER BILL. Jackson also ordered the federal government's deposits removed from the Bank of the United States and placed in state or "PET" BANKS. The people were with Jackson, and he was overwhelmingly elected to a second term. Biddle retaliated by making it more difficult for businesses and others to get the money they needed. This caused an economic contraction at the end of 1833 and into 1834. The bank charter expired in 1836.

6.8 Indian removal Act

The Trail of Tears — The Indian Removals



FIGURE 6.17

Over 20,000 Cherokees were forced to march westward along the Trail of Tears. About a quarter of them died along the way.

Not everyone was included in the new Jacksonian Democracy. There was no initiative from Jacksonian Democrats to include women in political life or to combat slavery. But, it was the **NATIVE AMERICAN** who suffered most from Andrew Jackson's vision of America. Jackson, both as a military leader and as President, pursued a policy of removing **INDIAN TRIBES** from their **ANCESTRAL LANDS**. This relocation would make room for **SETTLERS** and often for **SPECULATORS** who made large profits from the purchase and sale of land.



FIGURE 6.18

According to legend, a Cherokee rose, the state flower of Georgia, grew in every spot a tear fell on the Trail of Tears. Today the flowers grow along many of the trails that the Native Americans took West.

Indian policy caused the President little political trouble because his primary supporters were from the southern and western states and generally favored a plan to remove all the Indian tribes to lands west of the Mississippi River. While Jackson and other politicians put a very positive and favorable spin on Indian removal in their speeches, the removals were in fact often brutal. There was little the Indians could do to defend themselves. In 1832, a group of about a thousand SAC AND FOX INDIANS led by CHIEF BLACK HAWK returned to Illinois, but militia members easily drove them back across the Mississippi. The Seminole resistance in Florida was more formidable, resulting in a war that began under CHIEF OSCEOLA and lasted into the 1840s.



FIGURE 6.19

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Sequoyah, the child of a Native American woman and a white settler, came up with the first Cherokee alphabet in the early 1800s. By 1821 the Cherokee Nation had officially recognized this form of writing and thousands of Cherokee became literate.

The CHEROKEES of Georgia, on the other hand, used legal action to resist. The Cherokee people were by no means frontier savages. By the 1830s they developed their own written language, printed newspapers and elected leaders to representative government. When the government of Georgia refused to recognize their autonomy and threatened to seize their lands, the Cherokees took their case to the U.S. Supreme Court and won a favorable decision. John Marshall's opinion for the Court majority in *Cherokee Nation v. Georgia* was essentially that Georgia had no jurisdiction over the Cherokees and no claim to their lands. But Georgia officials simply ignored the decision, and President Jackson refused to enforce it. Jackson was furious and personally affronted by the Marshall ruling, stating, "Mr. Marshall has made his decision. Now let him enforce it!"

Finally, federal troops came to Georgia to remove the tribes forcibly. As early as 1831, the army began to push the Choctaws off their lands to march to Oklahoma. In 1835, some Cherokee leaders agreed to accept western land and payment in exchange for relocation. With this agreement, the TREATY OF NEW ECHOTA, Jackson had the green light to order Cherokee removal. Other Cherokees, under the leadership of CHIEF JOHN ROSS, resisted until the bitter end. About 20,000 Cherokees were marched westward at gunpoint on the infamous TRAIL OF TEARS. Nearly a quarter perished on the way, with the remainder left to seek survival in a completely foreign land. The tribe became hopelessly divided as the followers of Ross murdered those who signed the Treaty of New Echota.

The Trail of Tears is the most sorrowful legacy of the Jacksonian Era.

6.9 The Trail of Tears — The Indian Removals



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6.10 Age of Jackson Journal

age of

8.1A Readiness Standard

Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including the Age of Jackson and describe their causes and effects.

- Age of Jackson
 - Indian policies
 - Bank crisis
 - Jacksonian Democracy/expanded suffrage
 - Nullification crisis

8.1B Supporting Standard Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

8.5B Supporting Standard Summarize arguments regarding protective tariffs, taxation, and the banking system.

- Protective Tariffs – high tariffs (taxes on imports) protect domestic manufacturers from foreign competition who sell their products at lower prices. The other side is that high tariffs prevent consumers from purchasing the foreign products at lower prices. High tariffs on foreign goods on common purchases were favored by North because their economy was based on manufacturing. Tariffs caused economic hardships in the South because of the amount of goods that the South purchased from Europe. During the Andrew Jackson administration, a tariff debate continued to develop. Congress endorsed high tariffs on any goods manufactured in Europe. Many Americans welcomed these protective tariffs, especially Americans living in the Northeastern states where industry thrived. Southerners were in disagreement with the protective tariffs because Americans would now have to pay higher prices for goods manufactured in the U.S.
- Low tariffs – allows for greater volume of trade between countries, but often at the expense of the domestic traders. The consumers are happy to have access to many goods at low prices.
- Taxation – high taxes take money away from the consumer, so the government can provide services and infrastructure that benefit the economy and the citizens. Low taxes leave more money for the consumer to spend and stimulate economic growth; effected southern economy more than north. Most taxation was based on tariffs. Andrew Jackson opposed a strong central government and opposed unreasonable taxation exercised by the federal government. Jackson believed that taxation could quickly lead to an abuse of power and control over the American people.
- Banking System – as industries began to start and expand the need for capital (in the form of loans) increased, the banking industry became very important to the growth of the economy. Banks were also important to

the farmer, who often borrowed money from banks, using their future crop as collateral. James Madison and Thomas Jefferson supported a strict interpretation of the Constitution. They believed that the power of the government should be clearly stated in the Constitution. A national bank was not in the Constitution. Alexander Hamilton supported a loose interpretation of the Constitution. He believed having a bank was “necessary and proper” (elastic clause). Based on this view, when the Constitution grants a power to Congress, it also grants Congress the “necessary and proper” means to carry out that power.

- The Bank of the United States was extremely powerful and it controlled the nation’s money supply. Jackson viewed this bank as a bank made up of elitists run by private wealthy bankers. When Jackson was given the option to sign a renewed charter bank bill, he decided to veto it instead.

8.5F Supporting Standard Explain the impact of the election of Andrew Jackson, including expanded suffrage.

- Andrew Jackson’s election signaled a shift of power to the common man as the base of his support was from laborers, farmers and average Americans and he pursued a policy to eliminate the National Bank he felt favored the interests of the wealthy
- Expansion of suffrage when many states eliminated property ownership for voting
- Government by the people or “Jacksonian Democracy”, included the end of property qualifications to vote, creation of the “spoils system” where loyal supporters were given government posts, and new more populist forms of election campaigning

8.5G Supporting Standard

Analyze the reasons for the removal and resettlement of Cherokee Indians during the Jacksonian era, including the Indian Removal Act, *Worcester v. Georgia*, and the Trail of Tears.

- Early in the 19th century, while the rapidly-growing United States expanded into the lower South, white settlers faced what they considered an obstacle. This area was home to several American Indian nations. These Indian nations, in the view of the settlers and many other white Americans, were standing in the way of progress. Eager for land to raise cotton, the settlers pressured the federal government to acquire Indian Territory.

Policies

- Native Americans could occupy U.S. lands, but they could not hold title to that land (Supreme Court ruling in 1823).
- Indian Removal Act – gave the president power to negotiate removal treaties with Indian tribes living east of the Mississippi. Under these treaties, the Indians were to give up their lands east of the Mississippi in exchange for lands to the west. Those wishing to remain in the east would become citizens of their home state. This act affected not only the southeastern nations, but many others further north. The removal was supposed to be voluntary and peaceful, and it was that way for the tribes that agreed to the conditions. The southeastern nations resisted, and Jackson forced them to leave.
- *Worcester v. Georgia*
 - The Cherokee used legal means in their attempt to safeguard their rights. They sought protection from land-hungry white settlers. The Cherokee adopted a written constitution declaring themselves to be a sovereign nation. They based this on United States policy; in former treaties, Indian nations had been declared sovereign so they would be legally capable of ceding their lands. The state of Georgia, however, did not recognize their sovereign status, but saw them as tenants living on state land. The Cherokee took their case to the Supreme Court, which ruled against them.
 - The Cherokee went to the Supreme Court again in 1831. This time they based their appeal on an 1830 Georgia law which prohibited whites from living on Indian territory after March 31, 1831, without a license from the state. The state legislature had written this law to justify removing white missionaries

who were helping the Indians resist removal. The court this time decided in favor of the Cherokee. It stated that the Cherokee had the right to self-government, and declared Georgia's extension of state law over them to be unconstitutional. The state of Georgia refused to abide by the Court decision, however, and President Jackson refused to enforce the law.

- Trail of Tears – in 1836, the Cherokee were given two years to migrate voluntarily, at the end of which time they would be forcibly removed. By 1838 only 2,000 had migrated; 16,000 remained on their land. The U.S. government sent in 7,000 troops, who forced the Cherokees into stockades at bayonet point. They were not allowed time to gather their belongings, and as they left, whites looted their homes. Then began the march known as the Trail of Tears, in which 4,000 Cherokee people died of cold, hunger, and disease on their way to the western lands.

8.17B Readiness Standard Explain constitutional issues arising over the issue of states' rights, including the Nullification Crisis.

- Nullification Crisis and states' rights – revolved around the ability of a state to declare federal laws unconstitutional
- In 1828, the Tariff of Abominations was passed, resulting in a higher tariff. In 1832, a lower tariff was passed, but this still angered South Carolinians, led by Senator John C. Calhoun. South Carolina declared the federal tariff null and void within its borders. Delegates to a special convention urged the state legislature to take military action and to secede from the union if the federal government demanded the customs duties. To prevent a civil war, Henry Clay proposed the Compromise Tariff of 1833; government lowers tariff and backs down.

8.18A Readiness Standard

ORIGIN OF JUDICIAL REVIEW AND EXAMPLES OF CONGRESSIONAL AND PRESIDENTIAL RESPONSES

- Presidential Response: In *Worcester v. Georgia* (1832) the court ruled in favor of Worcester. The U.S. government and not the state of Georgia had the authority to make treaties or any type of regulations with American Indian tribes. President Andrew Jackson responded by enforcing the Indian Removal Act. He also responded by siding with Georgia and chose not to enforce the Supreme Court ruling.

8.21A Identify different points of view of political parties and interest groups on important historical and contemporary issues. Supporting Standard

Age of Jackson

- Democratic-Republicans split into the Democratic Party and the Whig Party. Democrats were supporters of Jackson and Whigs were opponents of Jackson.

8.23C Identify ways conflicts between people from various racial, ethnic, and religious groups were resolved. Supporting Standard

- Treaties
 - The federal government attempted a variety of treaties with American Indian tribes to reduce conflict along the frontier
- Migration
 - Mormons – set up their independent community to avoid persecution
- Legislation
 - After the U.S.-Mexican War, conflicts arose over land claims in California between former Mexican citizens and new settlers
- Judicial decisions
 - Cherokee Nation used the federal courts to try to resolve issues with state laws

CHAPTER

7

Westward Expansion: Manifest Destiny

Chapter Outline

- 7.1 WESTWARD EXPANSION: MANIFEST DESTINY OUTLINE
 - 7.2 WESTWARD EXPANSION: MANIFEST DESTINY VOCBULARY
 - 7.3 CAUSE AND EFFECT OF MEXICAN AMERICAN WAR
 - 7.4 THE LONE STAR REPUBLIC
 - 7.5 GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
 - 7.6 WHAT IS MANIFEST DESTINY?
 - 7.7 MANIFEST DESTINY
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

- Students may not understand that westward expansion was a constantly occurring phenomenon starting from the earliest colonial settlements.
- Students may not understand that the American West was already inhabited by hundreds of settled and nomadic American Indian societies with a combined population of hundreds of thousands.

Humans migrate for a variety of reasons.

- Why are humans driven to explore and settle new frontiers?

Questions for this Unit:

As the idea of Manifest Destiny spread it became necessary for the United States to establish procedures for the admission of new states.

- Why did the concept of Manifest Destiny develop in the United States?
- What procedures were established by the Northwest Ordinance?

Settlers migrated west for a variety of reasons resulting in changing population patterns in the American West.

- What role did Lewis and Clark play in the expansion of the United States?
- What motivated many pioneers to migrate to the American West?
- Which trails became popular routes for westward migrants?
- What was characteristic of human interactions with the environment at this time?
- How did westward expansion affect the American Indians in the West?
- How did the United States use treaties with American Indian societies?

Throughout the nineteenth century the United States continued to acquire territory, including gaining land from Mexico following a war.

- What caused the outbreak of the U.S.-Mexican War?
- What land did the United States gain in the peace settlement of the U.S.-Mexican war?
- What territories were acquired that reflect the current organization of the United States?

7.1 Westward Expansion: Manifest Destiny Outline

Manifest Destiny and Pre-Civil War Sectionalism

1. America Expands Westward 1A
 1. Louisiana Purchase 1803 6E
 2. Purchase of Florida 1819 6E
 3. Manifest Destiny **6B**, 6C
 4. Oregon Territory 1846
 5. Mormons in Utah
 6. Annexation of Texas 1845 **6D**
 7. US Mexican War 1846-1848 **6D**
 8. Gadsden Purchase 1853 6E
 9. California Gold Rush – “Forty-Niners”

Sectional differences 1A , 7C , 12B , **12D**

1. North (Industry and manufacturing, life of factory workers)
2. West Land (Bread Basket), resources (gold, silver, timber) **12D**
3. South (King Cotton, cotton gin, slavery)

7.2 westward Expansion: Manifest Destiny Vocabulary

Westward Expansion

Manifest Destiny - The belief that U.S. was to expand territory from sea to sea. (Atlantic to Pacific)

Ordinance - way for a territory to become a state (60,000)

Expansion - To grow larger

Resolution - a decision

Treaty - an agreement between two parties

Expansionism - expanding a territory of a country

Physical Geography - Physical environment (Ex. Lakes, rivers, mountains)

Annexation - To take over

Frontier - unexplored wildness

Territory - a region of land

Mormons - Members of Church in Utah Church of Latter Day Saints

Forty-niners - People who joined gold rush in California in 1849

Migration - to move from one place to another

Immigrant - a person who moved from one country to another

Potato Famine - Disease that involved potatoes.

Cession - to surrender land territory

Mexican American War - War with Mexico from 1846-1847 that resulted in Mexico ceding the United States a huge region from Texas to California.

Oregon Trail: overland route that stretched from 2000 miles from Independence Missouri to Columbia River in Oregon.

Santa Fe Trail: Important path to the West, Missouri to Santa Fe New Mexico.

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7.3 Cause and Effect of Mexican American War

The Lone Star Republic



FIGURE 7.1

Chamber of Commerce, Huntsville, TX

Sam Houston, President of the Republic of Texas

At the time Spain granted independence to Mexico in 1821, the land now comprising the state of Texas was very sparsely populated. The Mexican government actually encouraged the settlement of the area by American pioneers.

In 1823, STEPHEN AUSTIN led 300 American families onto land granted to his father by the Mexican government. A prosperous province was greatly in the interest of Mexico, so no alarm was raised. Mexico was also interested in creating a buffer zone between the Mexican heartland and the COMANCHE TRIBE.

There were, however, strings attached.

The American settlers were expected to become Mexican. All immigrants from the United States were by law forced

to become Catholic. When the Mexican government outlawed slavery in 1829, it expected the Texans to follow suit. None of the conditions were met, and a great cultural war was underway.



FIGURE 7.2

Today the Alamo is also known as the "Shrine of Texas Liberty."

In the hopes of easing tensions, Stephen Austin journeyed to Mexico City in 1833. But Mexico's dictator, SANTA ANNA, was not the negotiating type. Austin was simply thrown in jail. Although he was released after 18 months, relations between the Texans and the Mexicans deteriorated. Finally in 1835, war broke out between Santa Anna's troops and a ragtag group of Texan revolutionaries. On March 2, 1836, representatives from Texas formally declared their independence. Four days later, Santa Anna completed an infamous siege on the ALAMO mission.

Despite a 13-day holdout, the 187 Texans were crushed by Santa Anna's forces, which numbered 5000 strong. The deaths of commander WILLIAM TRAVIS, JIM BOWIE, and DAVY CROCKETT angered Americans as cries of "REMEMBER THE ALAMO!" rang throughout the land. Americans flocked to Texas, and, led by commander SAM HOUSTON, defeated Santa Anna's forces. On May 14, 1836, Santa Anna grudgingly recognized Texan independence.



FIGURE 7.3

On March 1, 1836, while the Battle of the Alamo raged miles away, 59 men signed Texas's Declaration of Independence.

Texan-Americans were not the only ones fighting for independence. The TEJANO people, Spanish-speaking settlers of Texas, also supported the TEXAS REVOLUTION. They had hoped for greater control over their local affairs.

They fought side-by-side with Houston's troops against Santa Anna's soldiers. After the war, there was quite a bit of disillusionment. The Americans who swarmed into Texas did not distinguish between Tejanos and Mexicans. In the decade that followed, the Tejanos found themselves shut out of the new Texas government as well.

Most TEXAN-AMERICANS wanted to be annexed by the United States. They feared that the Mexican government might soon try to recapture their land. Many had originally come from the American south and had great interest in becoming a southern state. President Andrew Jackson saw trouble. Many Whigs and Abolitionists in the North refused to admit another slave state to the Union. Rather than risk tearing the nation apart over this controversial issue, Jackson did not pursue annexation. The Lone Star flag flew proudly over the LONE STAR REPUBLIC for nine years.

Texas was an independent country.

7.4 The Lone Star Republic



FIGURE 7.4

Chamber of Commerce, Huntsville, TX

Sam Houston, President of the Republic of Texas

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7.5 Gadsden Purchase 1853

7.6 What is Manifest Destiny?

Manifest Destiny



FIGURE 7.7

Library of Congress

In the 1850s trains were leaving Washington for the West twice daily.

Expansion westward seemed perfectly natural to many Americans in the mid-nineteenth century. Like the Massachusetts Puritans who hoped to build a "city upon a hill," courageous pioneers believed that America had a divine

obligation to stretch the boundaries of their noble republic to the Pacific Ocean. Independence had been won in the Revolution and reaffirmed in the War of 1812. The spirit of nationalism that swept the nation in the next two decades demanded more territory. The "every man is equal" mentality of the Jacksonian Era fueled this optimism. Now, with territory up to the Mississippi River claimed and settled and the Louisiana Purchase explored, Americans headed west in droves. Newspaper editor JOHN O'SULLIVAN coined the term "MANIFEST DESTINY" in 1845 to describe the essence of this mindset.



FIGURE 7.8

A symbol of Manifest Destiny, the figure "Columbia" moves across the land in advance of settlers, replacing darkness with light and ignorance with civilization.

The religious fervor spawned by the Second Great Awakening created another incentive for the drive west. Indeed, many settlers believed that God himself blessed the growth of the American nation. The Native Americans were considered heathens. By Christianizing the tribes, American missionaries believed they could save souls and they became among the first to cross the Mississippi River.

Economic motives were paramount for others. The fur trade had been dominated by European trading companies since colonial times. German immigrant John Jacob Astor was one of the first American entrepreneurs to challenge the Europeans. He became a millionaire in the process. The desire for more land brought aspiring homesteaders to the frontier. When gold was discovered in California in 1848, the number of migrants increased even more.

At the heart of manifest destiny was the pervasive belief in American cultural and racial superiority. Native Americans had long been perceived as inferior, and efforts to "civilize" them had been widespread since the days of John Smith and MILES STANDISH. The Hispanics who ruled Texas and the lucrative ports of California were also seen as "backward."



FIGURE 7.9

In 1840, the entire southwestern corner of the United States was controlled by foreign powers (shown in orange), and the territorial dispute over the Oregon Territory (light green) had not been settled. By 1850 the U.S. had control of lands from the Atlantic to the Pacific, covering almost all of today's continental United States.

Expanding the boundaries of the United States was in many ways a cultural war as well. The desire of southerners to find more lands suitable for cotton cultivation would eventually spread slavery to these regions. North of the Mason-Dixon line, many citizens were deeply concerned about adding any more slave states. Manifest destiny touched on issues of religion, money, race, patriotism, and morality. These clashed in the 1840s as a truly great drama of regional conflict began to unfold.

7.7 Manifest Destiny



FIGURE 7.10

Library of Congress

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TEKS in the Chapter

8.1A Readiness Standard Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including westward expansion.

Describe

- Westward Expansion
 - Northwest Ordinance
 - Manifest Destiny
 - Annexation of Texas
 - War With Mexico
 - Gold rush

8.1B Supporting Standard Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

8.1C Supporting Standards Explain the significance of the following dates: 1803, Louisiana Purchase;

1803 – Louisiana Purchase (and establishment of judicial review from *Marbury v. Madison*), significant because it doubled the size of the territory controlled by the United States government

8.6A Explain how the Northwest Ordinance established principles and procedures for orderly expansion of the United States. Readiness Standard

- The process for admitting new states into the United States was unclear in the 1780s.
- The Northwest Ordinance (1787) created an orderly procedure for establishing territories and applying for statehood; needed to address competing claims to land west of the Appalachian Mountains
- Territories were initially governed by appointed officials from Congress. Election of a self-governing representative body was allowed in the territory after achieving a population of 5,000. The territorial government could apply for statehood once the population achieved 60,000.

8.6B Explain the political, economic, and social roots of Manifest Destiny. Readiness Standard

- Economic – new land for farmers; new resources and raw materials; new trade routes and markets (Santa Fe Trail); new opportunities to start a business; low prices for land following financial panics of 1819 and 1837; land ownership signified wealth
- Political – expand the nation’s borders/territory to provided security; desire to expand democracy
- Social – refuge for persecuted groups (Mormons), romantic notions of life in the West; American individualism was personified in the pioneers, population pressures in the eastern United States.

8.6C Analyze the relationship between the concept of Manifest Destiny and the westward growth of the nation. Supporting Standard

- The U.S. government and its citizens believed that the nation's destiny or fate was to expand westward from sea to sea.
- Signing of the Oregon Treaty (1846) achieved the U.S. goal of having access to the Pacific Ocean

8.6D Explain the causes and effects of the U.S.-Mexican War and their impact on the United States. **Readiness Standard**

Causes

- President Polk desired to expand the United States (Manifest Destiny) and annexed the Republic of Texas in 1845.
- Border dispute concerning the southern boundary of Texas (Rio Grande was claimed by the United States and disputed by Mexico)

Effects and Impact

- Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848) ends the war, grants the United States the Mexican Cession for \$15 million – includes territory found today in the modern states of New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Wyoming, and California
- United States later paid Mexico \$10 million for the Gadsden Purchase for a railway right-of-way through southern Arizona to avoid mountainous terrain (1854); last major territorial acquisition for the contiguous United States
- United States territory extended from Atlantic to Pacific coasts
- Brought to light the slavery issue once again when California requested admission as a state, the Compromise of 1850 addressed many issues by balancing the concerns of abolitionists and slave-holders – abolitionists gained California as a free state while Southern slave-holders were pacified with passage of the Fugitive Slave Act, Texas established its borders in exchange for the U.S. government paying its debts to Mexico, territories in the Southwest were established without addressing their status as a free or slavery territories, and the slavery trade was outlawed in the District of Columbia though slavery was still allowed within the district.

8.6E Identify areas that were acquired to form the United States, including the Louisiana Purchase. Supporting Standard

- Louisiana Territory-1803
- Parts of North Dakota and Minnesota (Red River Valley) 1818
- Florida - 1819
- Texas-1845
- Mexican Cession (New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Colorado, part of Wyoming, and California)- 1848
- Gadsden Purchase -1853
- Oregon Territory-1846
- Alaska Purchase (Seward's Folly)- 1867

8.10A Supporting Standard

Locate places and regions of importance in the United States during the 19th centuries.

- Louisiana Purchase, Florida, Texas, Oregon Territory, Mexican Cession, Gadsden Purchase, Nebraska Territory, Minnesota Territory, Utah Territory, New Mexico Territory, Kansas Territory
- Oregon Trail- longest of the westward trails; from Independence, Missouri to Oregon Territory
- Santa Fe Trail- from St. Louis to Santa Fe, New Mexico Territory
- California Trail-from Ft. Hall, Oregon Territory to Sutter's Ft., California
- San Francisco, St. Louis, Fort Mandan, Sutter's Mill

- Regionally divided into North, South, and West (area west of the Mississippi River)
- Division of slavery states and free states

8.10B Compare places and regions of the United States in terms of physical and human characteristics.

Readiness Standard

STAAR Note: The 2013 and 2014 STAAR assessed the similar characteristic of Texas and California being former territories of Mexico

8.10C Analyze the effects of physical and human geographic factors on major historical and contemporary events in the United States. Readiness Standard

- Physical geography greatly affected the economic development of regions in the colonies. The rocky soil, short growing seasons, and cooler temperatures of New England encouraged the development of small farms and the growth of fishing and shipping industries. The South, with a longer growing season and a warmer climate, developed larger farms or plantations that grew cash crops such as indigo, cotton, and tobacco. The use of slave labor also supported the growth of plantations in this region. The Mid-Atlantic colonies were home to fertile soil and became a source of food crops.
- Discovery of gold in California fueled a rush of settlers to the region hoping to discover their own fortune.
- Access to numerous waterways along with the building of canals helped connect farms in the interior of the United States to port cities along the coast greatly facilitating economic development across the country.

8.11A Analyze how physical characteristics of the environment influenced population distribution, settlement patterns, and economic activities in the United States during the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries.

Readiness Standard Westward Expansion

- **Gold in California** – rush of settlers to California; pushed many American Indians off their lands; population of California quickly rises to the amount required for statehood
- **California's proximity** to Pacific Ocean led to an increase of immigration from Asian nations.
- **Rocky Mountains'** location between eastern and western parts of the United States; resulted in need for Gadsden Purchase to put in railroad for train transport of goods from East to West and supporting settlement of the West

8.11B Describe the positive and negative consequences of human modification of the physical environment of the United States.

Supporting Standard

- **Railroads** – increased communication and trade between East and West; disruption of natural habitats in the West; contributed to air pollution in the West
- **Urbanization** – created economic centers that provided wealth to the nation and people; contributed to pollution, overcrowding
- **Recovery of natural resources** – clearing timber; extraction of gold, silver and iron provided for the nation's energy needs as well as provided jobs; altered the physical landscape; pollution in nearby rivers and streams
- **Agriculture and ranching** – provided food and jobs; altered the physical landscape; disrupted natural habitats; fenced off open range
- **Building of canals and roads** – facilitated the movement of goods and people; promoted settlement of the West; disturbed natural landscapes and wildlife habitats, including the removal of bison on the Great Plains

8.11C Describe how different immigrant groups interacted with the environment in the United States during the 19th centuries.

Supporting Standard

- 19th century
 - Enslaved African Americans often working the land
 - Chinese mined gold in California and worked building the Transcontinental Railroad
 - Irish settled in urban areas to work in factories
 - In general many immigrants came for land to pursue farming
 - Settlers on the Great Plains adapted to the environment by building sod houses

8.23A Identify selected racial, ethnic, and religious groups that settled in the United States and explain their reasons for immigration.

Readiness Standard

Westward Expansion

- Chinese and European immigrants came to the United States due to a variety of push/pull factors.
- Push factors included religious oppression, political upheaval, oppression and lack of economic opportunities. Pull factors include religious and political freedom and economic opportunities. Chinese immigrants found work building railroads and in the mining sector in California. Famine in other countries—including the potato famine in Ireland encouraged Irish immigration in the East.

8.23C Identify ways conflicts between people from various racial, ethnic, and religious groups were resolved. Supporting Standard

- Treaties
 - The federal government attempted a variety of treaties with American Indian tribes to reduce conflict along the frontier
- Migration
 - Mormons – set up their independent community to avoid persecution
- Legislation
 - After the U.S.-Mexican War, conflicts arose over land claims in California between former Mexican citizens and new settlers
- Judicial decisions
 - Cherokee Nation used the federal courts to try to resolve issues with state laws

8.23D Analyze the contributions of people of various racial, ethnic, and religious groups to our national identity. Supporting Standard

- The English colonists contributed ideas about political liberties and representative government.
- Various Protestant religious groups, such as the Puritans and Quakers promoted ideas of religious freedom.
- Through waves of immigration new languages, foods, customs, music, stories and traditions have been incorporated in the national identity of Americans. This includes contributions from enslaved African Americans, European immigrants, Asian immigrants and immigrants from Latin America.
- American Indian traditions highlight the rich culture that existed in the Americas prior to colonization.

STAAR Note: The Spring 2014 STAAR assessed specific contributions of German Americans

8.23E Identify the political, social, and economic contributions of women to American society. Supporting Standard

Westward Expansion

- **Sacagawea** from the Shoshone tribe acted as an interpreter and guide on the Lewis and Clark Expedition. Having given birth just before joining the expedition, Sacagawea performed her duties while caring for an infant child.

8.26B Identify examples of American art, music, and literature that reflect society in different eras.

Supporting Standard

Westward Expansion

- Art – *American Progress*, by John Gast, 1872

CHAPTER

8

Industrial Revolution

Chapter Outline

- 8.1 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION DETAILS
 - 8.2 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION VOCBULARY
 - 8.3 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IMPORTANT PEOPLE
 - 8.4 CAUSE AND EFFECT OF INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Technological advances bring changes to economic and social patterns.

- Does advancing technology bring progress or problems?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

Questions for this Unit:

New innovations resulted in expansion of free enterprise and the creation of the factory system in the northern United States.

- What new inventions promoted the growth of the factory system?
- What was characteristic of free enterprise in the United States in the early nineteenth century?
- How did the building of factories, railroads and telegraph lines change the way goods were marketed?

Increasing industrialization led to urbanization creating many new social issues.

- How did new innovations in transportation and communication contribute to urbanization?
- What were the positive and negative consequences of urbanization?
- What was the relationship between urbanization and immigration in the early nineteenth century?
- How were Americans daily lives changed by industrialization?

Technological innovations and increasing industrialization led to a rapid expansion of slavery and the plantation system across the southern United States.

- How did new technologies transform farming in the southern United States?
- How did industrialization in the northern United States influence the practice of slavery and the plantation system and in the southern United States?
- How did new innovations in transportation lead to the spread of the plantation system?

8.1 Industrial Revolution Details

free enterprise – economic system in which consumers and producers are free to make economic decisions and choices **innovation** – creating new ideas, products or methods **industrialization** – the process of economic development based on factory production **urbanization** – the process of migration to large, densely populated areas, generally cities **abolition** – legally ending of the practice of enslaving people **mechanization** – using machines in the production process **civil disobedience** – refusing to obey laws believed to be unjust

Related Vocabulary

TABLE 8.1:

- suffrage
 - immigration
 - transportation
 - communication
 - interchangeable parts
 - canals
 - transcontinental
 - investor
 - plantation
-

8.2 Industrial Revolution Vocabulary

•Industrial Revolution- period of rapid growth in using machines for manufacturing and production starting in the 1700's. •Rural- Related to country living, not in city •Urban- Relating to cities •Population- The number of people in an area •Distribution- Shipping of products •Manufacturing- The making of goods in factories •Innovations- New ideas, methods, or inventions •Urbanization- The process of moving from the country to the cities (big scale) •Industrialization- The rise of factories and processes to mass produce goods and products using machines rather than manual labor •Telegraph- A device that used electronic signals to send messages •Interchangeable parts- A part of a machine or device that can be replaced by another, identical part •Cotton Gin- A hand-operated that cleans seeds and other unwanted material from raw cotton. (CAUSE INCREASE OF SLAVES) •Agriculture- Dealing with the growing of crops and livestock • Plantation- A large farms where crops were grown through the labor of workers, usually slaves, living on the land •Textiles- Cloth and clothes •Bessemer Steel Process- A process in which stronger steel could be made •Mass production- The use of interchangeable parts and assembly lines to make large amounts of identical goods and products •Lowell system- based on water powered textile mills that employed young unmarried women from local farms. The system included looms that spin thread and weaved cloth. (Sarah G Bagley) •Trade unions- groups that tried to improve pay and working conditions. •Strikes- workers refused to work until employers met demands. •Clermont- first full size commercial steamboat was called Clermont •Locomotive- powerful train

8.3 Industrial Revolution Important People

i

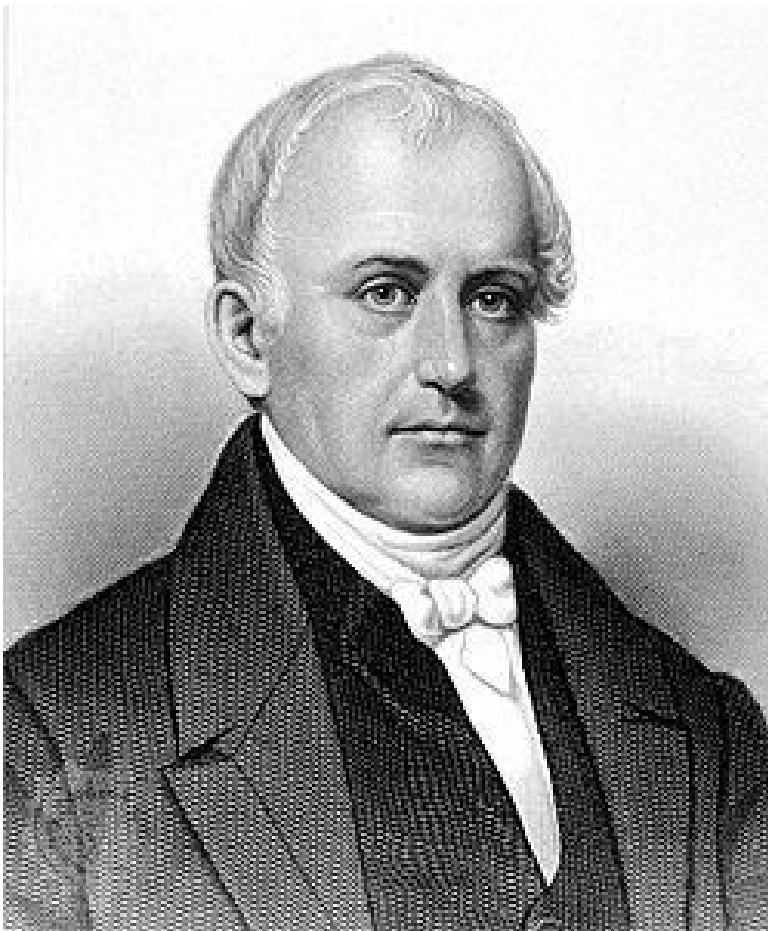


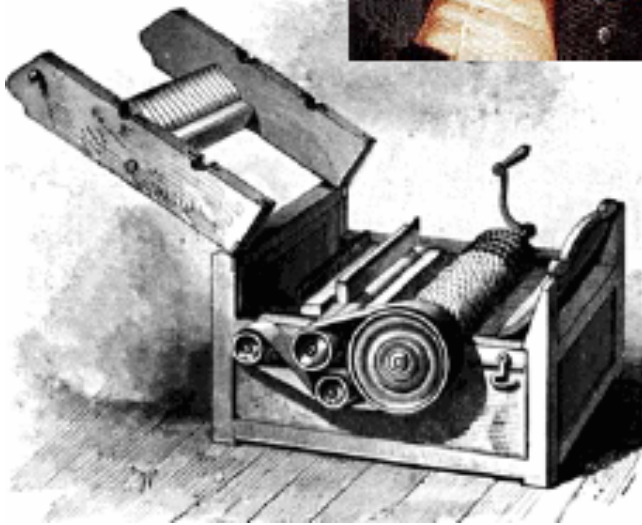
FIGURE 8.1

Samuel Slater (1790)

Samuel Slater had begun producing cotton thread by machine in a factory in New England, Slater was the first who knew how to build as well as operate textile machines in America. Slater carefully memorized the specifications for the equipment. Slater's spinning mill was located in Rhode Island



FIGURE 8.2



Eli Whitney (1793)

Eli Whitney invented the **Cotton Gin** which made the cotton cleaning process more efficient. Whitney also developed a plan for machines to use **interchangeable** parts which were made to be nearly identical so that they could fit into any device of the same type to allow easy assembly of new devices and efficient repair of existing devices this drastically increased productivity and efficiency of production and repair.



FIGURE 8.3



FIGURE 8.4

Francis Cabot Lowell (1815)

Francis Cabot Lowell helped bring the Industrial Revolution to the United States. Lowell visited England and saw how textile mill owners were using machines to spin cotton into thread and weave the thread into cloth. Lowell memorized the design of the British machines and built even better ones. By 1815 He and his partners built one of the first American textile factories outside of Boston. Lowell hired young women who were known as the “Lowell girls”.

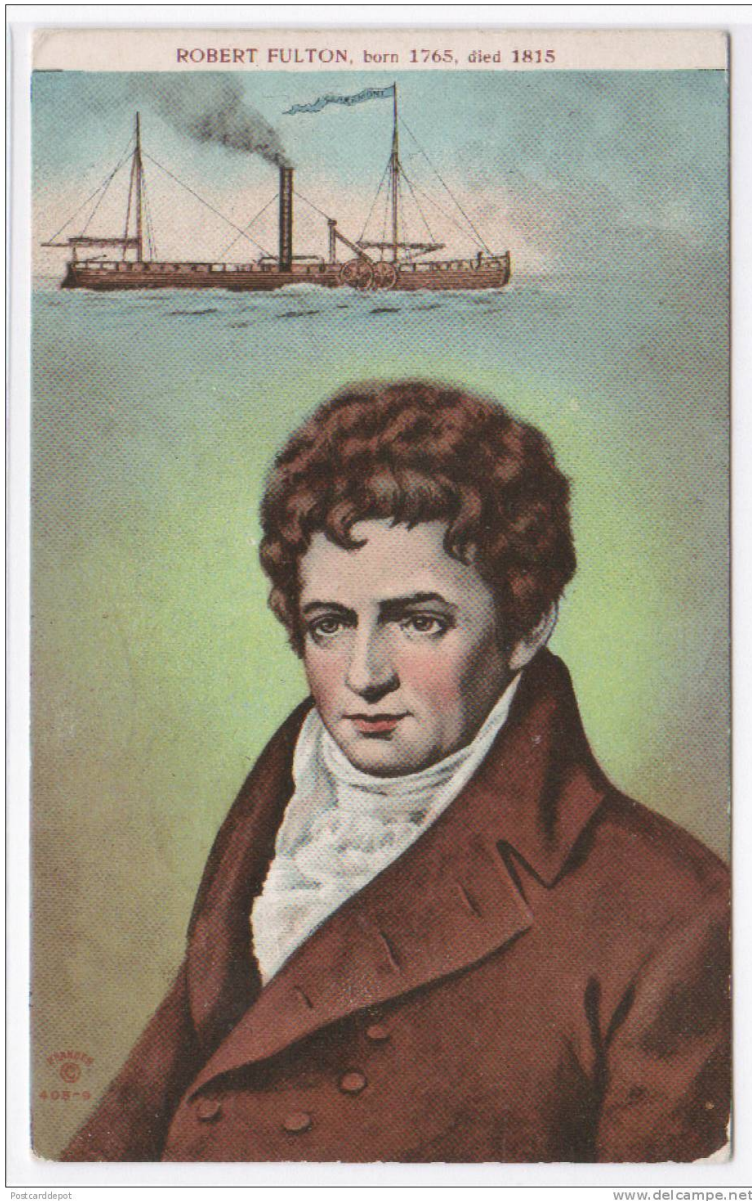


FIGURE 8.5

Robert Fulton (1807)

Robert Fulton developed the first commercial **Steamboat**. *Clermont* (as it was later named) began its first successful voyage up the Hudson River to Albany, N.Y. Under way it averaged 5 miles per hour. Steamboats increased factory production and led to the growth of cities like New Orleans and St. Louis because it could move goods and people faster up and down rivers.



FIGURE 8.6

Samuel Colt (1835)

Samuel Colt invented the **first revolver, a gun** named after its inventor "Colt", and after its revolving cylinder "revolver". In 1836, Samuel Colt was granted a U.S. patent for the Colt revolver, which was equipped with a revolving cylinder containing five or six bullets and an innovative cocking device.

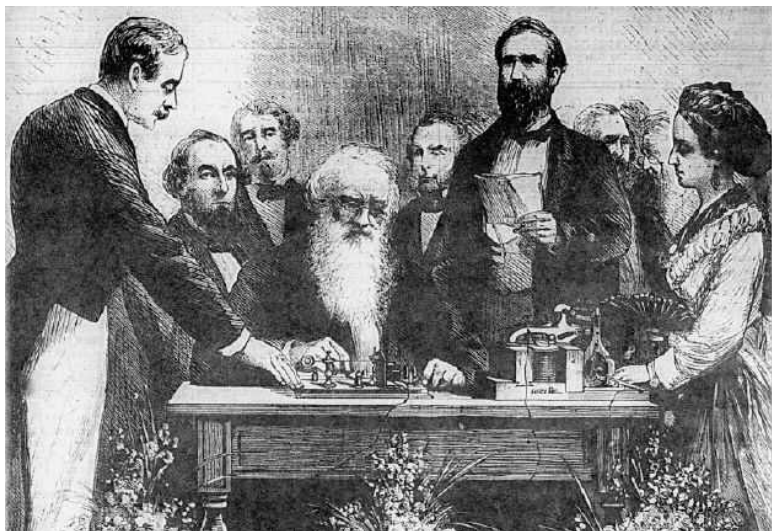


FIGURE 8.7

Samuel F.B. Morse (1844)

Samuel Morse became best known for his invention of the **telegraph**. The Telegraph transmitted electric signals over wires from location to location that translated it into a message, many telegraph lines followed railroads, enhanced communication abilities, particularly after 1860 during the increased settlement of the west.



FIGURE 8.8

Henry Bessemer (1855)

Henry Bessemer developed a new, less expensive method of making steel in 1855. The introduction of the **Bessemer process** made steel production easier. The laying of railroad tracks created an immense demand for steel.

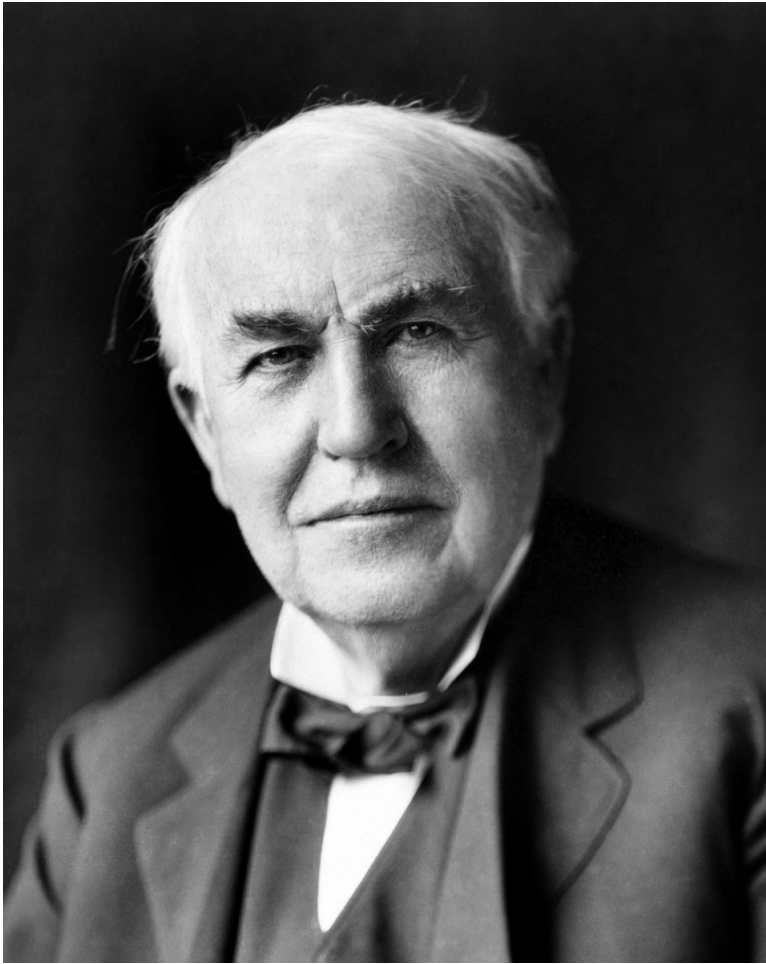


FIGURE 8.9

Thomas Edison(1876)

Thomas Edison's invention of the light bulb transformed the nation and gave birth to the age of electricity. He helped turn electricity into an everyday source of light and power.



FIGURE 8.10

Cyrus McCormick (1831)

Cyrus McCormick invented the **Mechanical Reaper**. A reaper could cut 28 times more grain than a single man using a hand tool. The Mechanical reaper increased farm productivity.

8.4 Cause and Effect of Industrial Revolution

Teks in this Chapter:

8.1A Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including religious revivals such as the Second Great Awakening, and describe their causes and effects.

Readiness Standard

- Industrialization, Immigration, and Reform
 - Factory system
 - Population shift to cities
 - Inventions
 - Expansion of slavery
 - Rebellions by enslaved people
 - Immigration
- - Second Great Awakening
 - Abolition
 - Women’s rights/ Seneca Falls
 - Education
 - Care of the disabled and mentally ill
 - Prisons
 - Temperance

8.1B Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

Supporting Standard

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

8.10A Locate places and regions of importance in the United States during the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries.

Supporting Standard

PLACES AND REGIONS OF IMPORTANCE IN THE UNITED STATES DURING THE 17th, 18th, and 19th CENTURIES

STAAR Note: The Spring 2013 STAAR assesses Seneca Fall, NY as a place of importance

8.11A Analyze how physical characteristics of the environment influenced population distribution, settlement patterns, and economic activities in the United States during the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries.

Readiness Standard Industrialization, Immigration, and Reform

- The need to have factories near transportation hubs (canals and/or railroads) resulted in cities growing in proximity (e.g., New York City and Chicago).
- The need for cheap labor resulted in jobs and caused many immigrants to migrate into cities.

8.11B Describe the positive and negative consequences of human modification of the physical environment of the United States.

Supporting Standard

- Railroads – increased communication and trade between East and West; disruption of natural habitats in the West; contributed to air pollution in the West
- Urbanization – created economic centers that provided wealth to the nation and people; contributed to pollution, overcrowding
- Recovery of natural resources – clearing timber; extraction of gold, silver and iron provided for the nation’s energy needs as well as provided jobs; altered the physical landscape; pollution in nearby rivers and streams
- Agriculture and ranching – provided food and jobs; altered the physical landscape; disrupted natural habitats; fenced off open range
- Building of canals and roads – facilitated the movement of goods and people; promoted settlement of the West; disturbed natural landscapes and wildlife habitats, including the removal of bison on the Great Plains

8.12B Explain reasons for the development of the plantation system, the transatlantic slave trade, and the spread of slavery.

Readiness Standard

- The invention of the cotton gin made the cotton-cleaning process more efficient and quicker, thus the need arose for a larger work force (drastic rise in the number of enslaved people in the South); southern plantations became major producers of cotton that was shipped to northern textile mills

8.12C Explain the reasons for the increase in factories and urbanization.

Supporting Standard

- Reasons for increased numbers in factories – Industrial Revolution
 - Result of major changes in agriculture, manufacturing, mining, transportation, and technology
 - Steam-power capabilities increased production
 - War of 1812 – manufacturing capability increased (the British blockade of the American coast created a shortage of cotton cloth (previously American cotton was shipped to Britain where it was turned into cloth, then sent back to America) in the United States, leading to the creation of a cotton-manufacturing industry, numerous manufacturing establishments were founded (particularly in the Northern region) – left the United States industrially independent of Europe)

- Reasons for urbanization- Industrial Revolution
- – By 1890, industrialization had produced substantial growth in cities, and 35 percent of Americans lived in urban areas, mostly in the northern half of the United States.
- – The increased number of jobs, along with technological innovations in transportation and housing construction, encouraged migration to cities.

8.12D Analyze the causes and effects of economic differences among different regions of the United States at selected times in U.S. history. Readiness Standard

Industrialization, Immigration, and Reform

- North
 - Cause – industrialization led to new jobs in cities
 - Effects – urbanization and growth of cities
- South
 - Cause – physically geography is best suited for agricultural economic development
 - Effect – primarily agricultural with numerous plantations, resulted in expansion of slavery and limited industrial development
- West
 - Cause – cheap land and abundant natural resources
 - Effect – development of mineral extraction industries, ranching, and farming

8.13B Identify the economic factors that brought about rapid industrialization and urbanization.

Readiness Standard

- Factors which brought about rapid industrialization
 - Plentiful natural resources
 - Improved transportation
 - Growing population
 - New inventions
 - Investment capital
- Factors which brought about urbanization
 - Migration of workers to manufacturing centers
 - Immigration
 - Economic opportunities in cities

8.14A Explain why a free enterprise system of economics developed in the new nation, including minimal government intrusion, taxation, and property rights.

Supporting Standard

- Americans' focus on their rights included the right to choose trade partners, prices, and products.
- Land opportunities in the United States
- Ideas of capitalism over mercantilism (Free enterprise was preferable to the former mercantilist system the colonies were under.)
 - Alexander Hamilton believed in a strong central government that encouraged business and industry

- Colonists came seeking economic opportunity (profit)
- Nature of colonists was rugged individualism and self-determination
- European countries too far away to control how colonies developed businesses and trade (little government interference)
- Revolution occurred when England tried to regain control of trade and industry in America (laissez faire)
- Constitution allowed for (ensured) private ownership of property
- Government-sponsored road construction contributed to economic growth

Note:

- Rise of the factory system led to banking systems and real estate firms; factories were not regulated by the state or federal governments (continued the laissez-faire philosophy).

8.14B Describe the characteristics and the benefits of the U.S. free enterprise system during the 18th and 19th centuries.

Supporting Standard

Characteristics of U.S. Free Enterprise System

- Four questions governing economic activity
 - What to produce?
 - How to produce it?
 - How many to produce?
 - For whom to produce?
- Four components of free enterprise and economic freedom
 - Private property
 - Voluntary exchange
 - Profit motive
 - Supply and demand determines prices
- Laissez-faire – the belief that the government should not interfere in the economy other than to protect private property rights and to maintain peace
- Entrepreneurship – people who risk their capital in organizing and running a business
- Constitutional protection of private property contributes to the advancement of free enterprise in America

Benefits of U.S. Free Enterprise System

- Specialization
- Foreign investment saw opportunity for profit and growth
- Constitutional protections for private property ownership
- Economic freedoms promoted a diverse economy able to meet new demands and challenges
- Laissez-faire policies contributed to the rise of industry

8.20C Analyze reasons for and the impact of selected examples of civil disobedience in U.S. history such as and Henry David Thoreau's refusal to pay a tax.

Supporting Standard

Henry David Thoreau's refusal to pay tax – he did not pay taxes because he did not want to support a government that allowed slavery and fought a war with Mexico (individual conscience/transcendentalism). He wrote the essay "Civil Disobedience." He did not want people to break the law indiscriminately, but he urged people to challenge laws they considered unjust by refusing to obey them. Leaders such as Martin Luther King, Jr. followed Thoreau's philosophy.

8.22B Describe the contributions of significant political, social, and military leaders of the United States such as Frederick Douglass, Susan B. Anthony, and Elizabeth Cady Stanton.

Supporting Standard

- Frederick Douglass – leading African American abolitionist; accomplished orator and writer
- Susan B. Anthony – key spokesperson for the 19th-century women's suffrage movement
- Elizabeth Cady Stanton – leader of the 19th-century women's suffrage movement; called for the first convention of women's movement in Seneca Falls; wrote the *Declaration of Sentiments* which was approved at the Seneca Falls Convention

8.23B Explain the relationship between urbanization and conflicts resulting from differences in religion, social class, and political beliefs.

Supporting Standard

- Discrimination towards immigrants, women and children
- Arriving immigrants, especially to urban centers of the Northeast, often engaged in similar cultural patterns as their home country resulting in an urban setting characterized by cultural enclaves and practices.
- Competition for limited resources, city services, and jobs in urban areas heightened differences amongst culture groups and sometimes resulted in conflict such as the New York race riots of 1863, anti-immigration sentiment, anti-Catholic sentiment, and nativist policies such as the Know-Nothing Party.
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8.23E Identify the political, social, and economic contributions of women to American society.

Supporting Standard.

- Industrialization, Immigration, and Reform
 - Elizabeth Cady Stanton was active in the abolitionist, temperance, and women's rights movement. Along with Susan B. Anthony she founded the National Women's Suffrage Association and was its president for 20 years. She, (along with Lucretia Mott) was instrumental in convening the Seneca Falls Convention in July 1848. Authored the *Declaration of Sentiments and Grievances*, traveled the country lecturing and giving speeches, particularly calling for women to have the right to vote. Stanton was a wife, mother of seven children, and a practicing lawyer.

- Susan B. Anthony originally began her social activism in the temperance movement. After meeting Elizabeth Cady Stanton, the focus of her work became women’s suffrage. Anthony, a Quaker, had at one time been a teacher. She was instrumental in publishing the newspaper *The Revolution* which argued for the abolition of slavery, the right to vote for women, the right for women to own property, and equal pay for equal work. Anthony was also active in the women’s labor organization movement, fighting for worker’s rights and shorter work days.
- Lucretia Mott was a noted abolitionist, religious reformer and leader in the women’s rights movement. Her work was rooted in the abolitionist movement, After joining Elizabeth Cady Stanton at the Seneca Falls Convention, the focus of her work centered on women’s rights. She published her views in *Discourse on Women*. Mott had been a Quaker minister and later formed the Free Religious Association in Boston in 1867. She is also credited as being the founder of Swarthmore College. Mott was a wife and mother of six children.
- Seneca Falls Convention, July 1848- This first convening of women in the United States is considered to be the beginning of the women’s suffrage movement in the United States. The event was held in Stanton’s hometown of Seneca Fall, NY and was organized by Lucretia Mott, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and several other women. The first day of the event was open to women only. The second day to men. *The Declaration of Sentiments* (modeled after the *Declaration of Independence*) was read and adopted at the convention. Following the convention, annual meetings were held to continue the work of advocating for women’s rights.
- Sojourner Truth escaped from her Northern slaveholder and became a prominent abolitionist and leader in the women’s rights movement. One of Truth’s first successes was using the courts to secure the release and return of her young son, who had been sold illegally. Truth worked alongside a number of prominent abolitionists and it was William Lloyd Garrison who published her memoirs. She advocated for equal rights for both men and women. During the American Civil War she recruited African-Americans to be soldiers and after the war continued to fight for equality, including attempting to desegregate streetcars in Washington D.C.

8.24A Describe the historical development of the abolitionist movement. Supporting Standard

- 1700s-1804 – Religious leaders, especially Quaker leaders, used sermons to change public opinion about slavery. By 1804 all states north of Pennsylvania had outlawed the practice of slavery.
- 1807 – Congress banned the importation of African people for slavery into the United States.
- 1817-American Colonization Society was created to address the needs of formerly-enslaved people from the North. President Monroe in 1822 helped to establish Liberia as an independent African nation for those formerly-enslaved African Americans to migrate to. The idea was not popular and very few left America.
- 1820-1840 – Abolitionists grew in number. Anti-slavery newspapers such as the *Freedom’s Journal* were published. Prominent among abolitionists was William Lloyd Garrison who published *The Liberator* newspaper. Garrison also organized the New England Anti-Slavery Society (1831-1835).
- 1840-1850 – Abolitionist leaders like the Grimke sisters, Frederick Douglass, and Sojourner Truth began to speak out across the nation. The Underground Railroad began to make an impact helping those escaping slavery from the South to find passage to safe locations in the North. One notable “conductor” on the railroad was Harriet Tubman, who had escaped slavery.
- 1850- Many Northerners who considered the Fugitive Slave Law unfair began to support the abolitionist movement.
- 1853- Harriet Beecher Stowe’s novel *Uncle Tom’s Cabin* was published. While fictional, the novel depicts the harsh realities of slavery and served to increase public support for the abolitionist cause.

8.24B Evaluate the impact of reform movements, including educational reform, temperance, the women’s rights movement, prison reform, abolition, the labor reform movement, and care of the disabled.

Readiness Standard

- Public education – opening of public schools primarily in the North, as well as private grade schools and colleges by churches and other groups
- Temperance – organized societies, such as the American Temperance Society worked at trying to stop the consumption of alcohol. Some states passed laws that made it illegal to sell alcohol
- Women’s rights – well-organized groups that fought for better working conditions for women
- Prison reform – pushed for separate jails for women, men, and children; called for the mission of prisons to be about rehabilitation
- Care of the disabled – building of new hospitals for the mentally ill, deaf, and blind.

8.25B

Describe religious motivation for immigration and influence on social movements, including the impact of the first and second Great Awakenings.

Supporting Standard

- The Second Great Awakening involved the renewal of religious faith in the 1790s and 1800s. Revivalist preachers traveled around the frontier and eastern cities hosting revival meetings addressing many who were not a part of organized religious groups. The movement emphasized the individual’s ability to achieve salvation and the need to improve society. The movement motivated many to become involved in reform efforts, such as abolition, reforming prisons, and prohibiting alcohol use

8.26A Describe developments in art, music, and literature that are unique to American culture such as the Hudson River School artists, John James Audubon, "Battle Hymn of the Republic," transcendentalism, and other cultural activities in the history of the United States.

Supporting Standard

Literature

- Transcendentalism – an American literary, political, and philosophical movement in the early 19th Century (e.g., authors – Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau); they were critics of their contemporary society for its unthinking conformity and urged each individual to find their independent relation to the universe (particularly utilizing solitude in nature)
- Emily Dickinson – prolific American poet; most of her 1,800 poems published after her death; unconventional style
- Walt Whitman – poet, journalist, essayist; his poetry collection *Leaves of Grass* was controversial for its subject matter; consider the father of free verse
- Nathaniel Hawthorne – novelist and writer of the Romantic movement; often wrote on subjects of morality, such as *The Scarlet Letter*
- Edgar Allan Poe – author and poet of the Romantic movement, best known for tales of mystery and the macabre
- James Fenimore Cooper – prolific Romantic movement novelist, His *The Last of the Mohicans* is a historical novel taking place during the Seven Years’ War
- Herman Melville – author of *Moby Dick*, Romantic movement writer and poet

Art

- John James Audubon – drew American wildlife; accurate drawings of American birds and his notes made significant contributions to ornithology and natural history
- Hudson River School artists – their paintings depict the American landscape and reflect three themes of America in the 19th century: discovery, exploration, and settlement

Music

- Spirituals of enslaved African Americans and gospel music
- “Battle Hymn of the Republic” – written at the beginning of the Civil War, used music from the abolitionist song “John Brown’s Body”; became a popular Civil War song of the Union Army and later a well-loved patriotic anthem

8.26B Identify examples of American art, music, and literature that reflect society in different eras.

Supporting Standard

- Reform and Culture
 - Art (19th century)
 - * Albert Bierstadt’s *River Landscape*
 - Music (19th century)
 - * *Battle Hymn of the Republic* (lyrics by Julia Ward Howe)
 - * *Dixie* (lyrics by Daniel Decatur Emmett)
 - Literature (19th century)
 - * Mark Twain’s *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*

8.26C Analyze the relationship between fine arts and continuity and change in the American way of life.

Supporting Standard

- Throughout early American history the fine arts have illustrated a national spirit and pride, evidenced by the portraits of the early presidents, the writings of Hawthorne, Irving, Cooper, Melville and Poe, along with the paintings of the Hudson River School and later art by Whistler, Homer, Tanner, Eakins, Remington, Russell, Catlin, and the literary works of Walt Whitman, Mark Twain, and Emily Dickinson.
- The fine arts in America also demonstrate the development of a pluralistic and industrialized society, evidenced especially by musical styles influenced by both Europeans and Africans

STAAR Note: The 2013 STAAR assesses similar themes among art during the 1800s

8.27A Explain the effects of technological and scientific innovations such as the steamboat, the cotton gin, and interchangeable parts.

Readiness Standard

- Steamboat – increased factory production and led to the growth of cities like New Orleans and St. Louis because it could move goods and people faster up and down rivers
- Cotton gin – invented by Eli Whitney made the cotton-cleaning process more efficient. It enabled cotton farmers to move farther west to grow cotton, grow more cotton, drive American Indian tribes off their land, and create a larger work force (drastic rise in the number of enslaved people in the South).
- Interchangeable parts – parts for devices were made to be nearly identical so that they could fit into any device of the same type; this allows easy assembly of new devices and efficient repair of existing devices (guns – before the 18th century, they were made by gunsmiths and each gun was unique; if a single component needed a replacement, the entire weapon had to be sent back to the gunsmith for custom repairs; interchangeable parts drastically increased productivity and efficiency of production and repair)
- Mechanical reaper – invented by Cyrus McCormick increased farm productivity

STAAR Note: The 2013 STAAR assesses the impact of the Bessemer steel process on westward expansion (railroads to carry people westward).

8.27B Analyze the impact of transportation and communication systems on the growth, development, and urbanization of the United States.

Readiness Standard

- Transportation allows people and goods to move to urban areas in large numbers where there are markets, business opportunities, and jobs.

Transportation

- Steamboats – prior to the invention of the steamboat, river travel depended on river currents, wind and manpower; steam-powered boats changed river travel and transportation of goods because of the increased efficiency of travel/transport of goods
- Canals – man-made waterways used for travel and/or shipping. The Erie Canal opened in 1825 contributing to the economic growth of the United States. The Canal lowered the cost of shipping goods which in turn facilitated a great westward migration of American settlers west of the Appalachians into the Ohio River Valley. Furthermore cities in New York along the canal route grew in size and number with New York emerging as a commercial center in the United States
- Railroads – the invention of the steam engine led to modern railroads and trains; railroad construction boomed in the mid-19th century; by the 1890s, the United States was becoming an urban nation, and railroads supplied cities and towns with food, fuel, building materials, and access to new markets; the Transcontinental Railroad completed in 1869 created a nation-wide transportation network that united the Nation; railroads allowed for the transportation of larger quantities of goods over longer distances.

Communication

- Telegraph – transmitted electric signals over wires from location to a location that translated it into a message; many telegraph lines followed railroads; enhanced communication abilities, particularly after 1860 during the increased settlement of the west

8.27C Analyze how technological innovations changed the way goods were manufactured and marketed, nationally and internationally.

Supporting Standard

- Ways goods were manufactured – the introduction of interchangeable parts resulted in mass production which allowed manufacturers to produce standardized products faster and in larger numbers
- Ways goods were marketed – transportation and communication improved, which allowed goods to move faster and over farther distances

8.27D Explain how technological innovations brought about economic growth such as how the factory system contributed to rapid industrialization and the Transcontinental Railroad led to the opening of the west.

Supporting Standard

- Factory system
 - Products could be produced faster and cheaper
 - Hire low-waged workers
- Transcontinental Railroad

- – Connected the Eastern coast with the Western Coast (California); previously investors saw the West as worthless sage brush, insurmountable mountains and a few scattered settlers, now it was open to economic expansion and settlement; immigrants used the railroad to migrate west and to form new immigrant settlements in western states and territories

8.28A Compare the effects of scientific discoveries and technological innovations that have influenced daily life in different periods in U.S. history.

Supporting Standard

- Mechanization of agriculture such as the reaper and cotton gin greatly expanded productivity and the demand for enslaved labor in the South
- Improved transportation and new factories increased demand for unskilled labor which encouraged the migration of women and children to factory centers
- Railroads facilitated westward migration
- Telegraphs connect communities; improve and accelerate communication across distances

8.28B Identify examples of how industrialization changed life in the United States.

Supporting Standard

- Cities grew and were more densely populated, with that came constant threat of fires, and spread of diseases.
- New forms of entertainment developed in cities. (museums, visiting circuses)
- Women and children who had previously been working long hours on farms, moved to cities for factory jobs working long hours.

CHAPTER 9**Age of Reform****Chapter Outline**

- 9.1 AGE OF REFORM OUTLINE**
 - 9.2 IMPORTANT PEOPLE AGE OF REFORM**
 - 9.3 AGE OF REFORM VOCBULARY**
 - 9.4 PRISON REFORM: DOROTHEA DIX**
 - 9.5 PRISON AND ASYLUM REFORM**
 - 9.6 WOMEN'S RIGHTS**
 - 9.7 WOMEN'S RIGHTS**
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

Questions for this Unit:

9.1 Age of Reform Outline

Age of Reform Outline

Important People

Age of Reform Vocabulary

Second Great Awakening

Transcendentalism Literature

Music

John Audubon

Arts

Education Reform

Temperance Reform

Prison Reform

Women's Rights

Abolitionist

Underground Railroad

Primary and Secondary Sources

Age of Reform Journal

9.2 Important People Age of Reform

Second Great Awakening- Strong religious feelings, Methodist, Baptists and other Protestant groups held outdoor religious services and won new converts.

Abolitionist- a person who is against slavery

Eliza Farnham- was the warden of a women's prison in New York state in the 1840's.

Dorthea Dix- led the fight for better treatment of the mentally ill.

Horace Mann- fought to provide free public elementary school to every child.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton- Woman reformer who began to organize herself in the struggle for equality.

Lucretia Mott- Woman reformer and abolitionist

Seneca Falls Convention- New York is where the women rights was held.

suffrage- right to vote

Edgar Allan Poe- perfected the art of writing suspenseful short stories

John James Audubon- American artist who drew birds, mammals, plants, and other subjects from nature.

Ss

9.3 Age of Reform Vocabulary

Age of Reform

-

Reform - To amend or improve by change of form or removal of faults or abuses.

Second Great Awakening: was a religious revival that occurred in the United States beginning in the late eighteenth century. (Baptist and Methodist)

Transcendentalism: philosophies that propose to discover the nature of reality by investigating the process of thought rather than the objects of sense experience.

Folktales: stories with Moral, to teach lessons.

Abolitionist: To completely end slavery.

American Anti-Slavery Society: wanted immediate emancipation and racial equality for African American.

Underground Railroad: A network of People who arranged transportation of people and hiding places for fugitive slaves and escaped slaves.

Temperance Movement: this reform urged people to use self-discipline and stop drinking hard liquor.

Common School Movement: All children should go to school regardless of their background.

Prison reform: Pushed for separate jails for women, men, and children/Called for the mission of prisons to focus on rehabilitation

Women's Rights: Called for the first convention of the women's movement in Seneca Falls, NY. Wrote the Declaration of Sentiment

Seneca Fall Convention : the first convention of the women's movement in Seneca Falls New York. Wanted equal voting rights, education opportunities, and property rights

Declaration of Sentiments: Similar to the Declaration of Independence, about women's rights

Tenements : poor designed apartment building that house a large number of people.

Utopian Communities: Groups of People that tried to form a perfect society.

Middle class: people that were in between the Wealth and the poor.

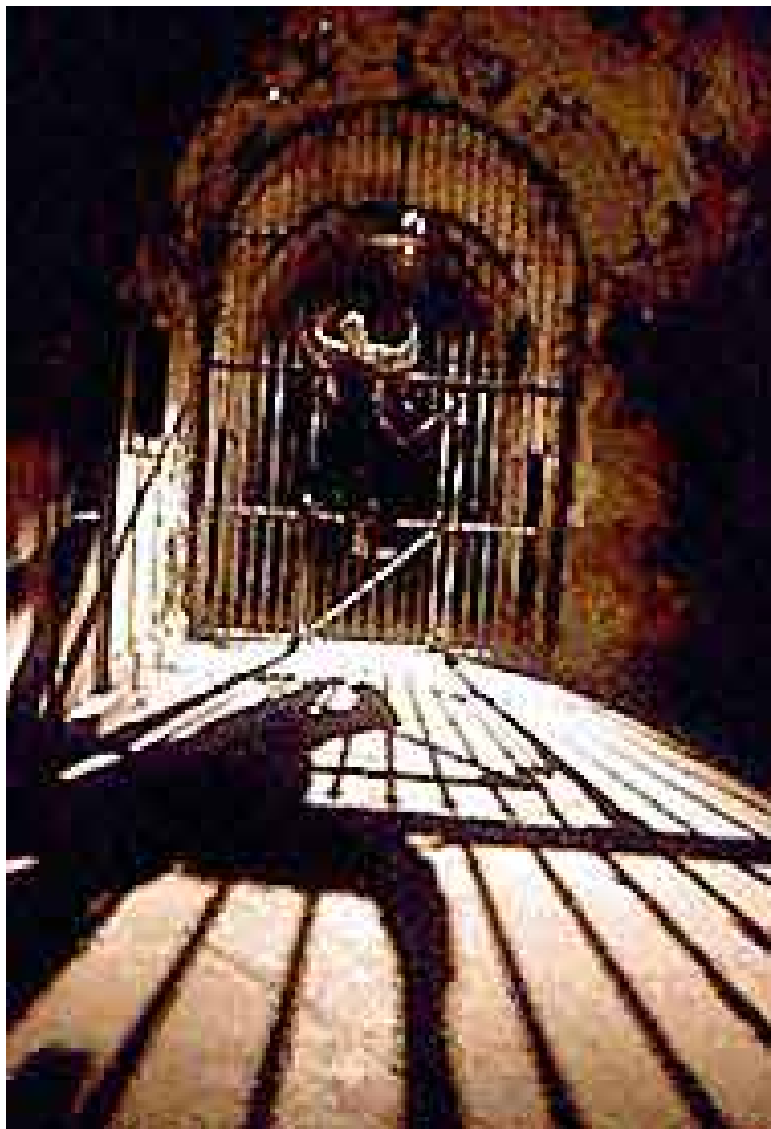
"The Liberator": was a weekly newspaper published by William Lloyd Garrison in Boston, Massachusetts; advocated the immediate emancipation of all slaves

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9.4 Prison Reform: Dorothea Dix

Prison and Asylum Reform



Eastern State Penitentiary

Eastern State Penitentiary was designed to intimidate prisoners by its appearance. Today a historical society runs tours of the prison, as well as a haunted house around Halloween.

The pretty woman who stood before the all-male audience seemed unlikely to provoke controversy. Tiny and timid, she rose to the platform of the Massachusetts Legislature to speak. Those who had underestimated the determination and dedication of DOROTHEA DIX, however, were brought to attention when they heard her say that the sick and insane were "confined in this Commonwealth in cages, closets, cellars, stalls, pens! Chained, beaten with rods, lashed into obedience." Thus, her crusade for humane hospitals for the insane, which she began in 1841, was reaching

FIGURE 9.1

a climax. After touring prisons, workhouses, almshouses, and private homes to gather evidence of appalling abuses, she made her case for state-supported care. Ultimately, she not only helped establish five hospitals in America, but also went to Europe where she successfully pleaded for human rights to Queen Victoria and the Pope.



FIGURE 9.2

Dorothea Dix, a tireless crusader for the treatment of the mentally ill, was made the Superintendent of Nurses for the Union Army during the Civil War. After the war, she retired to an apartment in the first hospital that she had founded, in Trenton, New Jersey.

The year 1841 also marked the beginning of the superintendence of DR. JOHN GALT at EASTERN LUNATIC ASYLUM, in Williamsburg, Virginia, the first publicly supported PSYCHIATRIC HOSPITAL in America. Warehousing of the sick was primary; their care was not. Dr. Galt had many revolutionary ideas about treating the insane, based on his conviction that they had dignity. Among his enlightened approaches were the use of drugs, the introduction of "TALK THERAPY" and advocating outplacement rather than lifelong stays.

In addition to the problems in asylums, prisons were filled to overflowing with everyone who gave offense to society from committing murder to spitting on the street. Men, women, children were thrown together in the most atrocious conditions. Something needed to be done — but what?



FIGURE 9.3

Until the 19th century, juveniles offenders were passed into the custody of their parents. During the time of prison and asylum reform, juvenile detention centers like the House of Refuge in New York were built to reform children of delinquent behavior.

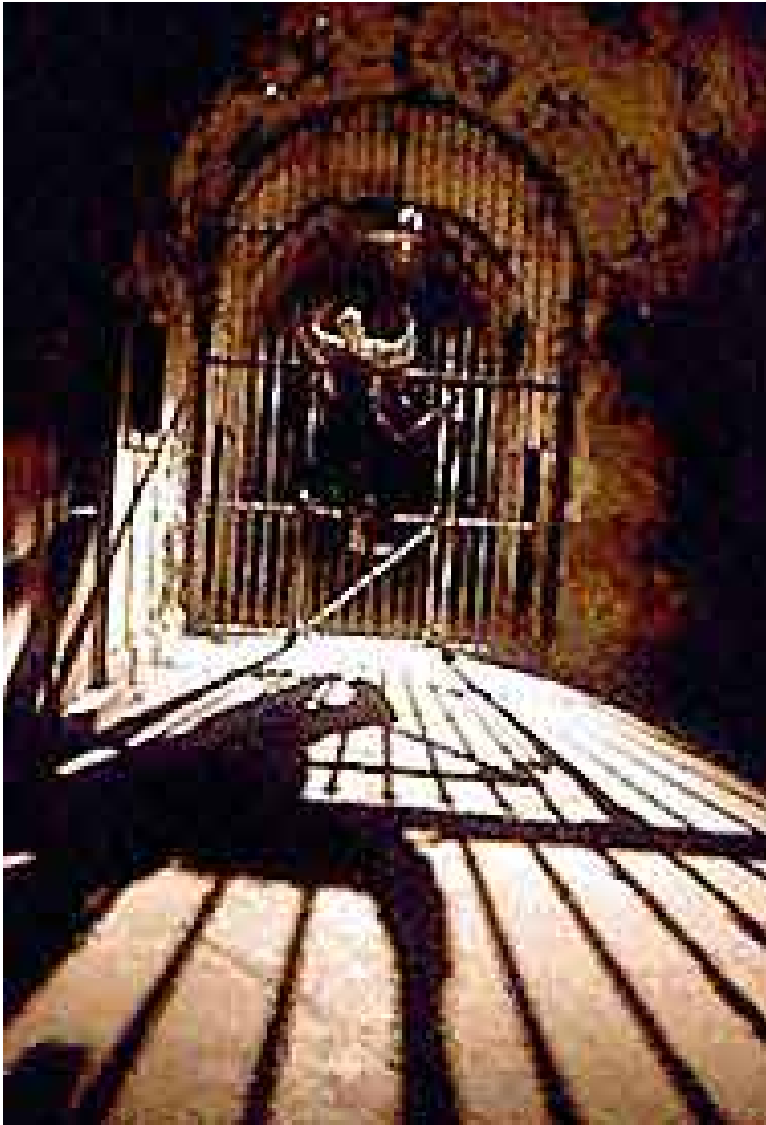
After the War of 1812, reformers from Boston and New York began a crusade to remove children from jails into JUVENILE DETENTION CENTERS. But the larger controversy continued over the purpose of prison — was it for punishment or penitence? In 1821, a disaster occurred in AUBURN PRISON that shocked even the governor into pardoning hardened criminals. After being locked down in solitary, many of the eighty men committed suicide or had mental breakdowns. Auburn reverted to a strict disciplinary approach. The champion of discipline and first national figure in PRISON REFORM was LOUIS DWIGHT, founder of the BOSTON PRISON DISCIPLINE SOCIETY, he spread the Auburn system throughout America's jails and added salvation and Sabbath School to further penitence.

After several bad starts, America finally enjoyed about a decade of real reform. Idealism, plus hope in the perfectibility of institutions, spurred a new generation of leaders including FRANCIS LIEBER, SAMUEL GRIDLEY HOWE and the peerless Dix. Their goals were prison libraries, basic literacy (for Bible reading), reduction of whipping and beating, commutation of sentences, and separation of women, children and the sick.

By 1835, America was considered to have two of the "best" prisons in the world in Pennsylvania. Astonishingly, reformers from Europe looked to the new nation as a model for building, utilizing and improving their own systems. Advocates for prisoners believed that deviants could change and that a prison stay could have a positive effect. It was a revolutionary idea in the beginning of the 19th century that society rather than individuals had the responsibility for criminal activity and had the duty to treat neglected children and rehabilitate alcoholics.

In reality it became clear that, despite intervention by outsiders, prisoners were often no better off, and often worse off, for their incarceration. Yet, in keeping with the optimistic spirit of the era, these early REFORMERS had only begun a crusade to alleviate human suffering that continues today.

9.5 Prison and Asylum Reform



Eastern State Penitentiary

Eastern State Penitentiary was designed to intimidate prisoners by its appearance. Today a historical society runs tours of the prison, as well as a haunted house around Halloween.

The pretty woman who stood before the all-male audience seemed unlikely to provoke controversy. Tiny and timid, she rose to the platform of the Massachusetts Legislature to speak. Those who had underestimated the determination and dedication of DOROTHEA DIX, however, were brought to attention when they heard her say that the sick and insane were "confined in this Commonwealth in cages, closets, cellars, stalls, pens! Chained, beaten with rods, lashed into obedience." Thus, her crusade for humane hospitals for the insane, which she began in 1841, was reaching a climax. After touring prisons, workhouses, almshouses, and private homes to gather evidence of appalling abuses, she made her case for state-supported care. Ultimately, she not only helped establish five hospitals in America, but also went to Europe where she successfully pleaded for human rights to Queen Victoria and the Pope.

FIGURE 9.4



FIGURE 9.5

Dorothea Dix, a tireless crusader for the treatment of the mentally ill, was made the Superintendent of Nurses for the Union Army during the Civil War. After the war, she retired to an apartment in the first hospital that she had founded, in Trenton, New Jersey.

The year 1841 also marked the beginning of the superintendence of DR. JOHN GALT at EASTERN LUNATIC ASYLUM, in Williamsburg, Virginia, the first publicly supported PSYCHIATRIC HOSPITAL in America. Warehousing of the sick was primary; their care was not. Dr. Galt had many revolutionary ideas about treating the insane, based on his conviction that they had dignity. Among his enlightened approaches were the use of drugs, the introduction of "TALK THERAPY" and advocating outplacement rather than lifelong stays.

In addition to the problems in asylums, prisons were filled to overflowing with everyone who gave offense to society from committing murder to spitting on the street. Men, women, children were thrown together in the most atrocious conditions. Something needed to be done — but what?



FIGURE 9.6

Until the 19th century, juveniles offenders were passed into the custody of their parents. During the time of prison and asylum reform, juvenile detention centers like the House of Refuge in New York were built to reform children of delinquent behavior.

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9.6 Women's Rights

Women's Rights



FIGURE 9.7

Amelia Bloomer's magazine, *The Lily* advocated a new outfit for women, consisting of a loose top, long pantaloons, and a knee-length dress. While some reformers adopted the costume, many were afraid that it would bring ridicule to the cause and began wearing more traditional clothes by the 1850s.

Although women had many moral obligations and duties in the home, church and community, they had few political and legal rights in the new republic. When ABIGAIL ADAMS reminded her husband John during the Constitutional Convention to "REMEMBER THE LADIES!" her warning went unheeded. Women were pushed to the sidelines as dependents of men, without the power to bring suit, make contracts, own property, or vote. During the era of the "CULT OF DOMESTICITY," a woman was seen merely as a way of enhancing the social status of her husband. By the 1830s and 40s, however, the climate began to change when a number of bold, outspoken women championed diverse social reforms of prostitution, capital punishment, prisons, war, alcohol, and, most significantly, slavery.

ACTIVISTS began to question women's subservience to men and called for rallying around the abolitionist move-

ment as a way of calling attention to all human rights. Two influential Southern sisters, ANGELINA AND SARAH GRIMKE, called for women to "participate in the freeing and educating of slaves."



FIGURE 9.8

Elizabeth Cady Stanton's daughter kept a scrapbook of her mother's activities with the women's rights movement, now housed at the Library of Congress.

HARRIET WILSON became the first African-American to publish a novel sounding the theme of racism. The heart and voice of the movement, nevertheless, was in New England. LUCRETIA MOTT, an educated Bostonian, was one of the most powerful advocates of reform, who acted as a bridge between the feminist and the abolitionist movement and endured fierce criticism wherever she spoke. SARAH MARGARET FULLER wrote *WOMEN IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY*, the first mature consideration of FEMINISM and edited *THE DIAL* for the Transcendental Club.

Around 1840 the abolitionist movement was split over the acceptance of female speakers and officers. Ultimately snubbed as a delegate to a WORLD ANTI-SLAVERY CONVENTION in London, ELIZABETH CADY STANTON returned to America in 1848 and organized the first convention for women's rights in Seneca Falls, New York. Under the leadership of Stanton, Mott, and SUSAN B. ANTHONY, the convention demanded improved laws regarding child custody, divorce, and property rights. They argued that women deserved equal wages and career opportunities in law, medicine, education and the ministry. First and foremost among their demands was SUFFRAGE — the right to vote. The women's rights movement in America had begun in earnest. AMELIA BLOOMER began publishing *THE LILY*, which also advocated "the emancipation of women from temperance, intemperance, injustice, prejudice, and bigotry." She also advocated the wearing of PANTALOONS for women that would allow for greater mobility than the expected Victorian costume — now these garments are called "BLOOMERS."



FIGURE 9.9

Sarah Grimke and her sister Angelina Grimke Weld came from a slaveholding family in South Carolina. Their involvement in the abolitionist movement eventually led to their involvement in the struggle for women's rights.

As with the Civil War, the seeds of the quest for women's rights were sown in the Declaration of Independence, claiming that "all men are created equal." Sarah Grimke wrote in 1837 that "men *and women* were created equal ... whatever is right for men to do is right for women." That language was mirrored in the SENECA FALLS DECLARATION. Thus, in this era of reform and renewal women realized that if they were going to push for equality, they needed to ignore criticism and what was then considered acceptable social behavior. The new republic's experiment in government was going to need all of its citizens to have "every path laid open" to them. However, the ardent feminists discovered that many people felt women neither should nor could be equal to men. The nation soon became distracted by sectional tension and the climate for reform evaporated. This important struggle would continue for many generations to come.

9.7 Women's Rights



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CHAPTER **10** Sectionalism: PreCivil War

Chapter Outline

- 10.1 SECTIONALISM OUTLINE: PRE-CIVIL WAR**
 - 10.2 PRECIVIL WAR VOCBULARY**
 - 10.3 COMPROMISE OF 1850**
 - 10.4 KANSAS NEBRASKA ACT 1854**
 - 10.5 PRE-CIVIL WAR JOURNAL**
-

Important ideas for this Unit?

Misconceptions for this units students may have:

Questions for this Unit:

10.1 Sectionalism Outline: Pre-Civil War

Pre-Civil War Sectionalism

Sectional differences 1A, 7C, 12B, 12D

1. North (Industry and manufacturing, life of factory workers)
2. West (Land (Bread Basket), resources (gold, silver, timber))
3. South (King Cotton, cotton gin, slavery)

Abolitionist and States' Rights 7D, 17B, 24A, 24B

2. 1. Uncle Tom's Cabin by Harriet Beecher Stowe
2. The Liberator newspaper by William Lloyd Garrison
3. Harriet Tubman
4. Frederick Douglass
5. Henry David Thoreau – civil disobedience
6. Underground Railroad
7. States' Rights and Nullification – John C. Calhoun

Political Compromise 7C, 24A

3. 1. Missouri Compromise 1820
2. Compromise of 1850
 1. Henry Clay
 2. Fugitive slave law 1850
3. Kansas-Nebraska Act. (popular Sovereignty)
4. Republican Party 1854
4. Dred Scott v. Sandford 1857 (14th amendment 1868) 18A, 18C
5. Lincoln-Douglas Debates
6. John Brown's Raid 1859

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10.2 Precivil War Vocabulary

Union- the government and armies of the North

Confederacy- the 11 states that seceded from the Union

Debate- to formally discuss an issue

Regionalism- Loyalty to a particular region

Sectionalism- loyal to the interests of their section or region of the nation.

States Rights- Rights not specifically given to the federal government by Constitution remains with the states

Secession- withdrawal of one or more states from the union.

Anaconda Plan- a plan to blockade a cut off the Confederacy from the outside world.

Emancipation- freeing of slaves

Surrender- to give up power or control

Assassination- a deliberate killing of a political or powerful person

Uncle Toms Cabin- an antislavery novel

Dred Scott Decision- a Supreme Court decision that ruled that African Americans were not citizens

Underground Railroad- a secret network that helped thousands of slaves escape to free states and Canada

Missouri Compromise- an agreement in 1820 that admitted Missouri as a slave state and Maine as a free state

Compromise of 1850 an agreement that admitted California as a free state, and allowed territories to decide the issue of slavery.

Kansas Nebraska Act- an act that created Kansas and Nebraska and allowed settlers to determine issue of slavery in a new territory

John Browns Raid- group of men that took over the arsenal in Harpers Ferry Virginia, in hopes of starting a slave rebellion.

Sherman's March- Sherman's army marched through Georgia and burned everything in its path.

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10.3 Compromise of 1850

The Compromise of 1850



U.S. Senate

FIGURE 10.1

The "Great Compromiser," Henry Clay, introduces the Compromise of 1850 in the Senate.

The plan was set forth. The giants — Calhoun, Webster, and Clay — had spoken. Still the Congress debated the contentious issues well into the summer. Each time Clay's Compromise was set forth for a vote, it did not receive a majority. Henry Clay himself had to leave in sickness, before the dispute could be resolved. In his place, Stephen Douglas worked tirelessly to end the fight. On July 9, President Zachary Taylor died of food poisoning. His successor, MILLARD FILLMORE, was much more interested in compromise. The environment for a deal was set. By September, Clay's Compromise became law.

California was admitted to the Union as the 16th free state. In exchange, the south was guaranteed that no federal restrictions on slavery would be placed on Utah or New Mexico. Texas lost its boundary claims in New Mexico, but the Congress compensated Texas with \$10 million. Slavery was maintained in the nation's capital, but the slave trade was prohibited. Finally, and most controversially, a FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW was passed, requiring northerners to return runaway slaves to their owners under penalty of law.



FIGURE 10.2

The Compromise of 1850 overturned the Missouri Compromise and left the overall issue of slavery unsettled.

Compromise of 1850

TABLE 10.1:

<p>North Gets</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> California admitted as a free state Slave trade prohibited in Washington D.C. Texas loses boundary dispute with New Mexico 	<p>South Gets</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> No slavery restrictions in Utah or New Mexico territories Slaveholding permitted in Washington D.C. Texas gets \$10 million
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Texas loses boundary dispute with New Mexico

South Gets

No slavery restrictions in Utah or New Mexico territories

Slaveholding permitted in Washington D.C.

Texas gets \$10 million

Fugitive Slave Law

10.4 Kansas Nebraska Act 1854

The Kansas-Nebraska Act



FIGURE 10.3

Stephen Douglas, the sponsor of the Kansas-Nebraska Act as well as the most vocal supporter of popular sovereignty, was known as the "Little Giant" because of his small stature.

The KANSAS-NEBRASKA ACT OF 1854 may have been the single most significant event leading to the Civil War.

By the early 1850s settlers and entrepreneurs wanted to move into the area now known as Nebraska. However, until the area was organized as a territory, settlers would not move there because they could not legally hold a claim on the land. The southern states' representatives in Congress were in no hurry to permit a Nebraska territory because the land lay north of the 36°30' parallel — where slavery had been outlawed by the Missouri Compromise of 1820. Just when things between the north and south were in an uneasy balance, Kansas and Nebraska opened fresh wounds.

The person behind the Kansas-Nebraska Act was SENATOR STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS of Illinois.



NEBRASKA-KANSAS BILL. (From original of Washington, D. C.)

FIGURE 10.4

The Kansas-Nebraska Act began a chain of events in the Kansas Territory that foreshadowed the Civil War.

He said he wanted to see Nebraska made into a territory and, to win southern support, proposed a southern state inclined to support slavery. It was Kansas. Underlying it all was his desire to build a transcontinental railroad to go through Chicago. The Kansas-Nebraska Act allowed each territory to decide the issue of slavery on the basis of popular sovereignty. Kansas with slavery would violate the Missouri Compromise, which had kept the Union from falling apart for the last thirty-four years. The long-standing compromise would have to be repealed. Opposition was intense, but ultimately the bill passed in May of 1854. Territory north of the sacred 36°30' line was now open to popular sovereignty. The North was outraged.



FIGURE 10.5

The Kansas-Nebraska act made it possible for the Kansas and Nebraska territories (shown in orange) to open to slavery. The Missouri Compromise had prevented this from happening since 1820. The political effects of Douglas' bill were enormous. Passage of the bill irrevocably split the Whig Party, one of the two major political parties in

the country at the time. Every northern Whig had opposed the bill; almost every southern Whig voted for it. With the emotional issue of slavery involved, there was no way a common ground could be found. Most of the southern Whigs soon were swept into the Democratic Party. Northern Whigs reorganized themselves with other non-slavery interests to become the REPUBLICAN PARTY, the party of Abraham Lincoln. This left the Democratic Party as the sole remaining institution that crossed sectional lines. Animosity between the North and South was again on the rise. The North felt that if the Compromise of 1820 was ignored, the Compromise of 1850 could be ignored as well. Violations of the hated Fugitive Slave Law increased. Trouble was indeed back with a vengeance.

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10.5 Pre-Civil War Journal

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8.1A

Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including sectionalism, and describe their causes and effects.

Readiness Standard

- Sectionalism
 - Protective tariffs
 - Increasing divide between North and South
 - Manufacturing society vs. plantation society
 - Kansas-Nebraska Act
 - Missouri Compromise

Wilmot Proviso

8.1B Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

Supporting Standard

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

8.7A Analyze the impact of tariff policies on sections of the United States before the Civil War.

Supporting Standard

- North – high tariffs help the industrial North by making prices more competitive against cheap imports; had most of the nation’s manufacturing. Northern response – Northerners liked tariffs because it caused Americans to buy more American made products by increasing the cost of European imported manufactured goods.
- South – the South, which had little industry and imported most non-agricultural goods, saw the high tariff as a burden imposed by the more industrialized and populated north. Sold most of their cotton to foreign buyers on credit. Southern response – Southerners opposed tariffs because the South’s main trade partners were European nations. High tariffs on raw materials forced the South to sell their materials for low prices, while tariffs on manufactured goods caused them to pay a higher price for the products purchased from European trade partners.
- West – the West backed government spending on internal improvements such as new roads and canals, which were financed by tariffs.

8.7B Compare the effects of political, economic, and social factors on slaves and free blacks.

Supporting Standard

Sectionalism

- Political
 - Missouri Compromise – Missouri entered the Union as a slavery state and Maine entered as a free state. This Compromise also stated that north of the 36^[U+25CB] 30' line, all states that entered the Union would be Free States.
 - Compromise of 1850 – California admitted as a free state; slavery trade abolished in Washington, D.C.; stronger slavery laws would be passed to help slaveholders recapture runaway enslaved people
- Economic
 - Southern plantation system – relied on slavery; enslaved people had no property and no rights
 - Northern industrial economy – slavery trade abolished in north; high population of free African Americans; free African Americans could own property and had some rights.
- Social
 - Religion drew enslaved people together among plantations; communicated through spirituals
 - Racism develops in both the North and South; South perpetuates racism to a greater extent

8.7C Analyze the impact of slavery on different sections of the United States.

Readiness Standard

Sectionalism

- Impact of slavery in the North
 - By 1804 slavery had been outlawed by all states north of the Ohio River
 - Abolitionist societies, newspapers and Underground Railroad developed to advocate outlawing slavery
 - Many were ambivalent to the plight of enslaved/free African Americans
- Impact of slavery in the South
 - Enslaved people were viewed as property and labor supply
 - Maintain way of life based on slavery was important
 - Slavery was considered a state's right issue
 - Fugitive Slave Law allowed Southern slaveholders to capture enslaved people who had escaped to the North.
- Impact of slavery in the West
 - Fighting broke out in Kansas between pro-slavery and anti-slavery groups after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854
 - Maintain balance of free versus slavery state in the Senate

8.7D Identify the provisions and compare the effects of congressional conflicts and compromises prior to the Civil War, including the roles of John Quincy Adams, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, and Daniel Webster.

Supporting Standard

- Missouri Compromise – sponsored by Henry Clay; allowed for Missouri to enter the Union as a slavery state and Maine as a free state; this maintained the balance of power in the Senate
- Nullification Crisis – in 1828 the Tariff of Abominations was passed, resulting in a higher tariff. In 1832, a lower tariff was passed, but this still angered South Carolinians, led by Senator John C. Calhoun. South Carolina declared the federal tariff null and void within its borders. Delegates to a special convention urged

the state legislature to take military action and to secede from the union if the federal government demanded the customs duties. To prevent a civil war, Henry Clay proposed the Compromise Tariff of 1833. Government lowers tariff and backs down.

- Compromise of 1850 – sponsored by Henry Clay, allowed for California to enter the Union as a free state (pleased the North); the rest of the Southwest was left open to slavery, depending on a vote of the people who settled there (pleased the South); ended the slavery trade in Washington, D.C., but allowed those holding enslaved people to keep them (pleased both sides); included the Fugitive Slave Law – required the return of escaped enslaved people to their slaveholders (pleased the South, angered the North because they felt it was immoral)
- Kansas-Nebraska Act – allowed for Kansas and Nebraska to organize on the basis of popular sovereignty (they would vote themselves to decide if they would be free or slavery states)
- John C. Calhoun – South Carolina Senator who favored states’ rights and led opposition in South Carolina to the protective Tariff of 1828. Henry Clay – Senator from Kentucky and known as the “Great Compromiser” for his ability to smooth sectional conflict through balanced legislation. He sponsored the Missouri Compromise in 1820, admitting Missouri as a slave state and Maine as a free state.
- Daniel Webster – Senator from Massachusetts known as “The Great Orator”; worked to create compromises with the southern states that would delay the start of the Civil War.

8.10A Locate places and regions of importance in the United States during the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries.

Supporting Standard

Sectionalism

- Regionally divided into North, South, and West

8.10B Compare places and regions of the United States in terms of physical and human characteristics.

Readiness Standard

Sectionalism

- By the mid-1800s industrialization and urbanization characterized the North; factories, railroads were common human geographic features
- By the mid-1800s the South was characterized by the plantation economy that primarily produced cotton; lacked railroads, factories and schools
- By the mid-1800s the West had opened to settlement with the construction of roads, and canals; economy was based on agricultural production

8.11A Analyze how physical characteristics of the environment influenced population distribution, settlement patterns, and economic activities in the United States during the 19th centuries.

Readiness Standard Sectionalism

- South – good soil, small population; few cities; and economic activities focused on agricultural
- North – good port areas, a variety of resources, large population, many cities, and a variety of economic activities

8.12A Identify economic differences among different regions of the United States.

Supporting Standard

Sectionalism

- North – manufacturing and industry
- South – agriculture

8.17B Explain constitutional issues arising over the issue of states' rights, including the Nullification Crisis

Readiness Standard

- Nullification Crisis and states' rights – revolved around the ability of a state to declare federal laws unconstitutional
- In 1828, the Tariff of Abominations was passed, resulting in a higher tariff. In 1832, a lower tariff was passed, but this still angered South Carolinians, led by Senator John C. Calhoun. South Carolina declared the federal tariff null and void within its borders. Delegates to a special convention urged the state legislature to take military action and to secede from the union if the federal government demanded the customs duties. To prevent a civil war, Henry Clay proposed the Compromise Tariff of 1833; government lowers tariff and backs down.

8.18A Identify, Analyze judicial review and analyze examples of congressional and presidential responses.

Readiness Standard

- Congressional Response: The Missouri Compromise (1820) which included provisions to ban slavery in some federal territories was eventually overturned by the *Dred Scott v. Sandford* (1857) decision during the Taney court. The legislature responded with the expansion of citizenship to African Americans through the 14th amendment (1865).
- Presidential Response: In *Ex parte Merryman* (1866), the Taney court ruled that President Lincoln's suspension of habeas corpus was unconstitutional. Lincoln acted without congressional approval. Lincoln defended his authorization for the suspension of habeas corpus primarily because the nation was at war. Congress enacted the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act (1863) which authorized the suspension of habeas corpus and relieved the president from being held liable for acting without congressional approval.

8.18C Evaluate the impact of selected landmark Supreme Court decisions, including *Dred Scott v. Sandford*, on life in the United States.

Supporting Standard

- *Dred Scott v. Sandford* decision – it denied citizenship of enslaved people; enslaved people were considered property; made the Missouri Compromise unconstitutional because it limited areas allowed for slavery. The South favored the decision, but the North did not, causing further tension between the North and South.

8.21C Summarize a historical event in which compromise resulted in a peaceful resolution.

Supporting Standard

- Missouri Compromise – Missouri entered the Union as a slavery state and Maine entered as a free state. This Compromise also stated that north of the 36°30' line, all states that entered the Union would be free states.
- Compromise of 1850 – California admitted as a free state; slavery trade abolished in Washington, D.C.; stronger slavery laws would be passed to help slaveholders recapture runaway slaves

CHAPTER 11

Civil War

Chapter Outline

11.1 CIVIL WAR OUTLINE

11.2 CIVIL WAR JOURNAL

Strong leaders emerge during times of crisis.

- Are people born leaders or do they develop into leaders?

Important ideas for this Unit?

Questions for this Unit:

The election of 1860 further divided the United States and led to the start of the Civil War.

- How did the election of Abraham Lincoln further divide the United States?
- What event marked the beginning of the American Civil War?
- What reasoning did Jefferson Davis use to justify secession of the southern states?
- How did Lincoln's ideas in his first inaugural address compare to those of Jefferson Davis?

Prominent leaders on both sides of the Civil War made military and political decisions that affected the outcome of the war.

- Who were the military and political leaders of the Union and the Confederacy and what role did they have in fighting the Civil War?
- What military decisions/battles affected the fighting the Civil War?
- How did signing the Emancipation Proclamation affect the course of the Civil War?
- What was significant about General Lee's surrender?

Abraham Lincoln's dedication to preservation of the union was evident in the Gettysburg Address and his second inaugural address.

- What changes did Lincoln argue for to preserve the union?
- How did Lincoln's assassination affect the people of the United States?

11.1 Civil War Outline

Civil War 1861-1865

1. Election of 1860 (Abraham Lincoln) Washington D.C. **8A**
2. Confederate States of America (President Jefferson Davis) Richmond, Virginia **8A,8C**
3. Lincoln's First Inaugural Address **8C**
4. Causes of Civil War **8B, 17B**
5. Firing on Fort Sumter **8B**
6. Civil War 1861-1865 (advantages and disadvantages of North and South) **10C**
 1. North - Ulysses S. Grant / South - Robert E. Lee **8A**
 1. Population-
 2. Transportation-
 3. Resources-
 4. Leadership-
 5. Naval power-
 6. Moral ground-
7. Early Campaigns
 1. Anaconda Plan
 2. Battle of Bull Run- "Stonewall" Jackson **22B**
 3. Battle of Antietam **8B**
 4. Emancipation Proclamation 1862 **8B, 23B**
8. Turning Point
 1. Battle of Gettysburg 1863 **8B**
 2. Gettysburg Address **8C**
 3. Battle of Vicksburg 1863 **8A**
9. End of Civil War
 1. Election of 1864 (Abraham Lincoln)
 2. Lincoln's Second Inaugural Address **8C**
 3. Appomattox Court House, Virginia **8B**
10. Lincoln's assassination – John Wilkes Booth **8B**
11. Medal of Honor winners William Carney, and Philip Bazaar **8A**

11.2 Civil War Journal

TEKS in the Chapters

8.1A

Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including Civil War, and describe their causes and effects.

Readiness Standard

- Civil War
 - Secession
 - Slavery and states' rights
 - Abraham Lincoln
 - Confederate States of America
 - Union

8.1B

Explain the significance of the following dates: 1861-1865, Civil War.

Supporting Standard

- 1861-1865 – Civil War, significant because it resulted in huge loss of lives, settled the slavery issue in the United States, and preserved the union

8.8A Explain the roles played by significant individuals during the Civil War, including Jefferson Davis, Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, and Abraham Lincoln, and heroes such as congressional Medal of Honor recipients William Carney and Philip Bazaar.

Supporting Standard

- Jefferson Davis – President of the Confederate States of America
- Ulysses S. Grant – commander of the Union army; By September 1861 he was promoted to general. After a series of victories, including the capture of Vicksburg, Lincoln gave him command of the Union army. He created an overall plan concentrated on Sherman's march through Georgia and his own assault on the Confederate army in Virginia. Grant accepted Lee's surrender in 1865, ending the war.
- Robert E. Lee – when the South seceded, Lincoln offered Lee the command of Union forces but Lee refused, resigned from the U.S. Army, and returned to Virginia to serve with the Confederate forces. In 1862 Lee was appointed to command the Army of Northern Virginia. His battle strategies are admired to this day, but he was criticized for having a narrow strategy centered on his native Virginia. He surrendered to Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Courthouse in 1865.
- Abraham Lincoln – President of the United States
- William Carney – Congressional Medal of Honor recipient, served with the 54th Massachusetts Regiment (Union) during the Civil War, he was the first African American soldier to receive the award (Reason for citation: When the 54th's sergeant was shot down, this soldier grasped the flag, led the way to the parapet, and planted the colors thereon. When the troops fell back he brought off the flag, under a fierce fire in which he was twice severely wounded)

- Philip Bazaar – born in Chile, South America, was a Navy seaman in the Union Navy, won the Medal of Honor for his distinguished service in the Civil War (Reason for citation – On board the U.S.S. Santiago de Cuba during the assault on Fort Fisher on 15 January 1865. As one of a boat crew detailed to one of the generals on shore, Bazaar bravely entered the fort in the assault and accompanied his party in carrying dispatches at the height of the battle. He was 1 of 6 men who entered the fort in the assault from the fleet.)

8.8B Explain the causes of the Civil War, including sectionalism, states' rights, and slavery, and significant events of the Civil War, including the firing on Fort Sumter; the battles of Antietam, Gettysburg, and Vicksburg; the announcement of the Emancipation Proclamation; Lee's surrender at Appomattox Court House; and the assassination of Abraham Lincoln.

Readiness Standard

Causes

- Sectionalism – tendency to be more concerned with the interests of your particular group or region than with the problems and interests of the larger group, country, etc. Such was the situation between the Northern and Southern states leading up to the Civil War. The two regions were marked by various differences, and the war was ultimately the result of both sides staunchly refusing to concede to the other on specific issues.
- States' rights – the political position advocating strict interpretation of the Constitution with regard to the limitation of federal powers and the extension of the autonomy of the individual state to the greatest possible degree. As the South recognized that control of the government was slipping away, it turned to a states' rights argument to protect slavery. Southerners claimed that the federal government was prohibited by the 10th Amendment from impinging upon the right of slaveholders to take their "property" into a new territory. They also stated that the federal government was not permitted to interfere with slavery in those states where it already existed.
- Slavery – slavery in the United States first began in Virginia during the Colonial era. Throughout the first half of the 19th century, Southern politicians sought to defend slavery by retaining control of the federal government. The widening of the gap between slavery states and free states was symbolic of the changes occurring in each region. While the South was devoted to an agrarian plantation economy with a slow growth in population, the North had embraced industrialization, large urban areas, infrastructure growth, as well as was experiencing high birth rates and a large influx of European immigrants. This boost in population doomed Southern efforts to maintain balance in the government as it meant the future addition of more free states and the election of a Northern, potentially anti-slavery, president. The political issue regarding slavery was addressed in the Missouri Compromise in 1820, the Compromise of 1850, and the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854.

Events

- **Firing on Fort Sumter** – Fort Sumter, a federal fort in Charleston Harbor, was fired upon by rebel forces to begin the Civil war (April, 1861).
- **Battle of Antietam** – first battle of the Civil War to take place on Northern soil (in Sharpsburg, Maryland, September, 1862); bloodiest one-day battle in American history (23,000 casualties); Union victory when Lee withdrew to Virginia; built Union confidence and led President Abraham Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation (announced in September, 1862; signed the order in January, 1863)
- **Battle of Gettysburg** – turning point of the Civil War; Lee's invasion of northern territory is repelled; South is no longer capable of an offensive into Union territory (July, 1863)
- Siege of Vicksburg – the North captured this stronghold to gain control of the Mississippi River and divided the Southern states. (May-July, 1863)
- **The announcement of the Emancipation Proclamation** – changes the nature of the war from that of preserving the Union to freeing the slaves. The proclamation freed only the enslaved people in the rebelling territories. (announced in September, 1862; signed the order in January, 1863)

- **Assassination of Lincoln** – Lincoln is shot by John Wilkes Booth, a southern sympathizer (April, 1865)
- Lee’s surrender at Appomattox Court House – brings the Civil War to a close as Lee surrenders the Confederate forces of Virginia to Grant. (April, 1865). Priority now became bringing the confederate states back into the union.

8.8C Analyze Abraham Lincoln’s ideas about liberty, equality, union, and government as contained in his first and second inaugural addresses and the Gettysburg Address and contrast them with the ideas contained in Jefferson Davis’s inaugural address.

Supporting Standard

- Lincoln’s first inaugural address
 - Equality – promised he had no intent to abolish slavery
 - The Union – argued for the preservation of the Union
 - The Government – stated it was against the law to secede from the Union
- Lincoln’s second inaugural address
 - Equality – stated that slavery perpetuated the war and denounced slavery
 - The Union – fought for restoration of peace and the Union
 - The Government – Lincoln stated that there were people trying to destroy the government, with or without war
- Gettysburg Address
 - Equality – all enslaved people in the Confederate states would be free
 - The Union – stated that the country was worth fighting for
 - The Government – “The government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall be preserved.”
- Jefferson Davis’s inaugural address
 - Jefferson Davis became the President of the Confederate States of America in February, 1861. His inaugural address states that the secession of the Southern states was similar to the colonists’ revolution against the British; justifies the South’s “need” to secede, and discussed a tentative plan for the seceding states’ future. He claimed that secession was “a necessity, not a choice, we have resorted to the remedy of separation, and henceforth our energies must be directed to the conduct of our own affairs, and the perpetuity of the Confederacy which we have formed.”
 - Liberty – contrasting Lincoln’s discussion of liberty for individual people, Davis explains liberty and equality through the lens of freedom from the North’s oppression of the South.
 - “...They (the Confederate States) formed a new alliance, but within each State its government has remained; so that the rights of person and property have not been disturbed.”
 - “Through many years of controversy with our late associates of the Northern States, we have vainly endeavored to secure tranquility and obtain respect for the rights to which we were entitled.”
 - “It is joyous in the midst of perilous times to look around upon a people united in heart, where one purpose of high resolve animates and actuates the whole; where the sacrifices to be made are not weighed in the balance against honor and right and liberty and equality.”
 - The Union – Davis explains that breaking from the Union was “a necessity, not a choice” and that “... a reunion with the States from which we have separated is neither practicable nor desirable.”
 - The Government – the Confederacy had a goal of establishing a government system similar to the United States’ Constitution.
 - “American idea that governments rest on the consent of the governed, and that it is the right of the people to alter or abolish them at will whenever they become destructive of the ends for which they were established.”
 - “As a consequence of our new condition and relations, and with a view to meet anticipated wants, it will be necessary to provide for the speedy and efficient organization of branches of the Executive department having special charge of foreign intercourse, finance, military affairs, and the postal service.”

8.10A Locate places and regions of importance in the United States during the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries.
Supporting Standard

Civil War

- Ft. Sumter- site where Civil War begins
- Civil War battle sites; Antietam, Gettysburg, Bull Run, Vicksburg

8.10C Analyze the effects of physical and human geographic factors on major historical and contemporary events in the United States.

Readiness Standard

Civil War

- Geography affected the fighting of the Civil War. The North had access to a more extensive network of railroads to move supplies and men as opposed to the South. The South had better ports than the North, which resulted in a Northern blockade of the ports. The Mississippi River was of strategic importance in the war resulting in many battles across the South for control. Knowledge of the terrain gave Southern soldiers an advantage.

8.21A Identify different points of view of political parties and interest groups on important historical and contemporary issues.

Supporting Standard

Civil War

- Supported the Union – North/Whigs who were joined by anti-slavery Democrats formed the Republican Party
- Supported states' rights – South/Democrats

8.22A

Analyze the leadership qualities of elected and appointed leaders of the United States such as Abraham Lincoln.

Supporting Standard

- Leadership qualities
 - Honesty
 - Courage
 - Inspirational
 - Thoughtful
- Abraham Lincoln
 - Led the United States as President during the American Civil War and his leadership helped to preserve the Union and eventually bring an end to the practice of slavery after his assassination in 1865

8.22B

Describe the contributions of significant political, social, and military leaders of the United States such as Frederick Douglass, Stonewall Jackson.

Supporting Standard

- Frederick Douglass – leading African American abolitionist; accomplished orator and writer
- Stonewall Jackson – Confederate General in the Civil War; earned his name “Stonewall” at the Battle of Bull Run; gifted tactical commander; led troops in the 1st and 2nd Battles of Bull Run (Manassas) and Antietam

CHAPTER 12**Reconstruction****Chapter Outline**

12.1 RECONSTRUCTION JOURNAL

Important ideas for this Unit?**Misconceptions for this units students may have:****Questions for this Unit:**

Rebuilding the Union required addressing political, economic and social problems in the southern states.

- What pressing political, economic, and social problems did the southern states face following the end of the Civil War?
- How was the U.S. Constitution amended because of the Civil War?
- How did the U.S. legislature address the problems in the southern states following the Civil War?
- What conditions were established for readmission of the southern states to the Union?
- What compromise was made to eventually reconstruct the Union?

Social patterns changed in the United States during and after the Civil War.

- How did Reconstruction policies change the social patterns of southern states?
- How did passage of the Homestead Act, Morrill Act and Dawes Act affected social and geographic patterns in the West?

12.1 Reconstruction Journal

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TEKS in the Chapter

8.1A

Identify the major eras and events in U.S. history through 1877, including Reconstruction, and describe their causes and effects.

Readiness Standard

- Reconstruction
 - 13th,14th,15th Amendments
 - Radical Reconstruction
 - Andrew Johnson
 - Sharecropping
 - Carpetbaggers and scalawags
 - Compromise of 1877

8.1B Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.

Supporting Standard

- Absolute chronology
 - Significant individuals, events and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Absolute chronology – exact date
- Relative chronology
 - Significant individuals, events, and time periods listed in the Grade 8 TEKS
 - Relative chronology – general time period or era

8.9A Evaluate legislative reform programs of the Radical Reconstruction Congress and reconstructed state governments.

Supporting Standard

- Freedmen’s Bureau – established in the War Department (in March, 1865). The Bureau supervised all relief and educational activities relating to refugees and freedmen, including issuing rations, clothing, and medicine. The Bureau also assumed custody of confiscated lands or property in the former Confederate States, border states, District of Columbia, and Indian Territory.
- 13th Amendment – abolish slavery
- Reconstruction Act of 1867 – military occupation of the former confederate states; strict guidelines on representation and requirements for readmission to Union
- 14th Amendment – citizenship (equal protection clause and due process clause)
- 15th Amendment – right to vote (universal male suffrage)
- Civil Rights Act of 1866 – granted citizenship to persons born in the United States, except members of American Indian tribes; first time Congress passed a law protecting racial minorities

8.9B Evaluate the impact of the election of Hiram Rhodes Revels. Supporting Standard

- Hiram Rhodes Revels was selected as the first African American senator
- In 1870, the Mississippi state legislature chose Revels to fill a seat in the Senate that had been vacant since the start of the Civil War. Although he served only a brief term, Revels was seated as the first African American senator, against the objection of white Southerners. As a senator, Revels won notice for speaking out for racial equality
- Historic African American congressional representation
 - 1869-1901 – 20 representatives and 2 senators served, all from the South (1 senator from Louisiana was denied his seat)
 - No African Americans served as a representative again until 1929, and none from the South until 1973
 - No African Americans served as a senator again until 1967 with a total of 9 having served to date

8.9C Explain the economic, political, and social problems during Reconstruction and evaluate their impact on different groups.

Readiness Standard

- How to readmit the southern states back into the Union
 - Passage of the Reconstruction Act-divided the Southern states into 5 military districts
 - The Reconstruction Act was supported by the Radical Republicans (northern congressmen), who were resented by many Southerners
- How to rebuild the southern economy
 - The southern agricultural economy was dependent on enslaved labor. A system of sharecropping developed to replace enslaved labor
 - In the sharecropping system plantation owners provided land to formerly enslaved people in exchange for a share of the crop
 - Formerly enslaved people also became tenant farmers, paying rent to plantation owners to be able to farm a plot of land
- How to provide for the basic needs of formerly enslaved people
 - Freedmen’s Bureau was created – the bureau’s chief focus was to provide food, medical care, help with resettlement, administer justice, manage abandoned and confiscated property, regulate labor, and establish schools
 - Over 1,000 schools were built and some services were provided, but most people were not given what was promised
- How to extend citizenship to formerly enslaved people
 - Fourteenth Amendment was added to the U.S. Constitution granting citizenship to formerly enslaved people
 - Fifteenth Amendment was added to the U.S. Constitution granting voting rights to formerly enslaved males
- Impact of these problems on different groups
 - Southerners found ways to go around the federal laws put in place to protect formerly enslaved people
 - Black Codes – laws passed in the South during Reconstruction to limit the opportunities for African Americans
 - Jim Crow Laws – laws passed to bypass laws created by the Radical Republicans and any other federal law that Southerners did not agree with concerning African Americans

- Ku Klux Klan – secret society formed to undermine Republican rule and terrorize African Americans and their supporters (including white Republicans, carpetbaggers, teachers in African American schools, and others who assisted African Americans)
- Political and social divisions resulted
 - After Reconstruction ended, the Democratic Party controlled southern politics for over 100 years.
 - The clear division between northern and southern society extend far into the next century
 - Scalawags – Southerners who worked with the Republicans (seen as traitors by the Southerners) gained political power
 - Carpetbaggers, so named for the luggage they carried – Northerners who went to the South and became involved in the new state politics

8.9D Identify the effects of legislative acts such as the Homestead Act, the Dawes Act, and the Morrill Act. Supporting Standard

- Homestead Act (May, 1862) – granted adult heads of families 160 acres of surveyed public land for a minimal filing fee. Claimants were required to “improve” the plot by building a dwelling and cultivating the land. After 5 years on the land, the original filer was entitled to the property, free and clear, except for a small registration fee. Most of the land went to speculators, cattlemen, miners, lumbermen, and railroads. Of some 500 million acres dispersed by the General Land Office between 1862 and 1904, only 80 million acres went to homesteaders.
 - Impact – accelerated the settlement of the western territory
- Morrill Act (July, 1862) – this act made it possible for new western states to establish colleges for their citizens. The new land-grant institutions, which emphasized agriculture and mechanic arts, opened opportunities to thousands of farmers and working people previously excluded from higher education. The act committed the Federal Government to grant each state 30,000 acres of public land issued in the form of “land scrip” certificates for each of its Representatives and Senators in Congress. The Morrill Act of 1890 established sixteen higher education institutions specifically dedicated to the education of African Americans.
 - Impact – major universities such as Nebraska, Washington State, Clemson, and Cornell were chartered as land-grant schools. The Morrill Act of 1862 facilitated the founding of the University of Texas and Texas AM University. When Texas rejoined the Union after the Civil War, the state legislature authorized the first Texas public college, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas (Texas A.M.C., now Texas AM) in 1871. State colleges brought higher education within the reach of millions of students, a development that could not help but reshape the nation’s social and economic fabric.
- Dawes Act (February, 1887) – the law allowed for the President to break up reservation land, which was held in common by the members of a tribe, into small allotments to be parceled out to individuals. Thus, American Indians registering on a tribal “roll” were granted allotments of reservation land. “To each head of a family, one-quarter of a section; To each single person over eighteen years of age, one-eighth of a section; To each orphan child under eighteen years of age, one-eighth of a section; and To each other single person under eighteen years now living, or who may be born prior to the date of the order of the President directing an allotment of the lands embraced in any reservation, one-sixteenth of a section. . .”
 - Impact – the purpose of the Dawes Act and the subsequent acts that extended its initial provisions was purportedly to protect Indian property rights, particularly during the land rushes of the 1890s, but in many instances the results were vastly different. The land allotted to the Indians included desert or near-desert lands unsuitable for farming. In addition, the techniques of self-sufficient farming were much different from their tribal way of life. Many Indians did not want to take up agriculture, and those who did want to farm could not afford the tools, animals, seed, and other supplies necessary to get started.

8.16B Describe the impact of 19th-century amendments, including the 13th, 14th, and 15th amendments, on life in the United States.

Readiness Standard

- The 13th Amendment, one of three passed during the era of Reconstruction, freed all enslaved people without compensation to slave holders. President Abraham Lincoln first proposed compensated emancipation as an amendment in December 1862. His Emancipation Proclamation declared enslaved people free in the Confederate states in rebellion, but did not extend to border-states. After Lincoln's assassination, President Andrew Johnson declared his own plan for Reconstruction which included the need for Confederate states to approve the 13th Amendment. The amendment, adopted in 1865, eight months after the war ended, legally forbade slavery in the United States.
- The 14th Amendment is one of three to the U.S. Constitution passed during the era of Reconstruction to protect the rights of citizens. In 1866, Congress passed the Civil Rights Bill which extended citizenship to African Americans. President Andrew Johnson opposed and vetoed the legislation but congress overruled his veto and then proposed the 14th Amendment. In 1866, ten of the eleven Confederate states refused to ratify, but the Military Reconstruction Act, passed by Congress on March 2, 1867, required all seceded states to ratify the amendment as a condition of their readmission into the union, and to extend the right to vote to the freedmen. In 1868, the required number of states ratified the 14th Amendment which declared that all persons born in the United States (except American Indians) were citizens, that all citizens were entitled to equal rights regardless of their race, and their rights were protected by due process of the law. The 14th Amendment did not extend the right to vote to African American men but it encouraged states to allow them to vote by limiting the Congressional representation of any state that did not extend the right. The amendment disappointed women's rights advocates because it defined the right to vote as a male right.
- The 15th Amendment, one of three amendments to the U.S. Constitution passed during the era of Reconstruction, granted African American men the right to vote. The amendment derived from a requirement in the Military Reconstruction Act, passed by Congress on March 2, 1867, that Confederate states, as a condition for readmission into the Union, extend the right to vote to former adult enslaved males. Congress eventually sought more stringent means to safeguard the vote for African American men by proposing a constitutional amendment in 1869. It was ratified in 1870. Women's rights activists opposed the amendment because it continued to deny the vote based on gender. Fifty more years passed before the 19th Amendment gave women the right to vote.

8.21C Summarize a historical event in which compromise resulted in a peaceful resolution. Supporting Standard

- Compromise of 1877 – occurred after the Presidential Election of 1876; when Congress formed the Electoral Commission to resolve disputed Democratic Electoral votes from the South; it was an unwritten, informal compromise between the Republicans and Democrats in Congress; included measures to appease the south (removal of all federal troops from the southern states, appointment of at least one Southern Democrat to Hayes's Administration, construction of a second transcontinental railroad in the South, and legislation enacted to help industrialize the South)

CHAPTER **13**

Westward Expansion: The Louisiana Purchase

Westward Expansion: The Louisiana Purchase



FIGURE 13.1

One of the first colored illustrations to be put into print, John H.B. Latrobe's *The Balise. Mississippi River* captures the haunting image of a navigation station under a full moon at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

Jefferson's plans for the nation depended upon western expansion and access to international markets for American farm products. This vision was threatened, however, when France regained control of Louisiana. NAPOLEON, who had now risen to power in the French Revolution, threatened to block American access to the important port of New Orleans on the Mississippi River. New American settlements west of the Appalachian Mountains depended upon river transport to get their goods to market since overland trade to the east was expensive and impractical.

Blocking American access to New Orleans was such a grave threat to American interests that President Jefferson considered changing his traditional foreign policy stance to an anti-French alliance with the British. At the same time that he sent diplomats to France to bargain for continued trade access along the Mississippi, he also sent diplomats to Britain to pursue other policy options. James Monroe, the top person negotiating in Paris, was empowered to purchase New Orleans and West Florida for between two and ten million dollars.

Surprisingly, however, Napoleon offered much more. He was militarily overextended and needing money to continue his war against Britain. Knowing full well that he could not force Americans out of the land France possessed in North America, Napoleon offered all of LOUISIANA to the U.S. for 15 million dollars. The massive territory stretched from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains and more than doubled the size of the United States.



 FIGURE 13.2

L. Ducis

Napoleon with the King of Rome (Napoleon III) sitting on his lap. The elder Napoleon was crowned Emperor of France by Pope Pius VII in 1804.

Napoleon's asking price worked out to be about four cents an acre.

The deal was struck in April 1803, but it brought a good deal of controversy. While American development in the 19th century depended on WESTERN EXPANSION, it also raised controversial issues that might lead to the disunion of the United States. Some New England Federalists, for example, began to talk of seceding from the U.S. since their political power was dramatically reduced by the purchase.

Further, Jefferson had clearly not followed his own strict interpretation of the Constitution. Federalist critics howled that the Constitution nowhere permitted the federal government to purchase new land. Jefferson was troubled by the inconsistency, but in the end decided that the Constitution's treaty-making provisions allowed him room to act.

Most of the Senate agreed and the LOUISIANA PURCHASE easily passed 26 to 6. The dramatic expansion also contradicted Jefferson's commitment to reduce the national debt as swiftly as possible. Although 15 million dollars was a relatively small sum for such a large amount of land, it was still an enormous price tag for the modest federal budget of the day.



FIGURE 13.3

Thomas Jefferson's purchase of the Louisiana Territory in 1803 — over 600 million acres at less than 4¢ an acre — was an economic as well as a political victory, as it avoided a possible war with the French.

The Louisiana Purchase demonstrates Jefferson's ability to make pragmatic political decisions. Although contrary to some of his central principles, guaranteeing western expansion was so important to Jefferson's overall vision that he took bold action. The gains were dramatic, as the territory acquired would in time add 13 new states to the union. In 1812, Louisiana became the first state to join the union from land bought in the purchase. Louisiana was allowed to enter the United States with its French legal traditions largely in place. Even today, Louisiana's legal code retains many elements that do not follow English common law traditions. The federal system could be remarkably flexible.

13.1 Westward Expansion: The Louisiana Purchase



FIGURE 13.4

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CHAPTER 14

A New National Capital

A New National Capital: Washington, D.C.



FIGURE 14.1

This image, *View of the Capitol at Washington* by William H. Bartlett, was engraved by Joseph C. Bently in 1837.

The Louisiana Purchase and rapid western expansion were crucial developments during the early republic. But attention there can misleadingly suggest that the United States rapidly assumed the shape we know today. Focusing on how the capital city of the federal government changed in the early years of the nation reminds us of the limited nature of the early central government. Like so many other elements of the new nation, even the most basic features of the capital city were unsettled. President Washington first took office in NEW YORK CITY, but, when reelected in 1792, the capital had already moved to Philadelphia where it would remain for a decade. Fittingly, Jefferson was the first president to be inaugurated in the new and lasting capital of Washington, D.C. in March 1801.

The site of the new capital was the product of political compromise. As part of the struggle over Hamilton's financial policy, Congress supported the Bank of the United States which would be headquartered in Philadelphia. In exchange the special DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, to be under Congressional control, would be built on the POTOMAC RIVER. The compromise represented a symbolic politics of the very highest order. While Hamilton's policies encouraged the consolidation of economic power in the hands of bankers, financiers, and merchants who predominated in the urban northeast, the political capital was to be in a more southerly and agricultural region apart from those economic elites.



FIGURE 14.2

A dramatic aerial view of the U.S. Capitol and its surroundings in modern-day Washington, D.C.

Once the site for the new capital was selected in 1790, President Washington retained PIERRE CHARLES L'ENFANT, a French engineer and former officer in the Continental Army, to design and lay out the new CAPITAL CITY. His grand plan gave pride of place to the capitol building which would stand on a hill overlooking the flatlands around the Potomac. A long open mall connected the legislative building to the river and was to be bordered by varied stately buildings. Radiating out from the capital were a number of broad avenues one of which would connect with the president's house. Much of L'Enfant's grand vision was ignored during the nineteenth century, but starting in 1901 the plan was vigorously reborn.

Today, Washington, D.C., is an impressive capital city that physically expresses many central values of the modern United States. It gloriously honors the nation's commitment to democracy and political life in impressive government buildings. The capital also maintains the nation's historical memory in monuments along the mall that commemorate key events and people. Finally, the city also announces the nation's commitment to knowledge and human achievement in the spectacular SMITHSONIAN MUSEUMS. At the same time the capital also symbolizes less celebrated aspects of modern America. Washington, D.C.'s impressive center around the mall is surrounded by urban poverty, a crisis facing most large American cities. The gulf separating American success and failure is on display nowhere more sharply.

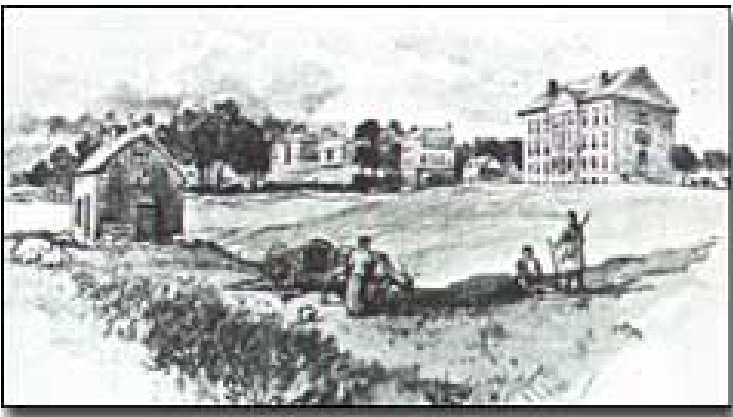


FIGURE 14.3

This drawing, published in 1805, is considered the earliest picture of what became the White House in Washington D.C. The most distant building, in the left center, was where John Adams lived during his presidency.

Today's Washington, D.C., however, is a far cry from the humble place that Jefferson entered in 1801. Then just beginning to emerge from a swampy location along the Potomac, the city claimed only 5,000 inhabitants, many of them temporary residents to serve the incoming politicians. The Senate building had been completed, but the building for the House of Representatives was still incomplete as was the president's house. Jefferson took office while living in a boardinghouse! The limited physical stature of the capital city matched the modest scope of the federal government in the early republic which only included 130 officials. In fact, with the exception of the postal service, the national government provided almost no services that reached ordinary people in their everyday lives. For most people in the early republic the most meaningful political decisions were made at the state and local level.

14.1 A New National Capital: Washington, D.C.



FIGURE 14.4

This image, *View of the Capitol at Washington* by William H. Bartlett, was engraved by Joseph C. Bently in 1837.

The Louisiana Purchase and rapid western expansion were crucial developments during the early republic. But attention there can misleadingly suggest that the United States rapidly assumed the shape we know today. Focusing on how the capital city of the federal government changed in the early years of the nation reminds us of the limited nature of the early central government. Like so many other elements of the new nation, even the most basic features of the capital city were unsettled. President Washington first took office in NEW YORK CITY, but, when reelected in 1792, the capital had already moved to Philadelphia where it would remain for a decade. Fittingly, Jefferson was the first president to be inaugurated in the new and lasting capital of Washington, D.C. in March 1801.

The site of the new capital was the product of political compromise. As part of the struggle over Hamilton's financial policy, Congress supported the Bank of the United States which would be headquartered in Philadelphia. In exchange the special DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, to be under Congressional control, would be built on the POTOMAC RIVER. The compromise represented a symbolic politics of the very highest order. While Hamilton's policies encouraged the consolidation of economic power in the hands of bankers, financiers, and merchants who predominated in the urban northeast, the political capital was to be in a more southerly and agricultural region apart from those economic elites.



FIGURE 14.5

A dramatic aerial view of the U.S. Capitol and its surroundings in modern-day Washington, D.C.

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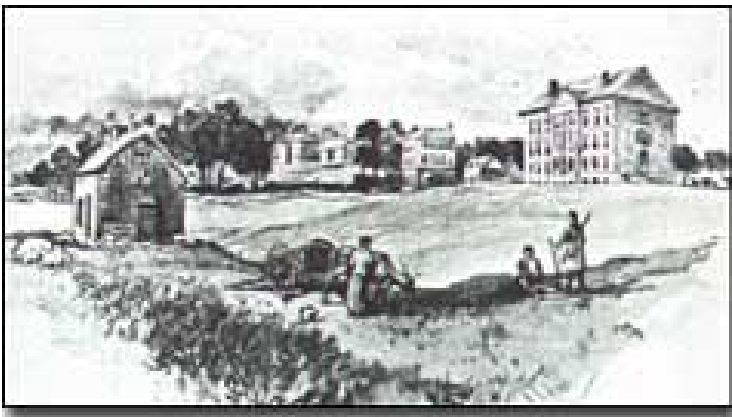


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CONCEPT **15****War of 1812****The Expanding Republic and the War of 1812**

FIGURE 15.1

After the American forces were beaten at Frenchtown, able-bodied prisoners were led away by British troops; the American wounded were left under the charge of the First Nations warriors. That night, between 30 and 60 of the American wounded were executed in what was called "The River Raisin Massacre."

Expansion. Battles with Indian nations. The War of 1812. Welcome to America under Republican rule at the onset of the 19th century.

The United States underwent dramatic changes during the period of Democratic-Republican (also called Jeffersonian Republican, or simply Republican) political leadership in the first decades of the 19th century. The republic's expansion to the west and renewed military conflict with Indian nations and Great Britain each posed a fundamental challenge to the fragile new republic. All three of these factors played a role in the coming of the War of 1812.

Although the war itself had no decisive outcome, it did serve as a turning point in the history of the young republic. The United States survived a second war with its former colonial ruler and in the process called forth a national effort that helped Americans from distinct regions pull closer together. The war years also led to the final disintegration of the Federalists, whose strength in New England, which, to many, indicated a regional loyalty in conflict with national sentiments given new importance by the war.



FIGURE 15.2

At the start of the 19th century, much of North America had yet to become a part of the United States.

The United States developed in a more distinctly American fashion after the War of 1812. The years of the early republic, from the end of the Revolutionary war in 1783 to the end of what is sometimes called the **SECOND WAR FOR AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE** in 1815, had itself been a period of enormous change that included dramatic political innovations of state and federal constitutions as well as the surge of western settlement.

America was growing up.

Diplomatic Challenges in an Age of European War



FIGURE 15.3

While serving as a Kentucky Representative to the Congress, Henry Clay was a leading "War Hawk," strongly in favor of going to war for a second time with Britain to ensure America's place in the West.

While western movement and policies were reshaping the republic, European wars also presented a major challenge to the new country. The NAPOLEONIC WARS (1802-1815) were a continuation of the conflict begun in the 1790s when Great Britain led a coalition of European powers against Revolutionary France, though France was now led by the brilliant military strategist Napoleon Bonaparte. As had also been true in the 1790s, neither European superpower respected the neutrality of the United States. Instead, both tried to prevent U.S. ships from carrying goods to their enemy. Both Britain and France imposed BLOCKADES to limit American merchants, though the dominant British navy was clearly more successful.

In response to this denial of American sovereignty, President Jefferson and his secretary of state James Madison crafted an imaginative, but fundamentally flawed, policy of economic coercion. Their EMBARGO OF 1807 prevented U.S. ships from any trade with Europe in the belief that dependence on American goods would soon force France and England to honor American neutrality. The plan backfired, however, as the Republican leaders failed to understand how deeply committed the superpowers were to carrying on their war despite its high costs.



 FIGURE 15.4

The Napoleonic Wars in Europe had a great effect on the happenings of the 19th-century United States.

The Embargo not only failed diplomatically, but also caused enormous domestic dissent. American shippers, who were primarily concentrated in Federalist New England, generally circumvented the unpopular law. Its toll was clearly marked in the sharp decline of American imports from 108 million dollars worth of goods in 1806 to just 22 million in 1808. This unsuccessful diplomatic strategy that mostly punished Americans helped to spur a Federalist revival in the elections of 1808 and 1812. Nevertheless, Republicans from Virginia continued to hold the presidency as James Madison replaced Jefferson in 1808.

Madison faced difficult circumstances in office with increasing Indian violence in the west and war-like conditions on the Atlantic. These combined to push him away from his policy of economic coercion toward an outright declaration of war. This intensification was favored by a group of westerners and southerners in Congress called "WAR HAWKS," who were led by HENRY CLAY of Kentucky.



 FIGURE 15.5

Future President Andrew Jackson seized the day by defeating the British at the Battle of New Orleans in January, 1815. Unfortunately, neither army had learned that the War of 1812 ended on Christmas Eve, 2 weeks earlier.

Most historians now agree that the WAR OF 1812 was "a western war with eastern labels." By this they mean that the real causes of the war stemmed from desire for control of western Indian lands and clear access to trade through New Orleans. Further, the issue of national sovereignty, so clearly denied by British rejection of American free trade

on the Atlantic, provided a more honorable rationale for war. Even with the intense pressure of the War Hawks, the United States entered the war hesitantly and with especially strong opposition from Federalist New England. When Congress declared war in June 1812, its heavily divided votes (19 to 13 in the Senate and 79 to 49 in the House) suggest that the republic entered the war as a divided nation.

CONCEPT **16**

The Importance of the West

The Importance of the West



FIGURE 16.1

The presence of Sacajawea and her baby helped the Corps of Discovery prove during potentially hostile encounters with Native Americans that they were not a war party.

Land. Lots of land.

The Louisiana Purchase of 1803 intensified AMERICAN MIGRATION to the west that was already well underway. Anglo-American settlement in the 18th century had largely been confined to the eastern seaboard. It made its boldest inroads where rivers allowed easy internal transportation. As a result the chief population centers of early North America were clustered on the coast or along its major inland waterways.

In 1790 the fast-growing population of the United States was 3.9 million, but only 5% of Americans lived west of the Appalachian Mountains that run from Maine to Georgia. By 1820, however, the total U.S. population had already reached 9.6 million and fully 25 percent of them lived west of the Appalachians in nine new states and three territories.

CINCINNATI, in present-day southwest Ohio, provides a good example of the speed of western expansion during the early republic. Founded in 1788 as a fort to repel Shawnee and Miami Indian attacks, it served a chiefly military purpose until the major Indian defeat at Fallen Timbers in 1794. Soon thereafter, however, its location 450 miles downriver from Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, made it a strategic trade location for agricultural products from newly settled farm lands. Although its population was a modest 750 in 1800, by 1810 that figure had tripled and vastly larger numbers passed through Cincinnati on their way to settle the "OLD NORTHWEST" of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois.



FIGURE 16.2

Conestoga wagons, most commonly found during a 100-year-span starting in 1750, carried everything from flour to furs, and became the symbol of settlers' journeys to the western frontier.

Western migration had become central to the American way of life and as much as two-thirds of all western families moved every decade. Interestingly, Cincinnati's most important TRADE connection was not with relatively nearby (but upriver) Pittsburgh, but instead lay 1500 miles south along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers at the great port of New Orleans. The most efficient route to market remained along waterways and access to New Orleans remained crucial for the western economy and its settlement.

This rapid POPULATION GROWTH and geographic expansion caused a great deal of conflict. Native Americans in the west resisted American intrusion and fought renewed wars in the early 19th century. Furthermore, the expansion of plantation slavery beyond the coastal southeast meant that huge numbers of slaves were forcibly moved to new territories. In spite of these enormous human costs, the overwhelming majority of white Americans saw western

expansion as a major opportunity. To them, access to western land offered the promise of independence and prosperity to anyone willing to meet the hardships of frontier life.



 FIGURE 16.3

U.S. Geological Survey

By 1820, the United States had more than doubled in area to become one of the largest nations in the world.

Most politicians of the era believed that the health of the republic depended upon providing affordable land to ordinary white Americans. Among Jeffersonian Republicans most popular policies was an expansionist agenda that encouraged western development. This played an important part in cementing the Democratic-Republican party's strength in the south and west.

Even among white settlers who benefited most from western migration, the expansion of the nation caused major alterations in American life. For instance, getting crops to market required improved transportation. States responded by giving charters to private companies to build roads (called turnpikes since they charged a fee), bridges, canals, or to operate ferry services. The state gave these companies special legal privileges because they provided a service that could benefit a wide segment of the population.



 FIGURE 16.4

The Pennsylvania turnpike started out as a 62-mile long log-paved road in the 1790s. The establishment of roads and canals, and later, railroads, was a critical factor in the settlement of the West.

Nevertheless, many people opposed these special benefits as contradicting republican notions of equal opportunity

for all. These new transportation projects reshaped the American landscape, but the larger economic promise for most of the new western lands lay in the massive inland rivers of the Ohio, Tennessee, and Mississippi, all of which ultimately flowed south to New Orleans.

Long before newspaper editors such as JOHN SOULE and HORACE GREELEY were urging readers to "GO WEST, YOUNG MAN," Americans were doing exactly that.

CONCEPT 17

Exploration: Lewis and Clark's expedition

Exploration: Lewis and Clark



FIGURE 17.1

Originally named the Corps of Discovery, the 1803 expedition led by Lewis and Clark came in contact with people and places never before seen, and returned with stories that Americans in the East could hardly believe. On this map, the outbound leg of the expedition is red and the inbound route is blue.

Even before Jefferson had completed the Louisiana Purchase, he had begun to make plans for a bold journey to explore the vast interior of North America that remained completely unknown to American citizens. That plan took on new importance once the United States had acquired the huge new territory from France.

In May 1804, a group of 50 Americans led by MERIWETHER LEWIS, Jefferson's personal secretary, and WILLIAM CLARK, an army officer, headed northwest along the Missouri River from St. Louis. Their varied instructions reveal the multiple goals that Jefferson hoped the expedition could accomplish. While trying to find a route across the continent, they were also expected to make detailed observations of the natural resources and geography of the west. Furthermore, they were to establish good relations with native groups in an attempt to disrupt British dominance of the lucrative Indian fur trade of the continental interior.



FIGURE 17.2

In mid-October, 1805 William Clark entered into his elkskin-bound diary — a map of the Columbia River. One of the purposes of the expedition, which was not realized, was to find a water route across the entire United States.

By mid-October 1804, the LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION reached the MANDAN villages on the banks of the upper Missouri River in present-day NORTH DAKOTA. Here they found several large, successful settlements with an overall population of about 5,000 people. The Mandan villages were an important trade center that brought together many different native groups as well as a handful of multilingual Frenchmen. The expedition chose to spend the winter in this attractive location and it proved to be a crucial decision for the success of their journey.

During the winter they established good relations with the Mandans and received a great deal of information about the best route for heading west to the Pacific Ocean. The expedition also hired several of the Frenchmen who lived among the Mandans to serve as guides and translators. Along with them came a fifteen-year-old SHOSHONE named SACAJAWEA who was married to one of the Frenchmen. Her knowledge of the west and language skills played an important role in the success of the expedition. Additionally, the presence of Sacajawea and her baby helped assure other Indian groups encountered further west that this could not be a war party.

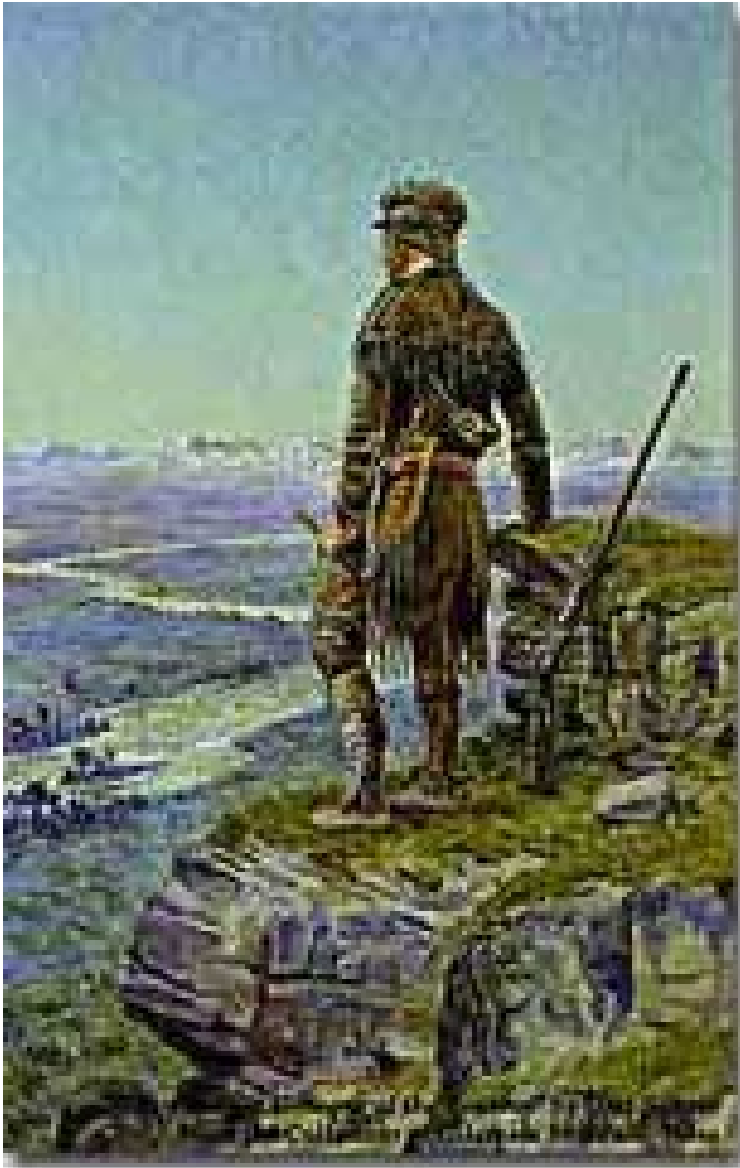


FIGURE 17.3

This painting by Olaf Seltzer, called *Lewis' First Glimpse of the Rockies*, illustrates a remarkable moment in the famous journey to the Pacific.

From the Mandan villages the now enlarged expedition headed west to cross the Rockies, the highest mountain range in North America. By the winter of 1805 they had reached the Pacific Ocean via the COLUMBIA RIVER, becoming the first U.S. citizens to succeed in a trans-continental crossing north of Mexico. They were not, however, the first whites to accomplish this feat since ALEXANDER MACKENZIE had done so for a British-Canadian fur-trading company in 1793. Nevertheless, the Columbia River proved a much easier route than the one Mackenzie had taken a decade earlier. When the long overdue expedition finally returned to St. Louis in September 1806, they were celebrated as heroes who had accomplished an extraordinary feat.

The expedition combined several qualities from scientific and military to trade and diplomatic, but the underlying motivation was prompted by Thomas Jefferson's widely shared belief that the future prosperity of the republic required the expansion of yeoman farmers in the west. This noble dream for what Jefferson called an "EMPIRE OF LIBERTY" also had harsh consequences. For instance, FORT CLARK was soon established at the Mandan villages. At first it provided the Mandans with a useful alternative to trading with the British and also offered military support

from their traditional native enemies the Sioux.



FIGURE 17.4

During his travels across the continent with William Clark and the Corps of Discovery, Meriwether Lewis fell 20 feet into a cavern, got poisoned and was shot in the thigh. In this engraving, *An American having struck a Bear but not kill'd him escapes into a Tree*, the American was none other than Meriwether Lewis.

However, Americans at the fort unwittingly brought new diseases to the area that decimated the local native population. Where the Mandans had a thriving and sophisticated trading center when Lewis and Clark arrived in 1804, by the late 1830s their total population had been reduced to less than 150.

The nation's growth combined tragedy and triumph at every turn

CONCEPT 18

The Second War for American Independence

The Second War for American Independence



FIGURE 18.1

This engraving, *The Taking of the City of Washington in America*, illustrates British forces storming Washington D.C. in 1814 and burning several significant structures including the White House and the Library of Congress.

In the War of 1812 the United States once again fought against the British and their Indian allies. Some historians see the conflict as a Second War for American Independence.

Furthermore, the three-year war marks a traditional boundary between the early republic and early national periods. The former period had strong ties to the more hierarchical colonial world of the 18th century, while post-war developments would move in dynamic new directions that contributed to a more autonomous American society and culture. Although the War of 1812 serves as an important turning point in the development of an independent United States, the war itself was mostly a political and military disaster for the country.

The U.S. Congress was far from unanimous in its declaration of war. America's initial invasion of Canada (then ruled by England) in the summer of 1812 was repulsed by Tecumseh and the British. Although Tecumseh would be killed in battle the following fall, the U.S. was unable to mount a major invasion of Canada because of significant domestic discord over war policy. Most importantly, the governors of most New England states refused to allow their state militias to join a campaign beyond state boundaries. Similarly, a promising young Congressman from New Hampshire, DANIEL WEBSTER, actually discouraged ENLISTMENT in the U.S. army.



FIGURE 18.2

Fort McHenry is considered the "Home of the National Anthem" because it was here, during a battle in the War of 1812, that Francis Scott Key was inspired to write his famous poem.

British military dominance was even clearer in the Atlantic and this naval superiority allowed it to deliver a shaming blow to the fragile United States in the summer of 1814. With Napoleon's French forces failing in Europe, Britain committed more of its resources to the American war and in August sailed up the Potomac River to occupy Washington D.C. and burn the White House. On the edge of national bankruptcy and with the capital largely in ashes, total American disaster was averted when the British failed to capture FT. MCHENRY that protected nearby Baltimore.

Watching the failed attack on Ft. McHenry as a prisoner of the British, FRANCIS SCOTT KEY wrote a poem later called "THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER" which was set to the tune of an English drinking song. It became the official NATIONAL ANTHEM of the United States of America in 1931.

The most critical moment of the War of 1812, however, may not have been a battle, but rather a political meeting called by the Massachusetts legislature. Beginning in December 1814, 26 Federalists representing New England states met at the HARTFORD CONVENTION to discuss how to reverse the decline of their party and the region. Although manufacturing was booming and contraband trade brought riches to the region, "MR. MADISON'S WAR" and its expenses proved hard to swallow for New Englanders.

Holding this meeting during the war was deeply controversial. Although more moderate leaders voted down extremists who called for New England to secede from the United States, most Republicans believed that the Hartford Convention was an act of treason.



FIGURE 18.3

State militia in New England refused to go into national service during the War of 1812.

Federalist New England's opposition to national policies had been demonstrated in numerous ways from circumventing trade restrictions as early as 1807, to voting against the initial declaration of war in 1812, refusing to contribute state militia to the national army, and now its representatives were moving on a dangerous course of semi-autonomy during war time.

If a peace treaty ending the War of 1812 had not been signed while the Hartford Convention was still meeting, New England may have seriously debated seceding from the Union.

CONCEPT 19

Claiming Victory from Defeat

Claiming Victory from Defeat

The Americans were angry with the British for many reasons.

- The British didn't withdraw from American territory in the Great Lakes region as they agreed to in the 1783 Treaty of Paris.
- Britain kept aiding Native Americans.
- Britain would not sign favorable commercial agreements with the U.S.
- Impressment: Britain claimed the right to take any British sailors serving on American merchant ships. In practice, the British took many American sailors and forced them to serve on British ships. This was nothing short of kidnapping.
- In 1807, The British ship *Leopard* fired on the American frigate *Chesapeake*. Other American merchant ships came under harassment from the British navy.
- War Hawks in Congress pushed for the conflict.

But the United States was not really ready for war. The Americans hoped to get a jump on the British by conquering CANADA in the campaigns of 1812 and 1813. Initial plans called for a three-pronged offensive: from LAKE CHAMPLAIN to Montreal; across the Niagara frontier; and into Upper Canada from Detroit.



FIGURE 19.1

The Treaty of Ghent was signed by British and American delegates on December 24, 1814, effectively ending the War of 1812.

The first American attacks were disjointed and failed. Detroit was surrendered to the British in August 1812. The Americans also lost the BATTLE OF QUEENSTON HEIGHTS in October. Nothing much happened along Lake Champlain and the American forces withdrew in late November.

In 1813, the Americans tried an intricate attack on Montreal by a combined land and sea operation. That failed.

One bright spot for the Americans was OLIVER HAZARD PERRY's destruction of the BRITISH FLEET on Lake Erie in September 1813 that forced the British to flee from Detroit. The British were overtaken in October defeated at the battle of the Thames by Americans led by William Henry Harrison, the future President. It was here that the Shawnee chief, and British ally, Tecumseh fell.

Minor victories aside, things looked bleak for the Americans in 1814. The British were able to devote more men and ships to the American arena after having defeated Napoleon.

England conceived of a three-pronged attack focusing on controlling major waterways. Control of the Hudson River in New York would seal off New England; seizing New Orleans would seal up the Mississippi River and seriously disrupt the farmers and traders of the Midwest; and by attacking the Chesapeake Bay, the British hoped to threaten Washington, D.C. and put an end to the war and pressure the U.S. into ceding territory in a peace treaty.

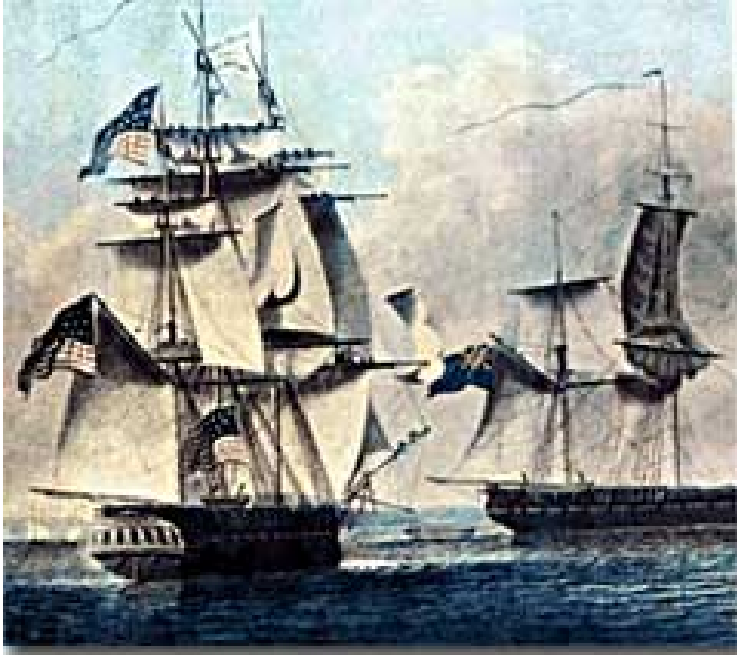


FIGURE 19.2

The USS *Chesapeake* engages the HMS *Shannon* during the War of 1812. The *Chesapeake* had become famous when the HMS *Leopard* attacked the ship off Cape Henry in 1807 looking for deserters.

All the while, was losing support in America. Costs associated with the war skyrocketed. New England talked of succeeding from the Union. At the Hartford Convention, delegates proposed constitutional amendments that would limit the power of the executive branch of government.

So weak was American military opposition that the British sashayed into Washington D.C. after winning the BATTLE OF BLADENSBURG and burned most of the public buildings including the White House. PRESIDENT MADISON had to flee the city. His wife Dolley gathered invaluable national objects and escaped with them at the last minute. It was the nadir of the war.

But the Americans put up a strong opposition in Baltimore and the British were forced to pull back from that city. In the north, about 10,000 British army veterans advanced into the United States via Montreal: their goal was New York City. With American fortunes looking their bleakest, American CAPTAIN THOMAS MACDONOUGH won the naval battle of Lake Champlain destroying the British fleet. The British army, fearful of not being supplied by the British navy, retreated into Canada.

The War of 1812 came to an end largely because the British public had grown tired of the sacrifice and expense of their twenty-year war against France. Now that Napoleon was all but finally defeated, the minor war against the United States in North America lost popular support. Negotiations began in August 1814 and on Christmas Eve the TREATY OF GHENT was signed in Belgium. The treaty called for the mutual restoration of territory based on pre-war boundaries and with the European war now over, the issue of American neutrality had no significance.

In effect, the treaty didn't change anything and hardly justified three years of war and the deep divide in American politics that it exacerbated.



FIGURE 19.3

With their fingers on the triggers, these American infantrymen demonstrate the uniforms and weaponry used in the War of 1812.

Popular memory of the War of 1812 might have been quite so dour had it not been for a major victory won by American forces at New Orleans on January 8, 1815. Although the peace treaty had already been signed, news of it had not yet arrived on the battlefield where GENERAL ANDREW JACKSON led a decisive victory resulting in 700 British casualties versus only 13 American deaths. Of course, the BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS had no military or diplomatic significance, but it did allow Americans to swagger with the claim of a great win.

Furthermore, the victory launched the public career of Andrew Jackson as a new kind of American leader totally different from those who had guided the nation through the Revolution and early republic. The Battle of New Orleans vaulted Jackson to heroic status and he became a symbol of the new American nation emerging in the early 19th century.

CHAPTER **20****Social Change and National Development****Social Change and National Development**

FIGURE 20.1

Artist John Rubens Smith was taken with the physical transformation that occurred as the United States began to mature. This picture was one in a large series of the almost-finished Capitol in Washington D.C.

The United States changed dramatically in its first half century. In 1776 the U.S. consisted of THIRTEEN COLONIES clustered together on the eastern seaboard. By 1821 eleven new states had been added from Maine to Louisiana. This geographic growth and especially the political incorporation of the new states demonstrated that the United States had resolved a fundamental question about how to expand. This growth not only built upon the Louisiana Purchase, but included military intervention in SPANISH FLORIDA which the United States then claimed by treaty in 1819.

The new shape of the nation required thinking about the United States in new ways. For instance, a classic text on American geography in 1793 taught that the United States was composed of three basic divisions: northern, middle, and southern. But the 1819 edition of that same book included a new region because western states and territories needed recognition as well. By 1820, over two million Americans lived west of the APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS.

The growing regional distinctiveness of American life was complex. Four basic regions with distinct ways of life had developed along the eastern seaboard in the colonial period. Starting in the north, they were NEW ENGLAND (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut); the MID-ATLANTIC (New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania); the CHESAPEAKE (Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia); and the LOWER SOUTH (the Carolinas and Georgia). As people from these regions joined new immigrants to the United States in settling the west, they established additional distinctive regions that combined frontier conditions with ways of doing things from their previous places of origin.



 FIGURE 20.2

The institution of slavery was a target for many of the Bible and Benevolent Societies that formed in the early 19th century. This image, taken from a children's book, depicts treatment on a slave ship and the inhuman conditions abducted Africans faced.

The newly settled western lands of this period can be grouped in several ways, but four basic divisions were most evident: the **BORDER AREA** (Kentucky and Tennessee, the first trans-Appalachian states to join the nation), the **Old Northwest** (Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois), the **OLD SOUTHWEST** (Alabama and Mississippi), and the **TRANS-MISSISSIPPI RIVER WEST** (Louisiana and Missouri).

The new shape of the nation reflected much more than just physical expansion. This period also witnessed dramatic economic and religious changes. A new capitalist economy enormously expanded wealth and laid the foundation for the Industrial Revolution that flourished later in the 19th century. The great opportunities of economic development also brought new hardships for many people, especially those who toiled as slaves under the startlingly new system of cotton slavery that boomed in the early 19th century.

A dynamic religious movement known as the Second Great Awakening also transformed the nation in this period.

Although springing from internal spiritual convictions, the new character of American Protestantism in the early 19th century reinforced the modern economic and political developments that created the new nation by the end of the 1820s.

The United States had claimed political independence in 1776, but its ability to make that claim a reality required at least another fifty years to be fully settled. The War of 1812, however fitfully, had demonstrated American military independence, but breaking free of the economic and cultural dominance of Great Britain would prove to be longer and more complicated struggles. In 1823 when President Monroe declared that the entire western hemisphere is "henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers," it was a claim made without the power to back it up. Although his Monroe Doctrine became a central plank of U.S. foreign policy only at the end of the century, Americans had clearly fashioned a bold new national identity by the 1820s.

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FIGURE 20.3

Artist John Rubens Smith was taken with the physical transformation that occurred as the United States began to mature. This picture was one in a large series of the almost-finished Capitol in Washington D.C.

The United States changed dramatically in its first half century. In 1776 the U.S. consisted of THIRTEEN COLONIES clustered together on the eastern seaboard. By 1821 eleven new states had been added from Maine to Louisiana. This geographic growth and especially the political incorporation of the new states demonstrated that the United States had resolved a fundamental question about how to expand. This growth not only built upon the Louisiana Purchase, but included military intervention in SPANISH FLORIDA which the United States then claimed by treaty in 1819.

The new shape of the nation required thinking about the United States in new ways. For instance, a classic text on American geography in 1793 taught that the United States was composed of three basic divisions: northern, middle, and southern. But the 1819 edition of that same book included a new region because western states and territories needed recognition as well. By 1820, over two million Americans lived west of the APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS.

The growing regional distinctiveness of American life was complex. Four basic regions with distinct ways of life had developed along the eastern seaboard in the colonial period. Starting in the north, they were NEW ENGLAND (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut); the MID-ATLANTIC (New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania); the CHESAPEAKE (Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia); and the LOWER SOUTH (the Carolinas and Georgia). As people from these regions joined new immigrants to the United States in settling the west, they established additional distinctive regions that combined frontier conditions with ways of doing things from their previous places of origin.



 FIGURE 20.4

The institution of slavery was a target for many of the Bible and Benevolent Societies that formed in the early 19th century. This image, taken from a children's book, depicts treatment on a slave ship and the inhuman conditions abducted Africans faced.

The newly settled western lands of this period can be grouped in several ways, but four basic divisions were most evident: the **BORDER AREA** (Kentucky and Tennessee, the first trans-Appalachian states to join the nation), the **Old Northwest** (Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois), the **OLD SOUTHWEST** (Alabama and Mississippi), and the **TRANS-MISSISSIPPI RIVER WEST** (Louisiana and Missouri).

The new shape of the nation reflected much more than just physical expansion. This period also witnessed dramatic economic and religious changes. A new capitalist economy enormously expanded wealth and laid the foundation for the Industrial Revolution that flourished later in the 19th century. The great opportunities of economic development also brought new hardships for many people, especially those who toiled as slaves under the startlingly new system of cotton slavery that boomed in the early 19th century.

A dynamic religious movement known as the Second Great Awakening also transformed the nation in this period.

Although springing from internal spiritual convictions, the new character of American Protestantism in the early 19th century reinforced the modern economic and political developments that created the new nation by the end of the 1820s.

The United States had claimed political independence in 1776, but its ability to make that claim a reality required at least another fifty years to be fully settled. The War of 1812, however fitfully, had demonstrated American military independence, but breaking free of the economic and cultural dominance of Great Britain would prove to be longer and more complicated struggles. In 1823 when President Monroe declared that the entire western hemisphere is "henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers," it was a claim made without the power to back it up. Although his Monroe Doctrine became a central plank of U.S. foreign policy only at the end of the century, Americans had clearly fashioned a bold new national identity by the 1820s.

20.1 Social Change and National Development



FIGURE 20.5

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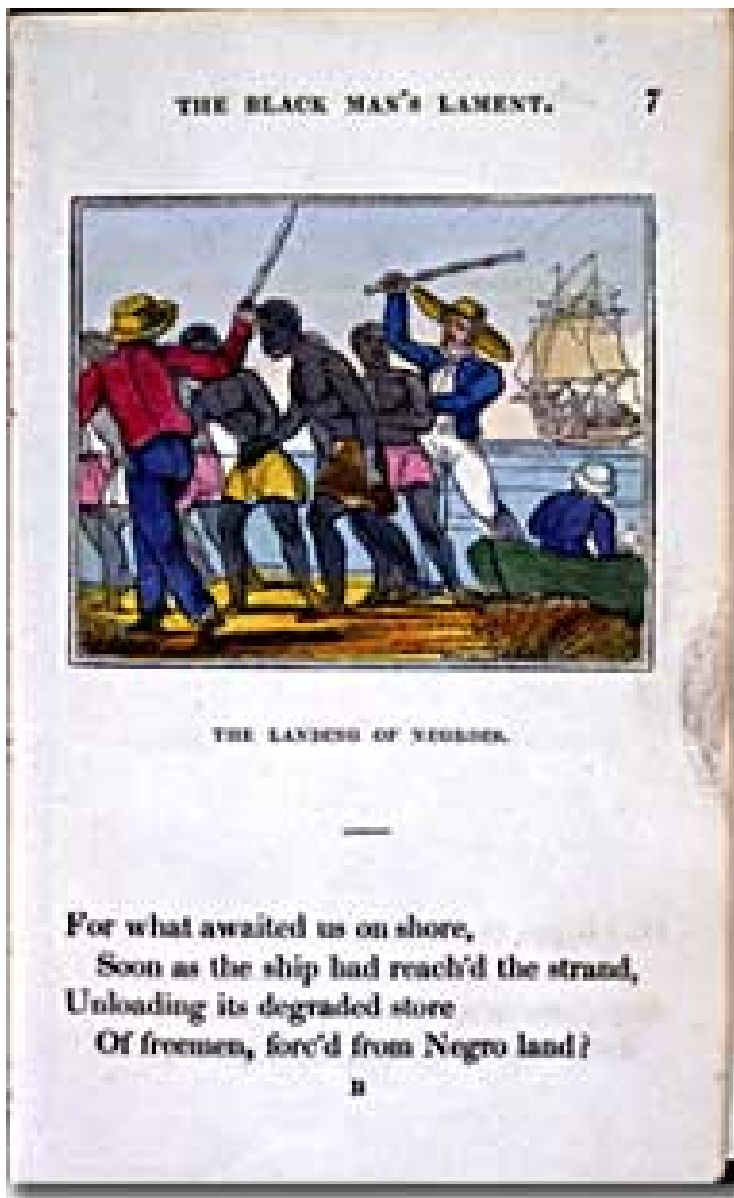


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CHAPTER 21

Economic Growth and the Erie Canal

Economic Growth and the Early Industrial Revolution



FIGURE 21.1

This drawing depicts men working the lock on a section of the Erie Canal. Find more lyrics like this "I've got a mule, her name is Sal, Fifteen years on the Erie Canal" on this New York State Canals website.

The transition from an agricultural to an **INDUSTRIAL ECONOMY** took more than a century in the United States, but that long development entered its first phase from the 1790s through the 1830s. The **INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION** had begun in Britain during the mid-18th century, but the American colonies lagged far behind the mother country in part because the abundance of land and scarcity of labor in the New World reduced interest in expensive investments in machine production. Nevertheless, with the shift from hand-made to machine-made products a new era of human experience began where increased productivity created a much higher standard of living than had ever been known in the pre-industrial world.

The start of the American Industrial Revolution is often attributed to **SAMUEL SLATER** who opened the first industrial mill in the United States in 1790 with a design that borrowed heavily from a British model. Slater's pirated technology greatly increased the speed with which cotton thread could be spun into yarn. While he introduced a vital new technology to the United States, the economic takeoff of the Industrial Revolution required several other elements before it would transform American life.

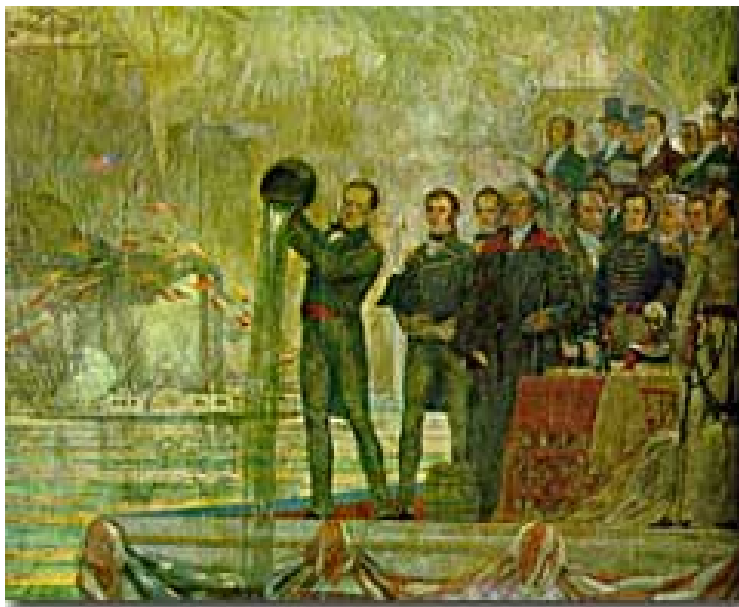


FIGURE 21.2

New York Governor DeWitt Clinton pours a bucketful of Lake Erie into the Atlantic Ocean to mark the opening of the Erie Canal in the autumn of 1825.

Another key to the rapidly changing economy of the early Industrial Revolution were new organizational strategies to increase productivity. This had begun with the "OUTWORK SYSTEM" whereby small parts of a larger production process were carried out in numerous individual homes. This organizational reform was especially important for shoe and boot making. However, the chief organizational breakthrough of the Industrial Revolution was the "FACTORY SYSTEM" where work was performed on a large scale in a single centralized location. Among the early innovators of this approach were a group of businessmen known as the BOSTON ASSOCIATES who recruited thousands of New England farm girls to operate the machines in their new factories.

The most famous of their tightly controlled mill towns was LOWELL, MASSACHUSETTS, which opened in 1823. The use of female factory workers brought advantages to both employer and employee. The Boston Associates preferred female labor because they paid the young girls less than men. These female workers, often called "LOWELL GIRLS," benefited by experiencing a new kind of independence outside the traditional male-dominated family farm.

The rise of WAGE LABOR at the heart of the Industrial Revolution also exploited working people in new ways. The first strike among textile workers protesting wage and factory conditions occurred in 1824 and even the model mills of Lowell faced large STRIKES in the 1830s.

Dramatically increased production, like that in the New England's textile mills, were key parts of the Industrial Revolution, but required at least two more elements for widespread impact. First, an expanded system of credit was necessary to help entrepreneurs secure the capital needed for large-scale and risky new ventures. Second, an improved transportation system was crucial for RAW MATERIALS to reach the factories and manufactured goods to reach consumers. State governments played a key role encouraging both new banking institutions and a vastly increased transportation network. This latter development is often termed the MARKET REVOLUTION because of the central importance of creating more efficient ways to transport people, raw materials, and finished goods.

Alexander Hamilton's Bank of the United States received a special national charter from the U.S. Congress in 1791. It enjoyed great success, which led to the opening of BRANCH OFFICES in eight major cities by 1805. Although economically successful, a government-chartered national bank remained politically controversial. As a result, President Madison did not submit the bank's charter for renewal in 1811. The key legal and governmental support for economic development in the early 19th century ultimately came at the state, rather than the national,

level. When the national bank closed, state governments responded by creating over 200 state-chartered banks within five years. Indeed, this rapid expansion of credit and the banks' often unregulated activities helped to exacerbate an ECONOMIC COLLAPSE IN 1819 that resulted in a six-year DEPRESSION. The dynamism of a capitalist economy creates rapid expansion that also comes with high risks that include regular periods of sharp economic downturns.

The use of a STATE CHARTER to provide special benefits for a PRIVATE CORPORATION was a crucial and controversial innovation in republican America. The idea of granting special privileges to certain individuals seemed to contradict the republican ideal of equality before the law. Even more than through rapidly expanded banking institutions, state support for internal transportation improvements lay at the heart of the nation's new political economy. Road, bridge, and especially canal building was an expensive venture, but most state politicians supported using government-granted legal privileges and funds to help create the INFRASTRUCTURE that would stimulate economic development.

The most famous state-led creation of the Market Revolution was undoubtedly New York's ERIE CANAL. Begun in 1817, the 364-mile man-made waterway flowed between Albany on the Hudson River and Buffalo on Lake Erie. The canal connected the eastern seaboard and the Old Northwest. The great success of the Erie Canal set off a canal frenzy that, along with the development of the steamboat, created a new and complete national water transportation network by 1840.



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CONCEPT 22

Cotton and African-American Life

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FIGURE 22.1

Two-thirds of all ready-made garments, produced with southern cotton in northern cities such as New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, were sent back to the South to be worn.

The American Industrial Revolution, concentrated in the northeast, would ultimately prove to be the most significant force in the development of the modern United States. This economic innovation sprung primarily from necessity. New England's agricultural economy was the poorest in the country and that helped to spur experimentation there. Meanwhile, the far more fertile southern states remained fully committed to agriculture as the central source of its wealth, here, too, dramatic changes created a wholly new economy that would have been unrecognizable to late-18th century Americans.

The slave-based TOBACCO ECONOMY that sustained the Chesapeake region was in deep crisis in the late-18th century and some Virginia leaders even talked about ending slavery. But technological innovations to process cotton soon gave new life to slavery, which would flourish in the new nation as never before.



 FIGURE 22.2

"Whereas, Absalom Jones and Richard Allen, two men of the African race, who ... from a love to the people of their complexion whom they beheld with sorrow ... propose that a society should be formed, without regard to religious tenets, provided, the persons lived an orderly and sober life, in order to support one another in sickness, and for the benefit of their widows and fatherless children." -Preamble of the Free African Society, 1778

ELI WHITNEY was among the first to develop a COTTON GIN (short for "engine") that separated seeds from short-staple cotton. This hardier cotton variety thrived in the new land of the Old Southwest, and could now be processed far more efficiently than had been possible by hand. Indeed, the gin increased by fifty times what a single person could process in a day. This new cotton production, in turn, provided the raw material for the booming industrial textile mills of the American northeast and Great Britain. Technological innovation and geographic expansion made the south the world's largest producer and exporter of cotton in the 19th century.

This economic triumph, however, was accompanied by an immeasurable human tragedy. By 1820 all of the northern states had outlawed slavery, but the rise of cotton made the enormous profits of the slave system irresistible to most white southerners. Distinctive northern and southern sections of the United States were emerging with the former more urban and industrial and the latter more agricultural, but the new economies of each section were deeply intertwined. Not only did southern cotton feed northern textile mills, but northern insurers and transporters played a major part in the growth of the modern slave economy of the cotton south.

The rise of "KING COTTON" as the defining feature of southern life revitalized slavery. The promise of cotton profits encouraged a spectacular rise in the direct importation of African slaves in the years before the TRANS-ATLANTIC TRADE was made illegal in 1808. 250,000 new slaves arrived in the United States from 1787 to 1808, a number equal to the entire slave importation of the colonial period. After 1808, the internal SLAVE TRADE forced African Americans from the border states and Chesapeake into the new cotton belt, which ultimately stretched from upcountry Georgia to eastern Texas. In fact, more than half of the Americans who moved to the Southwest after 1815 were enslaved blacks.



FIGURE 22.3

The cotton gin was not Eli Whitney's only contribution to the Industrial Revolution in America. He also started the first factory which used interchangeable parts in manufacturing.

With a growing **FREE BLACK POPULATION** in northern and border states, 95 percent of the country's African American population was enslaved in 1820. Generalizing about African American experience under slavery is especially difficult because the oppressive slave system all but entirely eliminated the avenues for slaves to honestly express themselves in public. There can be absolutely no doubt, however, that enslaved people rejected their status and that their constant resistance in small ways and large made white masters resort to terrifying violence in order to make the slave system work.

Enslaved people's greatest act of collective resistance lay in the constant ways that they demonstrated their humanity

and challenged the legitimacy of slavery. In the face of abominable conditions, enslaved African Americans created communities that gave meaning and purpose to their lives. At the heart of black communities lay two central institutions: family and religion. Slave marriages were not legally recognized in slave societies and as many as a third of all slave marriages were broken up by masters. In spite of this, enslaved African Americans formed long-term marital bonds.

Furthermore, the severity of slave life encouraged the development of extended kin relations. Since young adults were especially likely to be sold, parents and children were frequently separated leading most slave communities to act collectively by respecting all elders and nurturing all children like one large family.

Religion also provided a major source of support to enslaved African Americans. It was only in the early 19th century that significant numbers of slaves became Christians. Partly this represents an increasing Americanization among African Americans, many of whom had now lived in the New World for several generations.

But to be a black Christian was not necessarily to have the same values as a white Christian. Slaves undoubtedly adjusted Christianity to fit their own life experiences and there is little doubt that Moses' leading the enslaved Israelites to the Promised Land had special resonance among American slaves. Black spirituals like "Didn't My Lord Deliver Daniel ... and why not every man" had similar subversive messages.

CONCEPT **23** Religious Transformation and the Second Great Awakening A revival meeting Both blacks and women beg

Religious Transformation and the Second Great Awakening



FIGURE 23.1

Both blacks and women began to participate in evangelical revivals associated with the Second Great Awakening at the end of the 18th century. From these revivals grew the roots of the both the feminist and abolitionist movements.

The American Revolution had largely been a secular affair. The Founding Fathers clearly demonstrated their opposition to the intermingling of politics and religion by establishing the separation of church and state in the first amendment to the Constitution.

In part because religion was separated from the control of political leaders, a series of religious REVIVALS swept the United States from the 1790s and into the 1830s that transformed the religious landscape of the country. Known today as the SECOND GREAT AWAKENING, this spiritual resurgence fundamentally altered the character of American religion. At the start of the Revolution the largest denominations were CONGREGATIONALISTS (the 18th-century descendants of Puritan churches), ANGLICANS (known after the Revolution as Episcopalians), and Quakers. But by 1800, EVANGELICAL METHODISM and BAPTISTS, were becoming the fastest-growing religions in the nation.

CAMP MEETINGS that led extraordinary numbers of people to convert through an enthusiastic style of preaching and audience participation. A young man who attended the famous 20,000-person revival at Cane Ridge, Kentucky, in 1802, captures the spirit of these camp meetings activity:

The noise was like the roar of Niagara. The vast sea of human beings seemed to be agitated as if by a storm.

I counted seven ministers, all preaching at one time, some on stumps, others on wagons ... Some of the people were singing, others praying, some crying for mercy. A peculiarly strange sensation came over me. My heart beat tumultuously, my knees trembled, my lips quivered, and I felt as though I must fall to the ground.

This young man was so moved that he went on to become a Methodist minister. As this quotation suggests, evangelical ministers reached their audience at an emotional level that powerfully moved large crowds.



FIGURE 23.2

In 1839, J. Maze Burbank presented this image to the Royal Society in London with the caption: "A camp meeting, or religious revival in America, from a sketch taken on the spot."

The EVANGELICAL impulse at the heart of the Second Great Awakening shared some of the egalitarian thrust of Revolutionary ideals. Evangelical churches generally had a populist orientation that favored ordinary people over elites. For instance, individual piety was seen as more important for salvation than the formal university training required for ministers in traditional Christian churches.

The immense success of the Second Great Awakening was also furthered by evangelical churches innovative organizational techniques. These were well suited to the frontier conditions of newly settled territories. Most evangelical churches relied on itinerant preachers to reach large areas without an established minister and also included important places for lay people who took on major religious and administrative roles within evangelical congregations.



FIGURE 23.3

Religion was a central theme of the 1830s; American Protestants branched off into many different denominations, holding in common the need for meetings and revivals.

The Second Great Awakening marked a fundamental transition in American religious life. Many early American religious groups in the CALVINIST tradition had emphasized the deep depravity of human beings and believed they could only be saved through the grace of God. The new evangelical movement, however, placed greater emphasis on humans' ability to change their situation for the better. By stressing that individuals could assert their "FREE WILL" in choosing to be saved and by suggesting that salvation was open to all human beings, the Second Great Awakening embraced a more optimistic view of the human condition. The repeated and varied revivals of these several decades helped make the United States a much more deeply PROTESTANT nation than it had been before.

Finally, the Second Great Awakening also included greater public roles for white women and much higher African-American participation in Christianity than ever before.

V

CHAPTER

24

New Roles for Women

24.1 New Roles for White Women



FIGURE 24.1

Trends in clothing such as those seen above from the early 1800s, forced a distinction between the wealthy class dressed in European styles, and the lower classes whose simple homespun materials made for more durable, if less attractive, garments.

Who would wear the pants in most American families — men or women? The social change dictated by the Second Great Awakening, to some degree, tailored the answer to that question.

The social forces transforming the new nation had an especially strong impact on white women who, of course, could be found in families of all classes throughout the nation. As we have seen, the early Industrial Revolution began in the United States by taking advantage of young farm girls' labor. Meanwhile, the Second Great Awakening was largely driven forward by middle-class women who were its earliest converts and who filled evangelical churches in numbers far beyond their proportion in the general population. Furthermore, the Benevolent Empire included an institutional place for respectable women who formed important women's auxiliaries to almost all of the new Christian reform organizations.



FIGURE 24.2

A 19th century cartoon satirizing white women who dressed and acted like men in an attempt to further the cause of

women's rights.

Gender implications intertwined with these religious and economic changes. The republican emphasis on equality and independence as fundamental principles of the United States challenged traditional concepts of family life where the male PATRIARCH ruled commandingly over his wife and children. In place of this dominating father-centered standard, a new notion of more cooperative family life began to spread where husband and wife worked as partners in raising a family through love and kindness rather than sheer discipline. A transition of this magnitude occurred over a long period of time and with an uneven impact throughout the country. Middle-class women in the northeast, however, were at the forefront of this new understanding of family life and women's roles. As with the economic expansion of the Industrial Revolution and the reforms of the Benevolent Empire, the northeast was at the leading edge of major social changes in the new nation.

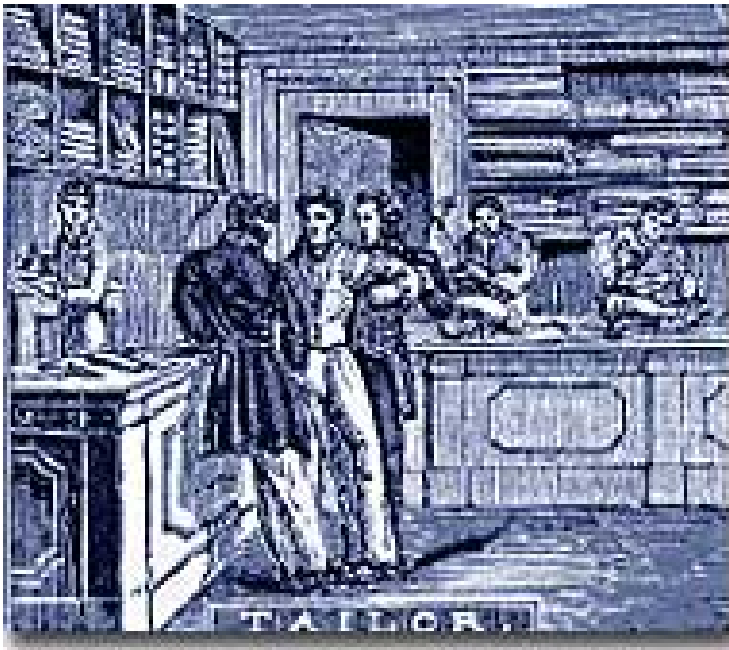


FIGURE 24.3

This engraving from 1836 depicts the inside of a tailor shop. When an order was made, bolts of fabric were delivered to seamstresses who would cut the fabric at their homes — for a fee 25-50% less than their male journeyman tailor counterparts.

Assessing the benefits and limitations of these changes for white women has been the source of a great deal of disagreement among historians in recent years, but it is clear that the new developments of the early-19th century helped to establish gender patterns that have remained strong up to the present day. For example, it was only in the 1820s and 1830s that women began to displace men as the overwhelming majority of schoolteachers. This development brought clear advantages to women who increasingly received advanced education to become teachers. Furthermore, teaching brought high moral status and an acknowledged public role in improving American society. On the other hand, the rise of female school teaching also suggests the limited choices available even to middle-class women. They had almost no other options for public employment and were chiefly attractive to employers because they could be paid less than men.

Ultimately, we need to recognize how the rapid changes of this period included both positive and negative qualities. White women came to possess a new social power as moral reformers and were thought to possess more Christian virtue than men, but this idealization simultaneously limited white middle-class women to a restricted domestic sphere. Furthermore, this new standard of womanhood could be achieved neither by working-class women nor by enslaved African Americans.

New Roles for White Women

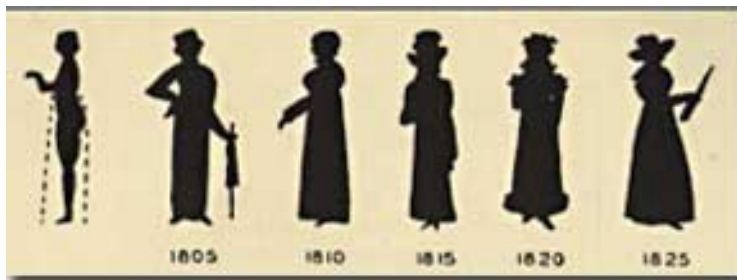


FIGURE 24.4

Trends in clothing such as those seen above from the early 1800s, forced a distinction between the wealthy class dressed in European styles, and the lower classes whose simple homespun materials made for more durable, if less attractive, garments.

Who would wear the pants in most American families — men or women? The social change dictated by the Second Great Awakening, to some degree, tailored the answer to that question.

The social forces transforming the new nation had an especially strong impact on white women who, of course, could be found in families of all classes throughout the nation. As we have seen, the early Industrial Revolution began in the United States by taking advantage of young farm girls' labor. Meanwhile, the Second Great Awakening was largely driven forward by middle-class women who were its earliest converts and who filled evangelical churches in numbers far beyond their proportion in the general population. Furthermore, the Benevolent Empire included an institutional place for respectable women who formed important women's auxiliaries to almost all of the new Christian reform organizations.



FIGURE 24.5

A 19th century cartoon satirizing white women who dressed and acted like men in an attempt to further the cause of women's rights.

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the male PATRIARCH ruled commandingly over his wife and children. In place of this dominating father-centered standard, a new notion of more cooperative family life began to spread where husband and wife worked as partners in raising a family through love and kindness rather than sheer discipline. A transition of this magnitude occurred over a long period of time and with an uneven impact throughout the country. Middle-class women in the northeast, however, were at the forefront of this new understanding of family life and women's roles. As with the economic expansion of the Industrial Revolution and the reforms of the Benevolent Empire, the northeast was at the leading edge of major social changes in the new nation.

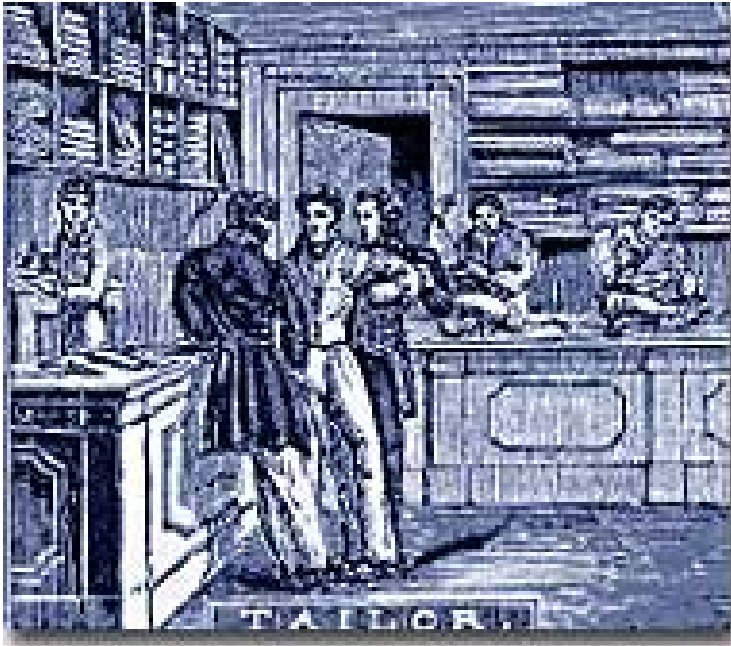


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CONCEPT 25**Early National Arts****Early National Arts and Cultural Independence****FIGURE 25.1**

John James Audubon's painting, *Wild Turkey*, shows a favorite animal of American legend.

Surprisingly, CULTURAL INDEPENDENCE proved to be the hardest area for Americans to break free from European models and standards.

American intellectuals and artists recognized the need for American cultural independence. In 1780s, NOAH WEBSTER declared that "America must be as independent in literature as she is in politics" His own major contribution to American cultural independence came through an immensely influential spelling book to standardize the American language. By the 1830s over 60 million copies had been sold and its descendent, WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY, remains a mainstay of American bookshelves.

Despite the significance of Webster's dictionary, other early national authors were far less successful. The most popular writers of the post-Revolutionary era wrote strongly patriotic accounts, like MERCY OTIS WARREN's

"HISTORY OF THE REVOLUTION" (1805) and MASON WEEMS' fantastically popular (and distorted) account of George Washington's life that sped through countless editions starting in 1800. Although popular in their day, and responding to a central need to celebrate the greatness of the new country and its leaders, their artistic and scholarly quality suffered from a simplistic patriotic impulse.



FIGURE 25.2

Hudson River School artist Frederick E. Church captured the Canadian coast in his painting, *The Coast of Grand Manan Island*.

On the other hand, the Philadelphia writer CHARLES BROCKDEN BROWN, arguably the most sophisticated novelist of the new republic, reached only a very limited audience with six psychologically-troubling novels published from 1798 to 1801. The first American writer to receive both popular and lasting acclaim was the New Yorker WASHINGTON IRVING. His most famous stories drew on Dutch-American popular culture in his native state, and gave audiences such classic characters as RIP VAN WINKLE and the HEADLESS HORSEMAN. Interestingly, however, Irving lived much of his life in Europe and enjoyed a very strong reputation outside the United States.

American landscape painting provided the earliest and most distinctively American contribution to the fine arts. THOMAS COLE, an English immigrant who arrived in the United States in 1818, began a painting style that celebrated the American wilderness as a powerful and frightening force that distinguished the United States from the corruption of European civilization. Cole helped to found the HUDSON VALLEY SCHOOL of landscape painting that frequently painted in that region of upstate New York, a tradition built upon later in the century by men like FREDERICK CHURCH and ALBERT BIERSTADT who painted further west.



FIGURE 25.3

American artist Thomas Cole's *Niagara Falls*, received rave reviews by the British audience to which it was displayed in 1829.

Ironically, this celebration of American novelty through the wilderness occurred at a time when massive western migration threatened the natural beauty that these artists sought to capture. In fact, artists' need for wealthy patrons and their need to be near these benefactors meant that painters rarely experienced the actual wilderness that they portrayed on canvas.

The most celebrated American writer of the new nation was JAMES FENIMORE COOPER whose best-known work also emphasized the wilderness and its central role creating America. NATTY BUMPTON, Cooper's most famous character who appeared in several novels including *THE LAST OF THE MOHICANS* (1826), was a heroic frontiersman who recognized the nobility of Native Americans even as he participated in their conquest by settling the west. One painter who addressed this crisis more directly than most was GEORGE CATLIN. He used Indian portraits to try and raise money and political interest to help Native Americans avoid the destruction of their way of life.

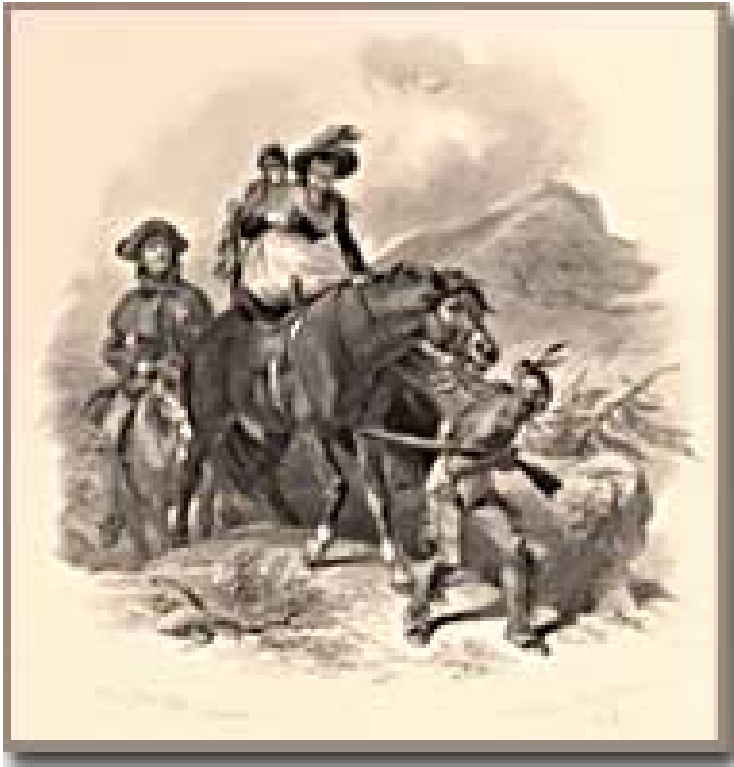


FIGURE 25.4

In 1826, James Fenimore Cooper wrote and published one of the classics of American literature, *The Last of the Mohicans*, a French and Indian War epic that ingrained the nation's romantic and tragic perspective on the plight of Native Americans.

American cultural innovation was both original and thoughtful during the early republic and early national periods. Its most influential contributions generally focused on subjects that distinguished the United States from Europe, like the work of the great naturalist painter and engraver JOHN JAMES AUDUBON. Nevertheless, landmark American contributions to western creative arts were mostly reserved for a later generation when major figures like Ralph Waldo Emerson, Emily Dickinson, Walt Whitman, Thomas Eakins, Augustus Saint-Gaudens, and John Singer Sargent would make their marks in the mid- and late-19th century.

At the beginning of the 19th century, All Americans — particularly painters and writers — were struggling with the notion of what it meant to be an America.

CONCEPT **26** Politics and the New Nation

Politics and the New Nation



FIGURE 26.1

Andrew Jackson, the namesake of "Jacksonian Democracy," opened the voting rolls to non-landholding white men. The social forces that reshaped the United States in its first half century were profound. Western expansion, growing racial conflict, unprecedented economic changes linked to the early Industrial Revolution, and the development of a stronger American Protestantism in the Second Great Awakening all overlapped with one another in ways that were both complementary and contradictory.

Furthermore, these changes all had a direct impact on American political culture that attempted to make sense of

how these varied impulses had transformed the country.

The changing character of American politics can be divided into two time periods separated by the War of 1812. In the early republic that preceded the war, "REPUBLICANISM" had been the guiding political value. Although an unquestioned assault on the aristocratic ideal of the colonial era, republicanism also included a deep fear of the threat to public order posed by the decline of traditional values of hierarchy and inequality.



FIGURE 26.2

■ THE UNITED STATES, 1816

The United States still had a long way to go in 1816.

While it seems surprising today, at the start of the early republic many people, and almost all public leaders, associated democracy with anarchy. In the early national period following the War of 1812, democracy began to be championed as an unqualified key to improving the country. The formerly widespread fear of democracy was now held only by small and increasingly isolated groups in the 1820s.



FIGURE 26.3

John Quincy Adams had plenty of help at home in getting his political career going. He was the son of former President and First Lady John and Abigail Adams.

Although a belief in democratic principles remains at the center of American life today, the growth of democracy in the early national period was not obvious, easy, or without negative consequences. The economic boom of the early Industrial Revolution distributed wealth in shockingly unequal ways that threatened the independence of WORKING-CLASS Americans. Similarly, western expansion drove increased attacks on Native American communities as well as the massive expansion of slavery.

Finally, even within white households, the promise of Jacksonian Democracy could only be fully attained by husbands and sons. The changes American society underwent in the early national period, including many of its troubling problems, created a framework of modern American life that we can still recognize today.

CHAPTER 27 The Era of Good Feelings

The Era of Good Feelings and the Two-Party System



FIGURE 27.1

James Monroe's Administration did not recognize the new republics in South America until 1822. Monroe wanted to wait until after Spain had ceded Florida to the U.S.

The War of 1812 closed with the Federalist Party all but destroyed. The 1816 presidential election was the last one when the Federalists' ran a candidate. He lost resoundingly.

The 1818 Congressional election brought another landslide victory for Democratic-Republicans who controlled 85 percent of the seats in the U.S. Congress. James Monroe, yet another Virginian, followed Madison in the Presidency for two terms from 1817 to 1825. Although this period has often been called the ERA OF GOOD FEELINGS due to its one-party dominance, in fact, Democratic-Republicans were deeply divided internally and a new political system

was about to be created from the old Republican-Federalist competition that had been known as the FIRST PARTY SYSTEM.

Although Democratic-Republicans were now the only active national party, its leaders incorporated major economic policies that had been favored by Federalists since the time of Alexander Hamilton. President Monroe continued the policies begun by Madison at the end of his presidency to build an American System of national economic development. These policies had three basic aspects: a national bank, protective tariffs to support American manufactures, and federally-funded internal improvements.



FIGURE 27.2

The Second Bank of the United States was established after the War of 1812. Andrew Jackson did not renew the Bank's charter in 1836. It currently serves as a portrait gallery for Independence National Park in Philadelphia.

The first two elements received strong support after the War of 1812. The chartering of the Second Bank of the United States in 1816, once again headquartered in Philadelphia, indicates how much of the old Federalist economic agenda the Democratic-Republicans now supported. Whereas Jefferson had seen a national bank as a threat to ordinary farmers, the leaders of his party in 1816 had come to a new understanding of the need for a strong federal role in creating the basic infrastructure of the nation.

The cooperation among national politicians that marked the one-party Era of Good Feelings lasted less than a decade. A new style of American politics took shape in the 1820s and 1830s whose key qualities have remained central to American politics up to the present. In this more modern system, political parties played the crucial role building broad and lasting coalitions among diverse groups in the American public. Furthermore, these parties represented more than the distinct interests of a single region or economic class. Most importantly, modern parties broke decisively from a political tradition favoring personal loyalty and patronage. Although long-lasting parties were totally unpredicted in the 1780s, by the 1830s they had become central to American politics.



FIGURE 27.3

Ash Lawn-Highland was James Monroe's estate. He originally obtained the property so he could live near his friend and mentor Thomas Jefferson.

The New York politician MARTIN VAN BUREN played a key role in the development of the Second Party System. He rose to lead the new Democratic party by breaking from the more traditional leadership of his own Democratic-Republican party. He achieved this in New York by 1821 and helped create the system on a national scale while serving in Washington D.C. as a senator and later as president.

Van Buren perceptively responded to the growing DEMOCRATIZATION of American life in the first decades of the 19th century by embracing mass public opinion. As he explained, "Those who have wrought great changes in the world never succeeded by gaining over chiefs; but always by exciting the multitude. The first is the resource of intrigue and produces only secondary results, the second is the resort of genius and transforms the face of the universe." Rather than follow a model of elite political leadership like that of the Founding Fathers, Van Buren saw "genius" in reaching out to the "multitude" of the general public.

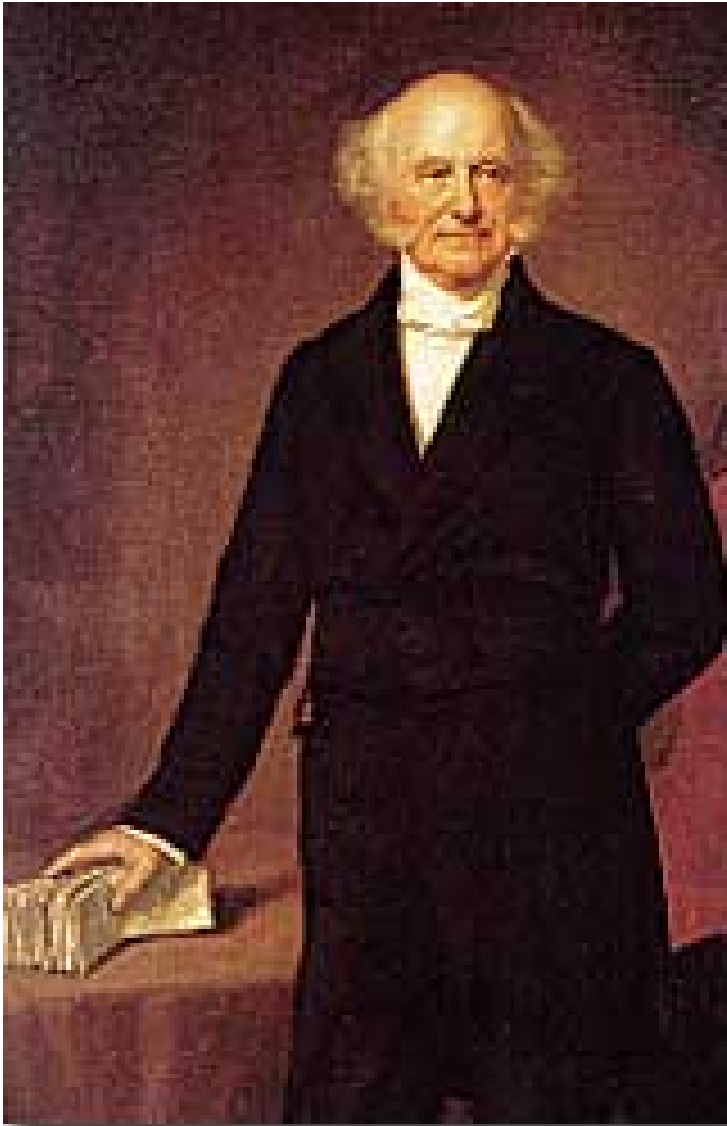


FIGURE 27.4

Martin Van Buren was the first U.S. President to serve as a bachelor; his wife died before he was elected.

Like other new party leaders of the period, Van Buren made careful use of newspapers to spread the word about party positions and to ensure close discipline among party members. In fact, the growth of newspapers in the new nation was closely linked to the rise of a competitive party system. In 1775 there had been just 31 newspapers in the colonies, but by 1835 the number of papers in the nation had soared to 1200. Rather than make any claim to objective reporting, newspapers existed as PROPAGANDA vehicles for the political parties that they supported. Newspapers were especially important to the new party system because they spread information about the PARTY PLATFORM, a carefully crafted list of policy commitments that aimed to appeal to a broad public.

27.1 The Era of Good Feelings and the Two-Party System



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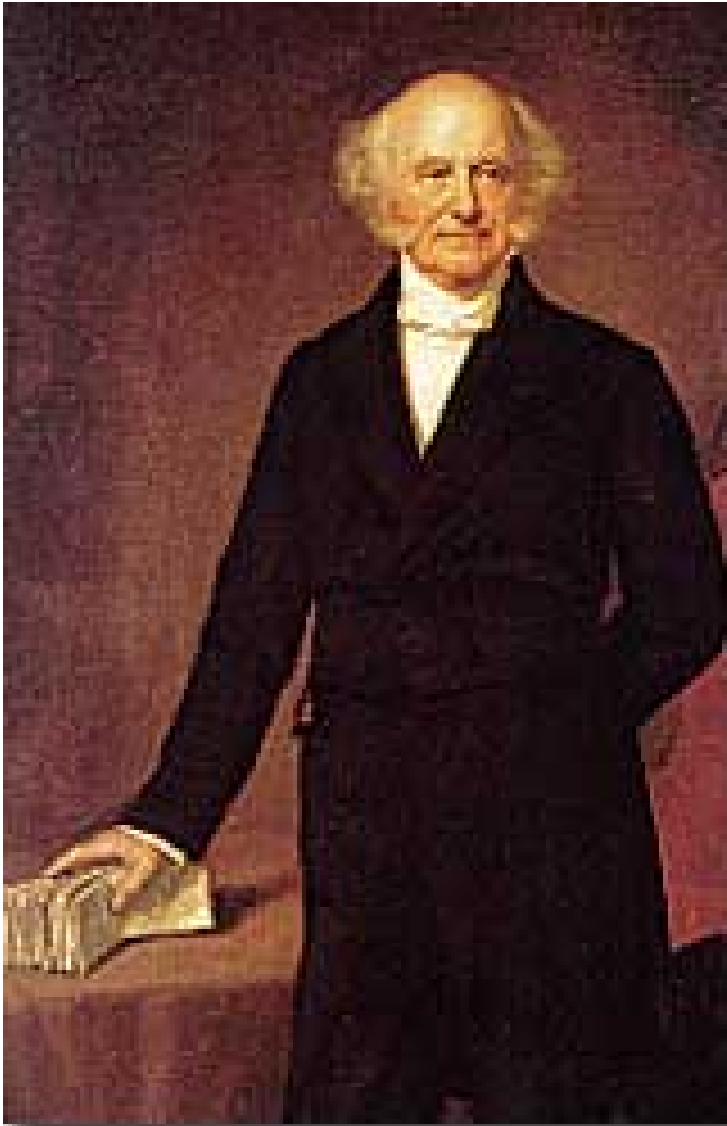


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CONCEPT **28**

The 1824 Election and the "Corrupt Bargain"

The 1824 Election and the "Corrupt Bargain"



FIGURE 28.1

Henry Clay was thrice a candidate for the Presidency and the chief architect of the Compromise of 1850 which moved slavery to the forefront of Congressional debates.

The 1824 PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION marked the final collapse of the Republican-Federalist political framework. For the first time no candidate ran as a Federalist, while five significant candidates competed as Democratic-Republicans. Clearly, no party system functioned in 1824. The official candidate of the Democratic-Republicans to replace Monroe was WILLIAM H. CRAWFORD, the secretary of the treasury. A caucus of Republicans in Congress had selected him, but this backing by party insiders turned out to be a liability as other candidates called for a more open process for selecting candidates.

The outcome of the very close election surprised political leaders. The winner in the all-important Electoral College was Andrew Jackson, the hero of the War of 1812, with ninety-nine votes. He was followed by JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, the son of the second president and Monroe's secretary of state, who secured eighty-four votes. Meanwhile Crawford trailed well behind with just forty-one votes. Although Jackson seemed to have won a narrow victory, receiving 43 percent of the popular vote versus just 30 percent for Adams, he would not be seated as the country's sixth president. Because nobody had received a majority of votes in the electoral college, the House of Representatives had to choose between the top two candidates.

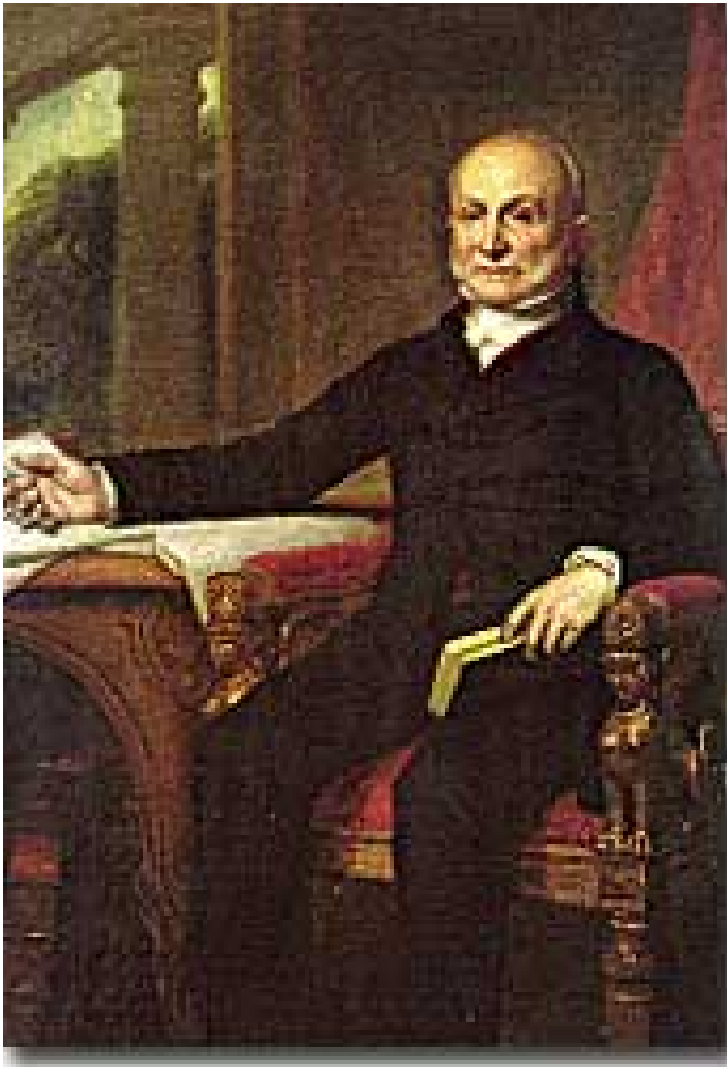


FIGURE 28.2

After losing the Presidency to Andrew Jackson in 1828, John Quincy Adams was elected to the House of Represen-

tatives where he served until his death in 1848.

Henry Clay, the speaker of the House of Representatives, now held a decisive position. As a presidential candidate himself in 1824 (he finished fourth in the electoral college), Clay had led some of the strongest attacks against Jackson. Rather than see the nation's top office go to a man he detested, the Kentuckian Clay forged an Ohio Valley-New England coalition that secured the White House for John Quincy Adams. In return Adams named Clay as his secretary of state, a position that had been the stepping-stone to the presidency for the previous four executives.

This arrangement, however, hardly proved beneficial for either Adams or Clay. Denounced immediately as a "CORRUPT BARGAIN" by supporters of Jackson, the antagonistic presidential race of 1828 began practically before Adams even took office. To Jacksonians the ADAMS-CLAY ALLIANCE symbolized a corrupt system where elite insiders pursued their own interests without heeding the will of the people.

The JACKSONIANS, of course, overstated their case; after all, Jackson fell far short of a majority in the general vote in 1824. Nevertheless, when the Adams administration continued to favor a strong federal role in economic development, Jacksonians denounced their political enemies as using government favors to reward their friends and economic elites. By contrast, Jackson presented himself as a champion of the common man and by doing so furthered the democratization of American politics.

John Quincy Adams



FIGURE 28.3

John Quincy Adams, the 6th President of the U.S., was also the defense attorney in the famous case of the slave rebellion on the *Amistad*.

Like his father who was also a one-term president, John Quincy Adams was an intelligent statesman whose strong commitment to certain principles proved to be liabilities as president.

For instance, Adams favored a bold economic role for the national government that was far ahead of public opinion. Like the Democratic-Republicans who preceded him in the Era of Good Feelings, Adams supported a federal role in economic development through the AMERICAN SYSTEM that was chiefly associated with Henry Clay. Adams' vision of federal leadership was especially creative and included proposals for a publicly-funded national university and government investment in scientific research and exploration.



FIGURE 28.4

John Adams' wife Louisa was born outside of the United States. Adams' political enemies used this as fodder to accuse him of being pro-British.

Few of Adams' ideas were put into action. He hurt his own case by publicly expressing concerns about the potential dangers of democracy. When politicians in Congress refused to act decisively for fear of displeasing the voters, Adams chided them that they seemed to "proclaim to the world that we are palsied by the will of our constituents."

Although he astutely identified a problem faced by leaders in a democracy, to many Americans he seemed to call into question a central tenet of the new nation. In many respects Adams was a figure of an earlier political era.

For example, he steadfastly refused to CAMPAIGN for his own re-election because he felt that political office should be a matter of service and not a popularity contest. Although his ideals were surely honorable, when he said that, "if the country wants my services, she must ask for them," he appeared to be an elitist who disdained contact with ordinary people.



FIGURE 28.5

In *Mutiny*, Hale Woodruff captures the terrifying and heroic moment when enslaved Africans aboard the *Amistad* launch a rebellion against their captors.

John Quincy Adams' public dedication to unpopular principles helped assure his defeat in the PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION OF 1828. They also led him to take on causes that today seem impressive. For example, Adams overturned a treaty signed by the CREEK NATION in 1825 that ceded its remaining land to the state of Georgia because he believed that it had been fraudulently obtained through coercive methods. Georgia's governor was outraged, but Adams believed that the matter clearly fell under federal jurisdiction. Although Adams' support of the Creeks didn't prevent their removal to the west, he lost political backing from Americans who widely believed that whites deserved access to all Indian lands.

Adams continued this course of following principle rather than popularity when he served in the U.S. House of Representatives after his presidency. Although not a radical opponent of slavery himself, he was an early leader against congressional rules that prevented anti-slavery petitions from being presented to Congress. He also successfully defended enslaved Africans before the U.S. Supreme Court in the celebrated *AMISTAD* case.

CONCEPT

29

Jacksonian Democracy

Jacksonian Democracy and Modern America



FIGURE 29.1

Andrew Jackson rose to national prominence as a General during the War of 1812.

The presidential election of 1828 brought a great victory for ANDREW JACKSON. Not only did he get almost 70 percent of the votes cast in the electoral college, popular participation in the election soared to an unheard of 60 percent. This more than doubled the turnout in 1824; Jackson clearly headed a sweeping political movement. His central message remained largely the same from the previous election, but had grown in intensity. Jackson warned that the nation had been corrupted by "SPECIAL PRIVILEGE," characterized especially by the policies of the Second Bank of the United States. The proper road to reform, according to Jackson, lay in an absolute acceptance of majority rule as expressed through the democratic process. Beyond these general principles, however, Jackson's campaign was notably vague about specific policies. Instead, it stressed Jackson's life story as a man who had risen from modest origins to become a successful Tennessee planter. Jackson's claim to distinction lay in a military career that included service as a young man in the Revolutionary War, several anti-Indian campaigns, and, of course, his crowning moment in the Battle of New Orleans at the end of the War of 1812.

Jackson's election marked a new direction in American politics. He was the first westerner elected president, indeed, the first president from a state other than Virginia or Massachusetts. He boldly proclaimed himself to be the "CHAMPION OF THE COMMON MAN" and believed that their interests were ignored by the aggressive

national economic plans of Clay and Adams. More than this, however, when Martin Van Buren followed Jackson as president, it indicated that the Jacksonian movement had long-term significance that would outlast his own charismatic leadership.



FIGURE 29.2

Andrew Jackson is known to have harbored animosity for Native Americans. During his administration, many tribes were moved to reservations in the Oklahoma Territory.

Van Buren, perhaps even more than Jackson, helped to create the new Democratic party that centered upon three chief qualities closely linked to Jacksonian Democracy. First, it declared itself to be the party of ordinary farmers and workers. Second, it opposed the special privileges of economic elites. Third, to offer affordable western land to ordinary white Americans, Indians needed to be forced further westward. The WHIG PARTY soon arose to challenge the Democrats with a different policy platform and vision for the nation. Whigs' favored active government support for economic improvement as the best route to sustained prosperity. Thus, the Whig-Democrat political contest was in large part a disagreement about the early Industrial Revolution. Whigs defended economic development's broad benefits, while Democrats stressed the new forms of dependence that it created. The fiercely partisan campaigns waged between these parties lasted into the 1850s and are known as the SECOND PARTY SYSTEM, an assuredly modern framework of political competition that reached ordinary voters as never before with both sides organizing tirelessly to carry their message directly to the American people.



FIGURE 29.3

A "mob" descended upon Andrew Jackson at the White House to celebrate his victory in the election of 1828. Public parties were regular occurrences during Jackson's administration.

A new era of American politics began with Jackson's election in 1828, but it also completed a grand social experiment begun by the American Revolution. Although the Founding Fathers would have been astounded by the new shape of the nation during Jackson's presidency, just as Jackson himself had served in the American Revolution, its values helped form his sense of the world. The ideals of the Revolution had, of course, been altered by the new conditions of the early nineteenth century and would continue to be reworked over time. Economic, religious, and geographic changes had all reshaped the nation in fundamental ways and pointed toward still greater opportunities and pitfalls in the future. Nevertheless, JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY represented a provocative blending of the best and worst qualities of American society. On the one hand it was an authentic democratic movement that contained a principled egalitarian thrust, but this powerful social critique was always cast for the benefit of white men. This tragic mix of egalitarianism, masculine privilege, and racial prejudice remains a central quality of American life and to explore their relationship in the past may help suggest ways of overcoming their haunting limitations in the future.

CONCEPT 30

Jackson a strong Presidency

A Strong Presidency



FIGURE 30.1

Major General Andrew Jackson made a name for himself at the Battle of New Orleans. He was the only U.S. President to be a veteran of both the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812.

Jackson was committed to remaining a MAN OF THE PEOPLE, representing and protecting the Common Man. He possessed a commanding presence, a strong will, and a personality that reflected his strength and decisiveness. Jackson had a lot going for him in the view of the electorate. In the War of 1812, he defeated the British at NEW ORLEANS IN 1815. He was renowned as an Indian fighter. Jackson's military service had produced a large and influential group of supporters and friends who urged him to seek the Presidency.

The campaign of 1828 was far from clean. Although Jackson and John Quincy Adams removed themselves from the MUDSLINGING, their parties waged a dirty campaign. Jackson was aghast to find his opponents labeling his wife Rachel an adulteress. Shortly after the campaign, Rachel passed away. Jackson blamed his political enemies for her death. To deal with his rivals and the general public, Jackson relied on his "KITCHEN CABINET," an unofficial group of friends and advisers.

Jackson's Kitchen Cabinet

TABLE 30.1:

Martin Van Buren	Secretary of State, Later V.P.
John H. Eaton	Secretary of War
Amos Kendall	Auditor of the U.S. Treasury
Major William B. Lewis	Second Auditor of the Treasury
Isaac Hill	U.S. Senator and Editor, <i>New Hampshire Patriot</i>

TABLE 30.1: (continued)

Francis P. Blair, Sr.
Duff Green

Editor, *Washington Globe*
Owner, *United States Telegraph*



FIGURE 30.2

Rachel Donelson Jackson thought that she was divorced when she married Andrew Jackson, but found out two years later that the divorce was never finalized. Although she divorced her former husband and remarried Jackson, the scandal haunted her more than thirty years later during Jackson's presidential campaign.

The Founders of the nation feared a tyrannical President — they believed that only a strong Congress could best represent the people. Jackson felt that the Congress was not representing the people — that they were acting like an aristocracy. Jackson took the view that only the President could be trusted to stand for the will of the people against the aristocratic Congress. Jackson's weapon was the veto. "ANDY VETO" used this power more often than all six previous Presidents combined.

At the same time, Jackson espoused the "SPOILS SYSTEM" in awarding government offices. In his view, far too many career politicians walked the streets of Washington. These people had lost touch with the public. Jackson believed in rotation in office. America was best served with clearing out the old officeholders and replacing them with appointees of the winning candidates. This "spoils system" would eventually lead to considerable CORRUPTION. To Jackson, rotating the officeholders was simply more democratic.

While he made his share of enemies, Jackson transformed the Office of the President into one of dynamic leadership and initiative. His direct appeal to the people for support was new and has served as a model for strong Presidents to this day.

CONCEPT **31**

Jackson vs. Clay and Calhoun

Jackson vs. Clay and Calhoun



FIGURE 31.1

Andrew Jackson viewed Henry Clay, the Great Compromiser, as opportunistic, ambitious, and untrustworthy.

Henry Clay was viewed by Jackson as politically untrustworthy, an opportunistic, ambitious and self-aggrandizing man. He believed that Clay would compromise the essentials of American republican democracy to advance his own self-serving objectives. Jackson also developed a political rivalry with his Vice-President, John C. Calhoun. Throughout his term, Jackson waged political and personal war with these men, defeating Clay in the Presidential election of 1832 and leading Calhoun to resign as Vice-President.

Jackson's personal animosity towards Clay seems to have originated in 1819, when Clay denounced Jackson for his unauthorized invasion of SPANISH WEST FLORIDA in the previous year. Clay was also instrumental in John Quincy Adams's winning the Presidency from Jackson in 1824, when neither man had a majority and the election was thrown into the House of Representatives. Adams' appointment of Clay as Secretary of State confirmed Jackson's opinion that the Presidential election has been thrown to Adams as part of a corrupt and unprincipled bargain.



FIGURE 31.2

Courtesy of AWL Online

Roads and canals were built to across the nation during the early to mid-1800s. Clay's "American System" would have funded such improvements.

Clay was called THE GREAT COMPROMISER, and served in the Congress starting in 1806. He had a grand strategic vision called the American System. This was a federal government initiative to foster national growth through protective tariffs, internal improvements and the Bank of the United States. Clay was unwavering in his support for internal improvements, which primarily meant federally funded roads and canals. Jackson believed the American System to be unconstitutional — could federal funds be used to build roads? He vetoed the MAYSVILLE ROAD BILL, Clay's attempt to fund internal improvements. His veto of the Bank Recharter Bill drove the two further apart.



FIGURE 31.3

Calhoun and Jackson held separate views on many issues, including states' rights.

Jackson's personal animosity for Calhoun seems to have had its origin in the Washington "social scene" of the

time. Jackson's feelings were inflamed by the Mrs. Calhoun's treatment of Peggy, wife of Jackson's Secretary of War, JOHN EATON. Mrs. Calhoun and other wives and daughters of several cabinet officers refused to attend social gatherings and state dinners to which Mrs. Eaton had been invited because they considered her of a lower social station and gossiped about her private life. Jackson, reminded of how rudely his own wife Rachel was treated, defended Mrs. Eaton.

Many political issues separated Jackson from Calhoun, his Vice President. One was the issue of states rights. Hoping for sympathy from President Jackson, Calhoun and the other states-rights party members sought to trap Jackson into a pro-states-rights public pronouncement at a Jefferson birthday celebration in April 1832. Some of the guests gave toasts which sought to establish a connection between a states-rights view of government and nullification. Finally, Jackson's turn to give a toast came, and he rose and challenged those present, "OUR FEDERAL UNION — IT MUST BE PRESERVED." Calhoun then rose and stated, "The Union — next to our liberty, the most dear!" Jackson had humiliated Calhoun in public. The nullification crisis that would follow served as the last straw. Jackson proved that he was unafraid to stare down his enemies, no matter what position they might hold.

CONCEPT **32****"Bloody Kansas"****"Bloody Kansas"**

FIGURE 32.1

Some consider abolitionist John Brown a madman, others a martyred hero.

For decades, both northern states and southern states had threatened secession and dissolution of the Union over the question of where slavery was to be permitted. At issue was power. Both sides sought to limit the governing power of the other by maintaining a balance of membership in Congress. This meant ensuring that admission of a new state where slavery was outlawed was matched by a state permitting slavery. For example, at the same time that Missouri entered the Union as a slave state, Maine entered the Union as a free state.

New states were organized into self-governing territories before they became states. Hence, they developed a position on the slavery issue well before their admission to the Union. Southerners held that slavery must be permitted in all territories. Northerners held that slavery must not be extended into new territories.



FIGURE 32.2

A border ruffian dropped this flag in Olathe, Kansas in 1862 after a raid on the town.

If slavery were not permitted in the territories, slavery would never gain a foothold within them and southern power in Congress would gradually erode. If either side were successful in gaining a distinct advantage, many felt disunion and civil war would follow.

Kansas would be the battleground on which the north and south would first fight. The Kansas-Nebraska Act led both to statehood and to corruption, hatred, anger, and violence. Men from neighboring Missouri stuffed ballot boxes in Kansas to ensure that a legislature friendly to slavery would be elected. Anti-slavery, or free soil, settlers formed a legislature of their own in TOPEKA. Within two years, there would be armed conflict between proponents of slavery and those against it.

CHAPTER

33

Mount Vernon and the Dilemma of a Revolutionary Slave Holder

Mount Vernon and the Dilemma of a Revolutionary Slave Holder



FIGURE 33.1

This painting, from the late 1700s, is an idyllic portrait of George Washington's Mount Vernon estate.

George Washington, like most powerful Virginians of the 18th century, derived most of his wealth and status from the labor of African and African American slaves. At his father's death in 1743, eleven-year-old George inherited ten slaves. His property grew larger with the death of his half-brother Lawrence in 1754, which brought him the 2600 -acre plantation of Mt. Vernon along with another 18 slaves.

Greater still, was the wealth that Martha Custis brought to the marriage. While most of her slaves remained on other properties, she brought 12 personal slaves with her when she moved to Mt. Vernon in 1759. Washington was energetic and purposeful in all aspects of life, which included being a successful plantation master. By 1786 his careful management had increased his property to 7300 acres and 216 slaves.

Washington's ability as a planter placed him within the traditional gentry elite of Virginia. His wealth rested on the exploitation of humans as property, but he expressed no qualms about benefiting from what we now see as a fundamentally immoral institution. However, the American Revolution challenged Washington's traditional acceptance of slavery on both pragmatic and idealistic grounds. When Washington arrived in Massachusetts in 1775 to take command of the patriot militia that was surrounding the British in Boston, he was surprised to discover that New Englanders had begun to allow free African Americans as well as slaves to join their ranks as soldiers.

After meeting with his officers, Washington reversed this policy and tried to make an all-white Continental Army. The following month the British Army in Virginia declared that any slave of a patriot master who fled to fight the patriots would gain his freedom. Washington immediately grasped the strategic crisis posed by this British promise of freedom in a country where one in every five people was black. In fact, seventeen Mt. Vernon slaves fled to join the British during the war. Pragmatic concerns quickly led Washington to reverse his policy and by December 1775 the Continental Army, in the North at least, included black soldiers.



FIGURE 33.2

An idyllic painting of what life was like on Washington's plantation, Mount Vernon.

Washington's Revolutionary ideals also helped transform his attitude toward slavery. When contemplating the British actions that compelled him to join the patriot cause, Washington explained to his old friend George Fairfax that British "custom and use shall make us as tame and abject slaves as the blacks we rule over with such arbitrary sway."

Like many other patriots of the period, Washington described British tyranny as threatening to enslave white Americans. SLAVERY was the condition that everyone knew to be the most extreme example of human oppression. While the invocation of the slavery metaphor was widespread, Washington went a major step further than most of his fellow slave masters. He decided to limit the severity of his plantation discipline and, ultimately, he even freed his slaves.

Washington's EMANCIPATION of his slaves was an unusual and honorable decision for a man of his day. No other Virginia Founding Father matched his bold steps. By the early 1770s Washington clearly tried to lessen the evils of slavery on his plantation. From this point on he rarely bought a slave and never sold them away from Mt. Vernon without their consent. Washington hoped to act as a humane master by keeping slave families together. However, he soon discovered that slavery was only profitable when operated in a brutal fashion. Mt. Vernon became increasingly inefficient in Washington's final two decades.



 FIGURE 33.3

Death of Washington captures the first president on his death bed with Martha Washington by his side.

Five months before his death, Washington drew up a will that included a detailed and exact description of how his slaves were to be freed. Beyond freedom, those slaves who were children were to receive occupational training and to learn to read and write, while elderly slaves were to receive financial support. Knowing full well that some heirs would dislike this loss of their potential inheritance, Washington insisted that "this clause respecting Slaves, and every part thereof be religiously fulfilled ... without evasion, neglect, or delay."

In spite of these far reaching actions, some may still judge Washington's post-Revolutionary attitude toward slavery too limited. At his death in 1799, Mt. Vernon included 317 slaves, but only 124 of them belonged to George and only these would be freed. The rest were Martha's. Temporarily inherited from her deceased first husband, they would pass to her heirs upon her death and could not be legally controlled by George. More significantly, however, Washington never publicly explained his new belief that slavery should end.

In a private letter in 1786 he stated, it is "among my first wishes to see some plan adopted, by the legislature by which slavery in this Country may be abolished by slow, sure, and imperceptible degrees." Even his private commitment was to a cautious and gradual process, but he never allowed even this moderate anti-slavery position to be known publicly. In the end, Washington's commitment to national unity prevented him from throwing his enormous public stature behind the radical cause of emancipation. He feared that such action would deeply divide the new nation.

Could Washington have forged an anti-slavery coalition that might have ended the evil institution and avoided the bloodshed of the CIVIL WAR? Might public action on his part have caused an earlier civil war that would have wrecked the nation still in its infancy? Those are questions that History cannot answer and that we can never know. But it is clear that in his own cautious way Washington struggled with the most profound question of the Revolutionary Era and ultimately decided that his moral sense of what was right overcame his personal interest in perpetuating slavery.

33.1 Mount Vernon and the Dilemma of a Revolutionary Slave Holder

CONCEPT

34

Three Senatorial Giants: Clay, Calhoun and Webster

Three Senatorial Giants: Clay, Calhoun and Webster



FIGURE 34.1

Dartmouth College

Daniel Webster's "Seventh of March" speech urged Senators from all regions of the nation to compromise their positions in order to save the Union.

HENRY CLAY of Kentucky, JOHN C. CALHOUN of South Carolina, and DANIEL WEBSTER of Massachusetts dominated national politics from the end of the War of 1812 until their deaths in the early 1850s. Although none would ever be President, the collective impact they created in Congress was far greater than any President of the era, with the exception of Andrew Jackson. There was one issue that loomed over the nation throughout their time in power — slavery. They were continuously successful in keeping peace in America by forging a series of compromises. The next generation's leaders were not.

The Gold Rush led to the rapid settlement of California which resulted in its imminent admission as the 31st state. Southerners recognized that there were few slaves in California because Mexico had prohibited slavery. Immediate admission would surely mean California would be the 16th free state, giving the non-slave-holding states an edge in the Senate. Already holding the House of Representatives, the free states could then dominate legislation.

Texas was claiming land that was part of New Mexico. As a slave state, any expansion of the boundaries of Texas would be opening new land to slavery. northerners were opposed. The north was also appalled at the ongoing practice of slavery in the nation's capital — a practice the south was not willing to let go. The lines were drawn as the three Senatorial giants took the stage for the last critical time.

Henry Clay had brokered compromises before. When the Congress was divided in 1820 over the issue of slavery in the Louisiana Territory, Clay set forth the MISSOURI COMPROMISE. When South Carolina nullified the tariff in 1832, Clay saved the day with the COMPROMISE TARIFF OF 1833. After 30 years in Congress and three unsuccessful attempts at the Presidency, Clay wanted badly to make good with yet another nation-saving deal. He put forth a set of eight proposals that he hoped would pass muster with his colleagues.

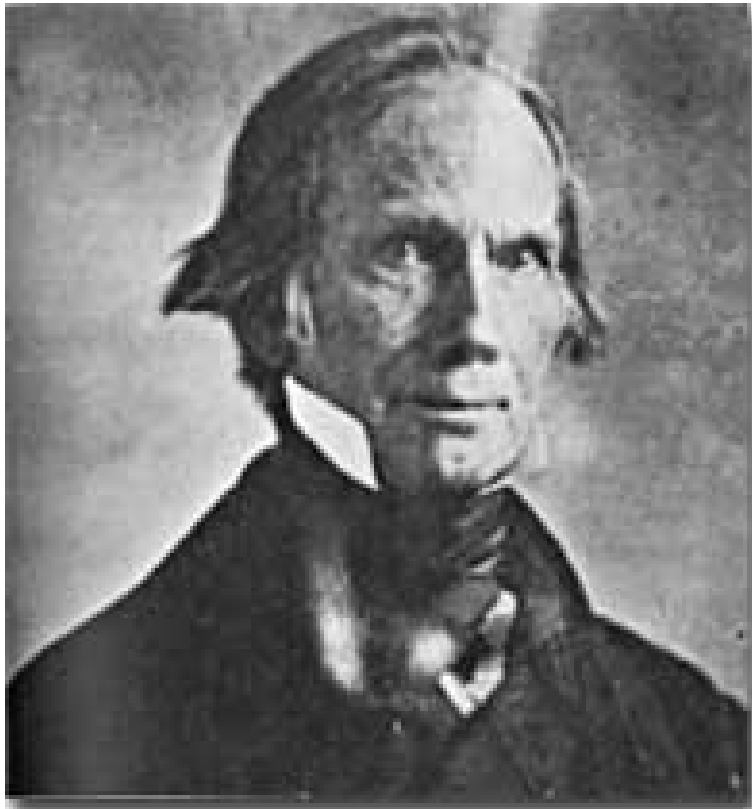


FIGURE 34.2

John Calhoun once said of Henry Clay (shown above), "I don't like Clay. He is a bad man, an imposter, a creator of wicked schemes. I wouldn't speak to him, but, by God, I love him!"

John C. Calhoun took to the floor next. Although sick and dying with consumption, he sat sternly in the Senate chamber, as his speech was read. The compromises would betray the south, he claimed. Northerners would have to agree to federal protection of slavery for the south to feel comfortable remaining in the Union. His words foreshadowed the very doom to the Union that would come within the decade.

Daniel Webster spoke three days after Calhoun's speech. With the nation's fate in the balance, he pleaded with northerners to accept southern demands, for the sake of Union. Withdrawing his former support for the Wilmot Proviso, he hoped to persuade enough of his colleagues to move closer to Clay's proposals. Although there was no immediate deal, his words echoed in the minds of the Congressmen as they debated into that hot summer.

By 1852, Clay, Calhoun, and Webster had all passed away. They left a rich legacy behind them. Clay of the West, Calhoun of the South, and Webster of the North loved and served their country greatly. The generation that followed produced no leader that could unite the country without the force of arms.

CONCEPT **35**

Popular Sovereignty

Popular Sovereignty

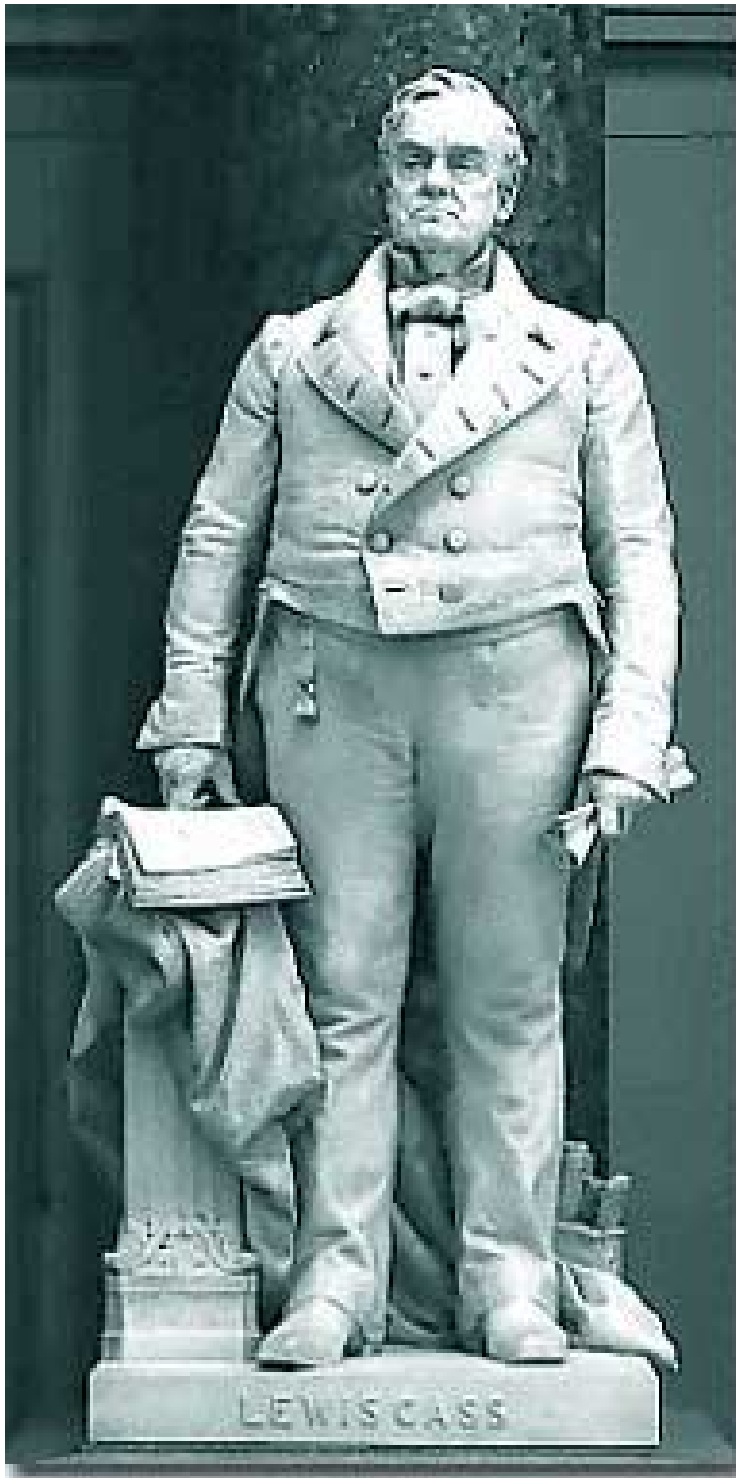


FIGURE 35.1

National Statuary Hall Collection

Lewis Cass of Michigan, Democratic candidate for President in the election of 1848, coined the term "popular sovereignty."

In the heat of the Wilmot Proviso debate, many southern lawmakers began to question the right of Congress to

determine the status of slavery in any territory. According to John Calhoun, the territories belonged to all the states. Why should a citizen of one state be denied the right to take his property, including slaves, into territory owned by all? This line of reasoning began to dominate the southern argument. The Congress had a precedent for outlawing slavery in territories. It had done so in the Old Northwest with the passing of the Northwest Ordinance in 1787. The Missouri Compromise also had banned slavery above the 36°30' LATITUDE lines. But times were different.

As the Mexican War drew to a close and no compromise could be reached in the Wilmot argument, the campaign for President became heated. The Democratic standard bearer, LEWIS CASS of Michigan, coined the term "POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY" for a new solution that had begun to emerge. The premise was simple. Let the people of the territories themselves decide whether slavery would be permitted. The solution seemed perfect. In a country that has championed democracy, letting the people decide seemed right, if not obvious.



FIGURE 35.2

Although Taylor didn't advocate any position regarding slavery during his campaign, after his election he stated that California and New Mexico should be admitted to the union and should decide their status by means of popular sovereignty. Taylor's cabinet, shown here, had members of different sections of the nation with differing opinions on slavery.

However simple popular sovereignty seemed, it was difficult to put into practice. By what means would the people decide? Directly or indirectly? If a popular vote were scheduled, what guarantees could be made against voter fraud? If slavery were voted down, would the individuals who already owned slaves be allowed to keep them? Cass and the Democrats did not say. His opponent, Zachary Taylor, ignored the issue of slavery altogether in his campaign, and won the ELECTION OF 1848.

As the 1840s melted into the 1850s, STEPHEN DOUGLAS became the loudest proponent of popular sovereignty. As long as the issue was discussed theoretically, he had many supporters. In fact, to many, popular sovereignty was the perfect means to avoid the problem. But problems do not tend to disappear when they are evaded — they often become worse.

CONCEPT 36

Wilmot's Proviso

Wilmot's Proviso



FIGURE 36.1

David Wilmot proposal divided both parties along sectional lines.

By the standards of his day, DAVID WILMOT could be considered a racist.

Yet the Pennsylvania representative was so adamantly against the extension of slavery to lands ceded by Mexico, he made a proposition that would divide the Congress. On August 8, 1846, Wilmot introduced legislation in the House that boldly declared, "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist" in lands won in the Mexican-American War. If he was not opposed to slavery, why would Wilmot propose such an action? Why would the north, which only contained a small, but growing minority, of abolitionists, agree?

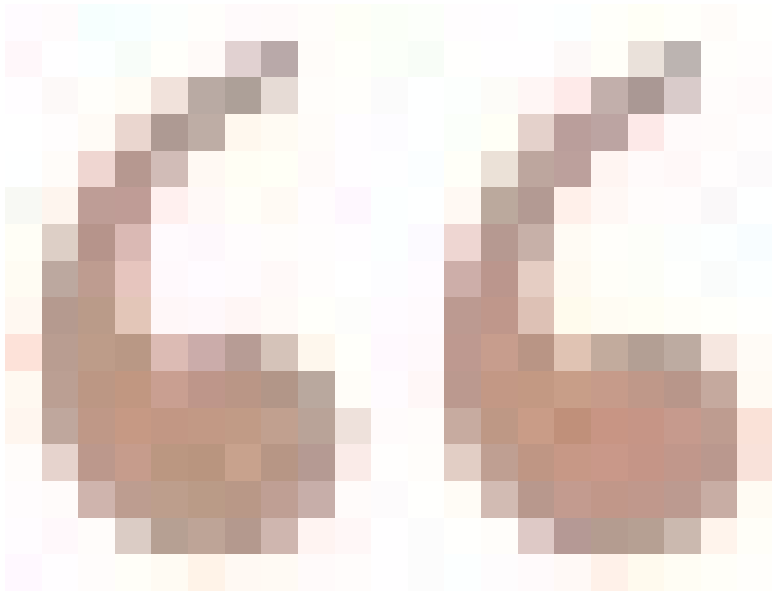


FIGURE 36.2

Provided, That, as an express and fundamental condition to the acquisition of any territory from the Republic of Mexico by the United States, by virtue of any treaty which may be negotiated between them, and to the use by the Executive of the moneys herein appropriated, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory, except for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted.



FIGURE 36.3

– The Wilmot Proviso, 1846

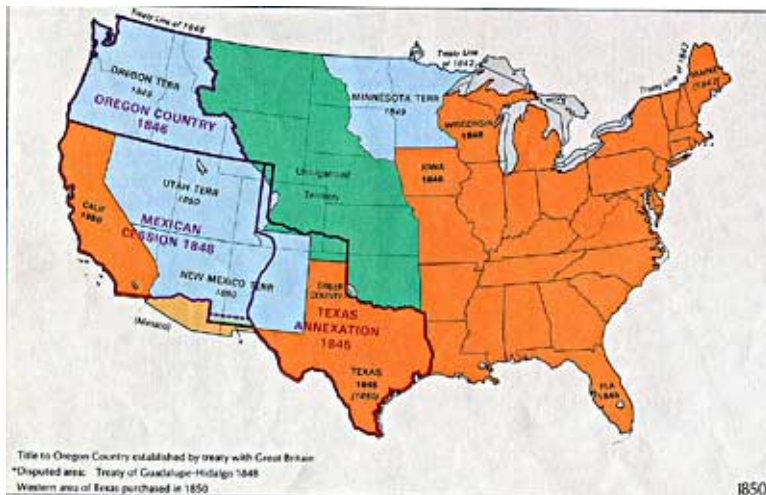


FIGURE 36.4

The status of the territories regarding slavery had not been decided by the beginning of the Mexican War. Even before the war ended the issue of slavery in the region of the Mexican Cession was a hot-button political issue.

Wilmot and other northerners were angered by President Polk. They felt that the entire Cabinet and national agenda were dominated by southern minds and southern principles. Polk was willing to fight for southern territory, but proved willing to compromise when it came to the north. Polk had lowered the tariff and denied funds for internal improvements, both to the dismay of northerners. Now they felt a war was being fought to extend the southern way of life. The term "SLAVE POWER" jumped off the lips of northern lawmakers when they angrily referred to their southern colleagues. It was time for northerners to be heard.



FIGURE 36.5

Salmon P. Chase, commemorated on the \$10,000 bill, founded the Free Soil Party in 1848. This party advocated an end to the spread of American slavery and elected 14 representatives and two senators to the federal government.

Though Wilmot's heart did not bleed for the slave, he envisioned California as a place where free white Pennsylvanians could work without the competition of slave labor. Since the north was more populous and had more Representatives in the House, the Wilmot Proviso passed. Laws require the approval of both houses of Congress, however. The Senate, equally divided between free states and slave states could not muster the majority necessary for approval. Angrily the House passed WILMOT'S PROVISIO several times, all to no avail. It would never become law.

For years, the arguments for and against slavery were debated in the churches and in the newspapers. The House of Representatives had passed a gag rule forbidding the discussion of slavery for much of the previous decade. The issue could no longer be avoided. Lawmakers in the House and Senate, north and south, would have to stand up and be counted.

CONCEPT 37

Gold in California

Gold in California



FIGURE 37.1

Library of Congress

The gold in California was free to anyone who found it, but most miners weren't as successful as James Marshall. While some made thousands of dollars, most found the tales of wealth to be exaggeration.

In January of 1848, a man named JAMES MARSHALL innocently noticed a few shiny flecks in a California stream at SUTTER'S MILL. Word spread of gold and soon people from all over California flocked inland seeking instant fortune. By autumn, word had reached the east, and once again Americans earned their reputation as a migratory people. During the year that followed, over 80,000 "FORTY-NINERS" flocked to California to share in the glory. Some would actually strike it rich, but most would not.

Life in a mining town was not easy. Often the towns consisted of one main street. It is in these towns that the mythical "OLD AMERICAN WEST" was born. The social center of these new communities was the saloon. Here, miners might spend some of their meager earnings after a hard day's work. Gambling, drinking, and fighting were widespread, and justice was often determined by the hardest punch or the fastest draw. About 95% of the mining population was young and male. Female companionship was in high demand. Sometimes the saloon doubled as a brothel, and as many as 20% of the female population earned their living as prostitutes. Many other women were shopkeepers and businesswomen, and some were PANNING FOR GOLD side by side with the men.



FIGURE 37.2

This photograph of Sutter's Mill was taken in 1852, four years after the discovery that began the gold rush.

If a nearby mine became exhausted or turned out to be a hoax, there was no reason for the town to exist. The abandoned *GHOST TOWNS* began to dot the region.

Although predominantly young and male, the population of California was very diverse. In addition to the white American settlers who comprised the majority of the mining populace, free African-Americans could also be found among their ranks. More numerous were Mexicans who were hoping to strike it rich. Word reached European shores and immigrants headed to America's west. German-Jewish immigrant LEVI STRAUSS invented trousers for the miners — his blue jeans became an American mainstay. Another significant segment of the diversity was the CHINESE, who hoped to find gold and return to their homeland. Over 45,000 immigrants swelled the population between 1849 and 1854. Diversity did not bring harmony. The white majority often attacked the Mexican and Chinese minorities. The miners ruthlessly forced the California Native Americans off their lands. Laws were passed to restrict new land claims to white Americans.



FIGURE 37.3

Between 1800 and 1854, U.S. territory had grown from the original 13 colonies to the limits of today's continental United States.

The CALIFORNIA GOLD RUSH soon peaked, and by the mid-1850s California life stabilized. But the pattern established there was repeated elsewhere — in COLORADO, SOUTH DAKOTA, and NEVADA, among others. As in California, ambition merged with opportunity and ruthlessness — ethnic and racial discrimination was part of the legacy of the American West.



FIGURE 37.4

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CHAPTER 38

The Mexican-American War

The Mexican-American War



FIGURE 38.1

General Winfield Scott's entrance into Mexico City, September 14, 1847, is depicted in this print by Carl Nebel

When war broke out against Mexico in May 1846, the United States Army numbered a mere 8,000, but soon 60,000 volunteers joined their ranks. The AMERICAN NAVY dominated the sea. The American government provided stable, capable leadership. The economy of the expanding United States far surpassed that of the fledgling Mexican state. Morale was on the American side. The war was a rout.

Polk directed the war from Washington, D.C. He sent a 4-prong attack into the Mexican heartland. JOHN FREMONT and STEPHEN KEARNY were sent to control the coveted lands of CALIFORNIA and NEW MEXICO. Fremont led a group of zealous Californians to declare independence even before word of hostilities reached the West. The "BEAR FLAG REPUBLIC" was not taken seriously, but Fremont and his followers did march to Monterey to capture the Mexican PRESIDIO, or fort. By 1847, California was secure.



FIGURE 38.2

The original Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was printed in two columns, the English translation on the left and the Spanish on the right.

Meanwhile, Kearny led his troops into Santa Fe in August of 1846 causing the governor of New Mexico to flee. The city was captured without a single casualty. Soon he marched his army westward across the desert to join Fremont in California.

The attack on Mexico proper was left to two other commanders. Zachary Taylor crossed the Rio Grande with his troops upon Polk's order. He fought Santa Anna's troops successfully on his advance toward the heart of Mexico. WINFIELD SCOTT delivered the knockout punch. After invading Mexico at Vera Cruz, Scott's troops marched to the capital, Mexico City. All that remained was negotiating the terms of peace.

At home, the Whigs of the north complained bitterly about the war. Many questioned Polk's methods as misleading and unconstitutional. Abolitionists rightly feared that southerners would try to use newly acquired lands to expand slavery. Antiwar sentiment emerged in New England much as it had in the War of 1812. Writer Henry David Thoreau was sentenced to prison for refusing to pay the taxes he knew were used to fund the war effort. His essay, *Civil Disobedience*, became a standard of peaceful resistance for future activists.

The MEXICAN-AMERICAN WAR was formally concluded by the TREATY OF GUADALUPE-HIDALGO. The United States received the disputed Texan territory, as well as NEW MEXICO territory and CALIFORNIA. The Mexican government was paid \$15 million — the same sum issued to France for the Louisiana Territory. The United States Army won a grand victory. Although suffering 13,000 killed, the military won every engagement of the war. Mexico was stripped of half of its territory and was not consoled by the monetary settlement.

38.1 The Mexican-American War

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CHAPTER **39**

Oregon 54° 40' or Fight

54° 40' or Fight



FIGURE 39.1

The West

Map showing the Oregon Trail, Oregon Country, and northern Mexico

The southern boundary of the United States with Mexico was not the only western territory under dispute. The OREGON TERRITORY spanned the modern states of Oregon, Idaho, and Washington, as well as the western coast of Canada up to the border of RUSSIAN ALASKA. Both Great Britain and America claimed the territory. The TREATY OF 1818 called for joint occupation of Oregon — a solution that was only temporary. Led by missionaries, American settlers began to outnumber British settlers by the late 1830s. But Britain was not Mexico. Its powerful navy was still the largest in the world. Twice before had Americans taken up arms against their former colonizers at great expense to each side. Prudence would suggest a negotiated settlement, but the spirit of manifest destiny dominated American thought. Yet another great showdown loomed.

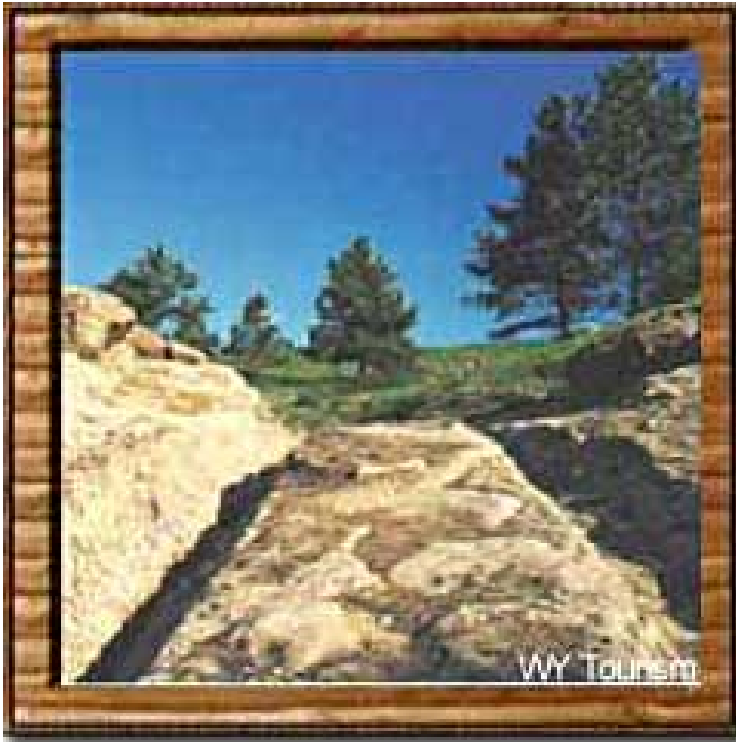


FIGURE 39.2

Wagon tracks leftover from the Oregon Trail pioneers still crisscross the American midwest.

Oregon fever swept the nation in the 1840s. Thousands of settlers, lured by the lush WILLAMETTE VALLEY headed west on the OREGON TRAIL. Families in caravans of 20 or 30 braved the elements to reach the distant land. Poor eastern families could not generally make the trip, as outfitting such an expedition was quite expensive. The CONESTOGA WAGON, oxen and supplies comprised most of the cost. The families fought Native Americans at times, but often they received guidance from the western tribes. It took six months of travel at the speed of fifteen miles per day to reach their destination.

39.1 54° 40' or Fight



FIGURE 39.3

The West

Map showing the Oregon Trail, Oregon Country, and northern Mexico

The southern boundary of the United States with Mexico was not the only western territory under dispute. The OREGON TERRITORY spanned the modern states of Oregon, Idaho, and Washington, as well as the western coast of Canada up to the border of RUSSIAN ALASKA. Both Great Britain and America claimed the territory. The TREATY OF 1818 called for joint occupation of Oregon — a solution that was only temporary. Led by missionaries, American settlers began to outnumber British settlers by the late 1830s. But Britain was not Mexico. Its powerful navy was still the largest in the world. Twice before had Americans taken up arms against their former colonizers at great expense to each side. Prudence would suggest a negotiated settlement, but the spirit of manifest destiny dominated American thought. Yet another great showdown loomed.

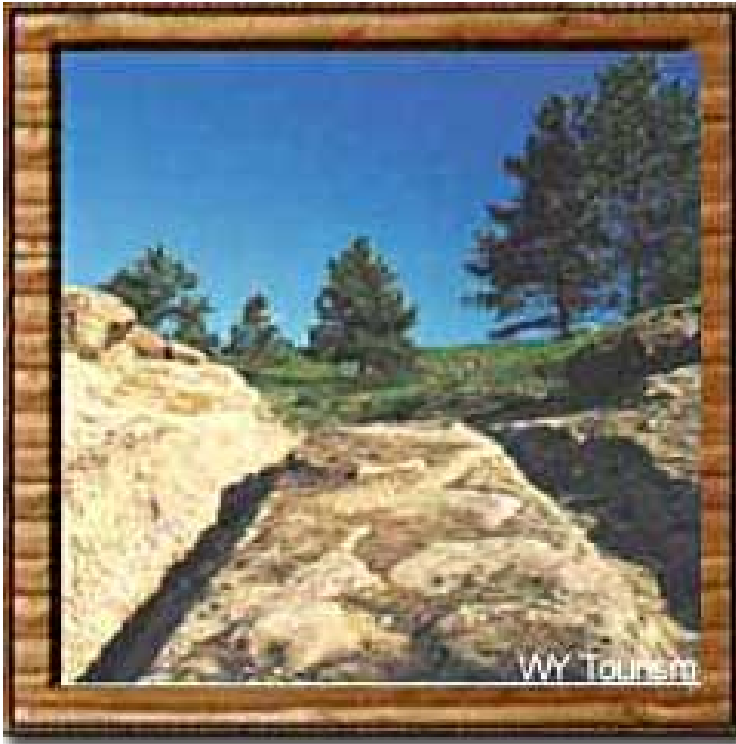


FIGURE 39.4

Wagon tracks leftover from the Oregon Trail pioneers still crisscross the American midwest.

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CONCEPT

40

Harriet Beecher Stowe —
Uncle Tom's Cabin

Harriet Beecher Stowe —



FIGURE 40.1

Kim Wells, Domestic Goddesses

Eliza is forced to flee dogs and slave-catchers in Uncle Tom's Cabin.

"So you're the little woman who wrote the book that made this great war."

This was Abraham Lincoln's reported greeting to HARRIET BEECHER STOWE when he met her ten years after her book *UNCLE TOM'S CABIN* was published. Although the President may have been exaggerating a bit, few novels in American history have grabbed the public spotlight and caused as great an uproar as *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

Across the north, readers became acutely aware of the horrors of slavery on a far more personal level than ever before. In the south the book was met with outrage and branded an irresponsible book of distortions and overstatements. In such an explosive environment, her story greatly furthered the Abolitionist cause north of the Mason-Dixon Line and promoted sheer indignation in plantation America.



FIGURE 40.2

Library of Congress LC-USZC4-6171 (3-10)

Stage plays and movies were made of the controversial abolitionist novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, although most of the characters were played by white actors and many of the characters became stereotypical caricatures.

Harriet Beecher Stowe was born into a prominent family of preachers. Her father, Lyman Beecher, was one of the most renowned ministers in his generation. Her brother HENRY WARD BEECHER was already an outspoken Abolitionist, and by the mid 1850s would become the driving force behind aiding the FREE-SOIL cause in "BLEEDING KANSAS" (not permitting slavery in the new territory). While living for a short while in Cincinnati, Stowe became exposed to actual runaway slaves. Her heart ached at the wretched tales she heard. She began to write a series of short stories depicting the plight of plantation slaves.

Encouraged by her sister-in-law, Stowe decided to pen a novel. First published as a series in 1851, it first appeared as a book the following year. The heart-wrenching tale portrays slave families forced to cope with separation by masters through sale. Uncle Tom mourns for the family he was forced to leave. In one heroic scene, Eliza makes a daring dash across the frozen Ohio River to prevent the sale of her son by slave traders. The novel also takes the perspective that slavery brings out the worst in the white masters, leading them to perpetrate moral atrocities they would otherwise never commit.



FIGURE 40.3

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE

Harriet Beecher Stowe lost a child in infancy, an experience that she said made her empathize with the losses suffered by slave mothers whose children were sold.

The reaction was incredible. *Uncle Tom's Cabin* sold 300,000 copies in the North alone. The FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW, passed in 1850, could hardly be enforced by any of Stowe's readers. Although banned in most of the south, it served as another log on the growing fire.

The book sold even more copies in Great Britain than in the United States. This had an immeasurable appeal in swaying British public opinion. Many members of the British Parliament relished the idea of a divided United States. Ten years after the publication of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, the British people made it difficult for its government to support the Confederacy, even though there were strong economic ties to the South. In the end, Mr. Lincoln may not have been stretching the truth after all.

CONCEPT

41

The Underground Railroad

The Underground Railroad



FIGURE 41.1

National Park Service

Lewis Hayden escaped from slavery through the Underground Railroad, eventually becoming a "conductor" from his Boston home.

Any cause needs speakers and organizers. Any mass movement requires men and women of great ideas.

But information and mobilization are not enough. To be successful, revolutionary change requires people of action — those who little by little chip away at the forces who stand in the way. Such were the "conductors" of the UNDERGROUND RAILROAD. Not content to wait for laws to change or for slavery to implode itself, railroad activists helped individual fugitive slaves find the light of freedom.



FIGURE 41.2

Harriet Tubman is sometimes referred to as the Moses of her people because of the way she led them out of slavery. The Underground Railroad operated at night. Slaves were moved from "station" to "station" by abolitionists. These "stations" were usually homes and churches — any safe place to rest and eat before continuing on the journey to freedom, as faraway as Canada. Often whites would pretend to be the masters of the fugitives to avoid capture. Sometimes lighter skinned African Americans took this role. In one spectacular case, HENRY "BOX" BROWN arranged for a friend to put him in a wooden box, where he had only a few biscuits and some water. His friend mailed him to the North, where bemused abolitionists received him in Philadelphia.



FIGURE 41.3

This map of the eastern United States shows some of the routes that slaves traveled during their escape to freedom. Most of the time, however, slaves crept northward on their own, looking for the signal that designated the next safe haven. This was indeed risky business, because **SLAVE CATCHERS** and sheriffs were constantly on the lookout. Over 3,200 people are known to have worked on the railroad between 1830 and the end of the Civil War. Many will remain forever anonymous.

Perhaps the most outstanding "conductor" of the Underground Railroad was **HARRIET TUBMAN**. Born a slave herself, she began working on the railroad to free her family members. During the 1850s, Tubman made 19 separate trips into slave territory. She was terribly serious about her mission. Any slave who had second thoughts she threatened to shoot with the pistol she carried on her hip. By the end of the decade, she was responsible for freeing about 300 slaves. When the Civil War broke out, she used her knowledge from working the railroad to serve as a spy for the Union.

Needless to say, the Underground Railroad was not appreciated by the slaveowners. Although they disliked Abolitionist talk and literature, this was far worse. To them, this was a simple case of stolen property. When Northern towns rallied around freed slaves and refused compensation, yet another brick was set into the foundation of **SOUTHERN SECESSION**.

CONCEPT 42

William Lloyd Garrison and The Liberator Anti-Abolitionist

William Lloyd Garrison and The Liberator

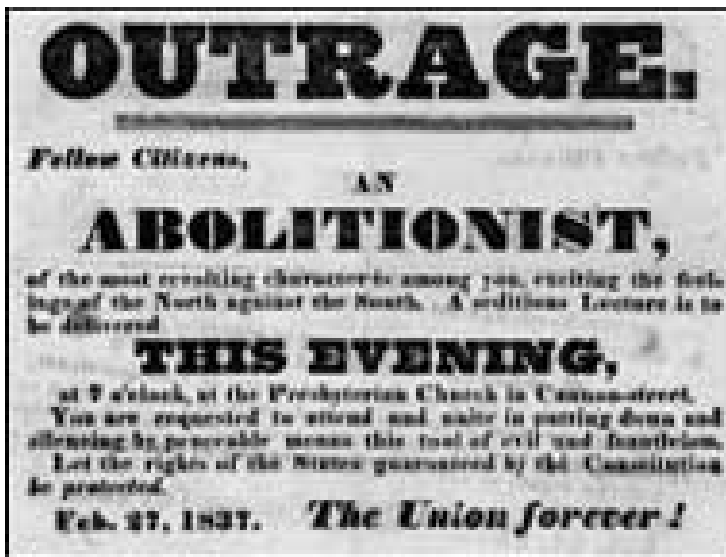


FIGURE 42.1

Library of Congress

Anti-abolitionist handbills sometimes led to violent clashes between pro-slavery and anti-slavery factions.

Every movement needs a voice.

For the entire generation of people that grew up in the years that led to the Civil War, WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON was the voice of Abolitionism. Originally a supporter of colonization, Garrison changed his position and became the leader of the emerging anti-slavery movement. His publication, *THE LIBERATOR*, reached thousands of individuals worldwide. His ceaseless, uncompromising position on the moral outrage that was slavery made him loved and hated by many Americans.



FIGURE 42.2

Although *The Liberator* was Garrison's most prominent abolitionist activity, he had been involved in the fight to end slavery for years prior to its publication.

In 1831, Garrison published the first edition of *The Liberator*. His words, "I am in earnest — I will not equivocate — I will not excuse — I will not retreat a single inch — AND I WILL BE HEARD," clarified the position of the NEW ABOLITIONISTS. Garrison was not interested in compromise. He founded the NEW ENGLAND ANTI-SLAVERY SOCIETY the following year. In 1833, he met with delegates from around the nation to form the American Anti-Slavery Society. Garrison saw his cause as worldwide. With the aid of his supporters, he traveled overseas to garner support from Europeans. He was, indeed, a global crusader. But Garrison needed a lot of help. *The Liberator* would not have been successful had it not been for the free blacks who subscribed. Approximately seventy-five percent of the readers were free African-Americans.

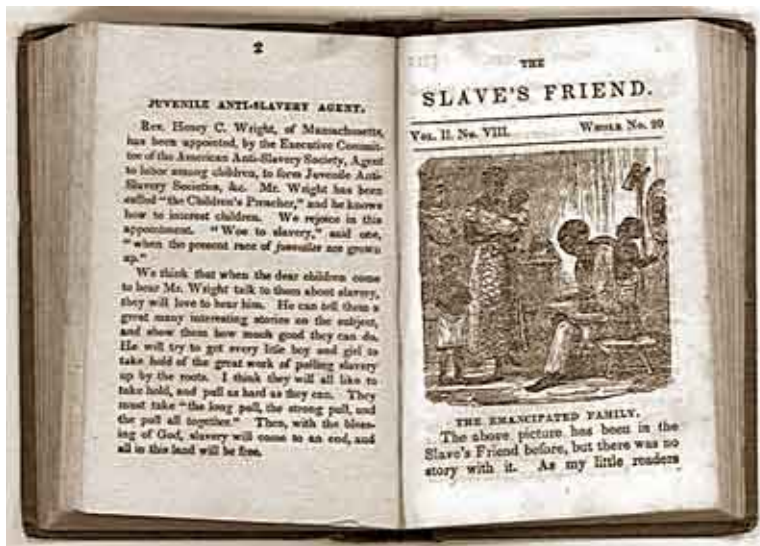


FIGURE 42.3

The Liberator wasn't the only abolitionist manifesto during the 1800s. Pamphlets like this one were disseminated widely throughout the North, although many were banned in the South.

Garrison saw moral persuasion as the only means to end slavery. To him the task was simple: show people how immoral slavery was and they would join in the campaign to end it. He disdained politics, for he saw the political world as an arena of compromise. A group split from Garrison in the 1840s to run candidates for president on the LIBERTY PARTY ticket. Garrison was not dismayed. Once in Boston, he was dragged through the streets and nearly killed. A bounty of \$4000 was placed on his head. In 1854, he publicly burned a copy of the Constitution because it permitted slavery. He called for the north to secede from the Union to sever the ties with the slaveholding south.

William Lloyd Garrison lived long enough to see the Union come apart under the weight of slavery. He survived to see Abraham Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation during the Civil War. Thirty-four years after first publishing *The Liberator*, Garrison saw the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution go into effect, banning slavery forever. It took a lifetime of work. But in the end, the morality of his position held sway.

CHAPTER **43****Abolitionist Sentiment Grows****Abolitionist Sentiment Grows**

FIGURE 43.1

Most of the African American characters in Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* were transported to Africa at the end of the novel, causing controversy amongst abolitionists and free African Americans.

As the cotton industry took hold and slavery became more and more entrenched across the American south, the opposition to the Peculiar Institution began to grow.

The first widely accepted solution to the slavery question in the 1820s was colonization. In effect, supporters of colonization wanted to transplant the slave population back to Africa. Their philosophy was simple: slaves were brought to America involuntarily. Why not give them a chance to enjoy life as though such a forced migration had never taken place? Funds were raised to transport freed African-Americans across the Atlantic in the opposite direction. The nation of Liberia was created as a haven for former American slaves.

But most African-Americans opposed this practice. The vast majority had never set foot on African soil. Many African-Americans rightly believed that they had helped build this country and deserved to live as free citizens of America. By the end of the decade, a full-blown Abolitionist movement was born.



FIGURE 43.2

Library of congress

Abolitionist Wendell Phillips spoke on behalf of fugitive slave Thomas Sims, and against the Fugitive Slave Law in 1851. Sims was later returned to Savannah where he was publicly whipped.

These new Abolitionists were different from their forebears. ANTI-SLAVERY SOCIETIES had existed in America since 1775, but these activists were more radical. Early Abolitionists called for a gradual end to slavery. They supported compensation to owners of slaves for their loss of property. They raised money for the purchase of slaves to grant freedom to selected individuals.

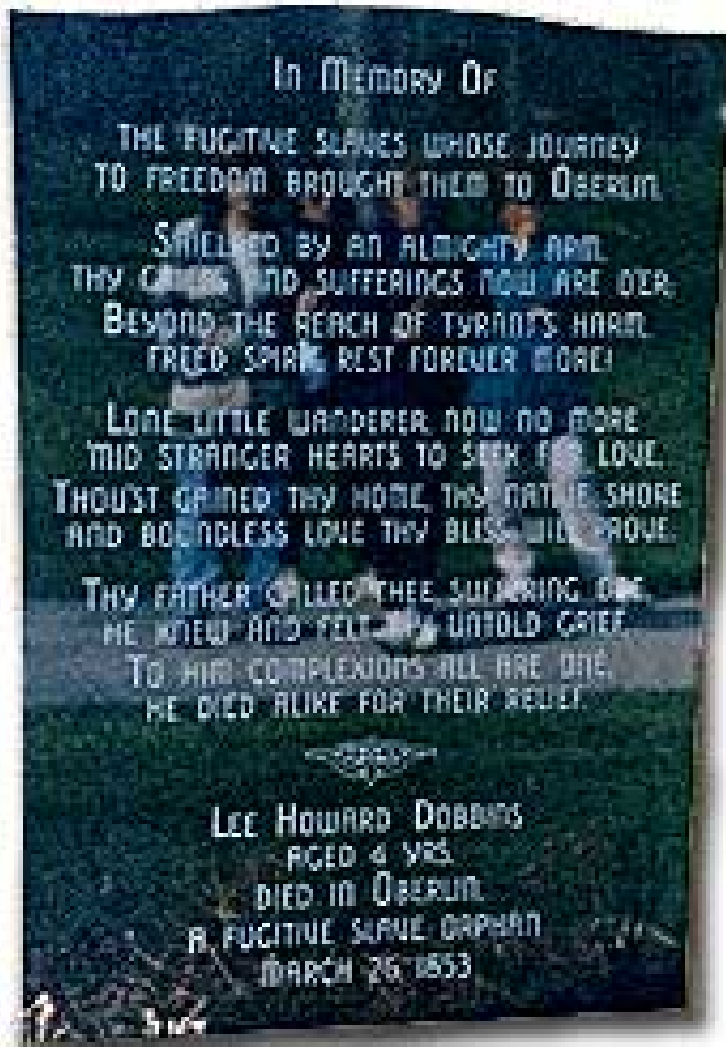


FIGURE 43.3

Many runaway slaves died on their way to freedom on the Underground Railroad. This stone marking the grave of a four-year-old fugitive slave orphan is in Oberlin, Ohio, a town noted for helping slaves escape.

The new Abolitionists thought differently. They saw slavery as a blight on America. It must be brought to an end immediately and without compensation to the owners. They sent petitions to Congress and the states, campaigned for office, and flooded the south with inflammatory literature.

Needless to say, eyebrows were raised throughout the north and the south. Soon the battle lines were drawn. President Andrew Jackson banned the post office from delivering Abolitionist literature in the south. A "GAG RULE" was passed on the floor of the House of Representatives forbidding the discussion of bills that restricted slavery. Abolitionists were physically attacked because of their outspoken anti-slavery views. While northern churches rallied to the Abolitionist cause, the churches of the south used the Bible to defend slavery.

Abolitionists were always a minority, even on the eve of the Civil War. Their dogged determination to end human bondage was a struggle that persisted for decades. While mostly peaceful at first, as each side became more and more firmly rooted, pens were exchanged for swords. Another seed of sectional conflict had been deeply planted.

43.1 Abolitionist Sentiment Grows



FIGURE 43.4

Most of the African American characters in Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* were transported to Africa at the end of the novel, causing controversy amongst abolitionists and free African Americans.

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Library of congress

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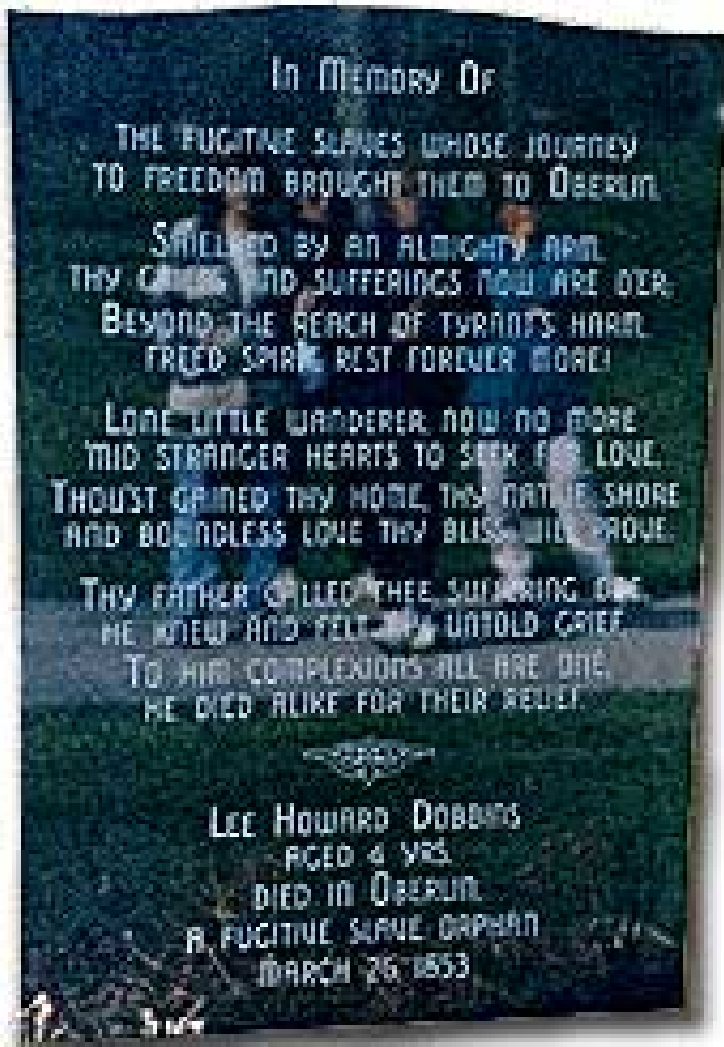


FIGURE 43.6

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CONCEPT **44**

Hudson River School Artists

Hudson River School Artists



FIGURE 44.1

Jasper Cropsey was among the second generation of artists from the Hudson River School. His *Autumn on the Hudson*, 1860, exhibits his preference for landscape paintings with colorful foliage.

If you have a painting on the wall of your home today, it may be because of the influence of a group of painters known as the HUDSON RIVER ARTISTS. While not as individually famous as many other American painters of the 19th century, as a group they had an important contribution to make. Before the 1800's most artists were successful only if they could attract the notice of a wealthy family who could afford to have portraits painted. Artists not engaged in painting likenesses could be commissioned to recreate famous historical scenes to hang in the homes of the rich. But with the invention of the DAGUERREOTYPE, a precursor to the photograph, it absorbed much of the demand for portrait painting. However, a new American school of LANDSCAPE PAINTING was about to emerge along with a new form of public entertainment — the art museum. Middle class people were about to become excited about art.

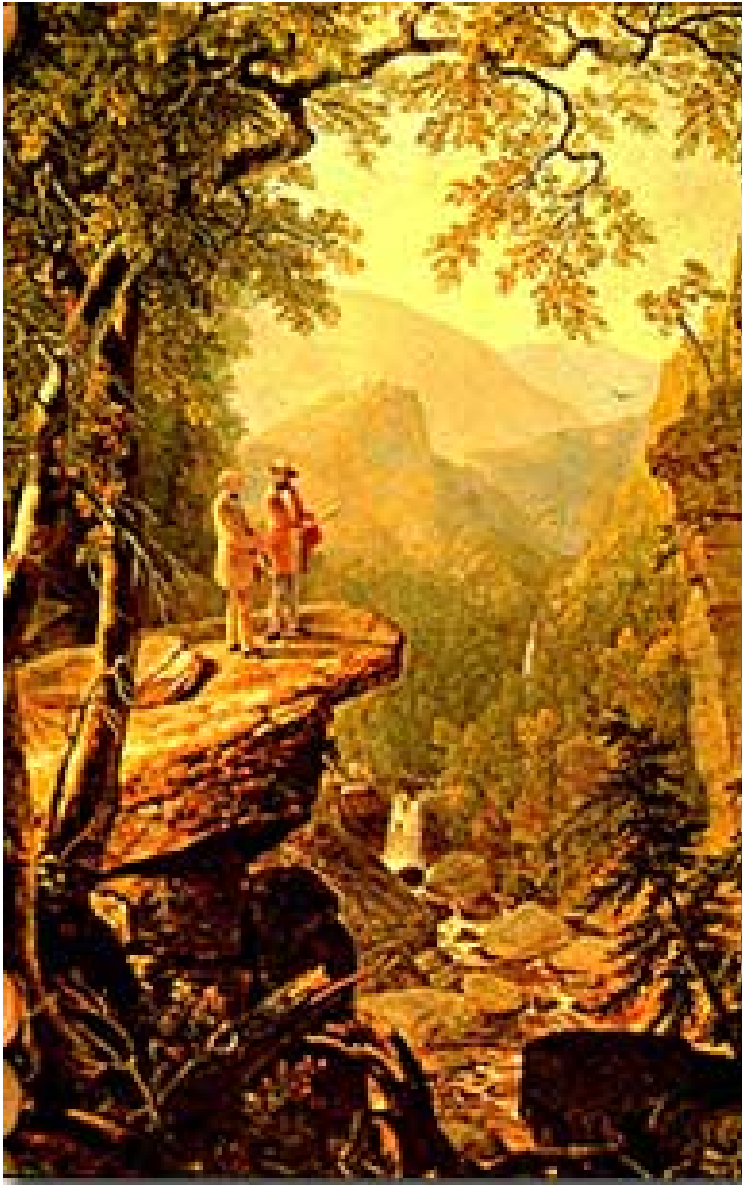


 FIGURE 44.2

The artists of the Hudson River School were influenced less by European artists than by American artists and writers. Asher Durand's *Kindred Spirits* (1849) shows Thomas Cole and William Cullen Bryant, a poet of the age, discussing the beauty of nature.

Before 1830, there was no such thing as an art museum open to the public. Artists began to create work for the enjoyment of the Middle Class. Soon, it became as common to see a painting over the fireplace of a home as to find a Bible on the kitchen table. In 1839, the American Art Union was created to raise money for artists' salaries. At first, 814 members paid \$5 a piece to join the union; a decade later, there were 19,000 members and \$40,000 in payments to artists in a single year. One of these artists was the landscape painter, THOMAS COLE.

Cole had no formal training as an artist. He could not draw a likeness, or any real figure for that matter. But he understood something his peers did not. While artists had been painting Americans for over a century, no one had painted America before — the mountains, streams, vistas, valleys, the limitless frontier. So nature became the subject of his canvas as America's national myth and new identity developed. Cole became the spiritual father of the wilderness landscape artists. His early subjects were the Hudson River Valley and the Catskill Mountains, full of beautiful scenery, waterfalls, and primal mists.



FIGURE 44.3

Thomas Cole's works, like *The Subsiding of the Waters of the Deluge* (1829), inspired his contemporaries as well as future American artists.

Thus was a bold style of "native" American art created. Other landscape painters such as ASHER BROWN DURAND and FITZHUGH LANE, and the panoramists FREDERICK EDWIN CHURCH and ALBERT BIERSTADT put on canvas not just the areas around upper New York State but also the diversity of beauty found in the far west, the Sierra Mountains, the Rockies, Latin America, and Mexico. They tried to express a love of nature and a feeling for man's place in it. At the same time, culture was becoming the province of all people not just a wealthy elite. Thus, as foreigners looked on in amazement, the Hudson River artists left European tastes behind and began to paint the magical beauty and awesome power of nature in America with extraordinary success.

CONCEPT 45

Religious Revival

Religious Revival

Standing on a hilltop in upstate New York, with the breeze blowing lightly through his hair, the REVEREND CHARLES GRANDISON FINNEY surveys his audience. He is about to say something startling. In his grand baritone, he begins by exhorting them to listen carefully; he is about to change their lives. SALVATION is the beginning of a life of good works here on earth! Man can, therefore, achieve his own salvation. God is not angry! God is merciful and loving. Therefore, go forth, and *do as well as believe!*

His flock was duly astounded. This was a unique and welcome message coming from the mouths of Reverend Finney and other American evangelists who began spreading the news of the SECOND GREAT AWAKENING from New England to the West from approximately 1795 to 1835. This was a message of hope and opportunity. Religion was not only revived it was being transformed. Gone were the warnings that man was totally depraved; that he was "PREDESTINED" to salvation or damnation; that God was angry and full of vengeance. The amazing assurance that life on earth had its own rewards and was not just a way station on the road to heaven (or hell) touched people's hearts. And they rushed to hear it.

Thus, the revolt against JONATHAN EDWARDS' strict CALVINISM produced many new sects. The area around central New York and along the Erie Canal was a fertile ground for PENTECOSTAL fervor and conversion so intense it was referred to as the "BURNED OVER DISTRICT." WILLIAM MILLER founded the ADVENTIST sect based on the notion that he could pinpoint the exact day when the Messiah would return to earth.



FIGURE 45.1

Revival meetings like the one illustrated here were filled with exuberant outbursts of religious fervor.

After having a series of religious visions, JOSEPH SMITH, a young man from Palmyra, New York published the *BOOK OF MORMON* and established the CHURCH OF JESUS CHRIST OF LATTER DAY SAINTS in 1830. The church was plagued with persecution from the very beginning because of its evangelizing, its separation from surrounding communities, and its radical ideas, including polygamy. Its members, commonly referred to as Mormons, were constantly on the move to avoid harassment. After Joseph Smith and his brother Hyrum were killed

by an angry mob in Nauvoo, Illinois in 1844, the church members headed West under the leadership of BRIGHAM YOUNG. After a long, difficult trek, 140,000 Mormons settled in Salt Lake City, Utah.

Ultimately, many of these groups as well as established PROTESTANT churches like BAPTISTS, METHODISTS, and CONGREGATIONALISTS moved to the West, carrying their message of revival and redemption with them. Since danger and uncertainty abounded on the frontier, evangelists discovered that the promise of salvation could be delivered with even more zeal. JAMES MCCREADY made his name preaching "HELLFIRE AND BRIMSTONE." PETER CARTWRIGHT traveled across the frontier and brought religious services to countless remote Americans as one of the premier Methodist circuit riders. Sin and repentance dominated the camp meeting, a gathering that often lasted for days and attracted thousands of shrieking, sobbing, fainting converts. The message was simple: Repent your vices and God will forgive you!



FIGURE 45.2

With the exception of the Society of Friends (the Quakers), no church in the nation took a public stance against slavery. Northern churches, like the African Methodist Episcopal Church in Philadelphia, were segregated.

The movement was perfectly in tune with Jacksonian America. Methodists and Baptists made the greatest gains in numbers of members. With a less formal clergy and the notion that anyone could be saved, these groups meshed nicely with Jacksonian Democracy. Women became more involved than men, and preachers soon used the revival to promote "women's sphere." Soon reform movements designed to improve the worst evils of industrial emerged from the churches America.

At the same time the Second Awakening was freeing men and women in the north and west, churches in the south began adopting a more authoritarian, paternalistic tone and did not encourage thinking about or questioning of social institutions, since such probing might have an undesired effect. The idea that all men have a spark of divinity and are therefore to be treated equally and benevolently did not mesh well with the existence of slavery. But everywhere else in America, the church and the clergy became, at least in spirit, a champion for the common man, his individual dignity and salvation, and the betterment of his condition.



FIGURE 45.3

Charles Grandison Finney was one of the most famous controversial traveling preachers during the second great Awakening.