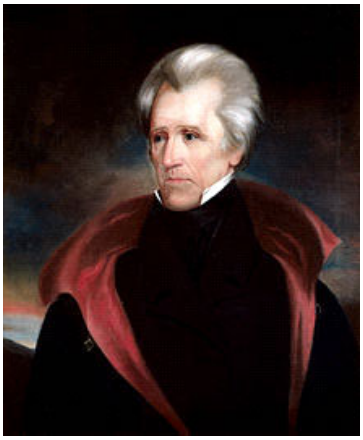

President	Andrew Jackson
Chronological Order	7
Life Span	1767-1845
Home State	Tennessee
Elected	1828, 1832
Political Party	Democratic
Vice President	John C. Calhoun (first term), Martin Van Buren (second term)
First Lady	Wife Deceased
Children	2 adopted sons
Physical Attributes	6'1" tall, very thin (140 lbs.), sandy red hair (later gray), bright, intensely blue eyes
Undergraduate Education	None
Military Service	Scout and Courier in Revolutionary War, Major General in War of 1812
Profession	Attorney, Planter, Soldier
Other Political Offices	U.S. House of Representatives, U.S. Senator, Governor of the Florida Territory
Nickname	Old Hickory or The Hero of New Orleans
Family Lineage	Scots-Irish
Religious Affiliation	Presbyterian

Biographical Notes

1. Jackson was self-confident, iron-willed, combustible, and fearless. Personal honor was very important to him. He fought throughout his life to protect the United States: from the British, from the Indians, from the Spanish, and from secession. He was a passionate spokesman for democracy, the first president from the West, and the first, except for Washington, without a college education.

2. Andrew Jackson had two distinctive physical traits. First, he was very thin – 6'1" tall and approximately 140 lbs. Jackson reminded people of a hickory branch – thin and almost impossible to break. The Indians he fought against in the Creek War called him Sharp Knife because he was so slender. Second, he had bright, intensely blue eyes which blazed whenever his passion was aroused. More than anything else, his eyes, when ignited, had a powerful effect on those around him. They riveted attention; they commanded obedience; and they could terrorize.

3. Andrew Jackson's father, Andrew Sr., mother, Betty, and his two brothers, Hugh and Robert, immigrated from Northern Ireland to the Waxhaws region of South Carolina near the North Carolina border in 1765. In 1767, Andrew Sr. died in a logging accident on the property they were settling. The future president, Andrew Jr., was born later that same year.

Newly widowed, Betty and her sons moved in with the family of Betty's sister, Jane Crawford, who lived nearby. The Jacksons lived with the Crawfords, with Betty doing housework and watching the Crawford children to earn their keep. Betty never remarried, and the Jacksons never had their own home.

Andrew was a skinny boy with a feisty, stubborn streak who felt he needed to fight for anything of value. A heavier contemporary recalled that Andrew would be thrown to the ground three times out of four when they wrestled, "but he would never stay throwed. He was dead game, even then, and would never give up."

4. During the Revolutionary War, the British captured Savannah, Georgia, and Charleston, South Carolina, in 1780. After capturing Charleston, a force of 300 redcoats under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Banastre Tarleton ravaged the Waxshaws, killing 113 and wounding 150. The incident is referred to as the Tarleton

Massacre because most of the corpses had a dozen or more bayonet wounds.

In response to the massacre, Andrew's older brother Hugh joined a local militia and fought the British at the Battle of Stono Ferry. Hugh died immediately after the battle from "the excessive heat of the weather and the fatigue of the day." In August 1780, Andrew, aged thirteen, and his older brother Robert participated in the Battle of Hanging Rock, with Andrew on the field carrying messages. Nine months later, they were captured by the British. During the incident, the British commanding officer ordered Andrew to clean his boots, and Jackson refused. The enraged officer slashed at him with his sword, leaving Andrew with permanent scars on his hand and forehead and a permanent hatred for the British.

Robert Jackson was wounded as well, and the British took the two boys as prisoners of war to Camden, South Carolina. They almost starved in prison. Robert's wounds got worse, and Andrew contracted smallpox. Eventually, their mother came to Camden with two horses and got her sons released to her as part of a prisoner exchange. Robert was deathly ill and could neither stand nor sit on horseback. So, she strapped him onto one horse and rode the other herself, holding the reigns of Robert's horse. Andrew had to walk the forty-five miles home barefoot and without a jacket. The trio made it home, but Robert died two days later. Andrew was very ill; it took him months to recover.

After nursing Andrew back to health, Betty volunteered to go to Charleston during a cholera outbreak to nurse American prisoners of war, which included two of her Crawford nephews. She contracted the disease and died, leaving Andrew an orphan with no siblings at age fourteen. He blamed the British for the deaths of his mother and brothers. Andrew emerged from the American Revolution with deep patriotic and nationalistic convictions, which remained with him for the rest of his life.

5. At age seventeen, Jackson moved to Salisbury, North Carolina, where he persuaded a lawyer to take him on as a law student despite his lack of formal education. For the next two years, Jackson studied by day and caroused at night. A contemporary later recalled that: "Andrew Jackson was the most roaring, rollicking, game-cocking, horse-racing, card-playing, mischievous fellow that ever lived in Salisbury." At one point, Jackson was down to his last significant possession – his horse – and staked it against $200 on one roll of the dice. He won and paid off his creditors. Jackson was licensed to practice law at age twenty.

6. In 1788, John McNairy, a fellow carouser from Jackson's Salisbury days, was appointed superior court judge for the Mero District in the western part of North Carolina, the region beyond the mountains that is now the state of Tennessee. With the job went the right to appoint the public prosecutor for the district, and McNairy chose his old friend Jackson. McNairy and Jackson crossed the mountains and arrived at Nashville (population 200), the capital of the Mero District, in October 1788.

7. When Jackson arrived in Nashville, he rented a small cabin behind the main house of Katherine Donelson, a widow; her attractive, married daughter, Rachel Donelson Robards, arrived about the same time and began living in the main house. Rachel was estranged from her husband, Lewis Robards of Kentucky, who had accused her of adultery. Soon after, Robards came to Nashville to reconcile with Rachel and began living at the main house. He came to know Jackson because Jackson took his meals with the Donelsons. After a few months, Robards became jealous of Jackson. Jackson confronted him about this and challenged him to a duel, but Robards refused. Instead, he damned Jackson and Rachel and left for Kentucky, presumably to get a divorce.

In 1789, Jackson and Rachel fell in love; the details of what happened after that are obscure. They traveled to Natchez – the dates differ in different accounts – and lived together there. Jackson returned to Nashville in April 1791 and discovered that Robards had obtained an act from the Virginia legislature, which controlled Kentucky then, authorizing him to sue for divorce from Rachel. Jackson and Rachel then began living in Nashville as husband and wife, though there is no record of them getting married in either Natchez or Nashville up to this point. Late in 1793, Jackson found out that Robard's divorce from Rachel had only just been granted. Robards had started the process two years ago but had not finished it until now. The divorce was granted because of Rachel's adultery with Jackson. In January 1794, Jackson and Rachel were married by a justice of the peace in Nashville.

The union, however irregularly accomplished, provided Jackson with emotional security he had never experienced before. Fatherless at birth, motherless as a teen, with neither surviving siblings nor close cousins, Jackson made Rachel the emotional center of his universe.

8. Jackson became attorney general for the Mero District in 1794 and a judge advocate of the Davidson County militia (his first military appointment) in 1795. He was part of the inner circle of William Blount, the

territorial governor, and became involved in land speculation. Between 1793 and 1797, Jackson invested twenty thousand dollars in sixteen different land transactions.

At this time, the major obstacle to land speculation was that Indian tribes occupied large portions of Tennessee. As attorney general, it was Jackson's responsibility to enforce the existing treaties with the various tribes and prosecute violators, regardless of race. But his heart was not on the side of the Indians. Like most white Americans, he had no patience with the Indian claims to their ancestral lands. In the 1790s, Jackson emerged as one of the leaders in the cause of rapid Indian removal. He never wavered from this position.

9. In 1796, Tennessee entered the Union as the sixteenth state and chose Andrew Jackson as its lone member of the U.S. House of Representatives, where he spoke out forcefully against Jay's Treaty. His term ended in March 1797. The Tennessee legislature then chose him for a six-year term as a U.S. senator.

However, after three months in the House and three months in the Senate, Jackson discovered that he was not cut out for legislative politics and resigned from the Senate. His was an executive temperament; he could make decisions more easily than he could make compromises. He had greater confidence in his judgment than that of others. Action came more naturally to him than patience. He believed a single honest man would be more likely find the truth than a committee. He was a born leader who could not make himself a follower.

10. From 1798 to 1804, Jackson served as a state superior court judge, a job he loved. The position required him to travel to all parts of Tennessee, and he acquired a reputation for integrity and swift decision-making. In 1802, he was elected major general of the Tennessee state militia.

Once, Jackson was on the bench presiding over a case, and a rowdy, belligerent man just outside the courtroom was brandishing a pistol and making a fuss. The man had a history of violence; the sheriff had been unable to arrest him, and then a posse had failed to arrest him. Jackson removed his robe, grabbed his pistol, strode out the door, and said to the man, “Surrender, you infernal villain, this very instant, or I’ll blow you through.”

Onlookers gasped, wondering how the bully would respond. The man looked at Jackson’s blazing blue eyes, then meekly handed over his gun and was taken into custody. When an onlooker asked the man why he surrendered, he said, “Why, when he [Jackson] came up, I looked him in the eye, and I saw shoot. There wasn’t shoot in nary other eye in the crowd.”

11. In 1804, Jackson bought a farm just outside Nashville that he and Rachel named the Hermitage. Eventually, they built a beautiful house there – four rooms downstairs, four rooms upstairs, with a central hallway and high ceilings – that became their home for the rest of their lives. Jackson and Rachel are buried there, and the Hermitage is now a National Historic Landmark.

A farm in Tennessee circa 1800 had slaves. When Jackson bought the Hermitage, he owned fewer than a dozen slaves, all field hands. By 1820, he owned four dozen, including his cook and house servants. He owned one hundred in 1829 and one hundred fifty in 1836, the last year of his presidency. Unlike earlier presidents, e.g., Washington and Jefferson, Jackson did not have any reservations about owning slaves or about the slave system itself. In fact, during his second term as president, his followers protected slavery by (a) instituting the Gag Rule in the House of Representatives, which forbade the discussion of slavery, and (b) intercepting, at Southern post offices, antislavery tracts mailed from the North before they could be delivered in the South.

The chief crops of the Hermitage were corn and cotton. The corn helped feed the slaves and the livestock; the cotton went to market. Like every other commercial farmer, Jackson watched the price of his market crop closely. It often fluctuated wildly, sometimes doubling or halving within a matter of months. He was better off than producers of perishable crops such as wheat because if the cotton price fell too far, he could store his bales until the price improved. Jackson’s operation was modest compared to some other cotton farms in the Deep South. For example, in 1825, a fairly typical year, he planted 131 acres and harvested 71 bales (500 pounds each) of cleaned, deseeded cotton.

12. Even though Jackson was a public figure, he was hotheaded and became involved in several duels. He had a 1788 duel with another lawyer in which no one was injured. In 1806, he argued with Charles Dickinson over a horse racing wager. Things got heated, and Dickinson was quoted in a Nashville newspaper calling Jackson a "worthless scoundrel, a poltroon, and a coward."

In the ensuing duel, Dickinson fired first and hit Jackson in the chest. With blood pouring out of his wound, Jackson slowly raised his pistol and pulled the trigger, but the gun stuck at half-cock. Under the rules, Jackson

was allowed a second chance; he shot and killed Dickinson.

Dickinson's bullet lodged in Jackson's chest too near his heart to be removed safely. The bullet remained there for the rest of his life and complicated his health for decades. Jackson commented to a friend about the duel: "If he had shot me through the brain, sir, I should still have killed him."

13. During the brutal winter of 1812-1813, Jackson received orders to organize a detachment of Tennessee militia and take it to New Orleans as part of the War of 1812. Jackson rounded up two thousand men and accompanied them down the Mississippi River by boat to Natchez. Then he got the following orders from Secretary of War John Armstrong, “The causes for the embodying and marching to New Orleans the troops under your command having ceased to exist, you will on receipt of this letter consider it dismissed from public service.” There was no further explanation; just a directive to deliver any equipment or other property acquired at public expense to New Orleans.

Jackson was furious; this made no sense. He had led his men several hundred miles from their homes in the dead of winter, with great effort, at substantial cost, and at no small peril, to defend their country. Now, Armstrong was telling them that it was for nothing, that they must disband in Indian territory, and that the men should find their own way home.

Jackson refused to disband the militia, and when he asked for funds to feed his troops on the march from Natchez to Nashville, the government turned him down. So, Jackson decided to pay the costs of the trip back to Nashville himself. He said of his militia, “As long as I have friends or credit, I will stick by them.”

Jackson’s defiance of authority – word got out that he was bucking orders – and the pledge of his money on behalf of his men won him their love and admiration as nothing else could have. Next to the hale young men under his command, Jackson looked skinny. But now they saw in him a toughness, a resilience they could rely on. Someone compared him to a hickory branch: thin but impossible to break. The image caught on, and before long, the men were referring to him as Old Hickory.

The trip home went even more rapidly than Jackson had hoped. The news of their approach to Nashville preceded them, and the whole town turned out to greet them.

14. In 1813, Jackson acted as a second when a friend had a duel with Jesse Benton, brother of Thomas Hart Benton. Jackson’s duelist shot Jesse in the buttocks, which embarrassed him. Thomas Benton publicly criticized Jackson for his role in the fiasco, and Jackson threatened to horsewhip Thomas the next time their paths crossed.

Soon after, Jackson, John Coffee, and Jackson’s nephew, Stockley Hays, were walking towards the City Hotel in Nashville and saw Thomas Benton standing in the doorway. Jackson raised his riding whip and shouted, “Now, you damned rascal, I am going to punish you. Defend yourself!” Benton reached into his pocket for what Jackson believed was a pistol. Old Hickory drew his pistol and backed Thomas into the hotel. Jesse raised his pistol and fired two shots at Jackson. The first hit him in the left shoulder, shattering a bone and severing an artery; the second hit his left arm. Jackson got a shot off at Thomas as he went down but missed. Thomas Benton fired two shots at Jackson but missed.

Then the daggers came out. Stockley tried to run Jesse through with his sword cane, but the point of the weapon hit a button and broke. He then wrestled Jesse to the ground and repeatedly stabbed him in both arms with a dirk. Meanwhile, Coffee fired at Thomas and missed; he then tried to club Benton with his pistol, but Thomas retreated quickly and, in his haste, fell down a flight of stairs. And with that, the gunfight ended.

Jackson was the only one seriously injured; the doctor wanted to amputate his arm. But Jackson told him, "I'll keep my arm," and then slipped into unconsciousness. Jackson was utterly prostrate from his significant blood loss. It was three weeks before he could leave his bed. The bullet in his shoulder remained there until it was surgically removed in the White House nineteen years later.

The Benton brothers left Nashville. Thomas settled in Missouri and became a well-respected U.S. senator, serving for thirty years. He did not hold a grudge against Jackson; they became political allies years later. Jesse did hold a grudge. He went to his grave insisting that Jackson was a scoundrel and poltroon.

15. After Jackson's gunfight with the Benton brothers, one thousand warriors of the Upper Creek faction of the Creek tribe attacked Fort Mims in the Alabama Territory, 48 miles north of Mobile. An estimated 517 militiamen, settlers, slaves, and Creeks loyal to the Americans were killed or captured; only 13 people escaped the raid. The Upper Creeks took approximately 250 scalps and butchered many of the bodies, which included women and children. In response, President Madison sent Jackson’s Tennessee militia (plus two detachments of the U.S. Army under his command) into Alabama.

On November 1813, Jackson's forces attacked an Upper Creek village at Tallushatchee, Alabama, killing

every man (186 braves) and capturing 84 women and children. "We shot them like dogs," Davy Crockett later recalled. Five of Jackson's men died in the attack, and 41 were wounded. Six days later, Jackson's forces killed 300 more Upper Creeks at Talladega. On March 27, 1814, Jackson's forces, led by young Sam Houston, attacked the Upper Creek fortress at Horseshoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River, which housed over one thousand warriors and three hundred women. Jackson's men killed approximately 900 braves and took 300 captives, all but four of them women and children. Jackson lost only 47 dead and 159 wounded.

The Battle of Horseshoe Bend was one of the major engagements of the War of 1812. Apart from the incredible number of men killed, it crushed the Indian will and capacity to wage war just when the British were about to land troops from the Gulf and provide the hostiles with an enormous supply of arms and ammunition. Had the Upper Creeks not been defeated so decisively, they would have become a force of incalculable danger to the entire southern half of the United States.

The "Creek War" ended in August 1814. Jackson forced the Upper and Lower Creek factions to sign the Treaty of Fort Jackson, which ceded twenty-three million acres of Creek land (three-fifths of modern-day Alabama and one-fifth of Georgia) to the United States. Even though the Lower Creeks had fought with Jackson, he bullied them into signing away their land by threatening to make war on them if they did not. He justified taking the Lower Creek land by blaming them for not controlling the Upper Creeks. After the Creek War, the U.S. Army gave Jackson the rank of Major General. It also gave him command of the 7th Military District, which included Tennessee, Louisiana, and the Mississippi Territory (present-day Mississippi and Alabama).

16. After the Battle of Tallushatchee, a dead Indian mother was found still clutching her living ten-month-old infant son. The child was brought to Jackson with some other captives, and the General asked some Indian women to care for the child and give him nourishment. They refused. "No," they said. "All his relations are dead; kill him too." As they spoke the words "all his relations are dead," Jackson immediately flashed back to his own Revolutionary War experience. He was reminded that his family had been wiped out by war, and he had been orphaned, too.

He dismissed the women and took the child to his tent, where he dissolved a little brown sugar in water and coaxed the boy to drink. Afterward, Jackson sent him to Huntsville to be nursed, clothed, and housed at his own expense until the end of the campaign, when the infant was sent to the Hermitage.

The child was named Lyncoya, and when he arrived at the Hermitage, Jackson gave explicit orders about how he should be treated. Not like a servant or orphan, he said. "I, therefore, want him to be well taken care of," Jackson told Rachel. "In fact, when I reflect that he as to his relations is so much like myself I feel an unusual sympathy for him."

Jackson and Rachel adopted Lyncoya and raised him as their son. He was apprenticed to a saddler in Nashville. He died of tuberculosis at age sixteen.

17. After the British attacked and burned Washington, D.C., in August 1814, Vice Admiral Sir Alexander Cochrane, the British commander of the North American station, recommended to his government an expedition to invade the United States from the Gulf of Mexico. Only a few thousand troops would be needed, he contended, because Indians and the Spanish would join them in routing the Americans and driving them back from the coast and up the Mississippi Valley. Control of the valley would sever the Louisiana Territory from the United States, and the Mississippi River would provide a highway to transport British troops down from Canada. The British Admiralty approved Cochrane's plan.

Meanwhile, Jackson quickly moved his army from Fort Jackson, Alabama, to Mobile via the Coosa and Alabama rivers, a distance of 185 miles. This move thwarted British intentions of reaching the Mississippi River by land via Mobile – clearly the most feasible plan for invasion because it facilitated linking up with Indians and the Spanish before pushing on to the Mississippi. When he learned of Jackson's move, Cochrane decided to strike directly at New Orleans instead.

New Orleans lies on the eastern side of the winding Mississippi River, slightly more than 100 miles upriver from its mouth on the Gulf of Mexico. Because the river is broad and almost unfordable, the city is virtually invulnerable to attack from the west. Consequently, an invasion must come from the south or the east. However, an approach from the south was also problematic because of Fort Leon. This fortress was situated at a sharp looping bend in the river, and sailing vessels were obliged to stop there and wait for a change in the wind direction to navigate the bend. Invading ships that stopped there were sitting ducks; the fort's guns could easily pick them off. Therefore, the only direction of attack for the British was the eastern water route from the Gulf through Bayou Bienvenue on Lake Borgne.

On January 8, 1815, the British landed an army of 8,000 highly disciplined British regulars east of New

Orleans, where they encountered General Andrew Jackson's army of 4,000 that consisted of militiamen, regulars, free blacks, and a band of pirates led by the infamous Jean Lafitte. Jackson predicted exactly where the British would strike – along a narrow plain between the Mississippi River and a swamp – and built fortifications five feet high and up to twenty feet thick, behind which his men could hide and fire. The British commenced a massive frontal assault on Jackson's position, intending to overwhelm the Americans with sheer numbers. Three rows of expert American riflemen alternated firing volley after volley into the charging Britons with devastating accuracy. In addition, American artillery fired cannon balls at low trajectories that mowed down the charging Redcoats. In this "Battle of New Orleans," 2,037 British soldiers were killed, wounded, or captured to the Americans' 71. Ten days later, the British army got on its ships and sailed away. And thereafter, Jackson would be known as the Hero of New Orleans.

The Treaty of Ghent, which ended the War of 1812, had already been signed before the Battle of New Orleans, but the news had not yet reached the United States. Furthermore, neither country had ratified the treaty. Hence, if the British had won convincingly at New Orleans, they could have backed out of the treaty, continued the war, and tried to fulfill Cochrane's plan.

18. In Washington, in January 1815, gloom and despair locked the nation's capital in hushed fear and anxiety. For months, Washingtonians were unhappily conscious of the nation's shame and disgrace. From the very start, the War of 1812 had gone badly; now, the capital lay in ruins, burnt by the enemy, and the government was humiliated by its flight from the British invaders. Rumors abounded that Federalist representatives from the Hartford Convention in Connecticut were headed for Washington, bearing constitutional revisions as the price for the New England states remaining in the Union.

Then, on February 4, came the report of the stupendous victory at New Orleans – and Washington went wild with delight. The capital erupted in one long cheer of happiness and gratitude. The news shot further north as fast as it could be carried. Jackson was lauded as the "savior of his country." Then, nine days later, the announcement came that the commissioners in Ghent, Belgium, had signed a peace treaty with their British counterparts that ended the war. Men rushed through the streets screaming, "Peace! Peace! Peace!" And in Washington, the delegates from the Hartford Convention, embarrassed and dismayed, slipped quietly out of town before anyone could remember their mission.

Jackson's role in bringing honor and glory to the nation made him a popular hero for the rest of his life. In the public mind, the American "victory" over the British in the War of 1812 was due to Andrew Jackson. Old Hickory! The Hero of New Orleans! He restored the nation's confidence in itself and its ability to maintain its freedom and independence against impossible odds.

19. By 1817, an epidemic of revolutions had broken out against Spain in South American countries, and Spain had taken troops from Florida to fight the rebels. The lack of Spanish troops allowed Seminole Indians from northern Florida to perform a series of devastating raids into Georgia, then scurry back to safety in Florida. In 1817, President Monroe authorized Jackson to stop these raids and to pursue the Seminoles across the border into Florida if necessary. Monroe did not authorize Jackson to attack Spanish forts inside Florida, but his message forbidding this action did not reach Jackson.

In what became known as the First Seminole War (1817-1818), Jackson pursued the Indians into Florida; destroyed Seminole villages; hanged two Seminole chiefs; executed two British citizens for assisting the Indians; captured the Spanish fort at St. Marks; and occupied Pensacola, the capital of West Florida. Monroe and all the members of his cabinet, with one exception, felt that Jackson had exceeded his authority and committed war on Spain without a declaration of war from Congress.

The one exception was Secretary of State John Quincy Adams, who argued that Jackson's actions were "justified by the necessity of the case and by the misconduct of the Spanish officers in Florida." Adams insisted that Jackson "was authorized to cross the Spanish line in pursuit of the enemy" and that the Constitution authorized the executive to wage "defensive acts of hostility" without Congressional approval.

Monroe was convinced by Adams's argument, which became the nation's position on the subject. But Speaker of the House Henry Clay disagreed. Clay did not like Jackson and saw him as a possible presidential rival for 1824, so he asked Congress to censure Jackson for his Florida raid. Clay's action infuriated Jackson, who rode to Washington to confront Clay. Congress overwhelmingly defeated the proposed censure, because Jackson's actions were popular with the American public.

The First Seminole War had two long-term ramifications. First, Jackson's actions gave Adams diplomatic leverage over Spain, and he negotiated the Adams-Onis Treaty (1819), in which Spain ceded Florida to the United States. Second, the Seminoles were eventually required to leave northern Florida and were confined to the center of the Florida peninsula by the Treaty of Moultrie Creek (1823).

20. The details of the Florida raid give a troubling glimpse at the brutal side of Andrew Jackson. When he arrested Alexander Arbuthnot and Robert Ambrister in Florida, they were British citizens. Instead of turning them over to British authorities or deporting them, he held a court-martial trial for them in which the jury comprised U.S. Army regulars and militia members. They were tried, convicted, and sentenced in two days: Arbuthnot to be hanged and Ambrister to be whipped and put to hard labor for one year.

But Jackson was not satisfied with Ambrister's sentence, so he overruled it and sentenced him to death too. The sentences were carried out the next day, thus avoiding any chance of an appeal. The facts later suggested that Arbuthnot was merely an idealistic businessman who sympathized with the Indians but tried to dissuade them from war-making. Ambrister was a soldier of fortune who had indeed encouraged the Seminoles to prepare for war – but against Spain, not the United States.

This was not an isolated case of overreach by Jackson. John Wood was a seventeen-year-old private in one of Jackson's militia companies in the Creek War. When food ran short, the company wanted to leave and go home, but they were held in place by the drawn weapons of Jackson loyalists. This infuriated Jackson, but he let this incident pass when the company agreed to stay. Shortly after, Wood got into an argument with an officer, refused a direct order, and brandished his weapon toward men trying to arrest him. When Jackson heard about this, he had Wood executed.

21. Two significant changes occurred from 1788 to the 1820s that greatly affected subsequent presidential elections. The first was the gradual elimination of the requirement that a voter own land. Originally most states required this, but by 1824 only five out of twenty-four states did.

The second was the gradual divestiture by state legislatures of the power to choose presidential electors. (The Constitution leaves the method of selection up to the states.) In the early days of the republic, most states felt that the people should not be directly involved in selecting presidential electors; instead, they would defer to elites – the members of the state legislature – to make the choices. For example, in 1800, the state legislatures in eleven of the sixteen states chose the presidential electors. However, by 1824 this was true in only six of the twenty-four states, and by 1828 the number had dropped to two of twenty-four states. The rest of the states used the popular vote to choose presidential electors.

These two changes created a mass electorate, which favored Jackson, the self-proclaimed "champion of the common man" and The Hero of New Orleans.

22. There were four presidential candidates in 1824: Massachusetts' John Quincy Adams, Jackson, Georgia's William H. Crawford, and Kentucky's Henry Clay. Jackson and Adams were first and second in the popular vote, 153,544 to 108,740. Crawford and Clay each had about 47,000 votes. The tally in the Electoral College was Jackson 99, Adams 84, Crawford 41, and Clay 37. Since no one had a majority in the Electoral College, the winner would be decided in the House of Representatives from amongst the top three Electoral College vote recipients; each state delegation would cast one vote.

Since Jackson had won a plurality of the Electoral College votes and a plurality of the popular vote, most people thought he would win the election in the House. But there were other forces at work. In particular, Speaker of the House (and defeated presidential candidate) Henry Clay detested Jackson and felt that the Tennessean was too uneducated and impulsive to be president.

Clay had won the Electoral College votes of three states: Kentucky, Missouri, and Ohio, and Adams needed these states (and more) to flip to him to win the House vote. On December 17, Congressman Robert P. Letcher of Kentucky, a Clay confidant, came to see Adams. He told John Quincy that if he could assure Clay's friends that their man would have "a prominent share in the [Adams] administration," they would be prepared to deliver Kentucky to Adams. Letcher "made no definite propositions," and Adams responded "in general terms." On January 9, Clay came to see Adams and the two men had "a long [three hour] conversation explanatory of the past and prospective of the future." Clay later wrote in a letter to an ally that, although Adams had made no promises, he [Clay] concluded from the interview that he could have whatever job he wanted in an Adams administration. Consequently, Clay worked hard to defeat Jackson and win the vote for Adams.

When the vote was taken on February 9, the seven states that Adams had won (in the Electoral College) voted for him in the House. The three states won by Clay (Kentucky, Ohio, and Missouri) all voted for Adams in the House. Three states won by Jackson (Maryland, Louisiana, and Illinois) voted for Adams in the House. The result: Adams had thirteen votes from amongst the twenty-four state delegations and, hence, the majority – by one vote – he needed to be president.

Of the three states won by Jackson that flipped to Adams, Clay probably converted Louisiana, and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts won over Maryland. In Illinois, the chief issue in state politics was whether to

allow slavery. The state's sole delegate, Daniel Cook, was strongly antislavery and voted for Adams for that reason. Missouri's sole delegate, John Scott, was grateful for Clay's role in getting his state admitted to the Union, so he was inclined to follow Clay's lead. In addition, Adams promised that Scott's brother would not be removed from his post as a judge in Arkansas just because he killed a man in a duel. Scott cast Missouri's vote for Adams, despite Jackson being significantly more popular in his state. Adams received Kentucky's vote in the House even though he received only 0.5 percent of the popular vote in that state.

23. Five days after the House vote, Adams nominated Henry Clay for secretary of state; and then all hell broke loose. Jackson and his followers were livid. They decried the "corrupt bargain" that must have been struck between Clay and Adams – Clay's help in the House in exchange for the secretary of state position, which was the traditional stepping-stone to the presidency.

"So, you see," Jackson raged, "the Judas of the West has closed the contract and will receive thirty pieces of silver. His end will be the same. Was there ever witnessed such a bare-faced corruption in any country before?"

Adams insisted that no deal had been made; perhaps he and Clay had spoken in such general terms that his conscience allowed him to believe that. However, it *appeared* to the public that they had made a deal, and Adams was naïve to think there would be no repercussions. Clay, the consummate politician, should have known better than to accept the position. Years later, while running for president, Clay admitted that this had been the worst mistake of his life. Jackson's charge of a corrupt bargain dogged Adams throughout his presidency.

24. Within months after the inauguration of John Quincy Adams in 1825, the Tennessee legislature nominated Andrew Jackson for president in the next election (i.e., 1828). After Adams's disastrous first State of the Union address, his vice president, John C. Calhoun, made the political calculation that Jackson would win in 1828 and would probably be a one-term president due to poor health. Therefore, he secretly agreed to support Jackson and be the general's running mate in 1828, hoping to be president himself in 1832.

In the meantime, Martin Van Buren, the leader of the "Albany Regency" political faction in New York State and a Crawford supporter in 1824, came up with a plan for an anti-Adams, pro-Jackson coalition of "the planters of the South and the plain Republicans of the North." This coalition called themselves "the Democracy." The name was later changed to the Democratic Party. Adams's supporters called themselves National Republicans; this party later evolved into the Whig Party, then the modern Republican Party.

25. Jackson defeated Adams 178 to 83 electoral votes in the election of 1828. The election was one of the dirtiest in American history. Some Jackson supporters spread the rumor that Adams had pimped out an American woman to the Czar of Russia when he was a minister there. Someone (allegedly Henry Clay) leaked the details of the Jacksons' marriage to the press, which greatly distressed Rachel. She died of a heart attack at the Hermitage after the election on December 22, 1828, before Jackson left his home to take up his post in Washington. Jackson blamed Henry Clay and never forgave him.

During the campaign of 1828, Jackson's opponents called him a "jackass." He liked the image so much that the donkey became the mascot of the Democratic Party.

26. Jackson's first cabinet had two members each from the Mid-Atlantic, Western, and Southern states but no member from New England. He chose: for State, Martin Van Buren (NY); for Treasury, Samuel D. Ingham (PA); for War, John H. Eaton (TN); for Attorney General, John M. Berrien (GA); for Navy, John Branch (NC); and for Postmaster General, William T. Barry (KY).

The cabinet members were not an exceptionally talented group, except for Van Buren, and none were particularly close to Jackson, except for Van Buren and Eaton. Eaton was Jackson's close friend; he served as an aide to Old Hickory during the Creek War and the War of 1812, including the Battle of New Orleans. After the war, Jackson took command of the Southern U.S. Army District with his headquarters at the Hermitage, and Eaton served as his aide. Eaton later became a major proponent of Jackson's presidential candidacy. Ingham, Berrien, and Branch were closely allied with Vice President John C. Calhoun.

Early in his first term, disagreements arose between Jackson and some members of his cabinet, and he came to rely instead on a group of informal advisors who became known as his "Kitchen Cabinet": Amos Kendall, William B. Lewis, Andrew Jackson Donelson, John Overton, Francis Preston Blair, and Roger B. Taney.

27. The spoils system – that is, the replacement of current officeholders with your political supporters – was introduced into the federal government by Jackson. Washington and John Adams replaced 9 people each; Jefferson, 39; Madison, 5; Monroe, 9; and John Quincy Adams, 2. Jackson replaced 919, just under one-tenth

of the federal government. The term was coined by Governor William Marcy of New York, who said, "To the victor belongs the spoils of the enemy." The spoils system lasted until civil service reforms were instituted circa 1900.

28. During the first two years of the Jackson administration, there was significant tension in the cabinet due to the Eaton Affair (a.k.a. the Petticoat Affair). John Eaton's wife, Margaret "Peggy" Eaton, was the subject of many rumors about her past. As the daughter of a Washington innkeeper, Peggy had grown up smiling and flirting with male guests, who included John Eaton and occasionally Andrew Jackson. Eaton, a widower, flirted back, even though Peggy was married. Her husband, John Timberlake, was a naval officer whose assignments carried him far from Washington for extended periods, and Eaton and Peggy were rumored to be intimate. In April 1828, her husband committed suicide while at sea, and soon, Peggy began seeing Eaton openly. They were married on New Year's Day, 1829. It was also rumored that Peggy Eaton had scandalous affairs before marrying Timberlake.

After Jackson's inauguration, Vice President Calhoun's wife, the wives of Secretary of the Treasury Ingham, Secretary of the Navy Branch, and the daughter of Attorney General Berrien (a widower) refused to interact with the Eatons socially because of Peggy's reputation. So did Emily Donelson, the wife of Jackson's aide, nephew, and surrogate son, Andrew Jackson Donelson. The Donelsons lived at the White House, and Emily often served as Jackson's hostess. Jackson, remembering how his wife Rachel had suffered due to slander, vigorously came to Peggy Eaton's defense and demanded that she be treated with respect. However, the ladies of the cabinet would not comply.

As a widower, Secretary of State Martin Van Buren had no wife to embroil him in this controversy, so he could have avoided it altogether. Instead, he took Peggy Eaton's side by visiting the Eatons at their home and inviting them to the receptions he hosted as secretary of state. He also defended Peggy to foreign diplomats and let them know they must treat her with the respect due to any cabinet spouse. This support endeared him to Jackson.

29. Jackson liked riding horseback daily for exercise, and Van Buren accompanied him most days. The two men became close friends, and the diminutive "Little Magician" became one of Jackson's most trusted advisors. He was a smooth-talking dealmaker and master strategist who had connections on Capitol Hill and could help turn Jackson's wishes into public policy. He was also one of the few people who could make Old Hickory laugh.

Secretary of State Van Buren had three notable foreign policy successes during Jackson's first term. First, he helped reverse one of the failures of the John Quincy Adams administration by negotiating a successful trade agreement with Great Britain that reopened the British West Indies to American ships. Second, Van Buren and Jackson secured a large payment (several millions of dollars) from France for damage to American shipping during the Napoleonic Wars. Third, he concluded America's first treaty with the Ottoman Empire, a significant agreement that laid the foundation for the modern-day alliance between the United States and Turkey.

30. In early 1830, states in the South felt strongly that the Tariff of 1828 (a.k.a. the Tariff of Abominations) was beneficial to the manufacturing North and harmful to the agrarian South. In response, Vice President John C. Calhoun and Senator Robert Hayne of South Carolina put forth the principle of nullification, whereby a state could nullify a federal law it disapproved of.

The nullifiers chose the April 13, 1830, Jefferson Birthday Dinner in Washington, D.C., to promulgate their cause. The day before the dinner, they published a list of twenty-four speakers who would give toasts at the celebration. When Jackson saw the list, he immediately discerned the purpose of the toasts: to praise nullification and – since this was Jefferson's birthday – imply that the Sage of Monticello would agree with them if he were alive. After all, Jefferson's Kentucky Resolutions put forth the idea that states should not enforce the Alien and Sedition Acts because they were unconstitutional. Jackson was furious and decided to attend the dinner.

At the dinner, Jackson sat through two dozen toasts to states' rights. When Jackson's turn came, he cut these men down in six quick words – "Our Union: It must be preserved." His words produced a gasp among the Southerners and nullifiers. "There was no misunderstanding the effect it had on the company," Martin Van Buren later wrote, "neither could any sentiment from another have occasioned a tithe of the sensation that was witnessed throughout the large assemblage."

Calhoun then rose to speak. The vice president interpreted Jackson's toast as directly threatening the South's cause. "The Union – next to our liberty the most dear," he said, adding, "May we all remember that it

can only be preserved by respecting the rights of the states and distributing equally the benefit and burden of the Union." There it was, then: a decisive rallying cry from Jackson and a legalistic, but still defiant, manifesto from Calhoun.

31. Jackson was very concerned Southerners might defy federal laws and even advocate secession if they were not allowed to nullify federal laws they disagreed with. A few days after the Jefferson Birthday Dinner, a congressman from South Carolina came to the White House to see Jackson before leaving for home. He asked the president if he had anything he wanted to convey to his friends in South Carolina. Jackson, remembering Calhoun's toast at the dinner, said, "Yes, I have; please give my compliments to my friends in your state, and say to them, if a single drop of blood shall be shed there in opposition to the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man I can lay my hand on engaged in such treasonable conduct, upon the first tree I can reach." After hearing about Jackson's comment, Thomas Hart Benton told nullifier Robert Y. Hayne, "When Jackson begins to talk about hanging, they [the nullifiers] can begin to look out for ropes!"

32. In the early 1800s, five Indian tribes were indigenous to the southeastern part of the United States. The Choctaw and Chickasaw tribes together occupied approximately half of what is now the state of Mississippi. The Cherokee and Creek tribes occupied significant parts of Alabama, Georgia, and Tennessee. The Seminoles occupied approximately one-fourth of Florida.

These Native Americans were often called the "Five Civilized Tribes." Many of them practiced agriculture and animal husbandry much as their white neighbors did. The federal government had commissioned the eminent geographer Jedidiah Morse to prepare a comprehensive report on America's Indian tribes. His *Report to the Secretary of War on Indian Affairs* (1822) praised the economic and educational progress of the Five Civilized Tribes and advised that they be left in peace to continue it. But Morse's advice was not taken. White settlers bitterly resented the Native Americans' presence; besides occupying land good for raising cotton, they traded with free blacks and sometimes provided a haven for runaway slaves.

Jackson, an old Indian fighter who had championed Indian removal for decades, wanted to free up land for the white settlers in the southeastern part of the U.S. by forcing the Five Civilized Tribes to move west even though they had begun to acclimate themselves to the presence of their white neighbors. Indian removal was Jackson's primary policy goal during his first year in office, and he pursued it vehemently. In particular, he convinced Congress to pass the Indian Removal Act of 1830, which authorized the coerced transfer of the Five Civilized Tribes to the newly created Indian Territory (now the state of Oklahoma).

The Choctaws, Chickasaws, and Creeks were bribed, bullied, and tricked into moving, but the sophisticated Cherokees refused to relocate. (N.B. The Cherokee nation had a written form for their language and a constitution.) Previously, when the state of Georgia tried to impose its laws on the Cherokee, the tribe filed suit in the United States Supreme Court and won the case. When he heard the result, Jackson said, "John Marshall [Chief Justice] has made his decision; now let him enforce it."

The U.S. Army forced the Cherokee tribe to relocate to the Indian Territory during the Van Buren administration. The removal process was brutal. Four thousand of the sixteen thousand tribe members died of cold, hunger, or disease along the "Trail of Tears" to their new home. One Georgia volunteer said, "I fought through the Civil War and have seen men shot to pieces and slaughtered by the thousands, but the Cherokee removal was the cruelest work I ever knew." The removal constitutes one of the most disgraceful and dishonorable actions in American history.

The removal of the Seminole Indians from Florida was much more difficult. This tribe, led by its charismatic chief Osceola, fled to the Everglades and waged the bloody, costly Second Seminole War (1835-1842) against the United States. After the war, 4,000 Seminoles were forcibly transported to the Indian Territory. Approximately 350 Seminoles remained at large in Florida, which led to the Third Seminole War in 1855.

33. Until May 1830, it was generally assumed that Vice President John C. Calhoun would be Jackson's successor. However, tension between the two men was mounting, first over Calhoun's wife's role in the Eaton Affair and then over Calhoun's role as a nullifier. The relationship was then irreparably broken by the "Crawford Letter."

When General Jackson invaded Florida during the First Seminole War in 1817, it was rumored that someone in Monroe's cabinet had criticized Jackson's actions severely and wanted him arrested and punished. Jackson had always assumed it was William H. Crawford, Monroe's secretary of the treasury, with whom Jackson had often clashed. In May 1830, William B. Lewis, a member of Jackson's Kitchen Cabinet, obtained a letter from Crawford that stated that Calhoun, Monroe's secretary of war, was the one who

harshly criticized Jackson's actions in Florida. Lewis then showed Crawford's letter to Jackson.

Jackson was furious when he read it. He forwarded Crawford's letter to Calhoun and demanded an explanation. Jackson's cover letter said, "The statements and facts" in this letter "being so different from what I had heretofore understood to be correct requires that it should be brought to your consideration." Calhoun then completely ruptured the relationship with a fifty-two-page response, which began with the statement, "I cannot recognize the right on your part to call into question my conduct." He then implied the whole thing was a setup that Crawford and Van Buren had concocted. However, Crawford's letter told the truth. When Jackson read Calhoun's reply, he decided to run for re-election and drop Calhoun from the ticket.

34. In April 1831, Van Buren approached Jackson about resigning from the cabinet. He had several reasons: he had accomplished his goals as secretary of state; he was being attacked for political purposes by John C. Calhoun; and the cabinet was racked with dissension over the Eaton Affair. At first, Jackson resisted, but after the two men discussed it, they saw a crucial possible benefit. If Jackson presented Van Buren's resignation as part of a cabinet reorganization, he could ask for the resignations of Eaton, Ingham, Berrien, and Branch without explicitly referencing the embarrassing Eaton Affair. When Van Buren told Eaton he intended to resign, Eaton volunteered to resign without being asked. Jackson then convinced the other three to leave; only Postmaster General Barry remained in place.

The final piece of the plan was Jackson's nomination of Van Buren for Minister to Great Britain. Congress was not in session, and Senate confirmation was just a formality, so Van Buren traveled to England before being confirmed. However, three men in the Senate – Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, and John C. Calhoun – aspired to the presidency and viewed Van Buren as a rival because he had Jackson's favor. Consequently, they rallied their forces against Van Buren's confirmation, and the confirmation vote produced a 23 to 23 tie. Calhoun – Jackson's vice president – broke the tie by voting against confirmation. After Van Buren's rejection, Calhoun gloated, "It will kill him, sir, kill him dead. He will never kick, sir, never kick."

But it had exactly the opposite effect. Since Van Buren had been a well-respected senator, it was evident to everyone that he had been the victim of petty politics. And Calhoun's vote was disloyal to the Jackson administration, so he was now finished in the president's eyes. Consequently, Jackson needed a new running mate for the election of 1832, and he decided it would be Van Buren. Senator Thomas Hart Benton commented that Calhoun had "broken a minister" but "elected a vice president."

35. In 1795, Jackson was involved with a speculator and promissory notes in Philadelphia and ended up in "great difficulty" that he only narrowly escaped. From then on, he was highly skeptical of promissory notes, paper money, and banks. During his first term, he was very skeptical about the Bank of the United States (BUS), the privately owned bank based in Philadelphia that handled much of the country's money.

Nicholas Biddle, chairman of the BUS, knew about Jackson's concerns and knew that the bank needed to be rechartered by 1836. He felt that if Jackson was re-elected in 1832, Old Hickory would feel free to veto the recharter since he would not be up for re-election again. So, Biddle, hoping to put election-year pressure on Jackson, applied to Congress for recharter in 1832. Biddle and Henry Clay, who strongly supported the BUS, thought that either Jackson would allow the bank recharter bill to pass or, if he vetoed it, would lose the 1832 presidential election because the public favored having a national bank. When he heard about Biddle's plan, Jackson commented, "The Bank, Mr. Van Buren, is trying to kill me, but I will kill it."

The bill to recharter the BUS passed in Congress but was killed by a scathing veto from Jackson in July 1832. He argued that the BUS was unconstitutional, even though the Supreme Court had earlier declared it constitutional in the case of *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819). In his veto message, he stated that:

> The authority of the Supreme Court must not, therefore, be permitted to control the Congress or the Executive when acting in their legislative capacities, but to have only such influence as the force of their reasoning may deserve.

In other words, he would not be bound by *McCulloch v. Maryland* because he was right, and the Supreme Court was wrong. This disdain for a Supreme Court verdict was unprecedented in American history. The only recourse available to Congress would have been to impeach Jackson, but that was not attempted because his party had majorities in the House and Senate.

36. Jackson's use of his veto power differed from his six predecessors in two ways. First, he vetoed frequently (twelve times), whereas – except for James Madison – the others vetoed rarely. John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, and John Quincy Adams never vetoed a bill. James Monroe vetoed one; George

Washington vetoed two; Madison vetoed seven. Second, they all vetoed only bills they felt were unconstitutional, whereas Jackson vetoed them for other reasons, as well.

Jackson disagreed with the idea that the only reason to veto a bill was its constitutionality. He believed that since the president is elected by *all* the people – not just a small portion like a member of Congress – he represents all Americans and can veto a bill for any reason – political, social, economic, or whatever – if he felt it would affect people negatively. The implications of such an interpretation of the role of the president were enormous. In effect, it claimed for the president the right to participate in the legislative process. Jackson invaded the exclusive province of Congress to legislate. In his view, Congress must now consider the president's wishes on all bills *before* enacting them or risk a veto. It must defer to the will of the executive if it expects to legislate successfully. Therefore, Jackson's interpretation of presidential prerogatives altered the relationship between the executive and legislative branches of government. The president was now becoming the head of the government, not simply an equal partner with the other two branches. None of Jackson's predecessors thought about the power of the presidency the way that he did. Even when they chafed against legislative restraints and tried to enlarge the presidential role, they accepted the essential premise of the Founding Fathers that Congress was the preeminent power in our republican form of government. Jackson did not.

37. In November 1832, the South Carolina Nullification Convention met and declared that the Tariffs of 1828 and 1832 were unconstitutional and unenforceable in the state after February 1, 1833. The convention stated that attempts to use force to collect the taxes would lead to the state's secession from the Union.

Jackson came out strongly against the principle of nullification and the possibility of secession. He had spent his whole life protecting the Union – from the British, from the Indians, from the Spanish – and he would protect it now from secession. He stated, "The Constitution and the laws are supreme, and the Union is indissoluble." Jackson then persuaded Congress to pass the Force Bill, which sanctioned the use of federal troops in South Carolina if necessary. He then prepared to send troops to South Carolina, but he did not send them. Instead, the Nullification Crisis ended when Henry Clay persuaded Congress to gradually lower the tariff over the next decade until it reached the levels of the Tariff of 1816 in return for South Carolina rescinding its order of nullification. The agreement is often referred to as the Compromise Tariff of 1833.

After his victory, Jackson worried that the question of secession might arise again. He commented, "The tariff was only the pretext, and disunion and a southern confederacy the real object. The next pretext will be the Negro, or slavery, question." Jackson's stance against secession helped motivate Abraham Lincoln to take the same position in 1861, i.e., that the Union is indissoluble and that the government can use force to preserve it.

38. The election of 1832 saw the first use of national conventions to nominate presidential candidates. The Democratic National Convention unanimously nominated Jackson for president and replaced Calhoun with Van Buren for vice president. The National Republican Party nominated Henry Clay for president at their convention. The Anti-Masonic Party, one of the first U.S. third parties, nominated former Attorney General William Wirt for president at their convention. In the general election, Jackson won 219 electoral votes, Clay 49, and Wirt 7. Virginia Governor John Floyd, a nullifier who did not actively campaign, won South Carolina's 11 electoral votes. Jackson viewed his resounding victory as evidence that the American people supported his "war" against the Bank of the United States.

39. In 1833, Jackson decided to "kill" the Bank of the United States by moving the federal government's money from the BUS to selected state banks. By law, the power to move the money belonged to the secretary of the treasury, not the president. The deposits could only be removed from the BUS if the secretary of the treasury made an official finding that the funds were not safe there and then communicated this finding to Congress. Presumably, Congress – the government's seat of financial power – would have to agree to the transfer of funds, but this idea had never been tested.

Jackson knew that his secretary of the treasury, Louis McLane, would not approve such a transfer, so he reshuffled his cabinet, making McLane secretary of state and appointing William J. Duane the new secretary of the treasury. Jackson assumed that Duane, who had supported Jackson's veto of the BUS recharter, would make the transfer.

When Jackson instructed Duane to make the transfer, Duane informed Jackson that the "arbitrary" act of transferring the funds from the BUS to selected state banks was unwise and improper since the House had recently concluded an investigation that affirmed the safety of the government's deposits in the BUS. Jackson immediately fired Duane and appointed Roger B. Taney as acting secretary of the treasury. Taney, a member

of Jackson's Kitchen Cabinet, promptly initiated a process designed as a fig leaf for the illegitimate removal of the funds: Rather than make a sudden gigantic withdrawal of federal funds from the BUS, the Treasury made no more deposits but continued to pay its bills with drafts on the BUS, thus gradually running down its account to zero by the end of 1833. Then, instead of putting its new tax receipts in the BUS, the Treasury placed them in state banks scattered throughout the Union. Dubbed "pet state banks," these were selected more for their political affiliation with the administration than for their financial soundness.

Jackson's actions infuriated members of the House and the Senate. In the House, Jackson's followers held a two-to-one advantage over the National Republicans, so impeachment was off the table. However, the partisan gap was much smaller in the Senate, and for the first time in American history, it voted to censure a president. The censure read:

> Resolved. That the reasons assigned by the Secretary of the Treasury for the removal of the money of the United States deposited in the Bank of the United States and its branches, communicated to Congress on the 4th of December, 1833, are unsatisfactory and insufficient.
>
> That the President, in the late executive proceedings in relation to public revenue, has assumed himself authority and power not conferred by the Constitution and laws, but in derogation of both.

However, the money remained in the pet state banks, and the BUS died when its term expired in 1836. Some of the pet state banks had connections to members of the Democratic Party.

Henry Clay was the senator who introduced the censure motion in the Senate, and Old Hickory wanted to challenge him to a duel. He raged, "Oh, if I live to get these robes of office off me, I will bring the rascal to dear account."

40. Jackson's removal of two secretaries of the treasury had no parallel in American history until 1973 when President Richard Nixon fired two attorneys general to find one who would obey his order to dismiss Special Prosecutor Archibald Cox during the Watergate scandal. Later, Nixon resigned from the presidency to avoid impeachment by the House and a trial in the Senate.

41. The pet state banks, now free from the restraints the BUS had imposed, began issuing banknotes by the basketful. These fueled rampant speculation in every kind of commodity. Jackson could not do much about speculation overall, but he decided to do something about land speculation. To curb it, he used an executive order to issue his Specie Circular (1836), which required purchasers of federal lands to pay in specie (gold or silver). When Congress passed a bill rescinding the Specie Circular, Jackson vetoed it.

The Specie Circular made it difficult for people to buy land. It also devalued paper money and caused inflation. Many at the time (and many historians since) blamed the Specie Circular for the Panic of 1837, which was followed by a devastating depression.

42. Many congressmen viewed Jackson's violation of the Supreme Court's *McCulloch v. Maryland* verdict, his veto of the BUS renewal, his effort to kill the BUS, his firing of Duane, and his implementation of the spoils system as dictatorial, and during the 1833-1834 session of Congress, they coalesced into an anti-Jackson party called the Whigs. The name derived from the British Whig Party, which opposed the monarchy.

In terms of ideology, the Whig press declared that the new coalition represented the supremacy of representative government over dictatorial rule. Jackson had paralyzed the powers of Congress through "extraordinary" exercises of the veto, they insisted. Never had there been such a rapaciousness on the part of the executive to expand the authority of his office. The basic difference between the Democratic and Whig parties, they said, was that the former would rule by executive fiat and the latter by legislative mandate. Henry Clay and Daniel Webster were Whigs. John C. Calhoun sometimes aligned with them.

As for issues, the Whig Party adopted Henry Clay's American System for their program. They favored a national bank, strong credit and currency facilities to assist the ongoing industrial revolution, and federally sponsored public works. Whigs tended to be socially conservative, economically venturesome, and politically hostile to Jacksonian equalitarianism. The Whigs included industrialists, bankers, "go-ahead" businessmen, and conservative farmers from all regions. The Whig Party later evolved into the modern Republican Party.

43. Since the early 1820s, many Americans had been emigrating to Texas, a region in the newly independent nation of Mexico. As early as 1824, Jackson supported the acquisition of Texas by the United States, primarily because he feared Texas could be "inevitably driven into alliances and commercial regulations with the European powers, of a character highly injurious and possibly hostile to this country." In 1829, he attempted

to purchase it, but Mexico refused to sell it. By 1830, there were twice as many Texas settlers from the United States as from Mexico, leading to tensions with the Mexican government that started the Texas Revolution. During the conflict, Jackson covertly allowed the American settlers to obtain weapons and money from the United States. They defeated the Mexican military in April 1836 and declared the region an independent country, the Republic of Texas.

The Republic of Texas asked Jackson to recognize and annex it. Although Jackson wanted to do so, he realized that since Mexico refused to acknowledge the sovereignty of Texas, recognizing it and annexing it might start a war. Mexican President Santa Anna came to Washington and met with Jackson, but the two could not agree on a suitable arrangement to allow the annexation. Jackson was also concerned because Texas had legalized slavery, which was an issue that could divide the Democrats during the upcoming 1836 presidential election. Jackson recognized the Republic of Texas on the last full day of his presidency, March 3, 1837, but never asked Congress to annex it.

After his presidency, Jackson played a crucial role in annexing Texas. In 1845, during the last days of the Tyler administration, Congress passed a bill authorizing the annexation of Texas as a new state under certain conditions. At the beginning of the Polk administration, the Texas legislature was debating whether to accept the conditions, and the measure's passage seemed unlikely. Realizing this, President Polk contacted Jackson and asked him to speak to Sam Houston – Jackson's close friend and Texas's most powerful politician – on behalf of the measure. Jackson was glad to do so, and with Houston's help, the bill passed in the Texas legislature, and Texas entered the Union as the twenty-eighth state.

44. After leaving the White House, Jackson remained active in politics. He strongly supported Vice President Martin Van Buren when the New Yorker was elected president in 1836. Jackson was appalled when Whig William Henry Harrison defeated Van Buren in 1840. He was pleased when Harrison died after a very short term in office, and former Democrat John Tyler succeeded him as president. (N.B. Tyler was elected vice president on the Whig ticket with Harrison but did not support some key Whig principles, e.g., a national bank.)

Jackson did not support Van Buren for president in 1844 because the Little Magician opposed the annexation of Texas. Old Hickory felt strongly that the Democratic presidential candidate should be a supporter of annexation and come from the Southwest. He summoned his protégé James K. Polk ("Young Hickory") to the Hermitage and told Polk that he should be that man. At the Democratic National Convention, Polk's supporters promoted his candidacy behind the scenes, and when the convention deadlocked, he got the nomination. In the general election, Jackson helped Polk win by convincing President Tyler not to run as a third-party candidate. Polk's victory over Jackson's archenemy, Whig Henry Clay, greatly pleased Old Hickory.

45. When Jackson left Washington after Martin Van Buren's inauguration in 1837, he said his only regrets were that he did not shoot Henry Clay and hang John C. Calhoun.

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