

**SSUSH5 Investigate specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution.**

Between the end of the American Revolution and the beginning of the Constitutional Convention, the survival of the United States was in question. The instability was due to the weakness of the new federal government that was created under the Articles of Confederation. Most governmental power under the arrangement was purposely given to the states. Although the Articles of Confederation did successfully administer the new territories of the United States, the glaring weakness of the new federal government framework was prominent in the Shays' Rebellion crisis. The new US Constitution created at the Constitutional Convention was based on compromise between those who favored an expanded role for the federal government and those who favored more limitations. Through the new Constitution's challenging ratification process, compromise was again the path forward as the Bill of Rights was to be added to the document as a protection for the individual rights many Anti-Federalists feared would be lost in the new, stronger federal government.

**a. Examine the strengths of the Articles of Confederation, including but not limited to the Land Ordinance of 1785, Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and their influence on westward migration, slavery, public education, and the addition of new states.**

The Articles of Confederation were successful in managing the new territories acquired through the 1783 Treaty of Paris that concluded the American Revolution. The region west of the Appalachians had been settled by French and English traders and was a strategic objective of both the French and Indian War and the American Revolution. The new United States came to possess the land and it was successfully administered under the Articles of Confederation system of government.

Several states claimed portions of the region and reluctantly gave up claim to the lands in exchange for repudiation of their state Revolutionary War debts. Congress hoped to sell the public lands in the region to settle outstanding debt and to finance the operation of the new government. To rectify competing land claims, the Confederation Congress passed the Land Ordinance of 1785.

The Land Ordinance of 1785 was significant in providing a mechanism for division of the land into six-square-mile rectangular townships. The townships were then subdivided into 36 sections, each measuring one-square-mile or 640 acres. The sections were sold at auction for \$1 per acre, with a minimum sale being one section in size. Because the minimum sale price was \$640, the primary buyers were land speculators who would then re-sell the land to settlers headed west for opportunity. An important stipulation of the law was that the revenue from the sale of the sixteenth section of land in each township would be reserved for the establishment of public schools. The sale of land through the system established in the Land Ordinance of 1785 was successful in generating revenue for the new United States government that was facing debt from fighting the Revolutionary War.

## Unit 3 Early Republic

The land north and west of the Ohio River became the Northwest Territory. It was the first territory created outside the original thirteen states. In 1787 Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance. The law established the method by which new territories would be admitted to the United States. The ordinance banned slavery in the Northwest Territory effectively making the Ohio River the boundary between free and slave regions. The region was a lawless region prior to the passage of the 1787 Northwest Ordinance. To establish order in the territory just beginning to be settled, the federal Congress would appoint a governor, a secretary, and three judges to preside over the region.

Becoming a full and equal state to the original thirteen was a progression of steps based on population increases. Once a territory reached a population of 5,000 free male adults, then it could elect its own local assembly. The next step toward joining the United States was to apply for full statehood once the population of the territory reached 60,000 free inhabitants. Ohio was the first state to enter the union under this system.

It is important that US territories had a path to statehood rather than being permanently bound to a "colonial" arrangement with the original thirteen states. There was no special status designated for the original states under the arrangement of the Northwest Ordinance. This law demonstrated to Americans that their new national government intended to encourage westward expansion. The laws of the nation would follow its citizens across the continent. New states would be admitted to the nation as equal members of the Union. The policies of the Land Ordinance of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 not only fostered westward expansion but also took steps to legislate for public education and to limit slavery in the newly added territories.

### **b. Evaluate how weaknesses in the Articles of Confederation and Daniel Shays' Rebellion led to a call for a stronger central government.**

The Articles of Confederation were written during the American Revolution and adopted by Congress in 1777. The new government structure reflected Americans' fear of federal power. The Articles gave individual states more power than the national government, which resulted in conflicts among the states that came to threaten the existence of the nation. The political weakness of the United States and its potential for collapse left it vulnerable to attack by foreign countries and convinced many influential Americans to support a Constitutional Convention. Shays' Rebellion in 1787 was an event that lay bare the shortcomings of the Articles of Confederation. In particular, the absence of an executive branch, the inability of the federal government to mandate taxes, unregulated commerce, and the lack of a national currency were structural weaknesses that crippled the new nation.

The federal government that was established by the Articles of Confederation consisted of simply a Congress. Each state had one vote, regardless of the number of delegates representing each state. Nine of the thirteen state votes were required for laws to be passed by the Congress. However, there was no executive or judicial branch to enforce Congress's laws. This was a serious flaw in the structure of the government. In an effort to avoid any possibility of

## Unit 3 Early Republic

monarchical rule, the federal system of the Articles of Confederation lacked the ability to compel states to act in a way that would have made the loose confederation of states more of a productive union.

Taxation had been a contentious issue between England and the colonies. Colonists were accustomed to paying taxes levied by their own local assemblies. The British taxes implemented after the French and Indian War were met with stiff resistance due to a lack of colonial representation in Parliament. Under the Articles of Confederation, citizens paid taxes to their own states. The most the confederation government could do to raise revenue was to ask the states for donations. If a state did not comply or did not meet the requested amount, the Articles of Confederation did not empower any federal body to make the states honor the request. Not only was the United States government heavily in debt from the Revolutionary War, but so too were the individual states. As a result, very little money was coming into the federal government. The federal Congress's lack of taxation power was a critical weakness of the Articles of Confederation that left the new nation dangerously close to failure at the outset.

The states were operating independently of one another and often in direct competition with one another during the early years after the Revolutionary War. The federal government under the Articles of Confederation did not have the power to regulate commerce or establish a national currency. Both of these issues hampered the ability of the new United States to prosper economically since the states were each acting independently.

All of these weaknesses negatively impacted the nation. Changes to correct the structural flaws, however, would not be easy to achieve. Unanimous agreement by the thirteen states was required to amend the Articles of Confederation. With the states acting more as individual entities rather than a true confederation, it was unlikely to get all thirteen to agree on any policy change. After a few years of trying to make the system work, it was becoming increasingly apparent that changes would have to be made if the United States was to last. Political leaders became motivated to finally seek change in the governing structure with the outbreak of Shays' Rebellion, which they felt set a dangerous precedent for mob rule.

Daniel Shays led more than a thousand farmers who, like him, were burdened with personal debts caused by the state's economic problems stemming from Revolutionary War debt. Shays and his men tried to seize a federal arsenal in Massachusetts but were turned back by the Massachusetts Militia. This was just one of many protests that debt-ridden farmers made during this period. Without the power to tax, America's weak government could not repair the national economy.

The weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation, as emphasized by the events surrounding Shays' Rebellion, led prominent figures such as George Washington, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton and others to call for a convention in Philadelphia to address the problem. In May 1787, George Washington was elected president of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, where he and the Founding Fathers created a federalist form of government for the United States. The earlier fears of concentrating too much power into the hands of one individual or central government had given way to fears of the United States' growing

## Unit 3 Early Republic

vulnerability. Change was indeed needed. The question was how to get thirteen independent states, with varying demographics and goals, to agree to one framework that shifted more power to the federal government.

### **c. Explain the key features of the Constitution, including the Great Compromise, limited government, and the Three-Fifths Compromise.**

The new United States Constitution was written by state delegates who met in Philadelphia from May through September of 1787 at the Constitutional Convention. The original purpose of the convention was to revise the flawed Articles of Confederation but soon the decision was made to create a new government structure. The proceedings were kept private among the delegates until the details had been worked out and a final draft was ready to be sent to the states for ratification. The group of fifty-five delegates chose George Washington to preside over the convention. Throughout the summer of 1787, the delegates debated contending plans for the new government framework that pitted groups of states against one another. The compromises that were negotiated during the Constitutional Convention became the basis for the United States Constitution.

Despite the fact that most delegates to the Constitutional Convention believed the government designed by the Articles of Confederation had to be replaced, many still feared a strong central government. To reassure people that the new government would not be too powerful, the framers of the Constitution created a limited government with divided powers. The framers were greatly influenced by the ideas of the framed French political thinker Charles de Montesquieu. Powers were divided in two ways within the new government. First, power was divided between national and state governments. Second, power in the federal government was shared between three branches. The power of the executive branch was weakened because it was shared with the legislative and judicial branches. For example, the legislature can override a presidential veto of a bill, and the Supreme Court can rule that a bill signed by the president is unconstitutional. This safeguard against an abuse of power gives each branch of government a way to check and balance the power of the other branches. Even though the delegates uniformly believed in the limited government approach to creating the new government structure, there were significant issues that divided them when deliberating the details.

One great issue facing the delegates to the Constitutional Convention was how to apportion representation in the new government's legislature. Under the Articles of Confederation, each state had one vote, which put each state on equal footing regardless of population. States with large populations wanted more influence in the government and supported James Madison's proposal known as the Virginia Plan. Under Madison's proposed government plan, representation in the nation's legislature would be proportional to each state's population. Thus, states like Virginia would have greater representation and voting power in the federal legislature. Virginia's population in 1797 was the largest of any state with approximately 692,000. The next closest state in terms of population was Pennsylvania with approximately 494,000. Virginia, and other large states, believed it was appropriate for them to have a

## Unit 3 Early Republic

stronger voice in making policy than a small state like Delaware, with a population of only 59,000 people.

States with smaller populations were reluctant to abandon the equality they had with larger states under the structure of the Articles of Confederation. To counter Madison's Virginia Plan, the small states supported the New Jersey Plan that featured a legislative branch in which all states were equally represented. Essentially, the New Jersey Plan would have maintained the government structure from the Articles of Confederation but expanded the powers Congress would have over the states. The result of the two proposals was a divided Constitutional Convention in which the large states and small states both vied for legislative power.

Compromise was essential for the Constitutional Convention to succeed in satisfying the contending viewpoints on the framework for a new government. Delegates to the Constitutional Convention settled the issue of representation in Congress by approving the Great Compromise. This compromise helped "save" the Constitution by settling the dispute between states with large populations and states with small populations. The compromise called for the creation of a legislature with two chambers, a bicameral legislature. There would be a House of Representatives in one chamber, with representation based on population. The second chamber would be a Senate, with equal representation for all states. Proposed legislation had to achieve a majority vote by both chambers of the legislature before being passed on to the newly created executive branch to be signed into law.

Another divisive and controversial issue that confronted delegates at the Constitutional Convention was slavery. Though slavery existed in all the states, southern states depended on slave labor because their economies were based on producing cash crops. When it became clear that states with large populations might have more representatives in the new national government, states with large slave populations demanded to be allowed to count their slaves as a part of their population. Northern states resisted. Both sides compromised and agreed to the provisions of the Three-Fifths Compromise in the final plan for the new government. The Three-Fifths Compromise allowed states to count three-fifths of their slaves when calculating their entire population. Also, to protect the practice of slavery, states with large numbers of slaves demanded that the compromise include provisions for the new government to allow for the continuation of the slave trade for 20 years and for northern states to return runaway slaves to their owners.

The deliberations and negotiations concerning the key issues of representation, limited government, and slavery lasted through the summer of 1787. Thirty-nine of the fifty-five delegates signed the final draft of the new United States Constitution on September 17, 1787. The proposed Constitution was then sent to each state for ratification at state conventions.

**d. Evaluate the major arguments of the Anti-Federalists and Federalists during the debate on ratification of the Constitution, The Federalist Papers, and the roles of Alexander Hamilton and James Madison.**

## Unit 3 Early Republic

Writing the Constitution was just the first step in creating the new government. Before the Constitution could take effect, the states had to accept, or ratify, the document. As soon as the contents of the Constitution were published, a group of influential people spoke out against it. These people came to be known as the Anti-Federalists. Another group, known as the Federalists, promoted ratification of the document as it had been drafted at the Constitutional Convention. The two groups led the debate over the ratification process, each with sound arguments to support their viewpoints.

The Anti-Federalists believed the national government created by the Constitution would be too powerful and would eliminate the power of the states. This fear harkens back to the threats of despotism the patriots fought to eliminate during the Revolutionary War period. Anti-Federalists also argued that the Constitution did not describe the rights guaranteed to the states and to each citizen. Patrick Henry and George Mason were prominent Anti-Federalists.

The Federalists did not agree that citizens were left vulnerable by the new Constitution. Instead, Federalists argued that listing within the document specific rights guaranteed to citizens would in effect LIMIT the rights of citizens to only those listed. They believed the government created by the Constitution was designed to protect citizens from the concentration and abuse of power at the federal level through the limited government structure they painstakingly created at the Constitutional Convention. Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, the man credited with designing the basic foundation of the new Constitution, were leading Federalists.

Each state held its own ratification convention where these diverging arguments were debated. Nine states were needed to secure the Constitution as the new framework for the United States' government. In some cases the state conventions argued the delegates of the Constitution Convention had overstepped their authority when they did not simply revise the Articles of Confederation. Other conventions quickly ratified the new Constitution with the belief that a stronger federal government would save the nation from succumbing to the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation. Five states, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, and Connecticut, ratified the Constitution very quickly.

Virginia and New York were quite divided over whether to ratify the Constitution and critical debate ensued. To counter the Anti-Federalist efforts, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay wrote a series of 85 articles over many months that supported ratification of the Constitution and explained the intent behind its major provisions. These articles, written by the leading Federalists under the pseudonym "Publius," were known as The Federalist Papers. The essays laid out a series of reasoned arguments designed originally to persuade the people of New York that the structure of the new Constitution actually protected and strengthened the United States. Key to these arguments was the use of the Constitution itself to illustrate how the Anti-Federalists had nothing to fear.

Introducing some excerpts from The Federalist Papers to students as examples of the key arguments that were debated during the ratification process might be helpful for explanation of

## Unit 3 Early Republic

the topic but are not required. In Federalist 6-9, the writers pointed out that the factionalism of the Confederation period had weakened the Union. Federalist 10 and 39 presented the argument for a Republican form of government. Federalist 47-51 used Montesquieu's writings to support the idea of a separation of powers protected through a series of checks and balances that would prevent one branch of government from becoming too powerful.

The continued debate between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists threatened to derail ratification of the Constitution. To overcome the Anti-Federalist argument that the Constitution failed to include a statement of state rights and individual rights, the Federalists promised to support a Bill of Rights upon ratification of the Constitution. James Madison wrote the proposed Bill of Rights that would be added to the Constitution as amendments once the Anti-Federalists supported ratification. The negotiation was successful and the ratification process was completed. The Federalist Papers, the promise of the Bill of Rights, and the efforts of Federalists convinced a majority of states to ratify the Constitution by 1791.

### **e. Explain how objections to the ratification of the Constitution were addressed in the Bill of Rights.**

One of the principle reasons that the American colonists revolted against the British government was the colonists' belief that Parliament had abridged colonial rights as guaranteed to them under the English Bill of Rights. When the Constitution was drafted, the Anti-Federalists felt that a strong central government could also infringe upon civil liberties. The Anti-Federalists would not ratify the new Constitution without the inclusion of a bill to protect citizen rights.

The Federalists indicated that they would support the addition of a Bill of Rights as one of the first orders of business in the new government if the Anti-Federalists would ratify the Constitution in its current form. The deal resolved the impasse and the Constitution was ratified by the required nine states upon New Hampshire's vote on June 21, 1788, thus putting the new United States Constitution into effect. The remaining states soon followed.

As was pledged during the ratification process, James Madison introduced a proposal to the new federal Congress for a Bill of Rights in June 1789. The proposal was approved separately by both houses of Congress by September 1789 and ratified by the states by April 1792. The negotiation between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists had succeeded in getting the Constitution ratified and the Bill of Rights was added as promised.

An examination of the Bill of Rights should emphasize that the first nine rights deal with key individual protections. These rights include the right of free expression, assembly, protections against self-incrimination, and the right to a trial by a civilian jury (as opposed to the hated Admiralty Courts). To protect these individual rights, Madison limited the power of the federal government in the Tenth Amendment by reserving any un-enumerated rights to the states. The rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights remedied the objections Anti-Federalists had to the original Constitution, which they feared did not protect citizens from the potential abuse of power by the federal government.

## Unit 3 Early Republic

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## Unit 3 Early Republic

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## Unit 3 Early Republic

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### **c. Explain the key features of the Constitution, including the Great Compromise, limited government, and the Three-Fifths Compromise.**

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## Unit 3 Early Republic

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## Unit 3 Early Republic

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### **d. Evaluate the major arguments of the Anti-Federalists and Federalists during the debate on ratification of the Constitution, The Federalist Papers, and the roles of Alexander Hamilton and James Madison.**

Writing the Constitution was just the first step in creating the new government. Before the Constitution could take effect, the states had to accept, or ratify, the document. As soon as the contents of the Constitution were published, a group of influential people spoke out against it. These people came to be known as the Anti-Federalists. Another group, known as the Federalists, promoted ratification of the document as it had been drafted at the Constitutional Convention. The two groups led the debate over the ratification process, each with sound arguments to support their viewpoints. The Anti-Federalists believed the national government created by the Constitution would be too powerful and would eliminate the power of the states. This fear harkens back to the threats of despotism the patriots fought to eliminate during the Revolutionary War period. Anti-Federalists also argued that the Constitution did not describe the rights guaranteed to the states and to each citizen. Patrick Henry and George Mason were prominent Anti-Federalists.

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## Unit 3 Early Republic

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Virginia and New York were quite divided over whether to ratify the Constitution and critical debate ensued. To counter the Anti-Federalist efforts, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay wrote a series of 85 articles over many months that supported ratification of the Constitution and explained the intent behind its major provisions. These articles, written by the leading Federalists under the pseudonym "Publius," were known as The Federalist Papers. The essays laid out a series of reasoned arguments designed originally to persuade the people of New York that the structure of the new Constitution actually protected and strengthened the United States. Key to these arguments was the use of the Constitution itself to illustrate how the Anti-Federalists had nothing to fear.

Introducing some excerpts from The Federalist Papers to students as examples of the key arguments that were debated during the ratification process might be helpful for explanation of the topic but are not required. In Federalist 6-9, the writers pointed out that the factionalism of the Confederation period had weakened the Union. Federalist 10 and 39 presented the argument for a Republican form of government. Federalist 47-51 used Montesquieu's writings to support the idea of a separation of powers protected through a series of checks and balances that would prevent one branch of government from becoming too powerful.

The continued debate between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists threatened to derail ratification of the Constitution. To overcome the Anti-Federalist argument that the Constitution failed to include a statement of state rights and individual rights, the Federalists promised to support a Bill of Rights upon ratification of the Constitution. James Madison wrote the proposed Bill of Rights that would be added to the Constitution as amendments once the Anti-Federalists supported ratification. The negotiation was successful and the ratification process was completed. The Federalist Papers, the promise of the Bill of Rights, and the efforts of Federalists convinced a majority of states to ratify the Constitution by 1791.

### **e. Explain how objections to the ratification of the Constitution were addressed in the Bill of Rights.**

One of the principle reasons that the American colonists revolted against the British government was the colonists' belief that Parliament had abridged colonial rights as guaranteed to them under the English Bill of Rights. When the Constitution was drafted, the Anti-Federalists felt that a strong central government could also infringe upon civil liberties. The Anti-Federalists would not ratify the new Constitution without the inclusion of a bill to protect citizen rights.

## Unit 3 Early Republic

The Federalists indicated that they would support the addition of a Bill of Rights as one of the first orders of business in the new government if the Anti-Federalists would ratify the Constitution in its current form. The deal resolved the impasse and the Constitution was ratified by the required nine states upon New Hampshire's vote on June 21, 1788, thus putting the new United States Constitution into effect. The remaining states soon followed.

As was pledged during the ratification process, James Madison introduced a proposal to the new federal Congress for a Bill of Rights in June 1789. The proposal was approved separately by both houses of Congress by September 1789 and ratified by the states by April 1792. The negotiation between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists had succeeded in getting the Constitution ratified and the Bill of Rights was added as promised.

An examination of the Bill of Rights should emphasize that the first nine rights deal with key individual protections. These rights include the right of free expression, assembly, protections against self-incrimination, and the right to a trial by a civilian jury (as opposed to the hated Admiralty Courts). To protect these individual rights, Madison limited the power of the federal government in the Tenth Amendment by reserving any un-enumerated rights to the states. The rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights remedied the objections Anti-Federalists had to the original Constitution, which they feared did not protect citizens from the potential abuse of power by the federal government.

### **SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.**

The first five presidents of the United States faced significant challenges as the new nation dealt with economic strife, international conflict, emerging political factions, territorial expansion, and new divisions of power. Each facet of the new national government and the federal relationship with the states was being tested as the wide array of issues emerged. The leadership of George Washington, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe addressed the various uncharted challenges with resolute action. Their policies and decisions were not always embraced by all Americans or even by one another. Different political ideologies emerged and political parties formed in the United States. Each president faced opposition in the decisions they made but still laid the foundation for the new nation not only to survive but to increasingly emerge as an important force in world affairs.

#### **a. Examine the presidency of Washington, including the precedents he set.**

George Washington, the most influential and popular figure of the time, was elected the first President of the United States. There was no clear understanding of how the office of the president would operate. The Constitution created the office, but there was not really a guideline for conducting the executive branch of the government. George Washington was challenged to chart the course for himself and future presidents. He often remarked, "I walk on untrodden ground." During his two terms in office, George Washington set many precedents for the position that remain accepted procedure. Washington's leadership and understanding of the critical role he played in shaping the future of the United States created the foundation for success in the new republic.

## Unit 3 Early Republic

A precedent is an action that sets a basis for similar situations as they arise in the future. George Washington established important patterns, or precedents, for future presidents to follow. Some of the critical precedents Washington established for the presidency include forming a cabinet, using the modest title of “Mr. President,” establishing the constitutional authority to enforce laws, and retiring after two terms in office.

One key development associated with Washington was the creation of the cabinet system. Washington called on Thomas Jefferson to be his Secretary of State and Alexander Hamilton to be his Secretary of the Treasury. For all of the new president’s experience in leading the military and participating in the various Continental Congresses and Constitutional Convention, Washington understood that others might have more expertise in some critical areas related to government policy. As a result, Washington created the cabinet system to surround himself with experts in various fields in order to better craft critical decisions in the best interest of the country. The appointment of Jefferson to Secretary of State is a prime example of this approach. Thomas Jefferson had spent the majority of the Revolutionary War period in Europe negotiating with world leaders for an alliance to help the Patriot cause. He was fluent in speaking and/or reading six different languages. Washington was a great military leader but did not possess Jefferson’s international experience. Some leaders might have felt threatened by giving positions of authority to other highly acclaimed individuals. Washington, however, understood the importance of making the best possible decisions for the new United States, and viewed the other leaders of his cabinet as an asset and not a threat to his own power.

The cabinet is a precedent that has been maintained even through today’s modern presidencies. Today, the President’s cabinet is traditionally made up of the Vice President and the heads of the fifteen different executive departments. There may be other key advisors to the President who function in a cabinet role. During George Washington’s presidency, the cabinet was made up of four individuals. Washington’s cabinet members did not always agree on the advice being given to the president. Heated arguments erupted between Hamilton and Jefferson in cabinet meetings over the expanding power of the federal government and what side the United States should take in the war that erupted between France and Great Britain. The challenging debates within Washington’s private cabinet meetings helped him to formulate the policy direction for issues critical to the development of the United States. Not all precedents set by Washington were as policy driven as establishing the cabinet.

The proper title for addressing the new President of the United States was not established by the Constitution. Much discussion and debate centered on this seemingly trivial issue. Some believed the office needed to project a proper level of reverence and dignity. Others, including George Washington, believed a more simplistic title reflected the true republican nature of the new government. There was great care taken to distinguish the office of President from resembling anything similar to a monarchy. George Washington emphasized this standard when the precedent was set during his term of office for addressing the chief executive as simply, “Mr. President.” There would be no lofty title of “majesty” or “excellency” or “exalted.”

During the early years of George Washington’s presidency, considerable tension existed between the United States, France, and Great Britain. The two European powers were once again at war and George Washington favored non-intervention to avoid siding with France

### Unit 3 Early Republic

against Great Britain. The United States persuaded Britain to forgive many pre-Revolutionary debts and to drop certain restrictions on US trade to the colonies Britain still held in the Americas. This ushered in an era of booming trade with Britain. Washington's new government encouraged Congress to pass taxes on liquor to help pay the states' debt from the Revolutionary War. The tax hit the small whiskey-makers in western settlements particularly hard because they made liquor using excess crops of grain in order to make it easier to transport. They even used whiskey as a medium of exchange. The Whiskey Rebellion resulted in Western Pennsylvania when armed violence broke out as farmers frightened and attacked federal tax collectors. George Washington led a large militia force into the western counties and put down the rebellion. Washington's response set a critical precedent for presidential authority to enforce the law.

An important precedent George Washington set at the end of his second term as President of the United States was to not seek a third term. There is no provision in the original Constitution limiting a President to two terms in office. It was not until the 22nd Amendment to the Constitution was ratified in 1951 that the President became strictly limited to two terms as chief executive. The precedent Washington set for this voluntary limit was followed by every president until Franklin Roosevelt was elected four times in the 1930s-1940s.

George Washington, as President of the United States, was very popular among all classes of people in all regions of the country. This popularity would have likely given him another victory in the election of 1796 – if he had sought the office. Instead of running for a third term, Washington chose to step away from national politics and retire to his home at Mount Vernon in Virginia. His reasoning included a personal desire for retirement. He also wanted to demonstrate to the world that the transfer of power could be achieved peacefully under the United States' new form of government. George Washington wanted to emphasize that he was not a king and that the republican system was effective. The voluntary two term precedent set by Washington lasted for many years.

There were a few other important precedents and policy perspectives George Washington felt very strongly about that did not survive beyond his administration. Washington was very concerned about emerging political factions in the United States during the early years of the republic. He also strongly opposed tying the United States to other countries through formal alliances. Both of these issues were addressed by Washington in his famous Farewell Address to the nation as he was leaving office. In the speech, Washington warned the nation would be in jeopardy if political parties formed. He warned political parties would put "a small but artful and enterprising minority...in the place of the delegated will of the nation." Concerning the involvement of the United States with other nations, Washington encouraged commercial trade relationships but wanted to maintain "as little political connection as possible." The political parties Washington feared formalized right after his presidency ended and the international entanglements he warned against also emerged over time. These were issues in which Washington unsuccessfully sought to establish precedent.

Political parties had their origin in the differences of opinion between Washington's Secretary of State, Thomas Jefferson, and Secretary of Treasury, Alexander Hamilton. Both felt very differently about the organization of the new nation and how the nation should be run,



## Unit 3 Early Republic

including the constitutionality of a national bank. Hamilton and his political supporters later became known as Federalists. They wanted to expand the power of the government to stabilize the nation and its economy. Jefferson's supporters came to be known as the Democratic-Republicans and believed that the national government must limit its power to only those areas described by the Constitution. Within the foundations of these two groups is the two-party system that began to control United States politics after Washington's presidency. Washington's warning against parties was not heeded and when his retirement was announced, Hamilton, Jefferson, and their supporters attacked one another and competed to replace him.

George Washington's presidency was challenging in that he was creating the office of the chief executive while he governed. The leadership demonstrated by the first President led to his popularity that spanned the nation and crossed the political divisions that were beginning to emerge. George Washington was a leader who understood the importance of the precedents he was setting in order that the new republic endure. The voluntary retirement of George Washington after two terms as President was a sharp contrast to the traditional monarchical rule common in Europe. The establishment of this peaceful transfer of power is an enduring precedent among the many that George Washington set as the United States' first chief executive.

### **b. Explain the presidency of John Adams including the Sedition Act and its influence on the election of 1800.**

George Washington's voluntary retirement from the presidency after serving two terms in office left the nation divided over who should be elected the second President of the United States. The election of 1796 was a bitter contest between John Adams, a Federalist, and Thomas Jefferson, a Democratic-Republican. The political parties George Washington had warned against were driving the election to determine his successor. Adams won by only a 71-68 margin in the Electoral College. George Washington's elections in 1789 and 1792 were both unanimous. Under the provisions of the Constitution as it was originally written, the candidate who received the highest number of votes (over 50%) in the Electoral College would be the President and the candidate with the second highest number of votes would serve as the Vice President. This format quickly presented problems in the 1796 election. The Federalist John Adams became the President and the leading Democratic-Republican, Thomas Jefferson, became the Vice President. The difficulties presented by this arrangement became apparent very quickly. Adams' victory by such a close vote indicates the division that had emerged between the political ideologies of the Federalists and Democratic-Republicans. Adams only served one term in office and he faced significant challenges during his presidency.

Entering the presidency, John Adams had already amassed an impressive record of government experience. He had supported the Patriot cause in Boston leading up to the Revolutionary War. He participated in the Continental Congress and was part of the Committee of Five tasked with drafting the Declaration of Independence. During the Revolutionary War, John Adams traveled Europe to help secure support for the new nation. He also helped to negotiate the Treaty of Paris in 1783 that ended the war and remained in Europe to help secure trade deals for the United States. After the new Constitution was ratified, John Adams was elected to serve as the

### Unit 3 Early Republic

country's first Vice President under George Washington. Given this vast political and international experience, Adams was well-qualified for his new position as President of the United States.

Like Washington, John Adams set precedents that influenced future presidents as well as the course of American history. However, his administration was plagued by conflicts with France and Great Britain that crippled the nation's economy. The financial difficulties and international conflict led Democratic-Republicans, including Vice President Thomas Jefferson, to vehemently criticize John Adams.

To subdue the Democratic-Republican opposition, the Federalist controlled Congress and Federalist President passed the Alien and Sedition Acts. These laws increased citizenship requirements so that Jefferson, and the Democratic-Republicans, could not receive support from the immigrant community. The citizenship requirement for the naturalization process was extended from five to fourteen years. The law also attempted to stop any criticism of the Federalists by limiting free speech and press rights. The "Alien" provision of the policy gave the executive branch the power to deport any immigrant aliens subjectively deemed as dangerous. The "Sedition" policy made it a crime for United States citizens to conspire against legal measures passed by the government, interfere with the business of government officials, or to promote insurrection. Of greater impact was the provision in the law that made it a crime to write, publish, or speak anything of "a false, scandalous and malicious nature" about the government or elected officials. Democratic-Republicans, with their propaganda filled newspapers and pamphlets, were the target of these laws.

Thomas Jefferson and fellow Democratic-Republican James Madison reacted to the Alien and Sedition Acts. They argued in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions that states could refuse to enforce federal laws they opposed. Both states passed laws in their state level legislatures in 1798 condemning the Alien and Sedition Acts as violating constitutional rights. Virginia and Kentucky claimed the Constitution itself was an agreement among states and therefore the states should assess whether the laws passed at the national level had overstepped their boundaries. This was the beginning of the states' rights concept.

The country's growing economic problems, increasing taxes, and unpopular Alien and Sedition Acts hurt John Adams' chances of re-election in 1800. The election was heated and the political rivalry between the Federalists and Democratic-Republicans intensified. The Federalists portrayed the Democratic-Republicans as too sympathetic to the French Revolution and suggested that power in their hands could drag the United States into war. The Democratic-Republicans emphasized the danger Federalists posed to individual liberties as Adams secured more power at the national level. The campaign was divisive and not even the Federalist Party was unified. Hamilton's followers questioned Adams' resolve against France and fractured their own Federalist Party.

The results of the Election of 1800 gave power in the executive and legislative branches to the Democratic-Republican Party. There was, however, a snag in the Electoral College process. Thomas Jefferson tied with his Democratic-Republican partner for the Vice Presidency, Aaron Burr. Each man had 73 Electoral College votes, thus throwing the election to the House of

## Unit 3 Early Republic

Representatives. This was the procedure outlined by the Constitution in the case of an Electoral College tie. The House of Representative was controlled by the Federalist Party at the time of the election and was given the responsibility of deciding the election. Their choice was between two Democratic-Republicans, Thomas Jefferson or Aaron Burr.

Alexander Hamilton was still a very influential Federalist and when the House of Representatives was not able to secure a decisive vote after thirty-five ballots, the party turned to him for direction. Although both choices were Democratic-Republican candidates, Hamilton much preferred Thomas Jefferson over Aaron Burr. Hamilton and Burr were both from New York and had deep distaste for one another. Hamilton believed Jefferson to have more character than Burr and would be more suitable for the office of President based on his personal reputation. The Federalist legislators in the House of Representatives followed Hamilton's lead and voted for Jefferson instead of Burr.

The Election of 1800 was largely based on the differing political ideologies of the two parties. John Adams had lost the support of many Americans with the Alien and Sedition Acts, which the Democratic-Republicans portrayed as a threat to civil liberties. As more people began to support Thomas Jefferson's party and the Federalists began to fracture from within, the Election of 1800 transferred the federal government's power from one party to another. The nation transitioned from the Federalist's more centralized government approach to a more decentralized government under the Democratic-Republicans, with the states having more power. The question, however, was whether Thomas Jefferson would be able to shift power back to the states and the American people once he took office.

John Adams' one term as president was challenging. In addition to following the highly revered George Washington, he was faced with mounting opposition from the Democratic-Republicans. Adams' approach to controlling his rivals through the Alien and Sedition Acts cost him even more support as some Americans feared their individual rights were being restricted. Although not specifically part of this SSUSH6 element, teachers might choose to investigate John Adams' foreign policy further. He faced difficult negotiations with the French over their harassment of US ships. The resulting XYZ Affair is another key event from John Adams' presidency that impacted his political career and the outcome of the Election of 1800.

### **c. Explore Jefferson's expansion of presidential power including the purchase and exploration of the Louisiana Territory.**

Thomas Jefferson led the nation's Democratic-Republican Party and was a vocal critic of the Federalists' push for a stronger central government at the expense of the states. Once Jefferson was elected President in the contentious election of 1800, he was responsible for defending and leading the nation toward prosperity. Although his political philosophy leaned toward a decentralized federal government, he actually expanded the power of the presidency during his two terms in office.

Jefferson was the first President to take the oath of office in the new national capital in Washington, DC. He tried to set a simplistic tone for his presidency by having a more informal inauguration without much fanfare. Jefferson did highlight the need for the country's political

## Unit 3 Early Republic

divisions to heal and for both political parties to move forward. A famous line from Jefferson's first inaugural speech is, "We are all Republicans – we are all Federalists." Jefferson served two terms as President of the United States, during which he dealt with many domestic and foreign policy issues.

An area of conflict between the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans was how to appropriately interpret the Constitution. Democratic-Republicans, like Thomas Jefferson, believed in strict construction of the Constitution. Supporters of strict construction believe that the Constitution must be interpreted by the literal content of the document. Only powers explicitly listed in the Constitution are allowed to be claimed by the federal government. This narrow interpretation of the Constitution restricts the power of the federal government and preserves more power for the states. In contrast, Federalists supported loose construction of the Constitution. This approach to constitutional interpretation claims that there are implied powers granted to the federal government in the Constitution. These powers may not be explicitly listed but are still granted to the federal government through the "elastic clause" in Article 1 of the Constitution. The clause grants Congress the power to pass all laws which shall be "necessary and proper" for carrying out the business of the government. Federalists argued that this vague wording purposely left implied powers to the government in the event of unforeseen circumstances. The Democratic-Republicans opposed such unrestricted power. While Jefferson ideologically was a strong advocate of strict construction, his actions as president, in some ways, practiced loose construction.

The purchase of the Louisiana territory from France is an example of Thomas Jefferson's expansion of presidential power through loose construction- even though he claimed to be a strict constructionist. Louisiana was originally a part of New France. However, the region had been subject to much transition and had changed hands several times. At the time of Jefferson's election, Louisiana was ruled by Spain but was home to many American merchants and farmers. In 1800, the territory changed hands again when the French general, Napoleon Bonaparte, retrieved Louisiana from Spain. New Orleans was the key port in the region and was an important outlet of American farm goods produced in the Ohio River Valley. President Jefferson sent Robert Livingston and James Monroe to France to inquire about the purchase of New Orleans for the United States in order to secure a permanent port on the Mississippi River. Napoleon, seeing an opportunity to finance his ongoing conflicts in Europe and a way to keep the British from expanding in North America, agreed to sell the entire region, not just the port at New Orleans, to the United States for \$15 million. Livingston and Monroe had been prepared to pay up to \$10 million for just New Orleans. The Louisiana Purchase doubled the size of the United States. Through this deal, lands critical for future expansion were acquired and the United States had secured the port at New Orleans to export American goods abroad.

Nowhere in the Constitution is the President given the power to purchase land from another country. Jefferson entered the presidency as a strict constructionist, but his purchase of Louisiana was an action beyond the provisions of the Constitution. The Louisiana Purchase is an example of how Thomas Jefferson expanded the power of the presidency as the Constitution makes no provision for this type of presidential action.

## Unit 3 Early Republic

With the acquisition of approximately 875,000 square miles of new land, gathering information about the region and the opportunities it might offer to Americans was important to Thomas Jefferson. More settlers were moving to the Ohio River Valley in the Northwest Territory by 1800. Jefferson had sensed that the destiny of the nation was tied to the Mississippi River Valley. Jefferson worried that as more people moved to these isolated areas, the challenges of communicating and trading with the east coast could prompt the areas in the west to secede from the United States.

No one was exactly sure what lay between St. Louis and the Pacific Ocean. Jefferson sent Meriwether Lewis and William Clark on a government-funded exploration of Louisiana and the western lands all the way to the Pacific Ocean. On their 16-month journey, Lewis and Clark charted the trails west, mapped rivers and mountain ranges, wrote descriptions and collected samples of unfamiliar animals and plants, and recorded facts and figures about the various American Indian tribes and customs west of the Mississippi River. Most significantly, Lewis and Clark reached the Pacific Ocean and established a legal claim to the Oregon territory along the Columbia River. This claim allowed for the future expansion of the United States to the Pacific Ocean. The Lewis and Clark expedition and subsequent claim to the Oregon territory were not presidential powers listed in the Constitution. This is another example of the strict constructionist President's actions falling in line with the loose constructionist ideology.

Thomas Jefferson's presidency included many more significant events that are not specifically included in this SSUSH6 element but could be good topics for students to investigate. In particular, the *Marbury v. Madison* Supreme Court decision was issued during Jefferson's tenure. This ruling was critical in shifting power from the states to the federal judicial branch regarding the interpretation of laws. Jefferson, who had supported the states' right to nullify a federal law through the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, was opposed to this shift in power. Another topic that could be introduced concerning Jefferson's presidency would be his use of the military to stop the Barbary Pirates in North Africa from extorting payments from US ships as they passed through the Mediterranean Sea.

Jefferson was also faced with mounting international pressure as France and Great Britain were once again at war. American ships and sailors were being harassed by both warring nations as the US sought to boost trade with Europe. The issue of the impressment of US merchant sailors weighed heavily on Jefferson who wanted to avoid war. His implementation of an embargo was an attempt to put economic pressure on the British in order to force them to not interfere with American ships or sailors. Having students investigate Jefferson's foreign policy efforts to deal with the growing conflict with Britain will help them to better understand the causes of the War of 1812 that breaks out during James Madison's administration.

### **d. Explain James Madison's presidency in relation to the War of 1812 and the war's significance in the development of a national identity.**

James Madison had many roles in the development of the United States. He was the principal author of the United States Constitution and contributed essays to the Federalist Papers supporting ratification. Madison also served as Thomas Jefferson's Secretary of State. When Madison was elected, foreign policy and the mounting tension with Great Britain were critical

### Unit 3 Early Republic

issues that required his attention. The challenge he faced was how to avoid another costly war with Great Britain but still increase the United States' economic growth through international trade.

Britain and France had been at war since 1789. Americans were often caught in the middle as British and French naval forces seized American ships and crews. Earlier Presidents were able to steer a middle course and avoid a declared war in Europe by using diplomacy and attempting embargos. However, renewed warfare in 1809 intensified tensions between the British and the United States. On June 12, 1812, President Madison asked for a war declaration from Congress. The War of 1812 officially began.

Madison cited four reasons for the United States' declaration of war against Great Britain. First, Americans objected to restrictions Britain was enforcing to prevent neutral American merchants from trading with the French. Second, Americans were outraged by the British policy of impressment. Under this policy, thousands of American sailors were forced against their will to serve in the British navy after their merchant ships were captured at sea. Third, the British refused to turn over fortifications along the Great Lakes as required by the 1783 Treaty of Paris. Americans suspected the British were using these British-held sites to give support to American Indians as they continued to fight to keep Americans from settling lands west of the Appalachian Mountains. The fourth reason Madison gave for declaring war was that Americans wished to drive the British out of North America altogether by conquering Canada while the British army was fighting the French in Europe.

The war declaration came at a time when the young United States was not financially or militarily prepared to fight. The Democratic-Republicans had scaled back the federal government and its budget, which meant the military had also been reduced during the Jefferson administration. At the time of the war declaration in 1812, the United States army was made up of only about 3,000 soldiers who were not equipped or trained to fight effectively in battle. The American navy was in a little better condition than the army and had some small initial successes at the beginning of the War of 1812.

There were essentially three fronts to the war, which lasted until early 1815. There was a naval conflict in the Atlantic and Chesapeake Bay off the coast of Virginia. Another important theater of war was on the United States' northern border with Canada. The final area of fighting was in the south and ended with the Battle of New Orleans. Although there were very few military successes throughout the course of the war, the United States did not lose any territory to the British and America's army and navy gained respect because they had stood up to Europe's most powerful nation. The outcome of the War of 1812 also ended all hopes American Indians had of driving the Americans out of the Ohio Valley.

There were two notable victories for the American forces. The Battle at Fort McHenry in Baltimore was the subject of Francis Scott Key's poem, the Star Spangled Banner, which was later set to music and became the national anthem. The most decisive American victory in the War of 1812 actually came after the Treaty of Ghent had been signed to end the war. The delayed communication across the Atlantic Ocean meant that no one in North America knew that the war was over. The Treaty of Ghent was signed on December 24, 1814 and the Battle of

## Unit 3 Early Republic

New Orleans began on January 8, 1815. General Andrew Jackson led the American forces. The battle was an overwhelming victory for the United States and made General Jackson a national hero. The British suffered a devastating casualty count of over 2,400 compared to American casualties of approximately 300. The victory in the Battle of New Orleans created the illusion that the United States won the War of 1812 outright even though the conflict actually ended with a negotiated settlement prior to General Jackson's great success on the battlefield.

Some long-term effects of the War of 1812 include a change in the political dynamics of the United States and the emergence of a new national identity. Politically, the war marked the end of the Federalist Party because they had failed to support the call to a popular war. The Federalists were highly concerned that war with Great Britain would be unwise because of the danger it would pose to United States' trade exports. Instead of hurting the economy, the war served to stimulate America's economic growth. Due to the British blockade of America's coast, manufacturing began to quickly develop in the United States. The war also ended any further military hostility between the United States and Great Britain.

A new American identity also developed as a result of the War of 1812. Americans had fought the British twice and were still an independent nation. A belief began to emerge in North America, as well as Europe, that the United States was not an experiment in self-government that would eventually be subsumed by Britain or some other European power. Instead, the United States was a nation that had transitioned from a young and vulnerable situation to one of strength and viability. While the Treaty of Ghent was a negotiated settlement and not truly a victory for the United States, the War of 1812 still boosted the confidence of Americans and set the stage for significant territorial and economic growth. James Madison faced the challenge of war with Britain and emerged with bright prospects for the future.

### **e. Explain James Monroe's presidency in relation to the Monroe Doctrine.**

James Monroe had served as James Madison's Secretary of State and easily won the Presidential Election of 1816. The old Federalist vs Democratic-Republican rivalry had dwindled after the War of 1812. There was great unification among a majority of Americans around the Democratic-Republicans and the nation was prospering economically. Thus, the period is often referred to as the Era of Good Feelings. During James Monroe's presidency, the United States' foreign policy approach was clearly defined and remained the guide for future presidents over the course of many decades.

Following the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Spain's colonial holdings gained their independence. When a possible Franco-Spanish alliance appeared imminent in 1823, President James Monroe warned the nations of Europe not to meddle in the politics of North and South America. When a group of European countries planned to help one another capture colonies in the western hemisphere that had recently gained independence, Monroe announced that the United States would prevent European nations from interfering with independent American countries. This became known as the Monroe Doctrine. Further, Monroe said the United States would remain neutral in wars between European nations and would not interfere in their American colonies. In summary, the Monroe Doctrine defined a key aspect of United States foreign policy.

## Unit 3 Early Republic

### **SSUSH7 – Investigate political, economic, and social developments during the Age of Jackson.**

The War of 1812 marked the beginning of America's transition from an agrarian nation to an industrial power. Stymied by on-going war and blockades between France and her enemies in the first years of the 19th century, Americans began developing their own means of industrial production that were not dependent on European exports. The Age of Jackson is a period of change that encompasses not just the presidency of Andrew Jackson, but also the significant political, economic, and social developments that occurred prior to the Civil War. The prosperity of the time allowed Americans to reflect on social problems and to seek reforms that took hold in some regions more easily than in others.

#### **a. Explain Jacksonian Democracy, including expanding suffrage, the Nullification Crisis and states' rights, and the Indian Removal Act.**

Andrew Jackson emerged from the War of 1812 as a very popular war hero. He soon entered the political arena and questioned the existing framework for democracy. Jackson challenged the Democratic-Republicans and their expanding power. He believed that the party's original mission to restrict the power of the federal government and preserve the rights of states and individuals was being lost in the country's growth. Instead of supporting individuals, states, and agricultural pursuits, Jackson believed the Democratic-Republicans were becoming more centered on industrial progress, expanding federal power, and the upper-class. The aggressive challenge Jackson lodged against the Democratic-Republicans ended the Era of Good Feelings' national unity and returned the country to a two-party-system.

Jackson and his supporters shared a political philosophy later referred to as Jacksonian Democracy. It sought a stronger presidency and executive branch, and a weaker Congress. Out of respect for the common man, it also sought to broaden public participation in government, so it expanded voting rights to include all adult white males, not just landowners. The implementation of universal male suffrage by state legislatures dramatically increased the number of voters in the United States. The number of voters in the presidential election of 1824 was approximately 350,000. With the push by Jackson and his supporters for the expansion of voter eligibility, 2.4 million Americans participated in the 1840 presidential election. Most of the new voters were from the lower classes, which had previously been restricted from voting due to property requirements. These common men tended to support Andrew Jackson and their movement coalesced into a new political party – the Democratic Party. The old Democratic-Republican Party also transitioned at about the same time into the Whig Party. The Whig Party tended to favor industrial expansion and was supported primarily by the upper-classes. The United States was once again divided between two strong political parties with very different perspectives and goals for governing.

Another principle of Jacksonian Democracy was that politicians should be allowed to appoint their followers to government jobs as a way of limiting the power of elite groups. This process became known as the spoils system. Jackson believed that the President had to make sure the executive branch employees were carrying out the business of the government according to the plans of the party in power. Therefore, he believed these government jobs, of necessity, should be held only by people who had demonstrated their loyalty to the party by working in



### Unit 3 Early Republic

campaigns. The new spoils system he implemented sometimes led to corruption and unqualified workers in government positions.

Jacksonian Democracy also favored limiting the power of the federal government in favor of expanded state power. This issue of states' rights was a very divisive issue during the early 19th century. The idea of states' rights revolved around who held the supreme power of government – states or the federal government. The root of the argument became fixed in the Constitutional debates between the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists during the ratification process. The issue re-emerged in 1798 with the passage of the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, which opposed the legality of the Alien and Sedition Acts.

The issue of whether states could nullify federal law nearly split the United States. Congress had passed the Tariffs of 1828 and 1832 to protect American manufacturers from competition with cheap British imported goods. Southerners believed that the tariff was purposely passed to hurt southern plantation owners and would only benefit northern industrialists. In response, South Carolina legislators nullified the tariff. Andrew Jackson's Vice President, John C. Calhoun, argued with the President about the right of states to nullify (cancel) federal laws they opposed. Calhoun, a South Carolinian, resigned from the vice presidency to lead the efforts of the southern states in the crisis. He even went so far as to suggest South Carolina's secession from the Union. Calhoun's loyalty to the interests of the southern region/section of the United States, rather than to the United States as a whole, made clear how divided the nation had become. The Nullification Crisis was resolved when a compromise tariff was passed and Jackson's Congressional supporters authorized the President to use the army and navy to enforce federal law. South Carolina then backed down from its secessionist threats. The Jacksonian Democracy that purported to uphold states' rights placed a limit on the approach when it threatened the Union as a whole.

The Nullification Crisis had a profound effect on North-South relations. Calhoun continued to vocally support the issue of states' rights and began to build a coalition of southerners who would not back down from the threat of force in the future. Slave owners began to wonder what would happen if the Federal government decided to end slavery by law.

Andrew Jackson's democratic philosophy and appeal to the common man did not encompass American Indians. During his military career, Jackson was known for his attacks on the Seminole and Creek tribes in the southern United States and northern Florida during the War of 1812. Once Jackson was elected President, he worked to expand the land available for white settlement. To achieve this, Jackson signed the Indian Removal Act in 1830, which forced thousands of American Indians to leave their homelands and re-settle west of the Mississippi River. The American Indians would be given land in the west in exchange for the lands they held in the east.

While most tribes resented the policy, they reluctantly complied. However, a few tribes, such as the Cherokee Nation in Georgia, refused to give up their land to the state. Georgia had passed a statute that abolished the Cherokee government and laws in the eyes of the state. The state was planning to use this provision to take control of Cherokee lands that had been granted to them by a 1791 treaty with the United States government. The issue in Georgia was highly

## Unit 3 Early Republic

charged since gold had been discovered in the northern part of the state. The Georgia lands where white settlers flocked in the gold rush of the 1830s was mostly held by Cherokee Indians. The Cherokee filed suit to challenge the loss of their land. The case was heard by the United States Supreme Court and Chief Justice John Marshall issued the ruling for *Worcester v. Georgia*. In this 1832 decision, Marshall sided with the Cherokee Indians and said that the state of Georgia had no authority to legislate against the tribe.

After the Supreme Court issued the ruling, President Andrew Jackson openly challenged John Marshall and the decision. Jackson stated, "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it!" In 1835, the Georgia Cherokee reluctantly surrendered their lands. Over the next few years, the Cherokee's were forced to travel to the west over what became known as the Trail of Tears. The forced removal was difficult and thousands of American Indians died along the way due to starvation, disease, and exhaustion.

Jacksonian Democracy is a term that refers to more than the eight years Andrew Jackson served as President. It is more of a general term that encompasses the formation of the Democratic Party, the Jackson Presidency, and also the broad political reforms that extended political participation to the common man over the course of the 1830s through the 1850s. Not all groups were included in the Jacksonian Democracy movement. Although universal male suffrage was achieved through the promotion of Jacksonian Democracy, American Indians, enslaved and free Blacks, and women did not benefit from the egalitarian values the term suggests.

### **b. Explain how the North, South, and West were linked through industrial and economic expansion including Henry Clay and the American System.**

Industrialization expanded in the United States following the War of 1812 and really picked up momentum in the 1830s. The emphasis on building American manufactures was one of the points of conflict between the Whig Party, led by Henry Clay, and the Jacksonian Democrats. Clay and the Whigs believed very strongly that the federal government should be involved in funding progress through infrastructure projects and investing in the development of industry. As industrialization expanded, each region of the United States was impacted. The North, South, and West were increasingly linked together through advances in transportation and the industrial process.

The era known as the Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 18th century when the country began the transformation from purely agrarian to a modern industrial and commercial economy. Soon hand-made and home-made goods were replaced by machine made and factory made goods and power driven machines operated by semi-skilled or unskilled workers. The Industrial Revolution made its way to the United States in 1793 with the completion of Samuel Slater's water powered textile mill in Rhode Island. Real impetus for the change to an industrialized economy came in the first decade of the 19th century as the Napoleonic Wars interfered with America's exports to European markets and its imports from Great Britain. Americans sought ways to improve the national economy.

### Unit 3 Early Republic

As in England, the success of the Industrial Revolution was aided by four factors. First, transportation was expanded. Second, a power source was effectively harnessed (water power and, shortly thereafter, steam power). Third, improvements were made to industrial processes to accelerate production. Lastly, the government helped protect fledgling American manufactures by passing protective tariffs. Henry Clay and the Whigs supported the idea of economic nationalism in which the federal government would support these factors in developing a robust industrial network in the United States. The approach sought to boost the nation's overall economic success rather than each region of the country operating somewhat independently of the others. The nation had abundant resources available in the south, the ability to harness waterpower from swift rivers to operate factories in the north, a growing immigrant population to labor in the factories, and new methods of transportation to connect the farms, factories, and markets across all regions.

Connecting the vast distances between raw material cultivation, factory, and market was a challenge that had to be overcome if industrial and economic expansion was to develop. Private companies had been building the young nation's roads since the 1790s. These roads were often turnpikes, or toll roads, which travelers paid a fee to use. In turn, these fees were used to pay for upkeep of the new roads. When roads could not be built, barges were used on rivers to carry people and goods - as long as the rivers flowed in the same direction that settlers and merchants wanted to travel. Soon a new invention, the steamboat, enabled people to buy tickets from private companies that operated the boats to travel upstream as easily as downstream. In the wilderness, where rivers did not run and roads could not be built, government leaders joined businesspeople to build canals - artificial rivers. These shallow waterways were for barges, not steamboats, and had pathways alongside on which horses or mules pulled the barges.

The most famous canal built in this era was the Erie Canal, which stretches 363 miles and connects the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. It opened in 1825 after eight years of construction. The Erie Canal served as a turnpike for large cargo carrying barges where a road could not be easily built. Transportation costs for goods were lowered because of the canal's more efficient transportation. This not only opened up western New York and regions further west to increased settlement, but also helped unite new regions with the Atlantic states. The effect of the Erie Canal on this country was stunning. Cargo that cost \$100 per ton and took two weeks to haul by road could be moved on the Erie Canal at \$10 per ton in three and a half days.

By the 1830s, an even more rapid mode of transportation was set to further expand commercial production and the economy. Railroads were less costly, time consuming, and labor intensive to build than canals. By 1850, there were 9,000 miles of railroad track crossing the United States and further cut transportation time. The result of transportation advancements was a more interconnected nation that could more efficiently industrialize and grow a national economy.

With improved transportation methods rapidly changing the United States, Henry Clay became more involved in promoting the nation's economic growth. Clay was a Kentucky politician, founder of the Whig Party, and rival of Andrew Jackson. He supported industrialization and believed that the federal government needed to take strong action to ensure the economic

## Unit 3 Early Republic

growth of the United States. The American System was Henry Clay's plan for expanding production in the United States.

There were three components to the American System. First, Clay encouraged the Congress to pass protective tariffs that would make imported goods more expensive than similar products manufactured in new American factories. The second key feature of American System was federal funding for internal improvements to the infrastructure of the United States. Rather than states or private businesses being the primary contractors for roads, canals, or railroads, the federal government would fund the large scale transportation projects that would connect far reaching points instead of being limited to state boundaries. The third component of the American System that Henry Clay believed was the key to the entire process for industrial and economic expansion was the re-establishment of a National Bank to issue a national currency and serve as a depository for federal funds. The first Bank of the United States was established during George Washington's presidency and was the creation of Alexander Hamilton. It had expired in 1811 while the Democratic-Republicans were in power. Whigs, such as Henry Clay, believed it was essential to bring back a National Bank in order to fund internal improvement projects, stabilize the economy, and support new industrial pursuits. The Jacksonian Democrats opposed the idea of a National Bank because they believed it supported the upper class industrialists at the expense of the small farmer.

The North, South, and West were physically linked through the improved transportation developments of the early 19th century. The regions were also linked through the expansion of industrial pursuits. Most factories were located in the North due to the swift flowing rivers that generated power and the large immigrant populations who supplied cheap, unskilled labor in the factories. The American South and West supplied the raw materials needed to manufacture finished products. Goods were transported by road, canal, or rail as a result of the widespread internal improvements to the infrastructure made by the state and the federal governments. Henry Clay was an immensely important figure in the progress of American industrialization and economic nationalism.