

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

III B A HISTORY V SEMESTER

CORE – X : HISTORY OF USA 1776 TO 1974 A. D(18BHI52C)

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UNIT II

1. Causes of the War of 1812

The War of 1812 occurred between the United States and Great Britain between 1812 and 1814. America declared war on Great Britain for five reasons:

- 1.) Great Britain had violated American sovereignty by refusing to surrender western forts as promised in the Treaty of Paris after the Revolutionary War.
- 2.) Great Britain began stopping American sea vessels and forcing subjects on the vessels into the British military. This practice was called "impressment." The British justified the practice with the idea that American soldiers, once subjects of the King, were always subjects of the King.
- 3.) Great Britain issued a series of trade restrictions designed to disrupt American trade with France.

4.) Great Britain provided arms and support to Native Americans in the western frontiers who were attacking American settlers.

5.) Great Britain controlled much of Canada and many Americans simply wanted to expel the British from the North American continent and expand America's borders.

Effects of the War of 1812

1.) The War of 1812 changed the course of American history. Because America had managed to fight the world's greatest military power to a virtual standstill, it gained international respect. Furthermore, it instilled a greater sense of nationalism among its citizens. It prompted James Monroe and John Quincy Adams to pen the Monroe Doctrine, the nation's first articulation of a foreign policy. The entire period of time after the War of 1812, during the presidency of James Monroe, is referred to as the "Era of Good Feeling" for the reasons above.

2.) The Federalist Party, founded by Alexander Hamilton, and once the dominant political party in America, declined precipitously following the War of 1812. Its members had opposed a war with Great Britain.

3.) While the War of 1812 had virtually no impact in England, it did assure the survival of the British colonies in Canada, and ultimately paved the way for the Canadian Confederation - the precursor to the nation of Canada. Some historians believe if the War of 1812 had not happened, Canada would have become part of the United States because so many Americans would have migrated north.

MONROE DOCTRINE

Despite America's beginnings as an [isolationist](#) country, the foundation of the Monroe Doctrine was already being laid even during [George Washington's presidency](#). According to [S.E. Morison](#), "as early as 1783, then, the United States adopted the policy of isolation and announced its intention to keep out of Europe. The supplementary principle of the Monroe Doctrine, that Europe must keep out of America, was still over the horizon".^[10]

While not specifically the Monroe Doctrine, [Alexander Hamilton](#) desired to control the sphere of influence in the [Western Hemisphere](#), particularly in North America,^[failed verification] but this was extended to the Latin American colonies by the Monroe Doctrine.^[5] But Hamilton, writing in the [Federalist Papers](#), was already wanting to establish America as a world power and hoped that America would suddenly become strong enough to keep the European powers outside of the Americas, despite the fact that the European countries controlled much more of the Americas than the U.S. itself.^[10] Hamilton expected that the United States would become the dominant power in the New World and would, in the future, act as an intermediary between the European powers and any new countries blossoming near the U.S.^[10]

In a note from [James Madison](#) ([Thomas Jefferson's Secretary of State](#) and a future president) to the U.S. ambassador to Spain, the federal government expressed the opposition of the American government to further territorial acquisition by European powers.^[11] Madison's sentiment might have been meaningless because, as was noted before, the European powers held much more territory in comparison to the territory held by the U.S. Although Thomas Jefferson was pro-French, in an attempt to keep the British–French rivalry out the U.S., the federal government under Jefferson made it clear to its ambassadors that the U.S. would not support any future colonization efforts on the North American continent.

The U.S. government feared the victorious European powers that emerged from the [Congress of Vienna](#) (1814–1815) would revive [monarchical](#) government. [France](#) had already agreed to restore the [Spanish monarchy](#) in exchange for [Cuba](#).^[12] As the revolutionary [Napoleonic Wars](#) (1803–1815) ended, [Prussia](#), [Austria](#), and [Russia](#) formed the [Holy Alliance](#) to defend monarchism. In particular, the Holy Alliance authorized military incursions to re-establish [Bourbon](#) rule over [Spain](#) and its colonies, [which were establishing their independence](#).^{[13]:153–5}

The Doctrine

The full document of the Monroe Doctrine, written chiefly by future-President and then-Secretary of State [John Quincy Adams](#), is long and couched in diplomatic language, but its essence is expressed in two key passages. The first is the introductory statement, which asserts that the New World is no longer subject to colonization by the European countries:^[14]

The occasion has been judged proper for asserting, as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.

The second key passage, which contains a fuller statement of the Doctrine, is addressed to the "[allied powers](#)" of Europe; it clarifies that the U.S. remains neutral on existing European colonies in the Americas but is opposed to "interpositions" that would create new colonies among the newly independent Spanish American republics:^[3]

We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their

system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power, we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the Governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.

Effects

International response

Because the U.S. lacked both a credible navy and army at the time, the doctrine was largely disregarded internationally.^[4] Prince [Metternich](#) of Austria was angered by the statement, and wrote privately that the doctrine was a "new act of revolt" by the U.S. that would grant "new strength to the apostles of sedition and reanimate the courage of every conspirator."^{[13]:156}

The doctrine, however, met with tacit British approval. They enforced it tactically as part of the wider [Pax Britannica](#), which included enforcement of the [neutrality of the seas](#). This was in line with the developing British policy of [laissez-faire free trade](#) against [mercantilism](#). [Fast-growing British industry](#) sought markets for its manufactured goods, and, if the newly independent Latin American states became Spanish colonies again, British access to these markets would be cut off by Spanish mercantilist policy.^[15]

Westward Expansion

In 1803, President Thomas Jefferson purchased the territory of Louisiana from the French government for \$15 million. The Louisiana Purchase stretched from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains and from Canada to New Orleans, and it doubled the size of the United States. To Jefferson, westward expansion was the key to the nation's health: He believed that a republic depended on an independent, virtuous citizenry for its survival, and that independence and virtue went hand in hand with land ownership, especially the ownership of small farms. ("Those who labor in the earth," he wrote, "are the chosen people of God.") In order to provide enough land to sustain this ideal population of virtuous yeomen, the United States would have to continue to expand. The westward expansion of the United States is one of the defining themes of 19th-century American history, but it is not just the story of Jefferson's expanding "empire of liberty." On the contrary, as one historian writes, in the six decades after the Louisiana Purchase, westward expansion "very nearly destroy the republic."

Manifest Destiny

By 1840, nearly 7 million Americans—40 percent of the nation's population—lived in the trans-Appalachian West. Following a trail blazed by [Lewis and Clark](#), most of these people had left their homes in the East in search of economic opportunity. Like [Thomas Jefferson](#), many of these pioneers associated westward migration, land ownership and farming with freedom. In Europe, large numbers of factory workers formed a dependent and seemingly permanent working class; by contrast, in the United States, the western frontier offered the possibility of independence and upward mobility for all. In 1843, one thousand pioneers took to the [Oregon Trail](#) as part of the "[Great Emigration](#)."

Did you know? In 1853, the Gadsden Purchase added about 30,000 square miles of Mexican territory to the United States and fixed the boundaries of the “lower 48” where they are today.

In 1845, a journalist named John O’Sullivan put a name to the idea that helped pull many pioneers toward the western frontier. Westward migration was an essential part of the republican project, he argued, and it was Americans’ “[manifest destiny](#)” to carry the “great experiment of liberty” to the edge of the continent: to “overspread and to possess the whole of the [land] which Providence has given us,” O’Sullivan wrote. The survival of American freedom depended on it.

Westward Expansion and Slavery

Meanwhile, the question of whether or not [slavery](#) would be allowed in the new western states shadowed every conversation about the frontier. In 1820, the [Missouri Compromise](#) had attempted to resolve this question: It had admitted Missouri to the union as a slave state and [Maine](#) as a free state, preserving the fragile balance in Congress. More important, it had stipulated that in the future, slavery would be prohibited north of the southern boundary of Missouri (the 36°30’ parallel) in the rest of the [Louisiana Purchase](#).

However, the Missouri Compromise did not apply to new territories that were not part of the Louisiana Purchase, and so the issue of slavery continued to fester as the nation expanded. The Southern economy grew increasingly dependent on “King Cotton” and the system of forced labor that sustained it. Meanwhile, more and more Northerners came to believe that the expansion of slavery impinged upon their own liberty, both as citizens—the pro-slavery majority in Congress did not seem to represent their interests—and as yeoman farmers. They did not necessarily object to slavery itself, but they resented the way its expansion seemed to interfere with their own economic opportunity.

Westward Expansion and the Mexican War

Despite this sectional conflict, Americans kept on migrating West in the years after the Missouri Compromise was adopted. Thousands of people crossed the Rockies to the [Oregon](#) Territory, which belonged to Great Britain, and thousands more moved into the Mexican territories of [California](#), [New Mexico](#) and [Texas](#). In 1837, American settlers in Texas joined with their Tejano neighbors (Texans of Spanish origin) and won independence from Mexico. They petitioned to join the United States as a slave state.

This promised to upset the careful balance that the Missouri Compromise had achieved, and the annexation of Texas and other Mexican territories did not become a political priority until the enthusiastically expansionist cotton planter [James K. Polk](#) was elected to the presidency in 1844. Thanks to the maneuvering of Polk and his allies, Texas joined the union as a slave state in February 1846; in June, after negotiations with Great Britain, Oregon joined as a free state.

That same month, Polk declared war against [Mexico](#), claiming (falsely) that the Mexican army had “invaded our territory and shed American blood on American soil.” The [Mexican-American War](#) proved to be relatively unpopular, in part because many Northerners objected to what they saw as a war to expand the “slaveocracy.” In 1846, [Pennsylvania](#) Congressman David Wilmot attached a proviso to a war-appropriations bill declaring that slavery should not be permitted in any part of the Mexican territory that the U.S. might acquire. Wilmot’s measure failed to pass, but it made explicit once again the sectional conflict that haunted the process of westward expansion.

Westward Expansion and the Compromise of 1850

In 1848, the [Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo](#) ended the Mexican War and added more than 1 million square miles, an area larger than the Louisiana Purchase, to the United States. The acquisition of this land re-opened the question that the Missouri Compromise had ostensibly settled: What would be the status of slavery in new American territories? After two years of increasingly volatile debate over the issue, [Kentucky](#) Senator [Henry Clay](#) proposed another compromise. It had four parts: first, California would enter the Union as a free state; second, the status of slavery in the rest of the Mexican territory would be decided by the people who lived there; third, the slave trade (but not slavery) would be abolished in [Washington](#), D.C.; and fourth, a new [Fugitive Slave Act](#) would enable Southerners to reclaim runaway slaves who had escaped to Northern states where slavery was not allowed.

Bleeding Kansas

But the larger question remained unanswered. In 1854, [Illinois](#) Senator [Stephen A. Douglas](#) proposed that two new states, [Kansas](#) and [Nebraska](#), be established in the Louisiana Purchase west of [Iowa](#) and Missouri. According to the terms of the Missouri Compromise, both new states would prohibit slavery because both were north of the 36°30' parallel. However, since no Southern legislator would approve a plan that would give more power to “free-soil” Northerners, Douglas came up with a middle ground that he called “popular sovereignty”: letting the settlers of the territories decide for themselves whether their states would be slave or free.

Northerners were outraged: Douglas, in their view, had caved to the demands of the “slaveocracy” at their expense. The battle for Kansas and Nebraska became a battle for the soul of the nation. Emigrants from Northern and Southern states tried to influence the vote. For

example, thousands of Missourians flooded into Kansas in 1854 and 1855 to vote (fraudulently) in favor of slavery. “Free-soil” settlers established a rival government, and soon Kansas spiraled into civil war. Hundreds of people died in the fighting that ensued, known as “[Bleeding Kansas](#).”

A decade later, the civil war in Kansas over the expansion of slavery was followed by a national civil war over the same issue. As Thomas Jefferson had predicted, it was the question of slavery in the West—a place that seemed to be the emblem of American freedom—that proved to be “the knell of the union.

Revolutionary War

The Revolutionary War (1775-83), also known as the American Revolution, arose from growing tensions between residents of Great Britain’s 13 North American colonies and the colonial government, which represented the British crown. Skirmishes between British troops and colonial

War of 1812

In the War of 1812, the United States took on the greatest naval power in the world, Great Britain, in a conflict that would have an immense impact on the young country’s future. Causes of the war included British attempts to restrict U.S. trade, the Royal Navy’s impressment of Like most people uprooted by the Cherokee Trail of Tears, Eliza Whitmire experienced terrible trauma. In 1830, the U.S. government passed the Indian Removal Act. Eliza was about five years old when more than 3,000 armed militia arrived in Cherokee country in 1838.

California Gold Rush

The California Gold Rush was sparked by the discovery of gold nuggets in the Sacramento Valley in early 1848 and was arguably one of the most significant events to shape American history during the first half of the 19th century.

Secession crisis

The election of Lincoln provoked the legislature of [South Carolina](#) to call a state convention to consider secession. Before the war, South Carolina did more than any other Southern state to advance the notion that a state had the right to [nullify](#) federal laws, and even to secede from the United States. The convention summoned unanimously voted to secede on December 20, 1860, and adopted the "[Declaration of the Immediate Causes Which Induce and Justify the Secession of South Carolina from the Federal Union](#)". It argued for states' rights for slave owners in the South, but contained a complaint about states' rights in the North in the form of opposition to the [Fugitive Slave Act](#), claiming that Northern states were not fulfilling their federal obligations under the Constitution. The "cotton states" of [Mississippi](#), [Florida](#), [Alabama](#), Georgia, Louisiana, and [Texas](#) followed suit, seceding in January and February 1861.

The first published imprint of secession, a [broadside](#) issued by the [Charleston Mercury](#), December 20, 1860

Among the ordinances of secession passed by the individual states, those of three—Texas, Alabama, and Virginia—specifically mentioned the plight of the "slaveholding states" at the hands of Northern abolitionists. The rest make no mention of the slavery issue and are often brief announcements of the dissolution of ties by the legislatures.^[94] However, at least four states—South Carolina,^[95] Mississippi,^[96] Georgia,^[97] and Texas^[98]—also passed lengthy and detailed

explanations of their causes for secession, all of which laid the blame squarely on the movement to abolish slavery and that movement's influence over the politics of the Northern states. The Southern states believed slaveholding was a constitutional right because of the [Fugitive Slave Clause](#) of the Constitution. These states agreed to form a new federal government, the [Confederate States of America](#), on February 4, 1861.^[99] They took control of federal forts and other properties within their boundaries with little resistance from outgoing President [James Buchanan](#), whose term ended on March 4, 1861. Buchanan said that the [Dred Scott decision](#) was proof that the South had no reason for secession, and that the Union "was intended to be perpetual", but that "The power by force of arms to compel a State to remain in the Union" was not among the "enumerated powers granted to Congress".^[100] One-quarter of the U.S. Army—the entire garrison in Texas—was surrendered in February 1861 to state forces by its commanding general, [David E. Twiggs](#), who then joined the Confederacy.^[101]

As Southerners resigned their seats in the Senate and the House, Republicans were able to pass projects that had been blocked by Southern senators before the war. These included the [Morrill Tariff](#), land grant colleges (the [Morrill Act](#)), a [Homestead Act](#), a transcontinental railroad (the [Pacific Railroad Acts](#)),^[102] the [National Bank Act](#), the authorization of [United States Notes](#) by the [Legal Tender Act of 1862](#), and the ending of [slavery in the District of Columbia](#). The [Revenue Act of 1861](#) introduced the [income tax](#) to help finance the war.

On December 18, 1860, the [Crittenden Compromise](#) was proposed to re-establish the [Missouri Compromise](#) line by constitutionally banning slavery in territories to the north of the line while guaranteeing it to the south. The adoption of this compromise likely would have prevented the secession of every Southern state apart from South Carolina, but Lincoln and the Republicans rejected it.^{[103][*better source needed*]} It was then proposed to hold a national referendum on the

compromise. The Republicans again rejected the idea, although a majority of both Northerners and Southerners would likely have voted in favor of it.^{[104][*better source needed*]} A pre-war February [Peace Conference of 1861](#) met in Washington, proposing a solution similar to that of the Crittenden compromise; it was rejected by Congress. The Republicans proposed an [alternative compromise](#) to not interfere with slavery where it existed but the South regarded it as insufficient. Nonetheless, the remaining eight slave states rejected pleas to join the Confederacy following a two-to-one no-vote in Virginia's First Secessionist Convention on April 4, 1861.^[105]

On March 4, 1861, [Abraham Lincoln](#) was sworn in as president. In his [inaugural address](#), he argued that the Constitution was a *more perfect union* than the earlier [Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union](#), that it was a binding contract, and called any secession "legally void".^[106] He had no intent to invade Southern states, nor did he intend to end slavery where it existed, but said that he would use force to maintain possession of Federal property. The government would make no move to recover post offices, and if resisted, mail delivery would end at state lines. Where popular conditions did not allow peaceful enforcement of Federal law, U.S. marshals and judges would be withdrawn. No mention was made of bullion lost from U.S. mints in Louisiana, Georgia, and North Carolina. He stated that it would be U.S. policy to only collect import duties at its ports; there could be no serious injury to the South to justify the armed revolution during his administration. His speech closed with a plea for restoration of the bonds of union, famously calling on "the mystic chords of memory" binding the two regions.^[106]

The South sent delegations to Washington and offered to pay for the federal properties^[*which?*] and enter into a peace treaty with the United States. Lincoln rejected any negotiations with Confederate agents because he claimed the Confederacy was not a legitimate government, and

that making any treaty with it would be tantamount to recognition of it as a sovereign government.^[107] Secretary of State [William Seward](#), who at the time saw himself as the real governor or "prime minister" behind the throne of the inexperienced Lincoln, engaged in unauthorized and indirect negotiations that failed.^[107] President Lincoln was determined to hold all remaining Union-occupied forts in the Confederacy: [Fort Monroe](#) in Virginia, [Fort Pickens](#), [Fort Jefferson](#) and [Fort Taylor](#) in Florida, and [Fort Sumter](#) – located at the cockpit of secession in Charleston, South Carolina.

Battle of Fort Sumter

Fort Sumter is located in the middle of the harbor of [Charleston](#), South Carolina. Its garrison had recently moved there to avoid incidents with local militias in the streets of the city. Lincoln told its commander, [Maj. Anderson](#) to hold on until fired upon. Confederate president [Jefferson Davis](#) ordered the surrender of the fort. Anderson gave a conditional reply that the Confederate government rejected, and Davis ordered General [P. G. T. Beauregard](#) to attack the fort before a relief expedition could arrive. He bombarded Fort Sumter on April 12–13, forcing its capitulation.

The attack on Fort Sumter rallied the North to the defense of American nationalism. Historian [Allan Nevins](#) underscored the significance of the event:

"The thunderclap of Sumter produced a startling crystallization of Northern sentiment. ... Anger swept the land. From every side came news of mass meetings, speeches, resolutions, tenders of business support, the muster of companies and regiments, the determined action of governors and legislatures."^[108]

Union leaders incorrectly assumed that only a minority of Southerners were in favor of secession and that there were large numbers of southern Unionists that could be counted on. Had

Northerners realized that most Southerners favored secession, they might have hesitated at attempting the enormous task of conquering a united South.

Lincoln called on all the states to send forces to recapture the fort and other federal properties. The scale of the rebellion appeared to be small, so he called for only [75,000 volunteers](#) for 90 days.^[110] The governor of Massachusetts had state regiments on trains headed south the next day. In western Missouri, local secessionists seized [Liberty Arsenal](#).^[111] On May 3, 1861, Lincoln called for an additional 42,000 volunteers for a period of three years.^[112]

Four states in the middle and upper South had repeatedly rejected Confederate overtures, but now [Virginia](#), [Tennessee](#), [Arkansas](#), and [North Carolina](#) refused to send forces against their neighbors, declared their secession, and joined the Confederacy. To reward Virginia, the Confederate capital was moved to [Richmond](#).^[113]

[Maryland](#), [Delaware](#), [Missouri](#), and [Kentucky](#) were slave states that were opposed to both secession and coercing the South. [West Virginia](#) then joined them as an additional border state after it separated from [Virginia](#) and became a state of the [Union](#) in 1863.

Maryland's territory surrounded the United States' capital of [Washington, D.C.](#), and could cut it off from the North.^[114] It had numerous anti-Lincoln officials who tolerated anti-army [rioting in Baltimore](#) and the burning of bridges, both aimed at hindering the passage of troops to the South. Maryland's legislature voted overwhelmingly (53–13) to stay in the Union, but also rejected hostilities with its southern neighbors, voting to close Maryland's rail lines to prevent them from being used for war.^[115] Lincoln responded by establishing [martial law](#) and unilaterally suspending [habeas corpus](#) in Maryland, along with sending in militia units from the North.^[116] Lincoln rapidly took control of Maryland and the District of Columbia by seizing many prominent figures, including arresting 1/3 of the members of the [Maryland General](#)

[Assembly](#) on the day it reconvened.^{[115][117]} All were held without trial, ignoring a ruling by the Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court [Roger Taney](#), a Maryland native, that only Congress (and not the president) could suspend habeas corpus ([Ex parte Merryman](#)). Federal troops imprisoned a prominent Baltimore newspaper editor, [Frank Key Howard](#), Francis Scott Key's grandson, after he criticized Lincoln in an editorial for ignoring the Supreme Court Chief Justice's ruling.^[118]

In Missouri, an [elected convention](#) on secession voted decisively to remain within the Union. When pro-Confederate Governor [Claiborne F. Jackson](#) called out the state militia, it was attacked by federal forces under General [Nathaniel Lyon](#), who chased the governor and the rest of the State Guard to the southwestern corner of the state (*see also*: [Missouri secession](#)). In the resulting vacuum, the convention on secession reconvened and took power as the Unionist provisional government of Missouri.^[119]

Kentucky did not secede; for a time, it declared itself neutral. When Confederate forces entered the state in September 1861, neutrality ended and the state reaffirmed its Union status while trying to maintain slavery. During a brief invasion by Confederate forces in 1861, Confederate sympathizers organized a secession convention, formed the shadow [Confederate Government of Kentucky](#), inaugurated a governor, and gained recognition from the Confederacy. Its jurisdiction extended only as far as Confederate battle lines in the Commonwealth and went into exile for good after October 1862.^[120]

After Virginia's secession, a [Unionist government](#) in [Wheeling](#) asked 48 counties to vote on an ordinance to create a new state on October 24, 1861. A voter turnout of 34 percent approved the statehood bill (96 percent approving).^[121] The inclusion of 24 secessionist counties^[122] in the state and the ensuing guerrilla war engaged about 40,000 Federal troops for much of the

war.^{[123][124]} Congress admitted West Virginia to the Union on June 20, 1863. West Virginia provided about 20,000–22,000 soldiers to both the Confederacy and the Union.^[125]

A Unionist secession attempt occurred in East Tennessee, but was suppressed by the Confederacy, which arrested over 3,000 men suspected of being loyal to the Union. They were held without trial.