The United States faced many challenges in its early years. Internal improvements and industrial development began to reshape the nation, but this reshaping also highlighted the growing differences between North and South. Westward expansion generated new conflicts with Native Americans and also with Great Britain in the Northwest and Mexico in the Southwest. The push for social reforms intensified, addressing issues of education, temperance, women's rights, and slavery. Understanding these developments will help you comprehend the crises that would soon engulf the nation. The following resources offer more information about this period in American history.

**Primary Sources Library**
See pages 1050–1051 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 3.

Use the **American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM** to find additional primary sources about the young Republic.
“The happy Union of these States is a wonder; their Constitution a miracle; their example the hope of Liberty throughout the world.”

—James Madison, 1829
Why It Matters
After the War of 1812, a new spirit of nationalism took hold in American society. A new national bank was chartered, and Supreme Court decisions strengthened the federal government. New roads and canals helped connect the country. Industry prospered in the North, while an agricultural economy dependent on slavery grew strong in the South. Regional differences began to define political life.

The Impact Today
Many developments of this period shaped our lives today.
• Many Americans have a strong sense of national loyalty.
• Federal authority over interstate commerce helped create a truly national economy.

The American Vision Video  The Chapter 7 video, “Young People of the North,” describes the lifestyle of Americans in the 1800s.
1828 • Jackson defeats Adams’s re-election bid

1829 • Slavery abolished in Mexico

1830 • Male voting rights expanded in England

1831 • Nat Turner slave rebellion

1832 • French seize control of Algiers

1833 • Slavery abolished in Mexico

1834 • Jackson inaugurated

1835 • Congress passes the Expulsion of Protestants Act
On a March day in 1817, a dignified group of Americans gathered in Washington, D.C., to witness the inauguration of the fifth president of the United States. The audience was full of hope and optimism as James Monroe delivered his inaugural address.

"Never did a government commence under auspices so favorable. . . . If we look to the history of other nations, ancient or modern, we find no example of a growth so rapid, so gigantic, of a people so prosperous and happy. In contemplating what we have still to perform, the heart of every citizen must expand with joy when he reflects how near our Government has approached to perfection. . . . If we persevere in the career in which we have advanced so far and in the path already traced, we can not fail, under the favor of a gracious Providence, to attain the high destiny which seems to await us."

—from James Monroe’s Inaugural Address, March 1817

The Era of Good Feelings

President Monroe’s words emphasized the sense of national pride that swept the United States after the War of 1812. For a time, Americans’ loyalty to the United States overrode their historical identity with state or region. The Columbian Centinal, a Boston newspaper, declared this time to be an Era of Good Feelings. The phrase has since been used to describe the Monroe presidency.

Harmony in national politics had reached a new high mostly because only one major political party—the Republicans—had any power. The Federalist Party had lost political influence and popularity, in part because of the public’s disapproval of their actions at
the Hartford Convention. At the same time, the War of 1812 had taught a new generation of Republican leaders that a stronger federal government was advantageous.

**Reading Check** Examining Why is the Monroe presidency known as the Era of Good Feelings?

**Economic Nationalism**

American leaders prepared an ambitious program to bind the nation together. The program included creating a new national bank, protecting American manufacturers from foreign competition, and building canals and roads to improve transportation and link the country together.

**ECONOMICS**

**The Second Bank** Republicans traditionally had opposed the idea of a national bank. They had blocked the rechartering of the First Bank of the United States in 1811 and offered nothing in its place. The results were disastrous. State chartered banks and other private banks greatly expanded their lending with bank notes that were used as money. Without the regulatory presence of the national bank, prices rose rapidly during the War of 1812. When the government borrowed money to pay for the war, it had to pay high interest rates on its loans.

Because of these problems, many Republicans changed their minds after the war. In 1816 Representative John C. Calhoun of South Carolina introduced a bill proposing the Second Bank of the United States. With the support of Henry Clay of Kentucky and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, the bill passed in 1816. This legislation gave the Bank power to issue notes that would serve as a national currency and to control state banks.

**Tariffs and Transportation** Protection of manufacturers was another example of the Republican plan. Because an embargo had prevented Americans from buying British goods during the War of 1812, American industries had increased their output to meet the demand. Once the war was over, British goods flowed into the United States at such low prices they threatened to put American companies out of business.

Congress responded with the Tariff of 1816. Unlike earlier revenue tariffs, which provided income for the federal government, this was a protective tariff, designed to nurture American manufacturers by taxing imports to drive up their prices. New England shippers and Southern farmers opposed the tariff and the higher prices it caused, but they could not block its passage.

The Republicans also wanted to improve the nation’s transportation system. In 1816 Calhoun sponsored a federal internal improvement plan, but

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**Profiles in History**

**Henry Clay**

1777–1852

Henry Clay was known as the Great Compromiser for his role in working out various agreements between leaders of the North and South. He served as a Kentucky state legislator, speaker of the U.S. House of Representatives, U.S. senator, and secretary of state. Although a slaveholder himself, Clay supported the gradual emancipation of enslaved persons. He later abandoned the idea, however, when it proved unpopular with his fellow Kentuckians.

Clay was a consistent champion of nationalism and devoted his career to strengthening the Union. Although a five-time presidential candidate, the popularity of his opponents and the weakness of his political party, the Whigs, kept him from achieving his lifelong goal of winning the presidency.

**John C. Calhoun**

1782–1850

John C. Calhoun of South Carolina was an influential member of Congress and, at least for a time, a close friend of Henry Clay. Calhoun was a War Hawk—one who urged war with Great Britain in 1812. He was also an ardent nationalist in his early career. After the War of 1812, Calhoun helped introduce congressional bills for a new Bank of the United States, a permanent road system to connect the nation, and a tariff to protect the nation’s industries.

In the 1830s Calhoun abandoned his nationalist stance in favor of states’ rights and sectional interests. Fearing that the North intended to dominate the South, Calhoun spent the rest of his career trying to prevent the federal government from weakening states’ rights and from interfering with the Southern way of life.
President Madison vetoed it, arguing that spending money to improve transportation was not expressly granted in the Constitution. Nevertheless, road and canal construction soon began, with private businesses and state and local governments funding much of the work.

**Judicial Nationalism**

The judicial philosophy of the Chief Justice of the United States, John Marshall, provided another boost to the forces helping unify the nation after the war. Between 1816 and 1824, Marshall ruled in three important cases that established the dominance of the nation over the states and shaped the future of American government.

**Martin v. Hunter’s Lessee** In 1816 the Court decided in Martin v. Hunter’s Lessee that it had the authority to hear all appeals of state court decisions in cases involving federal statutes and treaties. In this case, Denny Martin, a British subject, tried to sell Virginia land inherited from his uncle, Lord Fairfax, a British Loyalist during the war. At that time, Virginia law stated that no “enemy” could inherit land. The Supreme Court upheld Martin’s case, ruling that Virginia’s law conflicted with the 1783 Treaty of Paris, which recommended that the states restore confiscated property to Loyalists. This historic decision helped establish the Supreme Court as the nation’s court of final appeal.

**McCulloch v. Maryland** This 1819 case concerned Maryland’s attempt to tax the Second Bank of the United States. Before addressing Maryland’s right to tax the national bank, the Supreme Court ruled on the federal government’s right to create a national bank in the first place. In the Court’s opinion, written by Marshall, the bank was constitutional, even though the Constitution did not specifically give Congress the power to create one.

Marshall observed that the Constitution gave the federal government the power to collect taxes, to borrow money, to regulate commerce, and to raise armies and navies. He noted that the national bank helped the federal government exercise these powers. He concluded that the Constitution’s “necessary and proper” clause allowed the federal government to create a bank.

Opponents argued that the “necessary and proper” clause meant the government could only do things absolutely necessary, but Marshall rejected that idea. Instead, he held that “necessary and proper” meant the government could use any method that was convenient for carrying out its powers as long as the method was not expressly forbidden.

Marshall then argued that the federal government was “supreme in its own sphere of action.” This meant that a state government could not interfere

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**Major Supreme Court Decisions, 1801–1824**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marbury v. Madison (1803)</td>
<td>Declared congressional act unconstitutional; Court asserts power of judicial review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fletcher v. Peck (1810)</td>
<td>Protected contracts from legislative interference; Court could overturn state laws that opposed specific provisions of Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin v. Hunter’s Lessee (1816)</td>
<td>Court can accept appeals of state court decisions and review state decisions that involve federal statutes or treaties; asserted the Supreme Court’s sovereignty over state courts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCulloch v. Maryland (1819)</td>
<td>Upheld constitutionality of the Bank of the United States; doctrine of “implied powers” provided Congress more flexibility to enact legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohens v. Virginia (1821)</td>
<td>Reasserted federal judicial authority over state courts; argued that when states ratified Constitution, they gave up some sovereignty to federal courts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gibbons v. Ogden (1824)</td>
<td>Revoked an existing state monopoly; Court gave Congress the right to regulate interstate commerce</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: The Oxford Companion to the Supreme Court of the United States*

**Chart Skills**

1. **Interpreting Charts** In which case did Chief Justice Marshall assert the Court’s right of judicial review?
2. **Analyzing** Was Marshall a strict interpreter of the Constitution? How can you tell?
with an agency of the federal government exercising its specific constitutional powers within a state’s borders. Taxing the national bank was a form of interference and therefore unconstitutional.

**Gibbons v. Ogden** This 1824 case involved a company that had a state-granted monopoly over steamboat traffic in New York waters. When the company tried to expand its monopoly to include traffic crossing the Hudson River to New Jersey, the matter went to court.

The Supreme Court declared this monopoly unconstitutional. In the Court’s opinion, Marshall stated that the state legislature had overstepped its power in granting the original monopoly. The Constitution granted the federal government control over interstate commerce, which the court interpreted to include all trade along the coast or on waterways dividing the states. The state could, however, regulate commerce within its own borders.

In writing the Supreme Court’s decision, Marshall defined interstate commerce in a way that went far beyond the mere exchange of goods between states. By ruling that anything crossing state boundaries came under federal control, Marshall ensured that federal law would take precedence over state law in interstate transportation.

In these cases, Marshall’s nationalism strengthened the power of the federal government at the expense of the states. Although defenders of states’ rights bitterly attacked Marshall’s decisions, his views helped make the “necessary and proper” clause and the interstate commerce clause major vehicles for expanding federal power. (See page 1081 for more information on Martin v. Hunter’s Lessee, McCulloch v. Maryland, and Gibbons v. Ogden.)

**Reading Check** **Identifying** How did the Supreme Court establish and expand the power of the federal government over the states?

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**Nationalist Diplomacy**

The wave of nationalism within Congress and among voters influenced the nation’s foreign affairs as well. Feeling proud and confident, the United States under President Monroe expanded its borders and asserted itself on the world stage.

**Jackson Invades Florida** Throughout the early 1800s, Spanish-held Florida was a source of anger and frustration for Southerners. Many runaway slaves fled there, knowing that Americans could not cross the border into Spanish territory. Similarly, many of the Creek people had retreated to Florida as American settlers seized their lands. These people took a new name for themselves—**Seminole**, meaning “runaway” or “separatist.” The Seminoles used Florida as a base to stage raids against American settlements in Georgia. Spain was unable to control the border, causing many Americans to clamor for the United States to step in. As tensions heightened in the region, the Seminole leader **Kinache** warned a U.S. general to stay out of Florida:

> "You charge me with killing your people, stealing your cattle and burning your houses; it is I that have cause to complain of the Americans. . . . I shall use force to stop any armed Americans from passing my towns or my lands."

—quoted in *The Seminoles of Florida*

The warning fell on deaf ears. Former representative Calhoun, now secretary of war, authorized action against the Seminoles. In 1818 he sent U.S. troops under the command of General **Andrew Jackson** into Florida. After destroying several Seminole villages, Jackson disobeyed orders and seized the Spanish settlements of St. Marks and Pensacola. He then removed the Spanish governor of Florida from power.
Furious Spanish officials demanded that Jackson be punished, and President Monroe sided initially with Spain. Secretary of State John Quincy Adams defended Jackson and argued that the true cause of the dispute lay in Spain’s failure to keep order in Florida. Adams used this Florida turmoil to put pressure on Spain in ongoing border negotiations. Occupied with problems throughout its Latin American empire, Spain gave in and ceded all of Florida to the United States in the Adams-Onís Treaty of 1819. The treaty also finalized the western border of the Louisiana Purchase along Texas’s Sabine and Red Rivers, west along the Arkansas River, and then north to the 42nd Parallel before turning west to the Pacific Ocean.

**The Monroe Doctrine** In 1809 rebellions began to erupt in Spain’s colonies. By 1824 all of Spain’s colonies on the American mainland had declared independence. Spain’s once vast empire had been reduced to three islands: Cuba, Puerto Rico, and Santo Domingo.

Meanwhile a group of European countries—Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia (later joined by France)—formed the Quadruple Alliance in an effort to suppress movements against monarchies in Europe. Over Britain’s objection, the alliance raised the possibility of helping Spain regain control of its overseas colonies in 1822.

Great Britain and the United States were not pleased. Both nations enjoyed profitable trade with Latin America and would not welcome a return of Spanish rule. In August 1823, British officials suggested that the two nations issue a joint statement supporting the independence of the new Latin American countries. Britain also wished to limit future American expansion in the hemisphere.

Russia’s increasing influence on North America’s Pacific Coast also worried members of President Monroe’s administration. Russia already claimed Alaska, and in 1821 it announced that its empire extended south into the Oregon country between Russian Alaska and the western United States.

Secretary Adams urged Monroe to avoid working with the British when dealing with Spain and Russia. He believed it would be “more dignified to avow our principles explicitly” than to allow the United States to be looked upon as Great Britain’s junior partner. Acting without the British, Monroe declared in 1823 that the American continents were “henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.”

The president’s proclamation, later called the Monroe Doctrine, was a bold act, because the United States might not have been able to back up its new policy if challenged. The Monroe Doctrine marked the beginning of a long-term American policy of preventing other great powers from interfering in Latin American political affairs. At the same time, by keeping the European powers out of the Americas, the Monroe Doctrine upheld Washington’s policy of avoiding entanglements in European power struggles.

**Reading Check** In what ways did U.S. foreign policy become more assertive in the early 1800s?
In the summer of 1817, explosions suddenly began disturbing the peace and quiet of rural upstate New York. What had started was not a war but a great engineering challenge: a canal, 40 feet (12.2 m) wide and 4 feet (1.2 m) deep, to be built from the Hudson River at Albany to Lake Erie at Buffalo. The longest canal in the nation at that time ran almost 28 miles (45 km). The new canal would be a colossal 363 miles (584.1 km) long.

Building the canal was difficult and dangerous. Canal beds collapsed, burying diggers. Blasting accidents killed other workers. In 1819 alone more than 1,000 men were stricken with diseases contracted in the swamps through which they dug. Here, one investor coldly complains that the number of deaths is raising costs:

"In consequence of the sickness that prevailed in this section and its vicinity, we were under the necessity of raising wages from twelve to fourteen and some as high as seventeen dollars per month for common Labourers, and pay Physicians for atten[d]ing to the sick, purchase Coffins and grave clothes, and attend with Hands to bury the Dead."

—quoted in The Artificial River

A Revolution in Transportation

Despite the dangers they faced, the canal workers pressed on and completed the immense project in 1825. The Erie Canal was a striking example of a revolution in transportation that swept through the Northern states in the early 1800s. This revolution led to dramatic social and economic changes.
As early as 1806, the nation took the first steps toward a transportation revolution when Congress funded the building of a major east–west highway, the National Road. In 1811 laborers started cutting the roadbed westward from the Potomac River at Cumberland, Maryland. By 1818 the roadway had reached Wheeling, Virginia (now West Virginia) on the Ohio River. Conestoga wagons drawn by teams of oxen or mules carried migrating pioneers west on this road, while livestock and wagonloads of farm produce traveled the opposite way, toward the markets of the East.

Rather than marking the start of a federal campaign to improve transportation, the National Road turned out to be the only great federally funded transportation project of its time. Jefferson and his successors believed in a strict interpretation of the Constitution and doubted that the federal government had the power to fund roads and other “internal improvements.”

Instead, states, localities, and private businesses took the initiative. Private companies laid down hundreds of miles of toll roads. By 1821, some 4,000 miles (6,400 km) of toll roads had been built, mainly to connect eastern cities, where heavy traffic made the roads extremely profitable. Even so, major roads west had also been built, connecting Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and Buffalo, New York, to eastern markets.
Steamboats and Canals  Rivers offered a far faster, more efficient, and cheaper way to move goods than did roads, which were often little more than wide paths. A barge could hold many wagonloads of grain or coal. Loaded boats and barges, however, could usually travel only downstream, as moving against the current with heavy cargoes proved difficult.

The steamboat changed all that. In 1807 Robert Fulton and Robert R. Livingston stunned the nation when the Clermont chugged 150 miles up the Hudson River from New York City to Albany in just 32 hours. The steamboat made river travel more reliable and upstream travel easier. By 1850 over 700 steamboats, also called riverboats, traveled along the nation’s waterways.

The growth of river travel—and the success of the Erie Canal—spurred a wave of canal building throughout the country. By 1840 more than 3,300 miles of canals snaked through the nation, increasing trade and stimulating new economic growth.

The “Iron Horse”  Another mode of transportation—railroads—also appeared in the early 1800s. A wealthy, self-educated industrialist named Peter Cooper built an American engine based on the ones developed in Great Britain. In 1830 Cooper’s tiny but powerful locomotive Tom Thumb pulled the nation’s first load of train passengers. Forty adventuresome men and women travelled at the then incredible speed of 10 miles per hour along 13 miles of track between Baltimore and Ellicott City, Maryland. The railroad era had dawned.

The new machines did not win universal favor. Some said they were not only dangerous and uncomfortable but dirty and ugly as well. “It is the Devil’s own invention,” declared one critic, “compounded of fire, smoke, soot, and dirt, spreading its infernal poison throughout the fair countryside.”

Others responded to the train’s awesome presence. “When I hear the iron horse make the hills echo with his snort like thunder, shaking the earth with his feet, and breathing fire and smoke from his nostrils,” wrote the poet Henry David Thoreau, “it seems as if the earth had got a race now worthy to inhabit it.”

The advantages of train travel soon became apparent to almost everyone. Trains traveled much faster than stagecoaches or wagons, and unlike steamboats, they could go nearly anywhere track was laid. Perhaps more than any other kind of transportation, trains helped settle the West and expand trade between the nation’s different regions.

As railroads expanded, they created national markets for many goods by making transportation cheaper. They increased the demand for iron and coal even more directly. Between 1830 and 1861, the United States built more than 30,000 miles of railroads—so it needed 60,000 miles of iron rail. Since mills used coal to make iron, the need for rails added to the increasing demand for coal. Coal production shot up from 50,000 tons in 1820 to 14 million tons in 1860.

Reading Check  Evaluating  What were two advantages of trains over other kinds of transportation in the 1800s?

A New System of Production  Along with dramatic changes in transportation, a revolution occurred in business and industry. The Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain in the middle 1700s, consisted of several basic developments. Manufacturing shifted from hand tools to large, complex machines. Skilled artisans gave way to workers, organized by specific tasks, and often unskilled. Factories, some housing hundreds of machines and workers, replaced home-based workshops. Manufacturers sold their wares nationwide or abroad instead of just locally.

Peter Cooper’s Tom Thumb races a horse.
Industry developed quickly in the United States in the early 1800s for several reasons. Perhaps the most important factor was the American system of free enterprise based on private property rights. Individuals could acquire capital and make their own choices about how to use it, without strict government controls.

The free enterprise system also encouraged industrialization because companies in competition with each other were always willing to experiment with new technologies to make goods cheaper and to transport them faster. The era’s low taxes also meant that entrepreneurs had more money to invest.

Beginning in the 1830s, many states encouraged industrialization by passing general incorporation laws. These laws allowed companies to become corporations and to raise money by issuing stock without having to obtain a charter from the state legislature. These laws also limited liability. If a person bought stock in a company and it went bankrupt, the person risked losing his or her investment but was not responsible for the company’s debts. By limiting liability, the new state laws encouraged people to invest money, spurring economic growth.

Industrialization began in the Northeast, where many swift-flowing streams provided factories with waterpower. The region was also home to many entrepreneurs and merchants who were willing to invest in British industrial techniques.

At first, importing British technology was not easy. Britain had passed strict laws with harsh penalties for anyone passing on its industrial know-how to foreigners. A young English textile worker named Samuel Slater was willing to take the risk. In 1789 he moved to Rhode Island, where he reconstructed the British water frame from memory. The frame stretched and spun raw cotton fiber into cotton thread.


By 1840, scores of textile factories had been built in the Northeast. Industrialists soon applied factory techniques to the production of lumber, shoes, leather, wagons, and other products.

Technological Advances A wave of inventions and technological innovations spurred the nation’s industrial growth. An ingenious young New Englander named Eli Whitney popularized the concept of interchangeable parts, transforming gunmaking from a one-by-one process into a factory process. Using this process, machines turned out large quantities of identical pieces that workers assembled into finished weapons.

Communications improved as well. American inventor Samuel F.B. Morse began work on the telegraph in 1832 and developed the Morse code for sending messages. In 1844 the first long-distance telegraph line connected Washington, D.C., and Baltimore. Morse publicly demonstrated the device, tapping out in code the words “What hath God wrought?” From Baltimore came a return message: “What is the news from Washington?”

Journalists saw the telegraph as a tool for speedy transmission of the news. In 1848 a group of newspapers pooled their resources to collect and share news over the wires. This organization was the Associated
Press. Spurred by journalists and other users of the telegraph, more than 50,000 miles of telegraph wire connected most parts of the country by 1860.

**Reading Check** Summarizing Name two reasons the factory system began in the Northeast.

### The Rise of Large Cities

The industrialization of the United States drew thousands of people from farms and villages to towns in search of factory jobs with higher wages. Many city populations doubled or tripled. In 1820 only one American city boasted more than 100,000 residents. By 1860, eight cities had reached that size.

The growing cities provided opportunities for many different kinds of occupations. One group was printers and publishers, who shared the goal of keeping the public informed. America had always claimed a high literacy rate, and by 1840, over 75 percent of the total population and over 90 percent of the white population could read. The publishing industry arose to satisfy the growing demand for reading materials.

Many of the early writers, editors, and teachers were educated women. Sarah Buell Hale and Lydia Howard Huntley Sigourney were leading editors and literary figures of their day. Unlike women who worked in factories, women in publishing generally came from the young Republic’s growing middle class.

**Reading Check** Describing How did industrialization affect cities?

### Workers Begin to Organize

The industrial boom created a new kind of laborer, the factory worker, whose ranks swelled to 1.3 million by 1860. While early factory mills stressed a paternalistic concern for their workers, the relationship between management and labor became more strained when prices slumped and wages dropped.

Eleven-year-old Lucy Larcom went to work at the Lowell Mills after her father’s death left her family in financial hardship. Although at first she felt excited by the change from farm life, she soon came to dread the drudgery of her work:

>>"I know that sometimes the confinement of the mill became very wearisome to me. In the sweet June weather I would lean far out of the window, and try not to hear the unceasing clash of the sound inside. Looking away to the hills, my whole stifled being would cry out, ‘Oh, that I had wings!’"

—quoted in Ordinary Americans

Hoping to help improve working conditions, some workers began to join together in labor unions. During the late 1820s and early 1830s about 300,000 men and women belonged to some form of union. Most of the organizations were local and focused on a single trade, such as printing or shoemaking. Although these unions worked separately, they began pushing for similar changes, such as higher wages or a shorter 10-hour workday.

During this time, unions had little success. Most employers refused to recognize or bargain with them. Unions also had little power or money to support strikes, or work stoppages, to achieve their goals.

The courts often ruled against early unions, seeing them as unlawful conspiracies that limited free enterprise. “Competition is the life of trade,” a New York court declared in an 1835 case involving a union’s demand that its workers be paid at least one dollar to make a pair of shoes. “If the defendants cannot make

### Advances in Transportation

**Past: The Steamboat**

John Fitch demonstrated the first working steamboat in 1787, but his passenger and freight service from Philadelphia to New Jersey was not profitable. Robert Fulton’s Clermont was more successful. Early steamboats were not very powerful and worked best on calm waters.

**Present: The Hovercraft**

Sir Christopher Cockerell invented the hovercraft, which rides above the water on a cushion of air trapped in a flexible skirt. Not used commercially until the 1950s and 1960s, hovercrafts are often seen today ferrying automobile drivers across rivers and small bodies of water.
The Family Farm

Even though industry and cities expanded in the Northeast during the early 1800s, agriculture remained the country’s leading economic activity. Until late in the century, farming employed more people and produced more wealth than any other kind of work.

Northern farmers produced enough to sell their surplus in eastern cities and towns. The profit was often used to buy machinery and other items. Thus, their labor not only helped feed the population but nourished the region’s economy as well.

In the first half of the century, the North had more than a million farms. Northern farmers and their families worked long, hard days raising livestock and crops for the nation’s growing population. A reporter traveling through Ohio in 1841 described a scene that resembled much of the North at that time:

"As far as the eye can stretch in the distance nothing but corn and wheat fields are to be seen; and on some points in the Scioto Valley as high as a thousand acres of corn may be seen in adjoining fields, belonging to some eight or ten different proprietors."

—from A History of the United States

Farming was even more important in the South, which had few cities and less industry. As parts of the North began concentrating on manufacturing, the South continued to tie its fortunes to agriculture—and to the institution of slavery.

Reading Check Explaining What was life like for a factory worker in the early 1820s?

Reading Check Comparing Why was farming more important in the South than in the North?

SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding
1. Define: interchangeable parts, labor union, strike.
3. List the changes that occurred as a result of the Industrial Revolution.
4. Describe advances that were made in transportation during this period.

Critical Thinking
6. Synthesizing Why did early labor unions have little success?
7. Organizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the effects of some of the technological advances of the early 1800s.

Analyzing Visuals
8. Analyzing Art Study the painting of the steamboat on page 249. Why were steamboats so much more efficient than other shipping methods of the time?

Writing About History
9. Descriptive Writing Imagine you are a teenager working in a textile factory in the early 1800s. Write a letter to your family describing your way of life as a factory worker.
Solomon Northup was born free in Minerva, New York, about 1808. His parents were successful farmers. Northup, his wife, and three children also prospered in agriculture, although he supplemented his income as a violinist. In March 1841, two white men offered Northup a job as a musician in their circus. Northup accepted the job and left for Washington, D.C. Two days after arriving in the nation’s capital, he was drugged, robbed of his money and papers, chained, and sold to slave traders.

For the next 12 years, Northup lived in bondage in the sugarcane and cotton regions of Louisiana. His first slaveholder, William Ford, treated him well, but Northup never stopped dreaming of freedom. In 1852 he was finally able to obtain documentation proving he was a free man.

Reflecting on his experience, Northup cut to the central cruelty of the institution of slavery:

“There may be humane masters, as there certainly are inhumane ones; there may be slaves well-clothed, well-fed, and happy, as there surely are those half-clad, half-starved and miserable; nevertheless, the institution that tolerates such wrong and inhumanity . . . is a cruel, unjust, and barbarous one.”

—quoted in Twelve Years a Slave

The Southern Economy

The South thrived on the production of several major cash crops. In the upper Southern states—Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee—farmers grew tobacco. Rice paddies dominated the coastal regions of South Carolina and Georgia. In Louisiana
and parts of eastern Texas, fields of sugarcane stretched for miles. No crop, however, played a greater role in the South’s fortunes than cotton. This crop was grown in a wide belt stretching from inland South Carolina, west through Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and into eastern Texas.

**TURNING POINT**

**Cotton Becomes King**  During a visit to the South in 1793, Eli Whitney, the inventive young New Englander, noticed that removing cotton seeds by hand from the fluffy bolls was so tedious that it took a worker an entire day to separate a pound of cotton lint. An acquaintance knew of Whitney’s mechanical ingenuity and suggested that he try building a machine to pick out the seeds. In only 10 days Whitney built a simple cotton gin—“gin” being short for engine—that quickly and efficiently combed the seeds out of cotton bolls.

The invention of the cotton gin happened at the same time that textile mills were expanding in Europe. Mills in England and France clamored for all the cotton they could get. In 1792, the year before Whitney invented his cotton gin, the South produced about 6,000 bales of cotton. By 1801, annual production reached 100,000 bales.

Cotton soon dominated the region. By the late 1840s Southerners were producing more than two million bales of cotton annually, and in 1860 production reached almost four million bales. That year, Southern cotton sold for a total of $191 million in European markets—nearly two-thirds of the total export trade of the United States. Southerners began saying, rightly, “Cotton is King.”

“The whole interior of the Southern states was languishing,” said one Southern official in describing the region before the cotton gin. After Whitney’s invention, he added, “Individuals who were depressed with poverty, and sunk with idleness, have suddenly risen to wealth and respectability. Our debts have been paid off, our capitals increased; and our lands are treble [triple] in value.”

While the cotton gin made some Southern planters rich, it also strengthened the institution of slavery. The spread of cotton plantations all over the Deep

### TECHNOLOGY & History

**The Cotton Gin**

While visiting Catherine Greene’s Georgia plantation in 1793, Eli Whitney had an inspiration. He built a device that removed the seeds of the “green-seed” cotton variety that grew in abundance throughout the South. Whitney devised a “gin” (short for engine) that combed the seeds out of the cotton. This simple cotton gin was easy to mass produce, and it increased cotton’s profitability for many Southern farmers.

How did the invention of the cotton gin affect slavery in the South?
South made the demand for slave labor skyrocket. Congress had outlawed the foreign slave trade in 1808, but a high birthrate among enslaved women—encouraged by slaveholders eager to sell new laborers at high prices—kept the enslaved population growing. Between 1820 and 1850, the number of enslaved people in the South rose from about 1.5 million to nearly 4 million.

**Industry Lags** Although the South became prosperous from agriculture, it did not industrialize as quickly as the North. For the most part, the South remained a region of rural villages and plantations, with only three large cities: Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans.

The South did have some industry. Coal, iron, salt, and copper mines, as well as ironworks and textile mills, could be found there. The region still relied heavily on imported goods, however, which worried some people. As one Southerner noted, “For what have we not looked to our Northern friends? From them we get not only our clothes, carriages, saddles, hats, shoes, flour, potatoes, but even our onions and horn buttons.” At this time, in 1860, manufacturing in the South accounted for only 16 percent of the nation’s manufacturing total. Most Southerners were content to rely on agriculture.

**Society in the South**

Social attitudes shaped Southern life and produced a definite class structure for the region. At the top were the **planters**, who owned the region’s larger plantations. The 1850 census showed that in a Southern white population of just over 6 million, a total of 347,725 families were slaveholders. Of this number, around 37,000 were planters, defined as those who held 20 or more enslaved people. Less than 8,000 of these planters held 50 or more people in slavery, and only 11 held 500 or more.

A very small percentage of Southern slaveholders lived a life of gentility in grand mansions. Many planter mansions were little more than cottages with newly built facades. The boom in cotton production allowed some smaller-scale planters to rapidly ascend the social ladder, quickly adopting refined habits as they expanded their property. Although the wealthy planters made up a tiny group—representing less than half of one percent of white Southern families and slightly over two percent of slaveholding families—they dominated the region’s economy as well as its political and legal systems.

Ordinary farmers—who were often called **yeoman farmers**—and their families made up the vast majority of the white population. They may have held four or fewer enslaved persons, though most held none at all, and they worked on the land themselves. Here, writer Mark Twain gives his impressions of a typical small Southern farm in his book *Huckleberry Finn*:

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> “A rail fence around a two-acre yard . . . big double log house for the white folks—hewed logs, with the chinks stopped up with mud or mortar . . . outside of the fence a garden; . . . then the cotton fields begin; and after the fields, the woods.”

—from *Huckleberry Finn*

Near the bottom of the social ladder stood the rural poor. This group, made up mostly of families living on land too barren for successful farming, scratched a meager existence from hunting and fishing, vegetable gardening, and raising a few half-wild hogs and chickens. They made up less than 10 percent of the white population.

At the bottom of society were African Americans, 93 percent of them enslaved. In 1850 nearly 3.6 million African Americans lived in the South—about 37 percent of the total Southern population.

Rounding out Southern society was a small urban class of lawyers, doctors, merchants, and other professionals. Agriculture’s influence was so great that even many of these city dwellers invested in or owned farms. As one observer noted, “No matter how one might begin, as lawyer, physician, clergyman, mechanic, or merchant, he ended, if prosperous, as proprietor of a rice or cotton plantation.”

**Slavery**

The rice and cotton plantations depended on enslaved labor for their existence. The overwhelming majority of enslaved African Americans toiled in the South’s fields. Some, however, worked in the South’s few industrial plants or as skilled workers, such as blacksmiths, carpenters, and coopers. Others became house servants.

Enslaved African Americans working in the fields were organized using two basic labor systems. On farms and small plantations that held few enslaved
people, the task system was used. Under this system workers were given a specific set of jobs to accomplish every day and worked until these were complete. After completing their tasks, the individuals were allowed to spend the remainder of the day on their own. Some enslaved people earned money through their skill as artisans. Others cultivated personal gardens or hunted for extra food.

In the 1800s, as cotton production became more common and slavery more widespread, slaveholders who owned large plantations adopted the gang system of labor. Under this system, enslaved persons were organized into work gangs that labored from sunup to sundown—plowing, planting, cultivating, or picking, depending on the season.

A driver acted as the director of a work gang. Often these individuals were enslaved people themselves, chosen for their loyalty or willingness to cooperate. They supervised the progress of the gangs, ensuring that the workers continued laboring throughout the entire day.

No matter which labor system was used, slavery was a degrading experience. Frederick Douglass, who rose from slavery to become a prominent leader of the anti-slavery movement, recalled how life as an enslaved person affected him:

“My natural elasticity was crushed; my intellect languished; the disposition to read departed; the cheerful spark that lingered about my eye died out; the dark night of slavery closed in upon me, and behold a man transformed to a brute.”

—from Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass

African Americans’ Legal Status In addition to enduring a lifetime of bondage, enslaved persons had few legal rights. State slave codes forbade enslaved men and women from owning property or leaving a slaveholder’s premises without permission. They could not possess firearms or testify in court against a white person. Furthermore, laws banned them from learning to read and write. Society viewed enslaved persons as property and treated them that way.

Free African Americans Although most African Americans of the time lived in slavery, some did not. By 1850 some 225,000 free African Americans resided in the South. Most lived in the towns and cities of the upper Southern states, especially Maryland and Virginia. A few were descended from Africans brought to the United States as indentured
servants in the 1700s before the slave system became universal. Some had earned their freedom fighting in the American Revolution, and still others were the half-white children of slaveholders, who had granted them freedom. There were also some former enslaved persons who had managed to purchase freedom for themselves and their families or whose slaveholders had freed them.

Free African Americans occupied an ambiguous position in Southern society. In cities like Charleston and New Orleans, some were successful enough to become slaveholders themselves. One such African American was Ceece McCarty, who amassed a fortune in New Orleans by retailing imported dry goods. McCarty dispatched a sales force of 32 enslaved Africans around the state to merchandise her highly prized wares. Still, the experiences of freed African Americans differed from state to state. In some states they had to obtain special licenses to preach or to own firearms. Like those in slavery, they always had to remember how dangerous it was to act any way but humble and subservient when dealing with white people.

Another 196,000 free African Americans lived in the North, where slavery had been outlawed, but they were not embraced there either. Samuel Ringgold Ward, who was African American, lamented that racial prejudice was “ever at my elbow”:

“As a servant, it denied me a seat at the table with my white fellow servants . . . along the streets it ever pursued, ever ridiculed, ever abused me. If I sought redress, the very complexion I wore was pointed out as the best reason for my seeking it in vain; if I desired to turn to account a little learning, in the way of earning a living by it, the idea of employing a black clerk was preposterous—too absurd to be seriously entertained. . . .”

—quoted in Long Memory: The Black Experience in America

Still, free African Americans could organize their own churches and voluntary associations, plus earn money from the jobs they held.

An African American who not only kept his wages but also multiplied them many times over was James Forten of Philadelphia. He went to sea in his teens as a powder monkey—the person on board a warship who handled explosives—on a Revolutionary privateer. Privateers were private ships licensed to attack enemy ships. Later, he worked as a maker of sails. By the age of 32, he owned a thriving sail factory employing 40 African American and white workers. He devoted much of his wealth to the cause of abolishing slavery.

Reading Check

Summarizing What were some basic rights denied to enslaved persons?

Coping With Enslavement

African Americans dealt with the horrors of slavery in a variety of ways. From language to music to religion, they developed a culture that provided them with a sense of unity, pride, and mutual support.

African American Culture Songs were important to many enslaved people. Field workers often used songs to pass the long workday and to help them enjoy their scant leisure time in the evening. Some songs were more provocative than most plantation owners knew, using subtle language and secret meanings to lament the singers’ bondage and express a continuing hope for freedom.

Songs also played a key role in one of the most important parts of African American culture: religion. By the early 1800s, large numbers of African Americans were Christians, though their Christianity sometimes incorporated religious traditions from Africa. The religious services enslaved persons held often centered around praying about their particular concern—their dreams of freedom or a better life in the next world.

“the dark night of slavery closed in upon me”

—Frederick Douglass
Resistance and Rebellion  

Many enslaved men and women found ways to oppose the dreadful lifestyle forced on them. Some quietly staged work slowdowns. Others broke tools or set fire to houses and barns. Still others risked beatings or mutilations to run away.

Some enslaved persons turned to more violent means of rebellion. Despite the awful consequences they faced for doing so, some African Americans turned on their slaveholders and killed them.

On occasion, enslaved persons plotted uprisings. In 1822, for example, **Denmark Vesey**, a free African American who operated a woodworking shop in Charleston, South Carolina, was accused of planning an armed revolt to free the region’s slaves. Whether or not Vesey actually planned an uprising is not known. The Charleston authorities claimed to have learned of the plot from an informer, and in 1822 Vesey was tried, convicted, and hanged.

A group of African Americans in Virginia did carry out an armed uprising during the early hours of August 22, 1831. Leading the attack was **Nat Turner**, an enslaved minister who believed God had chosen him to bring his people out of bondage. Turner and his followers killed more than 50 white men, women, and children before state and local troops put down the uprising. A court then tried Turner and sentenced him to hang.

**Reading Check**  
Describing  
What was life like for African Americans in the 1800s?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Synthesizing**  
Why was song an important part of the enslaved African American culture?

6. **Organizing**  
Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the provisions of some slave codes for enslaved African Americans.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slave Codes</th>
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**Analyzing Visuals**

7. **Examining Art**  
Study the painting of the Southern wedding on page 254. What elements of the painting suggest a wealthy lifestyle? Did all Southern planters live in such a lavish manner?

**Writing About History**

8. **Expository Writing**  
Imagine you are a European visitor to the South in 1830. Write a letter home explaining your impressions of life in this part of the nation.
As May approached in 1820, Thomas Jefferson should have been enjoying his retirement from public life. Instead, a bitter political controversy had him feeling deeply troubled. After more than a year of debate, Congress finally had crafted a plan to allow the Missouri Territory to enter the Union as a slave state while Maine came in as a free state. This arrangement preserved the delicate balance in the number of free and slave states. The arrangement, known as the Missouri Compromise, highlighted the growing dispute over slavery’s expansion into the Western territories—a dispute that Jefferson feared could tear the nation apart:

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

—quoted in The Annals of America

The Missouri Compromise

The Monroe administration’s Era of Good Feelings could not ward off the nation’s growing sectional disputes and the passionately differing opinions over slavery. Tensions rose to the boiling point in 1819, when Missouri’s application for statehood stirred up the country’s most divisive issue: whether slavery should expand westward.

In 1819 the Union consisted of 11 free and 11 slave states. While the House of Representatives already had a majority of Northerners, admitting any new state, either slave or free, would upset the balance in the Senate and touch off a bitter struggle over political power.
Missouri’s territorial government requested admission into the Union as a slave state in 1819. Acting for slavery’s opponents, Congressman James Tallmadge, Jr., of New York proposed a resolution that prohibited slaveholders from bringing new slaves into Missouri. The resolution also called for all enslaved children currently living in Missouri to be freed at age 25. The House accepted the proposal, but the Senate rejected it. Most Senators and members of the House of Representatives from the South voted against the ban, while most from the North voted in favor of it.

Finally, a solution emerged when Maine, which for decades had been part of Massachusetts, requested admission to the Union as a separate state. The Senate decided to combine Maine’s request with Missouri’s, and it voted to admit Maine as a free state and Missouri as a slave state. This solution preserved the balance in the Senate. Senator Jesse Thomas of Illinois then proposed an amendment that would prohibit slavery in the Louisiana Purchase territory north of Missouri’s southern border. This would allow slavery to expand into

Arkansas territory south of Missouri, but it would keep it out of the rest of the Louisiana Purchase.

Since many people at the time thought the Great Plains area north of Missouri was not suitable for farming, it appeared that this Missouri Compromise benefited the South. By a very close vote, carefully managed by Henry Clay of Kentucky, the House of Representatives voted to accept the Compromise. The Compromise held out the hope that pairing the admission of free and slave states together would quiet the dispute over the expansion of slavery.

Once the issue was settled, however, a new problem developed. Pro-slavery members of the Missouri constitutional convention added a clause to the proposed state constitution prohibiting free African Americans from entering the state. This new controversy threatened final approval of Missouri’s admission to the Union. Clay again engineered a solution by getting the Missouri legislature to state that they would not honor the spirit of the clause’s wording.

Despite Clay’s efforts, many leaders feared that the Missouri Compromise was only a temporary solution. “I take it for granted,” John Quincy Adams wrote, “that the present question is a mere pre-amble—a title page to a great tragic volume.”

### The Election of 1824

Politics reflected the sectional tensions of the day. Although the Republicans had supporters throughout the nation, sectional differences over beliefs and policies were growing obvious. The presidential campaign of 1824 showed how splintered the party was becoming.

### GOVERNMENT

A Battle of Favorite Sons Four candidates ran for president in 1824. All belonged to the Republican Party and all were “favorite sons,” men who enjoyed...
the support of leaders from their own state and region. Two candidates, Henry Clay of Kentucky and Andrew Jackson of Tennessee, represented the West. John Quincy Adams, a Massachusetts man then serving as President Monroe’s secretary of state, was New England’s favorite son. William Crawford of Georgia represented the South.

Crawford ran on the original principles of Jefferson’s party—states’ rights and strict interpretation of the Constitution. Clay favored the national bank, the protective tariff, and nationwide internal improvements—collectively known as the American System. Adams was also in favor of internal improvements, but he was less enthusiastic about tariffs. Jackson steered clear of specific issues. His campaign focused on his personal heroism at the Battle of New Orleans.

On Election Day Jackson won the most popular votes, but no candidate won a majority in the Electoral College. Following constitutional procedure, the election went to the House of Representatives, whose members would select the president from the three candidates who received the highest number of electoral votes. Clay, who had placed fourth, was eliminated.

As the Speaker of the House, Henry Clay enjoyed tremendous influence there, and few doubted which candidate he would support. Clay and Jackson had been rivals for political leadership of the West and disliked each other intensely. Clay once described Jackson as “ignorant, passionate, hypocritical, [and] corrupt.” Jackson referred to Clay as the “meanest scoundrel that ever disgraced the image of his god.”

On a snowy February 9, 1825, the representatives met to make their choice. As expected, Clay threw his political weight behind Adams and helped him win the House election easily. Adams received 13 votes, while Jackson won 7 and Crawford won 4.

The Corrupt Bargain The hard feelings of the election campaign only intensified with Adams’s victory. Andrew Jackson Donelson, Jackson’s nephew, joined others in accusing Clay of arranging votes for Adams in return for a cabinet post:

“It is rumored and believed by every body here that Mr. Clay will be made Secretary of State. . . . What a farce! That Mr. Adams should swear to support the constitution of the [United] States which he has purchased from Representatives who betrayed the constitution, and which he must distribute among them as rewards for the iniquity.”

—quoted in Henry Clay

Upon taking office, the new president did indeed name Clay as his secretary of state, and Jackson’s supporters cried foul. They accused Adams and Clay of striking a “corrupt bargain.”

Adams and Clay denied any wrongdoing, and no evidence of a deal ever emerged. Still, Jackson’s outraged supporters came together in opposition to the Adams presidency. They took the name Democratic-Republicans to stress their differences with the party of John Quincy Adams—now called the National Republicans. Eventually the pro-Jackson party shortened the name to Democrats.

Reading Check Summarizing How did John Quincy Adams win the election of 1824?

The Presidency of John Quincy Adams

John Quincy Adams, son of the second president, had earned a reputation as the greatest secretary of state in the nation’s brief history. A highly intelligent and hardworking man, he intended to leave his mark on the presidency.

In his first message to Congress, Adams announced an ambitious program of nationalist legislation that exceeded even Clay’s American System. Alongside standard internal improvements, Adams
urged that federal revenue also be used to build a national university and astronomical observatories, and to fund scientific research. To bar the federal government from these activities, he wrote, “would be to hide in the earth the talent committed to our change.”

Adams’s proposals, however, struck many legislators as a renewal of his father’s Federalist principles. His opponents received the president’s initiatives with scorn. It would be extravagant, they believed, to spend the taxpayers’ money on such projects.

In the end, Congress granted the president funds for improving rivers and harbors and for extending the National Road westward, but this was far less than he had wanted. The repeated rebuffs he suffered in Congress set the stage for Adams’s defeat in his 1828 reelection attempt.

**The Election of 1828**

The presidential election of 1828 pitted John Quincy Adams against Andrew Jackson. The two men waged a bitter campaign, as Jackson fought to achieve a victory that his supporters believed had been unjustly denied him four years earlier.

The campaign descended into mudslinging, in which candidates criticized each other’s personalities and morals. Adams called his opponent “incompetent both by his ignorance and by the fury of his passions.” Jackson portrayed himself as the candidate of the common man and attacked Adams as an out-of-touch aristocrat. Jackson’s supporters also called Adams a gambler for purchasing a billiard table and chess set for the White House. Jackson also revived the alleged “corrupt bargain” between Adams and Clay as evidence that the president was untrustworthy.

When the results came in, Jackson had 56 percent of the popular vote and 178 of the 261 electoral votes, a clear victory. Many of the voters who supported Jackson were from the West and South, rural and small-town men who saw Jackson as the candidate most likely to represent their interests. The man whose fiery personality had earned him the nickname “Old Hickory,” after a tough, hard wood found on the frontier, finally had reached the White House.

**Identifying** What did John Quincy Adams hope to accomplish during his presidency?

**Reading Check**

**Stumping for Old Hickory** This campaign poster for the 1828 presidential election reminds voters of Jackson’s heroic military reputation and of the 1824 election. **What elements in the poster refer to the “corrupt bargain”?**

**Summarizing** How did Adams and Jackson portray each other during the 1828 campaign?

**SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT**

**Checking for Understanding**

3. Compare the different campaign strategies of the candidates in the 1824 election.

**Reviewing Themes**

4. Groups and Institutions Why was the Democratic-Republican Party formed after the election of 1824?

**Critical Thinking**

5. Synthesizing Why do you think the candidates in the 1828 election focused on mudslinging instead of issues?

6. Organizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the terms of the Missouri Compromise.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missouri Compromise</th>
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**Analyzing Visuals**

7. Examining Photographs Study the early daguerreotype of John Quincy Adams on page 259. What characteristics of Adams shown in the image give clues as to the kind of person he was?

**Writing About History**

8. Expository Writing Imagine you are a voter in the election of 1828. Write a letter to a family member explaining which presidential candidate you will vote for and why.
Why Learn This Skill?

Line graphs are a way of showing numbers visually, making them easier to read and understand. Learning to read line graphs will help you compare changes over time or differences between places, groups of people, or related events.

Learning the Skill

Line graphs are often used to show changes in number or quantity over time. They show information in two dimensions. The horizontal axis (or x-axis) is the line along the bottom of the graph. If the graph shows information over time, this axis usually shows the time period. The vertical axis (or y-axis) is the line that runs up the side of the graph. This axis usually displays the quantity, or amount, of whatever is being measured.

A double-line graph shows more than one line, recording related quantities. For instance, you and a friend might both record your running speeds for races over a period of time on one graph, using a line of a different color for each of you. Before trying to understand any graph, be sure to read the labels on both axes and the key for each line.

Practicing the Skill

Study the line graph and answer the following questions.

Reading a Line Graph

Urban and Rural Populations in the United States, 1810–1870

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Rural Population</th>
<th>Urban Population</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1810</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1820</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>1830</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Historical Statistics of the United States: Colonial Times to 1970

1. What kind of information does the graph compare?
2. What are the time intervals on the horizontal axis?
3. What quantity is measured on the vertical axis?
4. What trend does the graph seem to show?
5. What two phenomena from the chapter explain the changes in the population?

Skills Assessment

Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 263 and the Chapter 7 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.

Applying the Skill

Reading a Line Graph

Create a line graph comparing the urban and rural population figures from 1910 to 1970. Compare your graph with the one on this page and write a summary of the differences you notice between the two.

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook CD-ROM, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Reviewing Key Terms
On a sheet of paper, use each of these terms in a sentence.

1. revenue tariff
2. protective tariff
3. interchangeable parts
4. labor union
5. strike
6. cotton gin
7. planter
8. yeoman farmer
9. slave code
10. “favorite son”
11. “corrupt bargain”
12. mudslinging

Reviewing Key Facts

14. Why were the years following the War of 1812 known as the Era of Good Feelings?

15. What were three actions that strengthened the federal government after the War of 1812?

16. What prompted the American declaration known as the Monroe Doctrine?

17. Why was agriculture, and not industry, the leading economic activity in the United States in the early 1800s?

18. How did cotton become the dominant crop in the South?

19. Why did the Republican Party split into the Democratic-Republican and the National Republican Parties?

Critical Thinking
20. Analyzing Themes: Continuity and Change What distinctive elements characterized enslaved African American culture?

21. Organizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the effects of the Industrial Revolution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of the Industrial Revolution</th>
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22. Interpreting Primary Sources In McCulloch v. Maryland, the Supreme Court decided whether Congress had the power to set up the Bank of the United States. The following excerpt is from Chief Justice John Marshall’s ruling. Read the excerpt and answer the questions that follow.

“...The government of the United States . . . though limited in its powers, is supreme; . . . Among the enumerated powers, we do not find establishing a bank or creating a corporation. But there is no phrase [which] requires that everything granted shall be expressly and minutely described . . . Among the enumerated powers of government . . . we find the great powers to lay and collect taxes . . . to declare war and conduct a war; . . . A government entrusted with such ample powers . . . must also be entrusted with ample means for their execution. . . . All means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited, but consist with the letter and spirit of the constitution, are constitutional. . . .”

—from McCulloch v. Maryland, 1819

a. What was Marshall’s opinion about the power of the government of the United States?

b. Why do you think Marshall’s ruling helped strengthen nationalist feelings in the United States?
Geography and History

23. The map on the right shows the United States in 1824. Study the map and answer the questions below.
   a. Interpreting Maps  What international boundary was in dispute in 1824?
   b. Applying Geography Skills  What geographic features determined the southern boundary of the Louisiana Purchase?

Practicing Skills

24. Reading a Line Graph  The line graph below plots the number of patents issued between 1810 and 1840. Use the graph to answer the questions below.
   a. When did the number of patents issued drop sharply?
   b. During what time span did the number of patents issued increase the most?

Writing Activity

25. Reporting on Primary Sources  Search the Internet for a primary source (speech, letter, song, political cartoon, etc.) that describes heightened feelings of nationalism after the War of 1812. Write a brief explanation of the primary source and present your report to the class.

Chapter Activity

26. Research Project  Research one of the technological advances made during the early 1800s. Write a description of the technological advance you have researched and create a diagram showing how it works. Place the description and the diagram in your portfolio.