Why It Matters
Reform was a key theme of the 1830s and 1840s. Political reform came with the growth of popular democracy. President Jackson’s election symbolized the new power of common citizens. For many Americans, social or religious reform was a goal. Some wanted to end slavery. Others wanted to expand education or women’s rights. Throughout this period, sectional rivalries grew more bitter.

The Impact Today
Social and political ideals born in this period became important American values.
- Many Americans value education highly and believe that anyone, regardless of background, might rise to a high political office if they have a good education.
- The desire to help others inspires many Americans.

The American Vision Video  The Chapter 8 video, “The Spirit of Reform,” chronicles important reform campaigns of this era.
1837
- Queen Victoria ascends to English throne

1838
- Cherokee are driven from Georgia and embark on the Trail of Tears

1840

1841
- Van Buren 1837–1841
- W. Harrison 1841
- Tyler 1841–1845

1842
- China opened by force to foreign trade

1845
- Irish potato famine begins

1848
- Women’s rights convention held at Seneca Falls, New York

The Verdict of the People by George Caleb Bingham, 1855
Margaret Bayard Smith was one of the thousands of Americans who attended the presidential inauguration of Andrew Jackson in 1829. She later wrote to a friend about how much the atmosphere in Washington, D.C., impressed her. “Thousands and thousands of people, without distinction of rank, collected in an immense mass around the Capitol, silent, orderly and tranquil,” she explained.

On that day, President Jackson broke a long tradition by inviting the public to his reception. When Smith later attended the White House gala, however, she quickly formed a different opinion about the crowd she had so admired just hours before. “The majesty of the people had disappeared, and a rabble, a mob, of boys, . . . women, children—[were] scrambling, fighting romping,” she wrote. “The President, after having been literally nearly pressed to death and almost suffocated and torn to pieces by the people in their eagerness to shake hands with Old Hickory, had retreated through the back way. . . . Cut glass and china to the amount of several thousand dollars had been broken in the struggle to get refreshments. . . . Ladies and gentlemen only had been expected at this levee, not the people en masse. But it was the people’s day, and the people’s President, and the people would rule.”

—adapted from First Forty Years of Washington Society

A New Era in Politics

The citizens who had turned the normally dignified inauguration reception into a boisterous affair represented a new class of American voters and a new era in American politics. Beginning in the early 1800s and continuing through the presidency of

 chú thích: Textbook content as printed in the original source.
Andrew Jackson, the nation’s political system became more democratic. During this time, government became more inclusive and ordinary citizens became a greater political force.

**States Expand Voting Rights** In the early 1800s, hundreds of thousands of Americans, mostly white men, gained the right to vote. This was largely because many states lowered or eliminated property ownership as a voting qualification. In addition, as cities and towns grew, the percentage of working people who did not own property increased. These people paid taxes and had an interest in the political affairs of their communities—and they too wanted a greater voice in electing those who represented them.

The expansion of voting rights was very much in evidence in the presidential election of 1828. In 1824 about 355,000 Americans had voted for president. Four years later, more than 1.1 million citizens cast a ballot in the presidential election. The expansion of suffrage continued, and by 1840, more than 2.4 million Americans voted in the presidential election.

**The People’s President** In 1828, it was Andrew Jackson who won the support of these new voters, many of whom resided on the frontiers of the West and South. Many of the citizens who voted for the first time in 1828 saw in Jackson a man they truly could admire. Orphaned at the age of 14, Jackson received little formal education. His achievements were due to his diligence, hard work, and innate intelligence. Jackson was elected Tennessee’s first representative to Congress before the age of 30. In the War of 1812, he won fame leading his troops to victory at the Battle of New Orleans. In 1818, forces under his command invaded and captured Spanish Florida. Jackson’s most obvious trait was his force of will, a characteristic that became evident when someone tried to defy him.

Jackson’s early life was notable for violent personal quarrels. He took part in five duels, once killing his opponent. As Jackson grew older, his temper and actions became milder. By the time he entered the White House, he had become a person of dignity and courtesy.

**The Spoils System** As president, Andrew Jackson returned the common people’s admiration of him. He had a great belief in the capability and intelligence of average Americans. More than earlier presidents, Jackson felt that the majority should rule in a democracy and that ordinary citizens should play a more prominent role in government.

Toward that end, Jackson strongly supported the spoils system, the practice of appointing people to government jobs on the basis of party loyalty and support. Rewarding supporters with government jobs had long been part of American politics, but Jackson was the first president to force out large numbers of government employees in order to appoint his own followers. A shocked John Quincy Adams charged that the president’s actions made government “a perpetual . . . scramble for office.”

Jackson considered the spoils system to be democratic. By getting rid of a permanent office-holding class, he opened up government to more ordinary citizens. He felt that since government jobs were “so plain and simple,” they should be rotated at will and given to supporters.
Why It Matters

The 1828 Election

The election of 1828, which put Andrew Jackson in office, was one of the most significant in American history. It showed the increasing strength of the West, the power of sectionalism, and the impact of a more democratic process.

A More Open Electoral System  In addition to these measures aimed at strengthening democracy, Jackson’s supporters moved to make the political system—specifically, the way in which presidential candidates were chosen—more democratic. At that time, political parties used the caucus system to select presidential candidates. The members of the party who served in Congress, known as the party caucus, would meet to choose the nominee for president. Jackson’s supporters believed that such a method restricted access to office mainly to the elite and well-connected.

The Jacksonians replaced the caucus with the national nominating convention. At nominating conventions, delegates from the states gathered to decide on the party’s presidential nominee. Through the convention, proponents believed, political power would come from the people rather than from elite political institutions. In 1832 the Democrats held a nominating convention to renominate Andrew Jackson for president.

The Nullification Crisis

Jackson had not been in office long before he had to focus on a national crisis. It centered on South Carolina, but it also highlighted the growing rift between the nation’s Northern and Southern regions.

The Debate Over Nullification  Throughout the early 1800s, South Carolina’s economy had been weakening. Many of the state’s residents blamed this situation on the nation’s tariffs. Because it had few industries, South Carolina purchased many of its manufactured goods, such as cooking utensils and tools, from England, but tariffs made them extremely expensive. When Congress levied yet another new tariff in 1828—which critics called the Tariff of Abominations—many South Carolinians threatened to secede, or withdraw, from the Union.

The growing turmoil troubled one politician in particular: John C. Calhoun, the nation’s vice president and a resident of South Carolina. Calhoun felt torn between upholding the country’s policies and helping his fellow South Carolinians. Rather than support secession, Calhoun put forth the idea of nullification.
to defuse the situation. He explained this idea in an anonymously published work, *The South Carolina Exposition and Protest*, which argued that states had the right to declare a federal law null, or not valid. Calhoun theorized that the states had this right since they had created the federal Union.

The issue continued to simmer beneath the surface until January 1830, when Robert Hayne of South Carolina and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts confronted each other on the floor of the Senate. Webster, perhaps the greatest orator of his day, was a ferocious defender of the Union. Hayne was an eloquent champion of the right of states to chart their own course. Hayne asserted that the Union was no more than a voluntary association of states and advocated the motto, “Liberty first and Union afterward.” Webster countered that neither liberty nor the Union could survive without binding federal laws:

> I have not allowed myself, sir, to look beyond the Union, to see what might lie hidden in the dark recess behind. I have not coolly weighed the chances of preserving liberty when the bonds that unite us together shall be broken asunder. I have not accustomed myself to hang over the precipice of disunion, to see whether, with my short sight, I can fathom the depth of the abyss below. . . . Liberty and Union, now and for ever, one and inseparable!™

—quoted in *The Writings and Speeches of Daniel Webster*

**Jackson Defends the Union** Several months after the Webster–Hayne debate, President Jackson let everyone know where he stood on the issue. During a political dinner, Jackson stood to make a toast. Looking directly at John Calhoun, he said, “Our federal Union—it must be preserved.” Calhoun’s hand shook, and he spilled wine as he rose to counter Jackson with, “The Union—next to our liberty, most dear.”

The war of words erupted into a full confrontation in 1832, when Congress passed yet another tariff law. At President Jackson’s request, the new law cut tariffs significantly, but South Carolinians were not satisfied. The state legislature asked South Carolina voters to elect a special state convention. In November 1832, the convention adopted an ordinance of nullification declaring the tariffs of 1828 and 1832 to be unconstitutional.

Jackson considered the nullification an act of treason, and he sent a warship to Charleston. In 1833 Congress passed the *Force Bill*, authorizing the president to use the military to enforce acts of Congress. As tensions rose, Senator Henry Clay pushed through Congress a bill that would lower the nation’s tariffs gradually until 1842. In response, South Carolina repealed its nullification of the tariff law. Both sides claimed victory, and the issue was laid to rest—at least temporarily.

**Reading Check** **Summarizing** What caused the nullification crisis?

**Policies Toward Native Americans**

Andrew Jackson’s commitment to extending democracy did not benefit everyone. His attitude toward Native Americans reflected the views of many westerners at that time. Jackson had fought the Creek and Seminole people in Georgia and Florida, and in his inaugural address he declared his intention to move all Native Americans to the Great Plains.

This idea had been gaining support in the United States since the Louisiana Purchase. John C. Calhoun had formally proposed it in 1823 when he was secretary of war. Many Americans believed that the
Great Plains was a wasteland that would never be settled. They thought that if they moved Native Americans to that region, the nation’s conflict with them would be over. In 1830, Jackson pushed through Congress the Indian Removal Act, which provided money for relocating Native Americans.

Most Native Americans eventually gave in and resettled in the West, but not the Cherokee of Georgia. Over the years, this Native American group had adopted aspects of white culture, and they hired lawyers to sue the state of Georgia. Their case, *Worcester v. Georgia*, eventually reached the Supreme Court. In 1832 Chief Justice John Marshall ordered state officials to honor Cherokee property rights. Jackson refused to support the decision. “Marshall has made his opinion,” the president reportedly said, “now let him enforce it.” (See page 1083 for information on *Worcester v. Georgia*.)

Until 1838 most of the Cherokee resisted the government’s offers of western land. Jackson’s successor, Martin Van Buren, eventually sent in the army to resolve the conflict. The army forced the remaining people out of their homes and marched them to what is now Oklahoma. About 2,000 Cherokee died in camps while waiting for the migration to begin. Approximately 2,000 more died of starvation, disease, and exposure on the journey, which became known as the Trail of Tears.

By 1838, the government had moved most Native Americans still living east of the Mississippi, except for the Seminole of Florida, to reservations. Most people supported these removal policies. Only a few denounced the harsh treatment of Native Americans. Non-supporters included some of the National Republicans and a few religious denominations, especially the Quakers and Methodists.

**Reading Check**

**Interpreting** What was the Trail of Tears?

**ECONOMICS**

**Jackson Battles the National Bank**

One of the most contentious developments of Jackson’s presidency was his campaign against the Second Bank of the United States. Like most Westerners and many working people, President Jackson was suspicious of the Bank. He regarded it as a monopoly that benefited the wealthy elite.

Despite its reputation, the Bank played an important role in keeping the money supply of the United States stable. At the time, most American paper money consisted of bank notes issued by private state banks. State banks issued bank notes with the promise that the notes could always be turned in for “hard” money—gold or silver coins.
The state banks, however, would often issue more paper money than they could redeem in gold or silver. This let them make more loans at lower interest rates, but it created the danger of inflation. To prevent the state banks from loaning too much money, the Bank of the United States regularly collected bank notes and asked state banks to redeem them for gold and silver. This action forced state banks to be careful about how much money they loaned, and it also limited inflation.

The Bank had done a good job stabilizing the money supply and interest rates, but many western settlers, who needed easy credit to run their farms, were unhappy with the Bank’s lending policies. President Jackson also believed the Bank was unconstitutional, despite the Supreme Court’s ruling in *McCulloch v. Maryland*. He did not believe that as president he had to accept this Supreme Court ruling.

To make the Bank an issue in the 1832 presidential campaign, Jackson’s congressional opponents introduced a bill extending the Bank’s charter for another 20 years. Congress passed the bill, but Jackson vetoed it. When the election was over, it was clear that most Americans supported Jackson. He easily won a second term.

Jackson took his re-election as a directive from the people to destroy the Bank at once, even though its charter did not run out until 1836. He removed the government’s deposits from the Bank and placed them in state banks. The removal of the deposits forced the Bank to call in its loans and stop lending.

By putting an end to the Bank of the United States, Jackson had won a considerable political victory. Later, however, critics would charge that the end of the Bank contributed significantly to the financial woes that plagued the country in the years ahead.

**Reading Check**

*Examining* Why was President Jackson against the Second Bank of the United States?

**A New Party Emerges**

Andrew Jackson’s forceful style had earned him plenty of detractors, and by the mid-1830s a new party emerged to oppose him. The group named itself the Whigs after the party in England that had worked to limit the king’s power. The Whigs advocated a larger federal government, industrial and commercial development, and a centralized economy. Jackson’s Democrats, on the other hand, favored a limited federal government, and they distrusted eastern merchants and business leaders.
the Battle of Tippecanoe and in the War of 1812. John Tyler, a Southerner and former Democrat who had left his party in protest over the nullification issue, joined the ticket as the vice presidential candidate. Adopting the campaign slogan “Tippecanoe and Tyler too,” the Whigs blamed Van Buren for the economic depression. To attract western voters, they presented Harrison, a man born to wealth and privilege, as a simple frontiersman.

The strategy worked. Harrison won a decisive victory—234 electoral votes to 60, although the popular vote was much closer. On March 4, 1841, Harrison delivered his inauguration speech. The weather that day was bitterly cold, but Harrison insisted on delivering his nearly two-hour address without a hat or coat. He came down with pneumonia and died 32 days later, thereby serving the shortest term of any American president. Vice President John Tyler then succeeded to the presidency.

The Tyler Years  Tyler’s rise to the presidency shocked Whig leaders. Tyler actually opposed many Whig policies, and party leaders had placed him on the ticket mainly to attract Southern voters. Congress and the press mockingly called Tyler, “His Accidency.” The Whigs in Congress tried to push through their agenda anyway, including a Third Bank of the United States and a higher tariff, but Tyler sided with the Democrats on these key issues.

Foreign relations occupied the country’s attention during much of Tyler’s administration, especially relations with Great Britain. Disputes over the Maine-Canadian border and other issues resulted in the 1842 Webster-Ashburton Treaty, which established a firm boundary between the United States and Canada from Maine to Minnesota.

By the middle of the 1800s, a wave of social change was sweeping across the nation. Americans began examining numerous aspects of their culture, from religion to literature. A social transformation soon began, which eventually led to the shaping of a uniquely American society.
By June of 1850, Daniel Guiney had made up his mind. He was going to leave his impoverished town in Ireland and move to the United States. The enthusiastic letters he had received from friends convinced him that life had to be better in the United States. Ireland was suffering a devastating famine. Tens of thousands of citizens were dying of starvation, while many more were fleeing the country.

By August 1850, Guiney and a group from his neighborhood had moved to Buffalo, New York. After settling in, Guiney wrote back home about the wondrous new land where they now resided.

“We mean to let you know our situation at present. . . . We arrived here about five o’clock in the afternoon of yesterday, fourteen of us together, where we were received with the greatest kindness of respectability. . . . When we came to the house we could not state to you how we were treated. We had potatoes, meat, butter, bread, and tea for dinner. . . . If you were to see Denis Reen when Daniel Danihy dressed him with clothes suitable for this country, you would think him to be a boss or steward, so that we have scarcely words to state to you how happy we felt at present.”

—quoted in Out of Ireland

The New Wave of Immigrants

Daniel Guiney was just one of the millions of immigrants who came to the United States in search of a better life in the mid-1800s. The arrival of these newcomers coincided with a time when Americans were blazing new paths in a host of cultural
areas, including religion, art, and literature. Together, these events helped bring great changes to American society in the years before the Civil War.

Between 1815 and 1860, the United States experienced a massive influx of immigrants. Over 5 million foreigners arrived on its shores. Many had fled violence and political turmoil at home, while others sought to escape starvation and poverty. Most of these newcomers found opportunity and a fresh start, but some also found discrimination and prejudice.

**Newcomers From Ireland and Germany** The largest wave of immigrants, almost 2 million, came from Ireland. The driving force behind the massive exodus was the onset of widespread famine in 1845, when a fungus destroyed much of the nation’s crop of potatoes, a mainstay of the Irish diet. Most Irish immigrants arrived in the United States with no money and few marketable skills. They generally settled in the industrialized cities of the Northeast, where many worked as unskilled laborers and servants.

Between 1815 and 1860, Germans represented the second largest group of immigrants. By 1860 over 1.5 million Germans had arrived in the United States. Most had enough money to move beyond the large eastern cities and settle in the Midwest. There they became farmers or went into business. Like most other immigrants, Germans reveled in their newfound sense of freedom and liberty. German immigrant August Blümmer expressed this sentiment in a letter he wrote in 1838:

*“Over there [Germany] common sense and free speech lie in shackles. . . . I invite you to come over here, should you want to obtain a clear notion of genuine public life, freedom of people and a sense of being a nation. . . . I have never regretted that I came here, and never! never! again shall I bow my head under the yoke of despotism and folly.”*

—quoted in *News from the Land of Freedom*

**Nativism** While immigrants often found a new sense of freedom in the United States, some encountered discrimination. The presence of people from different cultures, with different languages and different religions, produced feelings of **nativism**, or hostility toward foreigners.

In the 1800s, many Americans were strongly anti-Catholic. Many prominent ministers preached...
anti-Catholic sermons. Occasionally, anti-Catholic riots erupted. The arrival of millions of predominantly Catholic Irish and German immigrants led to the rise of several nativist groups, such as the Supreme Order of the Star Spangled Banner, founded in 1849. These groups pledged never to vote for a Catholic and pushed for laws banning immigrants and Catholics from holding public office. In July 1854, delegates from these groups formed the American Party. Membership in the party was secret, and those questioned were obliged to answer, “I know nothing.” The Know-Nothings, as the party was nicknamed, built a large following in the 1850s.

Why did nativism become so strong in the mid-1800s?

A Religious Revival

As immigrants added to the diversity of society, Americans were transforming the society in which they lived. One important change came in American religious life, where traditional Protestantism experienced a dramatic revival, and new forms of worship became prominent.

The Second Great Awakening  By the end of the 1700s, many church leaders sensed that Americans’ commitment to organized religion was weakening. This deterioration was due in large part to the growth of scientific knowledge and rationalism, notions that challenged the doctrine of faith. In the early 1800s, religious leaders organized to revive Americans’ commitment to religion. The resulting movement came to be called the Second Great Awakening. It began in Kentucky, among frontier farmers, and quickly spread to the rest of the country. Leaders of the various Protestant denominations—most often Methodists, Baptists, and Presbyterians—held camp meetings that attracted thousands of followers for days of song, prayer, and emotional outpourings of faith.

The basic message of the Second Great Awakening was that individuals must readmit God and Christ into their daily lives. The new revivalism rejected the traditional Calvinist idea that only a chosen few were predestined for salvation. Instead, ministers preached that all people could attain grace through faith.

One of the most prominent advocates of this new message was a Presbyterian minister named Charles Grandison Finney. Finney preached that each person contained within himself or herself the capacity for spiritual rebirth and salvation. Finney helped found modern revivalism. His camp meetings were carefully planned and rehearsed to create as much emotion as possible. He compared his methods to those used by politicians and salespeople, and he used emotion to focus people’s attention on his message. Finney began preaching in upstate New York, where he launched a series of revivals in towns along the Erie Canal. He then took his message to the cities of the Northeast.

Finney also served as president of Oberlin College in Ohio, the first college in the United States to admit women and African Americans. Although Oberlin became a center for social reform movements in the United States, Finney warned against using politics to change society. He believed that if Christian ideas reformed people from within, society would become better, but if people remained selfish and immoral, political reforms would not make any difference.

New Religious Groups Emerge  A number of other religious groups also flourished during this period. The Unitarians and Universalists broke away from the New England Congregational Church. Unitarians reject the idea that Jesus was the son of God, arguing instead that he was a great teacher. Their name comes from the belief that God is a unity, not a trinity of Father, Son, and Holy Spirit. Universalists believe in the universal salvation of souls. They reject the idea of hell and believe God intends to save everyone.

Religious Zeal  J. Maze Burban’s Religious Camp Meeting dramatizes religious revivalism, showing a charismatic preacher reaching many in the audience. From studying the image, can you suggest other reasons people might want to attend?
Another religious group that emerged during this period was the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, whose followers are commonly known as Mormons. Joseph Smith, a New Englander living in western New York, began preaching Mormon ideas in 1830 after claiming to have been called to restore the Christian church to its original form. Smith published The Book of Mormon that year, saying it was a translation of words inscribed on golden plates that he had received from an angel. The text told of the coming of God and the need to build a kingdom on Earth to receive him.

After enduring continuous harassment in Ohio, Missouri, and elsewhere, Mormons from around the Midwest moved to Commerce, Illinois, in the spring of 1839. They bought the town, renamed it Nauvoo, and began building a self-contained community. The group prospered in the Midwest, with Nauvoo numbering about 15,000 in 1844. Persecution continued, however, and that same year local residents murdered Smith. After Smith’s death, Brigham Young became the leader of the Church. The Mormons then left Illinois and trekked westward to the Utah territory, where they put down permanent roots.

A Literary Renaissance

The optimism about human nature that influenced the Second Great Awakening also influenced philosophers and writers. Many leading thinkers of the day adopted the tenets of romanticism, a movement that began in Europe in the 1800s. Romanticism advocated feeling over reason, inner spirituality over external rules, the individual above society, and nature over environments created by humans.

One notable expression of American romanticism came from New England writers and philosophers who were known as the transcendentalists. Transcendentalism urged people to transcend, or overcome, the limits of their minds and let their souls reach out to embrace the beauty of the universe.

American Writers Emerge The most influential transcendentalist was Ralph Waldo Emerson. In his 1836 essay Nature, Emerson wrote that those who wanted fulfillment should work for communion with the natural world. Emerson influenced other writers, including Margaret Fuller and Henry David Thoreau. Thoreau believed that individuals must fight the pressure to conform. “If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer,” he wrote. “Let him step to the music which he hears, however measured or far away.”

Emerson and Thoreau were only two of many writers who set out to create uniquely American works that celebrated the people, history, and natural beauty of the United States. One writer, James Fenimore Cooper, romanticized Native Americans and frontier explorers in his Leatherstocking Tales, the most famous being The Last of the Mohicans (1826). Nathaniel Hawthorne, a New England customs official, wrote over 100 tales and novels. His novel The Scarlet Letter (1850), with its Puritan setting, explored the persecution and psychological suffering that results from sin. Herman Melville, another New Englander, wrote the great Moby Dick (1851). Edgar Allan Poe, a poet and short story writer, achieved fame as a writer of terror and mystery. Perhaps the most important poet of the era was Walt Whitman, who published a volume of poetry in 1855 called Leaves of Grass. Whitman loved nature,
the common people, and American democracy, and his famous work reflects these passions. The best-remembered female poet of the era was **Emily Dickinson**, who wrote simple, personal, deeply emotional poetry.

**The Penny Press** Another important development of the early 1800s was the rise of the mass newspaper. Before the 1800s, most newspapers catered to well-educated readers. They were typically published once a week and cost around six cents, which was far beyond the reach of the average worker.

As more Americans learned to read and gained the right to vote, publishers began producing inexpensive newspapers, known as *penny papers*, which provided the kind of news most people liked. Reports of fires, crimes, marriages, gossip, politics, and local news made the papers an instant success.

General interest magazines that catered to a more specialized readership also emerged around this time. In 1830 Louis A. Godey founded *Godey's Lady's Book*, the first American magazine for women. The poet James Russell Lowell launched *Atlantic Monthly*, another magazine for the well-educated, in 1857, while *Harper's Weekly* covered everything from book reviews to news reports.

**Reading Check** Evaluating What were the main themes of American writers in the early 1800s?

**Utopian Communities**

The ideas that drove the religious and artistic movements of the United States in the mid-1800s—optimism about human nature and a belief in people’s ability to redefine their lives—also spurred the establishment of new communities. The people who formed these communities believed that society tended to corrupt human nature. They thought that the way to a better life was to separate themselves from society and form their own *utopia*, or ideal society. Cooperative living and the absence of private property characterized these communities, and dozens of them sprang up and flourished during the Jacksonian Era.

In New England, near West Roxbury, Massachusetts, transcendentalist George Ripley established a utopian community known as *Brook Farm* in 1841. The farm offered its members the chance to engage in intellectual activity while cooperatively running a farm. Ultimately, Brook Farm collapsed after a large fire left the group with huge debts.

The religious group known as the *Shakers* established small utopian communities from Maine to Kentucky. The group got its name from a ritual “shaking” dance that members performed. The Shakers reached their peak in the mid-1800s with some 6,000 members. Since they did not believe in marrying or having children, the group could only expand by making converts.

In the end, the number of Americans who chose to live in utopian communities was relatively small. Many more, inspired by a strong faith in human goodness, attempted not to escape society but to reform it.

**Reading Check** Interpreting What spurred the establishment of utopian societies?
By 1841 Dorothea Dix had been a schoolteacher in Massachusetts for many years. That year, a clergyman asked her to lead a Sunday school class at a local prison. What Dix saw there appalled her. Mentally ill persons lay neglected in dirty, unheated rooms. Putting aside her teaching career, she began a crusade to improve prison conditions for the mentally ill and to provide them with the treatment they needed.

In 1843 Dix composed a letter to the Massachusetts legislature calling for such reforms. She pointed to the example of one local woman as evidence that more humane treatment might help many of the mentally ill. “Some may say these things cannot be remedied,” she wrote. “I know they can. . . . A young woman, a pauper . . . was for years a raging maniac. A cage, chains, and the whip were the agents for controlling her, united with harsh tones and profane language.” Dix explained that a local couple took the woman in and treated her with care and respect. “They are careful of her diet. They keep her very clean. She calls them ‘father’ and ‘mother.’ Go there now, and you will find her ‘clothed,’ and though not perfectly in her ‘right mind,’ so far restored as to be a safe and comfortable inmate.”

—adapted from Old South Leaflets

The Reform Spirit

Largely through the efforts of Dorothea Dix, more than a dozen states enacted sweeping prison reforms and created special institutions for the mentally ill. As influential as she was, Dix was just one of many citizens who worked to reform various aspects of American society in the mid 1800s.
The reform movements of the mid-1800s stemmed in large part from the revival of religious fervor. Revivalists preached the power of individuals to improve themselves and the world. Lyman Beecher, a prominent minister, insisted that it was the nation’s citizenry more than its government that should take charge of building a better society. True reform, he said, could take place only through “the voluntary energies of the nation itself.”

Under the guidance of Beecher and other religious leaders, associations known as benevolent societies sprang up in cities and towns across the country. At first, they focused on spreading the word of God and attempting to convert nonbelievers. Soon, however, they sought to combat a number of social problems.

One striking feature of the reform effort was the overwhelming presence of women. Young women in particular had joined the revivalist movement in much larger numbers than men. One reason was that many unmarried women with uncertain futures discovered in religion a foundation on which to build their lives. As more women turned to the church, many also joined religious-based reform groups. These reform groups targeted aspects of American society they considered in dire need of change. Among these issues were excessive drinking, prisons, and education.

**The Temperance Movement** A number of reformers argued that no social vice caused more crime, disorder, and poverty than the excessive use of alcohol. Men who drank excessively, they argued, spent their money on liquor rather than food and other family necessities, and they sometimes abused their wives and children. While some may have disagreed with this assessment, no one could dispute the fact that alcoholism was widespread during the early 1800s. In small towns throughout the West, citizens drank to ease the isolation and loneliness of rural life, while in the pubs and saloons in eastern cities, drinking was the main leisure activity for many workers.

Although advocates of temperance, or moderation in the consumption of alcohol, had been active since the late 1700s, the new reformers energized the campaign and greatly increased its influence. Temperance groups formed across the country, preaching the evils of alcohol and persuading heavy drinkers to give up liquor. In 1833 several of these groups joined together to form the American Temperance Union.

Temperance societies also pushed for laws to prohibit the sale of liquor. In 1851 Maine passed the first state prohibition law, an example followed by a dozen other states by 1855. Other states passed “local option” laws, which allowed towns and villages to prohibit liquor sales within their boundaries.

**Prison Reform** The spirit of reform also prompted Americans to consider ways to improve the prison system. Inmates of all kinds, from violent offenders to debtors and the mentally ill, often were indiscriminately crowded together in jails and prisons, which were literally holes in the ground in some cases. One jail in Connecticut, for example, was an abandoned mineshaft. Beginning around 1816, many states began building new facilities to provide a better environment for inmates.

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**History Through Art**

*Drunkard’s Progress* In 1846 Nathaniel Currier made this lithograph (left), or print made by engraving on stone. It clearly lays out the path to degradation that begins in Step 1, a glass of alcohol with a friend. Some innkeepers advertised their temperance principles with a sign such as the one above. From looking at the lithograph, how can you tell that women were often temperance supporters?
Underlying the prison reform movement was a belief in rehabilitating prisoners rather than merely locking them up. Officials designed forms of rigid discipline to rid criminals of the “laxness” that had led them astray. Solitary confinement and the imposition of silence on work crews were meant to give prisoners the chance to meditate and think about their wrongdoing. Even the name of these new prisons, penitentiaries, highlighted the notion that they were places where individuals would work to achieve penitence, or remorse.

Educational Reform
In the early 1800s, many reformers began to push for a system of public education—government-funded schools open to all citizens. The increase in the number of voters in the 1820s and 1830s and the arrival of millions of new immigrants convinced many people of the need for public education. Most American leaders and social reformers believed that a democratic republic could only survive if the electorate was well educated and informed.

One of the leaders of the public education movement was Massachusetts legislator Horace Mann. As president of the Massachusetts Senate, Mann pressed for more public education and backed a bill in 1837 creating a state board of education in Massachusetts. He then stepped down from his elective office to serve as secretary of the new board. During his 12 years in that post he doubled teachers’ salaries, opened 50 new high schools, and established schools for teacher training called “normal schools.” Massachusetts quickly became the model for all other northern states. Mann’s driving conviction was that a nation without an educated populace would have to struggle just to survive, much less prosper:

―The establishment of a republican government, without well-appointed and efficient means for the universal education of the people, is the most rash and foolhardy experiment ever tried by man. . . . It may be an easy thing to make a republic, but it is a very laborious thing to make republicans; and woe to the republic that rests upon no better foundations than ignorance, selfishness and passion!―

—from “Report of the Massachusetts Board of Education,” 1848

In 1852 Massachusetts passed the first mandatory school attendance law; New York passed a similar measure the next year. In the years before the Civil War, reformers campaigned for district, or common,
schools at the primary level. Reformers believed that such schools could teach all children the basics of reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as instill a work ethic. District schools were open to all and were supported by district taxes, state funds, and tuition paid by parents.

By the 1850s, tax-supported elementary schools had gained widespread support in the northeastern states and had begun to spread to the rest of the country. Rural areas responded more slowly because children were needed to help with planting and harvesting.

In the South, a reformer named Calvin Wiley played a similar role in North Carolina to that of Horace Mann in Massachusetts. In 1839 North Carolina began providing support to local communities that established taxpayer-funded schools. Wiley traveled throughout the state, building support for public education. By 1860, about two-thirds of North Carolina's white children attended school part of the year. The South as a whole responded less quickly, and only about one-third of southern white children were enrolled in public schools by 1860. African American children were excluded almost entirely.

Women's Education When officials talked about educating voters, they had men in mind—women were still not allowed to cast a ballot in the 1800s. Nonetheless, a number of women took advantage of the reform movement to create more educational opportunities for girls and women.

Emma Willard, who founded a girls' boarding school in Vermont in 1814, was an early educational pioneer. Her school covered the usual subjects for young women, such as cooking and etiquette, but it also included academic subjects like history, math, and literature, which were rarely taught to women. In 1837 another educator, Mary Lyon, opened the Mount Holyoke Female Seminary in South Hadley, Massachusetts, the first institution of higher education for women only.

Also in the 1800s, Elizabeth Blackwell became the first woman to earn a medical degree in the United States or Europe. In 1857 she founded the New York Infirmary for Women and Children, which was staffed entirely by women.

Reading Check Identifying What three areas of social reform did reformers target?

The Early Women's Movement

In the early 1800s, the Industrial Revolution began to change the economic roles of men and women. In the 1700s, most economic activity took place in or near the home because most Americans lived and worked in a rural farm setting. Although husbands and wives had distinct chores, maintaining the farm was the focus of their efforts. By the mid-1800s, these circumstances had started to change, especially in the northeastern states. The development of factories and other work centers separated the home from the workplace. Men now often left home to go to work, while women tended the house and children. In time, this development led to the emergence of the first women's movement.

“True Womanhood” As the nature of work changed, many Americans began to divide life into two spheres of activity—the home and the workplace. Many believed the home to be the proper sphere for women, partly because the outside world was seen as corrupt and dangerous, and partly because of popular ideas about the family.

The Christian revivalism of the 1820s and 1830s greatly influenced the American family. For many
parents, raising children was treated as a solemn responsibility because it prepared young people for a disciplined Christian life. Women often were viewed as more moral and charitable than men, and they were expected to be models of piety and virtue to their children and husbands.

The idea that women should be homemakers and should take responsibility for developing their children’s characters evolved into a set of ideas known as “true womanhood.” Magazine articles and novels aimed at women reinforced the value of their role at home. In 1841 Catherine Beecher, a daughter of minister and reformer Lyman Beecher, wrote a book called A Treatise on Domestic Economy. The popular volume argued that women could find fulfillment at home and gave instruction on childcare, cooking, and health matters.

**Women Seek Greater Rights**  Many women did not feel the ideas of true womanhood were limiting. Instead, the new ideas implied that wives were now partners with their husbands and in some ways were morally superior to them. Women were held up as the conscience of the home and society.

The idea that women had an important role to play in building a virtuous home was soon extended to making society more virtuous. As women became involved in the great moral crusades of the era, some began to argue that they needed greater political rights to promote their ideas.

An advocate of this idea was Margaret Fuller. Fuller argued that every woman had her own relationship with God and needed “as a soul to live freely and unimpeded.” She declared, “We would have every arbitrary barrier thrown down and every path laid open to women as freely as to men.” Fuller believed that if men and women, whom she called the “two sides” of human nature, were treated equally, it would end injustice in society.

In 1848 Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton, two women active in the antislavery movement, organized the Seneca Falls Convention. This gathering of women reformers marked the beginning of an organized women’s movement. The convention issued a “Declaration of Sentiments and Resolutions” that began with words expanding the Declaration of Independence: “We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men and women are created equal. . . .” Stanton shocked many of the women present by proposing that they focus on gaining the right to vote. Nevertheless, the Seneca Falls Convention is considered by many to be the unofficial beginning of the struggle for women’s voting rights. (See page 1070 for more information on the “Declaration of Sentiments and Resolutions.”)

Throughout the 1850s, women continued to organize conventions to gain greater rights for themselves. The conventions did meet with some success. By 1860, for example, reformers had convinced 15 states to pass laws permitting married women to retain their property if their husbands died. Above all, these conventions drew attention to their cause and paved the way for a stronger movement to emerge after the Civil War.

**Reading Check**  
What events of the mid-1800s sparked the first women’s movement?

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**SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT**

**Checking for Understanding**

1. **Define:** benevolent society, temperance, penitentiary.
2. **Identify:** Dorothea Dix, Lyman Beecher, Horace Mann, Elizabeth Cady Stanton.
3. **State** the main goal of the early women’s movement.

**Reviewing Themes**

4. **Continuity and Change** How did the Second Great Awakening affect the reform movements of the mid-1800s?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Evaluating** In what ways did the new penitentiaries change the prison system?
6. **Organizing** Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the major reform areas.

**Analyzing Visuals**

7. **Examining Art** Study the painting of the New England school on page 280. How was the room heated? What kinds of supplies did the students have?

**Writing About History**

8. **Expository Writing** Think of reforms you believe are needed today in the United States. Write a letter to your legislator expressing why you believe the reforms are needed. Give examples of problems in your community as evidence.
I went to the woods because I wished to live deliberately, to front only the essential facts of life, and see if I could not learn what it had to teach, and not, when I came to die, discover that I had not lived. I did not wish to live what was not life, living is so dear; nor did I wish to practice resignation, unless it was quite necessary. I wanted to live deep and suck out all the marrow of life, to live so sturdily and Spartan-like as to put to rout all that was not life, to cut a broad swath and shave close, to drive life into a corner, and reduce it to its lowest terms, and, if it proved to be mean, why then to get the whole and genuine meanness of it, and publish its meanness to the world; or if it were sublime, to know it by experience. . . . For most men, it appears to me, are in a strange uncertainty about it, whether it is of the devil or of God, and have somewhat hastily concluded that it is the chief end of man here to "glorify God and enjoy him forever." Still we live meanly, like ants. . . . Our life is frittered away by detail. An honest man has hardly need to count more than his ten fingers. . . . Simplicity, simplicity, simplicity! I say, let your affairs be as two or three, and not a hundred or a thousand; instead of a million count half a dozen, and keep your accounts on your thumbnail. . . .

Let us spend one day as deliberately as Nature, and not be thrown off the track by every nutshell and mosquito's wing that falls on the rails. . . . Why should we knock under and go with the stream?

Analyzing Literature
1. Recall What motivated Thoreau to go and live alone in the wilderness?
2. Interpret What do you think the phrase "every nutshell and mosquito's wing" means?
3. Evaluate and Connect Do you think you could live alone in the woods for two years as Thoreau did? Why or why not?

Interdisciplinary Activity
Language Arts Imagine you are Thoreau at the end of your first year at Walden. Write a diary entry describing your feelings looking back on the first year and ahead to the year to come.
In 1831 William Lloyd Garrison began publishing a fiery antislavery newspaper in Boston. One day in 1834, a large group gathered outside Garrison's office to express its disapproval of his views. An onlooker, Thomas Low Nichols, described what followed:

"I was in the editorial office of Mr. Garrison when the crowd began to gather in the street below . . . . There were hundreds—then thousands. It was a mob of people dressed in black broadcloth, a mob of gentlemen—capitalists, merchants, bankers, a mob of the Stock Exchange and of the first people in Boston, which considered itself the nicest of cities, and intellectually the 'hub of the universe'. . . . There was a great howl of rage; but, a moment after, it became a yell of triumph. Garrison had been seen to go from the building into a narrow lane behind it. Pursued, he took refuge in a carpenter's shop, only to be dragged out and carried into the midst of the mob. . . . I saw him, his hat off, his bald head shining, his scanty locks flying, his face pale. . . ."

—quoted in Witness to America

**Early Opposition to Slavery**

By the 1830s, a growing number of Americans had begun to demand an immediate end to slavery in the South. Of all the reform movements that began in the early 1800s, the movement to end slavery was the most divisive. By pitting North against South, it polarized the nation and helped bring about the Civil War.
Gradualism From the earliest days of the Republic, many Americans had opposed slavery. Many of the country’s founders knew that a nation based on the principles of liberty and equality would have difficulty remaining true to its ideals if it continued to enslave human beings. Quakers and Baptists in both the North and South had long argued that slavery was a sin. After the Revolution, Baptists in Virginia called for “every legal measure to [wipe out] this horrid evil from the land.” Early antislavery societies generally supported an approach known as gradualism, or the belief that slavery had to be ended gradually. First they would stop new slaves from being brought into the country. Then they would phase out slavery in the North and the Upper South before finally ending slavery in the Lower South. Slaveholders would also be compensated for their loss. Supporters of gradualism believed it would give the South’s economy time to adjust to the loss of enslaved labor.

Colonization The first antislavery societies also believed that ending slavery would not end racism in the United States. Many thought that the best solution was to send African Americans back to their ancestral homelands in Africa. In December 1816, antislavery reformers founded the American Colonization Society (ACS) to move African Americans to Africa. The society had the support of many prominent Americans, including James Madison, James Monroe, Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, and John Marshall.

By 1821 the ACS had acquired land in West Africa. The following year, free African Americans began boarding ships chartered by the society to take them to Africa. There they established a colony that eventually became the country of Liberia. It declared its independence as a republic in 1847 and adopted a constitution designed after the U.S. Constitution. The capital, Monrovia, was named for President Monroe.

Colonization was never a realistic solution to slavery and racism, however. The cost of transporting African Americans was high, and the ACS had to depend on donations. Moving the roughly 1.5 million African Americans who lived in the United States in 1820 to Africa was nearly impossible. Furthermore, most African Americans regarded the United States as their home and were not prepared to migrate to another continent. Only an estimated 12,000 African Americans moved to Africa between 1821 and 1860.

Reading Check Identifying What two religious groups were among the first to oppose slavery?

Abolitionist Songs Abolitionists used songs to stir up enthusiasm for their cause. To make songs easier to learn, they often wrote new words for old tunes. Here is a stanza William Lloyd Garrison wrote to the tune of “Auld Lang Syne”:

I am an abolitionist! I glory in the name; Though now by Slavery’s minions hiss’d, And covered o’er with shame; It is a spell of light and power— The watchword of the free:— Who spurns it in this trial-hour, A craven soul is he!

The New Abolitionists

Gradualism and colonization remained the main goals of antislavery groups until the 1830s, when a new idea, abolition, began to gain ground. Abolitionists argued that enslaved African Americans should be freed immediately, without gradual measures or compensation to former slaveholders.

TURNING POINT

Garrison Stirs a New Movement Abolitionism began to gain support in the 1830s for several reasons. As with other reform movements of the era, it drew its strength from the Second Great Awakening, with its focus on sin and repentance. In the eyes of abolitionists, slavery was an enormous evil of which the country needed to repent.

The first well-known advocate of abolition was a free African American from North Carolina named David Walker, who published Appeal to the Colored Citizens of the World. In this pamphlet, Walker advocated violence and rebellion as the only way to end slavery. Although Walker’s ideas were influential, the rapid development of a large national abolitionist movement in the 1830s was largely due to the efforts of William Lloyd Garrison.

In 1829 Garrison became assistant to Benjamin Lundy, the Quaker publisher of the Baltimore antislavery newspaper, Genius of Universal Emancipation. Garrison admired Lundy but grew impatient with his gradualist approach. In 1831 Garrison left his mentor and, with fellow abolitionist Isaac Knapp, founded Boston’s antislavery newspaper, the Liberator.
The paper’s style was anything but moderate, as Garrison wrote caustic attacks on slavery and called for an immediate end to it. To those who objected to his fiery language, he responded that the time for moderation was over:

"I am aware that many object to the severity of my language; but is there not cause for severity? I will be as harsh as truth and as uncompromising as justice. On this subject I do not wish to think, or speak, or write with moderation. No! No! Tell a man whose house is on fire to give a moderate alarm; tell him to moderately rescue his wife from the hands of the ravisher; tell the mother to gradually [remove] her babe from the fire into which it has fallen—but urge me not to use moderation in a cause like the present. I am in earnest; I will not equivocate; I will not excuse; I will not retreat a single inch—and I WILL BE HEARD."

—from the Liberator

With his balding head, his steel-rimmed glasses, and his plain black suits, Garrison was as mild-looking as his words were strong. Inside this soft-spoken man, however, an intense passion burned. In his mind, the situation was very clear: Slavery was immoral and slaveholders were evil. The only option was immediate and complete emancipation, or the freeing of all enslaved people.

Garrison soon attracted enough followers in the North to enable him to found the New England Antislavery Society in 1832 and the American Antislavery Society in 1833. Membership in both organizations grew quickly. By the mid-1830s, there were hundreds of society chapters, and in 1838, there were more than 1,350 chapters with over 250,000 members.

Other Abolitionists at Work  As the anti-slavery movement gained momentum, new leaders emerged from Garrison’s shadow and carried on the effort. Theodore Weld, a disciple of the evangelist Charles Grandison Finney, was one of the most effective leaders, recruiting and training many abolitionists for the American Antislavery Society. Arthur and Lewis Tappan, two devout and wealthy brothers from New York City, also emerged as leaders.

The orator Wendell Phillips, the poet John Greenleaf Whittier, and many others became active in the cause as well. Many women also gave their efforts to the abolitionist movement. Prudence Crandall worked as a teacher and abolitionist in Connecticut, and Lucretia Mott often spoke out in favor of abolitionism. Some Southern women also joined the crusade. Among the earliest were Sarah and Angelina Grimké, South Carolina sisters who moved north to work openly against slavery.

African American Abolitionists  Not surprisingly, free African Americans took a prominent role in the abolitionist movement. African Americans in the North, who numbered over 190,000 by 1850, endured much prejudice, but they cherished their freedom nonetheless. When Garrison launched his newspaper, African Americans rushed to his support, not only buying the paper but also helping to sell it. Many began writing and speaking out against slavery and taking part in protests and demonstrations.

One of the most prominent African American figures in the movement was Frederick Douglass, who had escaped from slavery in Maryland. Douglass was a brilliant thinker and an electrifying speaker. “I appear before the immense assembly this evening as a thief and a robber,” he told one Massachusetts
group in 1842. “I stole this head, these limbs, this body from my master, and ran off with them.” Douglass published his own antislavery newspaper, the North Star, and wrote an autobiography, Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, which quickly sold 4,500 copies after its publication in 1845.

Another important African American abolitionist was Sojourner Truth. She gained freedom in 1827 when New York freed all remaining enslaved people in the state. In the 1840s, her antislavery speeches—eloquent, joyous, and deeply religious—drew huge crowds. Though lacking a formal education, Truth enthralled listeners with her folksy wit, engaging stories, contagious singing, and strong message.

The Response to Abolitionism
Abolitionism was a powerful force, and it provoked a powerful public response. In the North, citizens looked upon the abolitionist movement with views ranging from support to indifference to opposition. In the South, many residents feared that their entire way of life was under attack. They rushed to defend the institution of slavery, which they saw as the key to the region’s economy.

Reaction in the North
While many Northerners disapproved of slavery, some opposed extreme abolitionism even more. They viewed the movement as a dangerous threat to the existing social system. Some whites, including many prominent businesspeople, warned it would produce a destructive war between the North and the South. Others feared it might lead to a great influx of freed African Americans to the North, overwhelming the labor and housing markets. Many in the North also had no desire to see the South’s economy crumble. If that happened, they might lose the huge sums of money Southern planters owed to Northern banks, as well as the Southern cotton that fed Northern textile mills.

Given such attitudes, the attack on Garrison in Boston was not surprising. In fact, it was one of many such assaults. In 1837 in Illinois, for example,
abolitionist publisher Reverend Elijah P. Lovejoy was killed trying to protect his printing press from a mob. Yet Northerners also resented Southern slave-catchers, who kidnapped African American runaways in the North and hauled them back to the South. In response, several states in the North passed personal liberty laws restricting slave recapture.

**Reaction in the South** To most Southerners, slavery was a “peculiar institution,” one that was distinctive and vital to the Southern way of life. While the North was building cities and factories, the South remained mostly agricultural, becoming increasingly tied to cotton and the enslaved people who planted and picked it. Southerners responded to the growing attacks against slavery by strongly defending the institution. South Carolina’s governor called it a “national benefit,” while Thomas Dew, a leading Southern academic, claimed that most slaves had no desire for freedom, because they enjoyed a close and beneficial relationship with their slaveholders. “We have no hesitation in affirming,” he declared, “that, throughout the whole slaveholding country, the slaves of good [slaveholders] are his warmest, most constant, and most devoted friends.”

Less than eight months after Garrison printed his first shocking words in the *Liberator* in 1831, Nat Turner, an enslaved preacher, led an uprising that killed over 50 Virginians. Many Southerners believed that papers like the *Liberator* sparked this rebellion. Although Garrison’s paper did not even circulate in the South, furious Southerners demanded the suppression of abolitionist material as a condition for remaining in the Union. Southern postal workers refused to deliver abolitionist newspapers. In 1836, under Southern pressure the House of Representatives passed a gag rule providing that all abolitionist petitions be shelved without debate.

For all the uproar it caused, the abolitionist movement remained relatively small. Very few people before the Civil War ever accepted the idea that slavery must be immediately eliminated. The crusade that William Lloyd Garrison had started, however, and that thousands of men and women struggled to keep alive, became a constant and powerful reminder of how much slavery was dividing the nation.

**Evaluating** How did Northerners and Southerners view abolitionism?
Developing a Multimedia Presentation

Why Learn This Skill?
You want to present a research report on some aspect of the Second Great Awakening to your classmates, and you want to hold their attention. How do you do it? You might try using a variety of media. Using a variety of media in your presentations makes them more interesting and engaging for your audience.

Learning the Skill
A basic multimedia presentation involves using several types of media. Suppose you wanted to present a report on the American literary renaissance. To introduce the important writers of the era, you might show photographs of them. You also could play a voice recording of a story written by one of the writers or present a video showing a screenplay based on one of their books.

You can also develop a multimedia presentation on a computer. Multimedia, as it relates to computer technology, is the combination of text, video, audio, and animation in an interactive program.

To create multimedia presentations on a computer, you need to have certain tools. These may include traditional computer graphics tools, draw programs, animation programs that make images move, and authoring systems that tie everything together. Your computer manual will tell you which tools your computer can support.

Practicing the Skill
Ask yourself the following questions when developing a multimedia presentation:

2. Which of these media forms does my computer support?
3. What kind of software programs or systems do I need? A paint program? A draw program? An animation program? A program to create interactive, or two-way, communication? An authoring system that will allow me to change images, sound, and motion?
4. Is there a “do-it-all” program I can use to develop the kind of presentation I want?

Skills Assessment
Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 291 and the Chapter 8 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.

Applying the Skill
Developing a Multimedia Presentation Using your answers to the questions under “Practicing the Skill” as guidelines, write a plan describing a multimedia presentation on writers of the American literary renaissance or romanticism. Indicate what tools you will need and what you must do for a successful presentation.

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook CD-ROM, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Reviewing Key Facts


16. In what two ways did President Andrew Jackson expand democracy?

17. What were two factors that led to President Jackson’s decision to sign the Indian Removal Act?

18. What main ideas did American romanticists and transcendentalists believe?

19. How did reformers improve the public education system in the early to mid-1800s?

20. Name four groups of people involved in the abolitionist movement, and list what each did to try to end slavery.

Critical Thinking

21. Analyzing Themes: Groups and Institutions Which group or groups of Americans did not benefit from the reforms of the early to mid-1800s? Explain.

22. Synthesizing What were the main themes of American writers, philosophers, and artists during the Second Great Awakening? Do you think their writings and works of art influenced the reform movements in the United States during the early to mid-1800s? Explain your answer.

23. Organizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the areas of life that people in the United States tried to improve during the early to mid-1800s.

24. Interpreting Primary Sources Some people did not support free public education in the early 1800s. The excerpt below was an editorial written to the members of the legislature. It appeared in the Raleigh Register of November 9, 1829. Read the excerpt and answer the questions that follow.

"Common schools indeed! Money is very scarce, and the times are unusually hard. . . . Gentlemen, it appears to me that schools are sufficiently plenty, and that the people have no desire they should be increased. Those
now in operation are not all filled, and it is very doubtful if they are productive or of much real benefit. Would it not redound as much to the advantage of young persons, and to the honour of the State, if they should pass their days in the cotton patch, or at the plow, or in the cornfield, instead of being [confined] in a school house, where they are earning nothing?

—from the Raleigh Register, November 9, 1829

a. What reasons does the author give for opposing free public education?

b. Are the author’s reasons valid? Explain your answer.

Practicing Skills

25. Developing a Multimedia Presentation  Develop a plan for a presentation on the social and cultural changes in the United States discussed in this chapter. Consider the following points to help guide you.

a. What specific examples would you use to show the different social and cultural changes taking place in the country?

b. What form of media would you use for each example?

Writing Activity

26. Portfolio Writing  You read in a Boston newspaper that the Massachusetts legislature is going to hear statements from citizens concerning the care of the mentally ill. Prepare and write a paper that you can read to the committee members on this subject. In the paper, explain your ideas on caring for the mentally ill and whether or not you feel society has an obligation to do so. Save the paper in your portfolio.

Chapter Activities

27. Research Project  Conduct research to learn more about one reformer discussed in the chapter. Role-play the person by introducing yourself to the class and describing your background, what you want to reform, and how you will go about making these improvements.

28. American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM  Read “Women’s Rights” by Sojourner Truth, under The Growing Nation. Imagine that you are a reporter for a newspaper and your assignment is to cover the Ohio Women’s Convention. Write an article in which you review Truth’s speech. In your article, explain her arguments for women’s rights and describe how members of the convention reacted to her speech.

Geography and History

29. The graph above shows voter participation from 1824 to 1840. Study the graph, and then answer the questions below.

a. Interpreting Graphs  In which presidential election year did voter participation increase the most from the previous presidential election year?

b. Applying Graph Skills  What do you think accounted for the increase in voter participation?

Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Read the passage below and answer the question that follows.

Susan B. Anthony, who was raised as a Quaker, was a powerful organizer in the women’s rights movement. A dedicated reformer, she joined the temperance movement and worked for the American Anti-Slavery Society.

Sojourner Truth, a former enslaved person, spoke out against slavery and in defense of women’s rights. Truth often attended women’s rights conventions to remind women that their African American sisters had a place in the movement.

Susan B. Anthony and Sojourner Truth both worked for which of the following reforms?

A Abolitionism and education

B Education and temperance

C Temperance and women’s rights

D Women’s rights and abolitionism

Test-Taking Tip: The important word in this question is both. Several reform movements are mentioned, but the question asks about the reforms both women supported.