CHAPTER 7

Summary

TELESCOPING THE TIMES

Balancing Nationalism and Sectionalism

***CHAPTER OVERVIEW** American leaders devise a farsighted policy of improvements as North, South, and West develop distinct economies; but the sections gradually grow to guard their sectional interests.*

1 Regional Economies Create Differences

***KEY IDEA** As various sections of the nation develop different economic systems, Henry Clay seeks to unify the country.*

In the early 1800s, an Industrial Revolution that had begun in Britain spread to the United States. Before, craft workers made one product at a time. Now, business owners achieved mass production. They hired teams of workers who worked in factories powered by water. Using interchangeable parts, the workers produced more products in less time than before.

Troubles with Britain helped spur these changes. When the embargo halted American shipping, investors put their money into building factories. The New England states pioneered the American industrial age. The first factories were textile mills, but other industries soon followed.

The West—the old Northwest Territory—was mostly agricultural. Farming was changing, though. Farm families began to raise livestock and crops for sale, using the cash they earned to buy supplies. Labor in the North was free; by 1804, all states north of Delaware had abolished slavery.

Slavery was growing in the South, however. Eli Whitney's new invention—the cotton gin—made it possible to grow more cotton than before, and Britain's and New England's textile mills demanded more and more cotton. Southern farmers turned their land into vast cotton fields. As a result, the number of slaves nearly doubled. Some African Americans living in the South were free, but they were few, and their lives were not much better than those of the slaves.

As the sections developed their distinct economies, leaders looked for ways to unite them. President Madison proposed a plan that Henry Clay of Kentucky soon adopted, calling it the American System. The plan called for tariffs on foreign manufactured goods to allow American industry to grow. It included a national bank to establish a national currency. It urged making "internal improvements"—building roads.

The federal government never funded these internal improvements, but many states did. Some joined to build the National Road to carry settlers west. New York built the Erie Canal to connect New York City to the Great Lakes. With increased trade, New York City became the country's chief port.

2 Nationalism at Center Stage

***KEY IDEA** Nationalism exerts a strong influence on the nation's courts, foreign affairs, and westward expansion.*

In a series of Supreme Court decisions, Chief Justice John Marshall promoted the power of the federal government. In *Gibbons* v. *Ogden*, the Court ruled that Congress—not the states—had the power over commerce between the states.

Secretary of State John Quincy Adams pursued a foreign policy guided by nationalism. He negotiated treaties with Britain that reduced the number of navy ships on the Great Lakes and settled boundary disputes. In a treaty with Spain, Adams brought Florida into the United States.

Other nations threatened the hemisphere, though. Spain and Portugal seemed ready to reclaim their colonies, which had recently won independence. Russia tried to claim more land on the west coast of North America. President James Monroe warned European nations not to interfere with the nations of the Western Hemisphere.

As more and more Americans moved west, new territories were ready to become states. The process became difficult because of the issue of slavery. As long as there was an equal number of slave and free states, both North and South felt comfortable. When Missouri—which allowed slavery—applied for admission, though, the balance was threatened. Clay fashioned the Missouri Compromise. This agreement allowed Missouri to enter as a slave state and Maine as a free state. The Compromise also established that in all territories north of 36° 30’ north latitude, slavery would be illegal—except for Missouri.

❸ The Age of Jackson

KEY IDEA *Andrew Jackson’s policies give voice to common people but violate Native American rights.*

John Quincy Adams, who became president after Monroe, had a difficult term of office. In the election of 1824, Andrew Jackson had won the most popular votes but lacked the electoral votes to win the presidency. The decision was thrown to the House of Representatives. Henry Clay—who disliked Jackson personally and politically—used his influence to give Adams the election.

Angered, Jackson and his followers split to form their own party: the Democratic-Republican Party. For four years, they attacked Adams, and the country turned toward Jackson. He also won the support of thousands of Americans recently given the vote by more liberal election laws. Jackson won the 1828 election by a wide margin.

Once in office, Jackson removed about 10 percent of federal workers from office. He replaced them with new workers loyal to him.

As the demand for farmland grew, settlers again looked on the lands of Native Americans in the South and West. Jackson decided to move the Native Americans elsewhere. Congress passed the Indian Removal Act in 1830. The Cherokee Nation fought back in the courts. When Chief Justice Marshall ruled in their favor, Jackson refused to comply. Instead, federal agents signed a treaty with a group of Cherokee leaders willing to leave. In 1838, the army forced the remaining 20,000 Cherokee to march west. The Cherokee called the journey Trail of Tears because it caused the death of more than a quarter of their people.

❹ Jackson, States’ Rights, and the National Bank

KEY IDEA *Andrew Jackson deals with states’ rights and the Bank of the United States.*

The Tariff of 1816 (raised twice by 1828) increased the price of foreign manufactured goods. Although he had supported the tariff before, John C. Calhoun of South Carolina came to oppose it bitterly. Southerners, with little industry of their own, felt that they were paying to build industry in the North. Calhoun argued that states could nullify—or declare void—any federal law that they opposed. The Senate debated the tariff in 1830. A South Carolina Senator blasted the tariff as a threat to the South and to states’ rights. Massachusetts Senator Daniel Webster made an impassioned argument that the Union was created by the people, not the states.

Two years later, the issue came to a head. Congress passed a new tariff, and the South Carolina legislature declared it invalid. President Jackson threatened to send troops to make South Carolina obey the law. Clay suggested lowering the tariff over time. The compromise was accepted, and tempers cooled.

Jackson faced another conflict arising from his opposition to the Bank of the United States. He thought the bank a threat to democracy, calling it “the monster.” He tried to shut the bank down by withdrawing the Treasury’s money. When the bank’s president called for all loans to be repaid, a panic resulted, and the bank lost its remaining support. In 1836, the bank’s charter expired. After the collapse of the bank, New York City became the nation’s financial capital. Jackson’s attacks on the bank angered Clay, Webster, and others, who formed a new party: the Whigs.

After two terms, Jackson retired, but his vice-president, Martin Van Buren, won election. He inherited a financial mess brought on by the fight over the bank. Unable to fix the country’s economy, Van Buren lost the 1840 election to Whig candidate William Henry Harrison. Harrison died soon after taking office, however, and John Tyler succeeded him as president. Because Tyler agreed with few Whig positions, the party could not enact its program into law.

The Jackson years had radically changed politics. Candidates had to campaign hard for office and tried to win wide popular support. The average citizen was more politically aware—and had more political power—than ever before.